The recontextualisation of architecture and accounting education:

Views from the academy and the professions

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Chelsea Jane Blickem

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ABSTRACT

This thesis reports on a study of the relationship between practice and higher education. It examines the nature of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge following the recontextualisation and shift of professional learning into higher education in New Zealand. This study set out to examine how and in what way architecture and accounting knowledge and professional identity are shaped by education policy, professional practice, and other contextual influences. In part, it was prompted by a paucity of research on the effects of recontextualisation on the construction of professional disciplinary knowledge, practitioners and academics, and the framing of curriculum content in New Zealand.

Participant data for this study were collected through one-to-one interviews with practitioners and focus groups with academics. This enabled in-depth accounts of the cases of architecture and accounting together through the lenses of a range of individuals. Analysis of participant data revealed convergence across the cases of architecture and accounting, particularly in relation to how professions engaged with higher education.

The recontextualisation of professional learning into the academy was identified by participants as having created issues of authenticity, autonomy and surveillance. As a result, new practitioners were viewed as struggling to develop skills, behaviours and dispositions expected of practising professionals. Critical factors were the lack of authentic practice within curriculum, and professional learning taking place in risk-averse, highly regulated contexts as mandated by the state. Professional degree designers and teachers struggled to adequately prepare practitioners for relational aspects of practice, and did not appear to easily foster classical notions of professional identity, namely expertise, altruism and autonomy.

A critical analysis of documents that shape and otherwise have a bearing on professional learning, practice and professional identity revealed discursive effects of neoliberal education policy and a preoccupation with measurability, surveillance and employability.

There are a number of implications for both practice and higher education that can be drawn from this study. At stake is the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge and the development of professionals as autonomous experts practising in New Zealand society. Recommendations are made that point to changes that might enhance professional education programmes within higher education and that call for imagination, criticality and a re-positioning by the state and the professions. To what extent this can occur within the national and global context is the challenge that is presented.

A number of future research opportunities are identified. Investigation could continue by examining architecture and accounting knowledge, curriculum and pedagogy in more detail. This study could be replicated to consider other recently

recontextualised professional programmes and understand the influences being brought to bear. This study, then, adds to research that considers the legitimacy, power and nature of professional disciplinary knowledge, the discursive effects of a mediated, neoliberal education agenda, and relationships between the academy, practice and society.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 The origins of this study

The questions that form the basis for this study emerged from my work as an academic developer working in the polytechnic context in New Zealand. With a background in language learning, teaching and applied linguistics, my role as an academic developer had a strong focus on helping academics structure curriculum, assignments and their academic language to make their disciplinary and professional knowledge accessible to learners from all backgrounds.

There were many challenges in this academic development role. I worked with academics who were very comfortable and confident with their approaches to sharing their knowledge with learners and enabling learners to learn, and evidence of their successes was seen in the student results, positive student and external feedback and the passion the academics had instilled in their students. I worked with others who were less comfortable and less confident. Some were happy to seek advice, others were not, and a few were required to work with me in order to improve their teaching. Whatever the challenges that the academics faced in coming to terms with what they were trying to achieve in the classroom, I worked closely with them to reflect on their approaches to teaching and learning and the curriculum that guided their work, and to analyse assessment tasks and learning outcomes. We worked together to explore the underlying concepts of their discipline in pedagogical form.

Through this academic development work I became interested in investigating the teaching and learning of academic literacies and the communicative practices situated in the academy. I worked across a range of disciplines such as architecture, engineering, accounting, building technology, business studies and vet nursing. As I worked with architecture and accounting, it was apparent to me that many of the academics were grappling with issues regarding the influence and control

of professional associations on the curriculum. I wanted to understand the source and cause of some of the discomfort and tensions the academics alluded to so that I could best assist them in their conceptualisations of curriculum and pedagogy. I understood that curriculum and pedagogy needed to meet the needs of the institution and its accreditation processes, the profession and its accreditation processes, and the needs and expectations of both practice and the academy. However, neither I nor the academics seemed to fully understand how best to bring these elements together in curriculum and pedagogy. For these reasons I chose to investigate the disciplines of architecture and accounting in my doctorate study.

What this thesis provides, therefore, is an exploration of the teaching and learning of architecture and accounting within a polytechnic in New Zealand. The study considers the nature of the disciplines at a broad conceptual level and across the contexts of practice and higher education. The findings, recommendations and implications from this study are seen to relate to the wider institutional and educational context in New Zealand at a specific point in time.

1.1 Aims of this research

This study aims to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge. By this I mean the nuanced bodies of knowledge that incorporate the essential knowledges, skills, attributes and dispositions that are reflected in the architecture and accounting professions and in the academic disciplines of architecture and accounting.

My research aims to engage with professional disciplinary knowledge at a broad level given that knowledge is what informs or should inform curriculum and pedagogy. The learning and teaching of professional disciplinary knowledge within professional degrees and in practice is primarily to create and construct practitioners and professionals. My research explores how this construction occurs, what influences are

brought to bear during this process, and what the participants consider to be the process and the end results. There is a relationship between the academy and the professions which deserves scrutiny, as this is critical for the success and relevance of the qualifications.

Research that provides an analysis and perspective on particular, bounded phenomena, such as the professions of architecture and accounting in the contexts of both practice and the academy, is valuable. Such research provides an in-depth perspective across multiple contexts, incorporates and illuminates the multiple and invisible influences on teaching and learning, and provides insights into the realities of what is happening from epistemological, ontological and theoretical standpoints. A review of the literature suggests we know little about architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledges and relationships between higher education and architecture and accounting practice in New Zealand. This study aimed to enhance our understanding of these contexts, curriculum and relationships and inform ongoing considerations around the nature of professional education in New Zealand.

1.2 The context for this study

This qualitative study took place within a polytechnic within the higher education context in New Zealand, and a brief description of the recent history of New Zealand education will provide useful background information. Discussions surrounding New Zealand education in the 1970s were mindful of social and economic factors, such as the oil crisis of the 1970s, which had led to high levels of unemployment. Growing awareness of gender and racial equality led to social unrest through the 1970s and 1980s. Education was blamed for not delivering on postwar promises that being educated would lead to employment and individual economic success. Education was also seen as a vehicle that would help overcome social inequalities and enable greater equity of access to education itself. However, the 1974 New Zealand Education Development Conference, concerned mainly with the school sector, identified widespread

dissatisfaction with what participants thought to be an inadequate and unresponsive education system.

As a result, a number of rapid and far-reaching changes for all education sectors were conceptualised and realised in education policy in the 1980s and 1990s in New Zealand. At the end of the 1980s the government's response to the economic downturn was to develop policy for all public sectors, including education, that aimed to stimulate economic growth and enable New Zealand to become competitive in the global market.

The following sections specifically consider the position of the participant polytechnic in the wider context of New Zealand higher education. Later sections consider the development of higher education policy as a result of thinking about education in more economic terms and in a more market-driven and globalised way, and consider the social drivers of education policy. The impact of this policy on professional education, given the nature of this study, will also be explained.

1.2.1 The institutional context.

New Zealand tertiary education comprises a number of entities that each provides higher education programmes which range from bridging and vocational programmes through to higher and professional degrees. The wānanga[1] in New Zealand provide education in a Māori[2] cultural context, and are accountable to their local Māori tribe (iwi) and the national accrediting agency, the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA). There are a number of industry training organizations (ITOs) organised and established on a sector or industry basis. ITOs receive funding from industry and the government, and their assessment standards are registered on the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF), described in more detail later. Many ITOs have links with wānanga, polytechnics, and private training institutes (PTEs). PTEs offer a range of

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[1] Publicly owned tertiary institution that provides education in a Māori cultural context
[2] Indigenous people of New Zealand

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primarily vocational and bridging level programmes, and both ITOs and PTEs are accountable to NZQA.

There are distinct categories of universities and polytechnics in New Zealand. The polytechnic and university sectors each have their own accreditation body, and a body to whom they are accountable and which monitors their qualifications in terms of learning consistency, cohesiveness, and appropriacy. The ITPQ (Institutes of technology and Polytechnics Quality) and the NZVCC (New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee) have specific powers over their respective domains. The NZVCC has the Committee on University Programmes (CUAP) and the New Zealand Universities Academic Audit Unit (NZUAAU) to monitor university qualifications. The ITPQ works under delegation of NZQA in course approval and accreditation, and degree monitoring.

I collected the data for my research from within a polytechnic. Rather than be accountable to ITPQ, however, this institution had opted to report to and be monitored by NZQA. This decision was, I understand, built on the institution's desire to be re-designated as an *Institute of Technology* after its application to become a university was turned down in the early 2000s, when a clear government directive was issued that New Zealand could not sustain any more universities given the size of the population. Institutes of technology do not exist in New Zealand as an official designation. The polytechnic that participated in my study, then, is unique in the New Zealand context.

1.2.2 Historical overview of the tertiary sector in New Zealand.

Following the economic downturn and social unrest of the 1970s and 1980s, a number of reports were commissioned by the New Zealand government which impacted on tertiary education. These reports are discussed here. From 1987, the Treasury produced a number of documents which began to shape education as a *commodity* rather than as a *public good* (The New Zealand Treasury, 1987)*.* The *Administering for Excellence* report (Picot, 1988), prepared by the supermarket magnate

Picot following his government-appointed review of educational administration, advocated devolution and marketisation of the compulsory schooling sector (Lauder et al., 1999). The *Hawke Report* on post-compulsory education and training (Hawke, 1988) focused on achieving economic efficiencies and social equity. Hawke advocated decentralised decision-making and increased responsibility for self-financing institutions. The report provided for a national qualifications system with greater assurance of standards and enhanced access for students.

One of the major education policy initiatives in the late 1980s following the release of these reports was the New Zealand Education Act 1989. Together with its amendments, it constitutes an important document in the contemporary history of New Zealand education and has led to a number of significant changes and new directions in higher education. A number of reforms for the tertiary sector were introduced by the Act including: autonomy awarded to all tertiary institutions, introduction of bulk funding and funding categories, replacement of tertiary grants by student allowances, and the award of non-university degrees.

The key outcomes of the Act relevant for this study, however, are those which attempted to scrutinise, influence and monitor higher education activity. The New Zealand Education Amendment Act 1990 established the aforementioned New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA). The Act gave responsibility for the approval of university programmes to the New Zealand Vice Chancellor's Committee (NZVCC), and NZQA and NZVCC were required to work closely together develop and monitor university degree programmes.

In 1990 the newly created New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) sought to impose two major changes on the education system which affected the tertiary sector. The first was an eight-level National Qualifications Framework (NQF) to account for progression of learning from school through to higher degrees. The second was a system of unit

standards which allowed, in the government's view, for easy transfer and student mobility between higher education programmes and institutions.

A number of New Zealand scholars have described how the NQF was conceptualised and introduced and have discussed its impact on education and curriculum (Codd, 1996, 1997; Hall, 1995; Roberts, 1997; Walbran, 2007). In her PhD thesis, Walbran considered the historical and political events that led to the introduction of the NQF and related this in detail to its influence on curriculum and assessment within the tertiary sector. Hall (1995) critically analysed the changes that were proposed through the NQF, and suggested significant solutions. Roberts (1997) followed to provide a broad yet detailed and critical account of the NZQA reform process, acknowledging the significance of the changes and the concerns raised by many parties.

Opposition to the NQF was founded on concerns about the assumptions of and approaches to knowledge that were being made as a result of the changes envisaged through the NQF (Elley, 1995, 1996a, 1996b; Hall, 1995; Roberts, 1997). Roberts, Hall and Elley's arguments against NZQA's proposals were numerous. They argued that a unit standards approach took a rigid reductionist view of learning outcomes, disallowing integrated approaches to course design and assessment which Hall viewed as fundamental to higher and professional education. The approach taken within unit standards to combine performance criteria within learning outcomes also risked educators taking a check-list approach to curriculum and learning. Notions of competency and excellence imagined by NZQA within unit standards, Hall argued, were more suited to a discrete skills approach and were at odds with a university's focus on the synthesis and production of knowledge and development of original research.

Hall (1995) also argued that an eight-level National Qualification Framework inadequately spanned the full range of university degrees. An extended framework with ten levels would, he suggested, allow for a

greater depth and complexity within undergraduate and postgraduate degrees. What is interesting is that a ten-level framework was adopted by NZQA in 2001.

The argument that New Zealand universities already had a robust programme approval, accreditation and moderation system was also made by Hall (1995). He argued that universities did not need to comply with a national system that would result in uniformity in an attempt to create seamless education pathways and equal access to education. Hall conceded, however, that rather than attempt to merge all educational programmes to fit one system, a mechanism should be established that enabled an interface for quality assurance, credit transfer and qualification equivalence across the tertiary sector.

A clear distinction between university and polytechnic programmes was made by Hall (1995), which, however, is not sustained today. University programmes, he argued, needed to be iterative, dynamic, negotiated and distinctive as the survival of universities hinged on a certain distinctiveness manifested in programmes and their delivery. He suggested that vocational polytechnic programmes did not need to be distinct as programmes needed to meet national and industry standards.

Hall argued that the knowledge learned at university was different from the knowledge learned in other tertiary contexts, "university education is about both the acquisition and *integration* of knowledge" (Hall, 1995, p. 158). He suggested that it was more straightforward for polytechnics, wānanga and private training institutes to integrate unit standards into curriculum as the standards would be linked to the skills required by a relevant profession. Elley (1996b), in attempting to identify advantages from the proposed new framework of standards, took a similar position. Standards and modularisation are useful in vocational subjects, he argued, but not in academic subjects where knowledge is "large, loosely organised" (p. 69).

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The distinction between universities and polytechnics was inadequate as boundaries between tertiary sectors had already become blurred. Hall seemed to assume that no professional or vocational programmes existed within the universities, or that the universities dealt with those relationships effectively already, and that no academic or theoretical programmes were offered at other tertiary institutions.

Through the 1990s the New Zealand government continued to examine tertiary resourcing and there were a number of funding cuts which led to a gradual increase in student fees. During the 1990s the political and economic landscape had changed and unemployment ceased to be the problem that it had been.

In 2000, soon after a Labour government came to power, the New Zealand Ministry of Education launched a review of higher education. The Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC) was established in April 2000 and by November 2001 had started to construct a vision of New Zealand higher education and the beginnings of the Tertiary Education Strategy (TES). Examined in more detail later this chapter, higher education strategy at this time revolved predominantly around the quality of provision, increased accountability of education to the students and the tax payers, and a system that enabled recognition of learning and transfer of credit. The bulk of tertiary funding was teaching-based, and funding for research was provided for through the Performance Based Research Fund (PBRF[3]), introduced in 2003.

The New Zealand Register of Quality Assured Qualifications (the Register) was conceptualised in 2001 by NZQA as a framework for all qualifications. The Register provided a point of reference for institutions and students to identify the purpose and relationship of all qualifications, and provided a

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[3] The PBRF (Performance Based Research Fund) was introduced by the New Zealand government in 2003 to assess the research performance of tertiary institutions, to fund them on the basis of their performance in quality of research, higher degree completions, and award of external research income.

level of quality assurance for all qualifications. The original intent of the NQF persisted through this Register, although in a different form. All tertiary and university qualifications are listed on the Register. A further review of the qualifications system in 2009 led to a number of recommendations. A key change was to unify the NQF and the Register, and in 2011 the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF) was established.

The Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) replaced TEAC in 2003 and was tasked with the articulation of a vision for higher education. This resulted in the *2002/07 Tertiary Education Strategy* (TES), published in 2003 and developed under the Labour government. Key strategies that were introduced and are relevant to this thesis include the continuing focus on teaching capability, and quality of provision and systems that enable the transfer of credit.

The New Zealand government has updated and published its Tertiary Education Strategy a number of times since 2003, and there have been changes in government during this time. The approaches taken toward education policy by various governments during this period have been largely consistent and have shaped policy to enable education to achieve economic and national priorities. The *2007/12 Tertiary Education Strategy*, originally developed by the Labour government, although there was a change to a National government in 2008, continued to promote the inclusiveness of higher education, and the system of tertiary funding was changed from annual allocations to three-year investment plans. The key priorities at this time that are relevant to this thesis are the promotion of trade, vocational and professional qualifications to meet national priorities, and research connections that would create economic opportunities.

The current *2010/15 Tertiary Education Strategy* highlights the recent global downturn and local recession as helping to shape the tertiary education priorities for this period. The continuing National government shaped this strategy document. The key strategic outcome relevant to this

study is to improve the educational and financial performance of tertiary providers. This is to be achieved through reduced funding for low quality qualifications and qualifications with poor employment outcomes, and through a greater return on investment for tax payers. The intent of the policy is very clear in wanting to manage and influence higher education in specific ways. Through the Strategy the quality assurance framework will continue to be enhanced, and the role of national sub-degree qualifications will be strengthened at the expense of provider qualifications. Other priorities focus on the achievement of Māori and Pasifika[4] students, and ensuring young people gain qualifications and remain in education.

1.2.3 Education policy and New Zealand higher education.

The education reforms in the 1980s and 1990s in New Zealand have resulted in education policy influenced by political, economic and social factors. Education policy is said to exert power on society through its defined objectives and breadth of its influence, and the mirroring of state beliefs and views of education (Codd, 1988; Olssen, 2001; Seddon, 2009; Woodside-Jiron, 2011). Policy, suggests Ball (as cited in Codd, 2005), are statements of values. New Zealand education policy of the 1980s and 1990s has also been described as "an intersection of various social democratic discourses with an underlying neoliberal sub-text" (Codd, as cited in Roberts, 2005, p. 44).

Analysing the language and discourse of education policy is to interrogate the political, social and historical practices at a point in time (Olssen, Codd, & O'Neill, 2004). The transformative qualities of policy discourse should be analysed, these authors suggest, using insights derived from Foucault and his theoretical position on power, knowledge, discourse and governmentality. Such a critical approach to policy analysis will enable the reader to identify what informs policy, and the invisible power and values that have helped to create it. Policy texts possess power, argue Dale and

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[4] Pasifika refers to the indigenous peoples of the Pacific islands, including Polynesia, Melanesia, Micronesia

Ozga (1993), as they drive "moral and political legitimacy . . . and moral and economic regulation" (p. 141). It has also been suggested that curriculum shaped by policy and political statements is "curriculum by stealth" (Barnett & Coate, 2005, p. 25).

The political and economic influences on education policy in New Zealand will be addressed in the next section. The following section will consider the social drivers of education policy.

1.2.3.1 Political and economic influences on education policy.

A number of scholars worldwide (Barnett & Coate, 2005; Ensor, 2006; Young & Gamble, 2006) have suggested that contemporary higher education curricula have been influenced by neoliberal perspectives and discourse. In educational terms, according to Evans (2014), neoliberalism "induces and celebrates a performative and audit culture presaging constant surveillance in the work place through relentless assessment and appraisal exercises, the use of performance goals and indicators, heightened competition within and between disciplines and education providers, and creeping privatization" (Evans, 2014, p. 46). Indicators of this influence are, in brief:

- The commodification of education as a result of economy-led education policy;
- The indirect state control of curriculum;
- Threats to universities' hegemonic position of disciplinary knowledge producer and reproducer;
- The hidden curriculum, which embraces the implicit rules and norms and cultural capital of university study.

Full descriptions of the historical events, economic influences, political developments and changes in education policy in New Zealand over recent years have been provided in the literature (Codd & Sullivan, 2005; Dale & Ozga, 1993; Peddie & Tuck, 1995; Roberts & Codd, 2010; Thrupp, 1999; Walbran, 2007). This section will now describe these.

The beginnings of a shift toward neoliberalism in New Zealand, specifically neoliberal perspectives of education, can be identified through a number of government reports and policy in the 1980s. According to Codd (2005), Olssen (2001) and others (Olssen & Peters, 2005; Roberts, 2005; Roberts & Codd, 2010; Robertson & Dale, 2002; Simons, Olssen, & Peters, 2009b), neoliberal ideology was increasingly reflected in New Zealand government documentation through the 1980s. Reports commissioned by the government, *Administering for Excellence* (Picot, 1988), and the *Hawke Report* (1988), described earlier, introduced neoliberal influences into New Zealand education policy for the first time.

Government reforms from the 1980s, from outside the education sector but encompassing it, were brought about in order to limit the state's accountability for the provision and quality of services (Dale & Ozga, 1993). The reforms introduce "a different set of assumptions about human nature and the means by which optimal individual liberty and social welfare is secured" (Robertson & Dale, 2002 p. 465). The state, through the deregulation and privatisation of public policy and social welfare, relinquishes responsibility for the provision of social welfare and instead privileges the individual and the self. The extent of these "radical and innovatory" reforms (Dale & Ozga, 1993, p. 71) has led to New Zealand being called a "paradigm case of neo-liberal governance" (Robertson & Dale, 2002, p. 465).

Education policy documents in the 1980s and 1990s tended to link educational achievement to economic performance, and subordinate social and education policy to market flexibility and competition. Tertiary education policy Green and White papers of the 1990s, reports from the Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC) in the 2000s, and the initial Tertiary Education Strategy from 2002, emphasised knowledge and notions of a knowledge society, but with an increasing focus on the economic value to be had from knowledge and its *commodification*.

In critical and discursive analyses of the Green and White papers of the 1990s, scholars remark on the extent to which competition, marketisation, commodification of knowledge and neoliberalism are evidenced in these papers (Codd, 2002; Peters & Roberts, 1999; Roberts & Peters, 1999). The focus on and the way in which student *needs* are discursively shaped in the White Paper (Ministry of Education, 1998) re-positions students as consumers, argue Roberts and Peters (1999). Changes in governance, mechanisms demanding increased accountability, and qualifications reform articulated in the White Paper are in line with overt neoliberal and globalisation trends, argue Roberts and Peters (1999). These changes make "disheartening reading for those committed to a comprehensive, properly-resourced public tertiary education system (Roberts & Peters, 1999, p. 22).

The first of four reports aimed at re-shaping tertiary education was issued by the Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC) in 2000 (Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC), 2000). This first report, suggests Codd (2002), was "imbued with a persuasive rhetoric in which tertiary education is depicted as some kind of "holy grail" that can provide the solution to all of society's problems" (p. 38). These reports appeared to signal a move away from neoliberal policies, argues Codd (2002), towards third way politics, which he defines as "social inclusion, pluralism, and democratic involvement . . . active civil society that supports a market economy" (Codd, 2002, p. 32). The TEAC reports appeared to meet the demands of globalisation, but to fail in "the formation of citizens who are tolerant, critical and informed" (Codd, 2002, p. 55).

The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) of the 1990s, which stemmed from the 1989 Education Act, appears to be the initial manifestation of explicit political, economic and neoliberal influences in New Zealand education policy in that it represented an approach that advocated standards, outcomes, devolution and marketisation of education (Lauder et al., 1999).

A number of scholars have suggested that moves to map learning onto such a leveled framework, such as that suggested by the NQF, are made by governments when economies are under-performing (O'Neill, 2005; Strathdee, 2011a, 2011b). This is because such neoliberal moves appear to improve efficiency, encourage competitiveness, enable access and increase workforce skills. Others have suggested that such frameworks also enable the commodification of education and knowledge (Roberts & Codd, 2010; Strathdee, 2011b; Young & Gamble, 2006).

New Zealand appears to have chosen to make education policy subservient to economic purposes. An explicit attempt by the New Zealand government to conceptualise higher education as an agency which values choice, the informed consumer, competition, transferability, commodification and marketisation is described by one scholar:

> Neoliberal forms of individualism underpinned the curriculum changes of the 1990s. Changes to assessment structures, the imposition of an outcomes- or assessment-driven curriculum structure, the de-emphasising of knowledge as opposed to skills and information for the marketplace, and the commercialisation of content all reflect the penetration of this discourse into the heart of the education system. (O'Neill, 2005, p. 80)

Inter-institutional competitiveness that has resulted from a marketised higher education purportedly drives teaching, learning and research change (Roberts, 2005). Such competition repositions the institutions as being market-driven and consumer-influenced, and creates a context in which students as consumers can potentially move seamlessly between institutions (Peters & Roberts, 1999; Strathdee, 2011b).

Tertiary funding mechanisms in New Zealand increasingly privilege higher education programmes which are seen to meet economic priorities and market demands. Entirely new and occupation-specific programmes have been introduced to meet particular and temporary market needs (Bankston,

2011). Many programmes directly related to employment, however, have suffered to some extent from a lack of anticipated uptake (Strathdee, 2011b). These new programmes and curriculum developments are market-driven, competitive, and not necessarily grounded in established disciplinary bodies of knowledge or knowledge informed by robust epistemological theory. This situation is discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

The proliferation of new programmes, combined with the widening of access to higher education, has been seen to have led to "credential inflation" in New Zealand (Lauder et al., 1999, p. 24). The market-responsive nature of higher education has led to the creation of many and specialised qualifications (6000 provider qualifications existed in New Zealand tertiary institutions in 2010, currently undergoing significant review). The emphasis on *quality of provision* advocated in New Zealand education policy has led to increasing numbers of occupations wanting to demonstrate quality through higher education credentials. New academic disciplines such as tourism, e-commerce, real estate, public relations, and garden design (Lester, 2009) are credentialising themselves through qualifications. This move creates and protects the status of the occupations and regulates access to their body of knowledge, and is seen to signify quality. Such developments have again been in response to market needs, position the student as a consumer, and reflect state intervention in the performativity of higher education in the pursuit of economic and social goals.

Education policy is said to be the key to global security, economic sustainability and survival (Olssen et al., 2004) as a strong national education policy helps create a strong civil democratic state which can operate effectively in the global scene. The impact of globalisation on the education sector, particularly neoliberal globalisation (Dale, 2008), where control and influence of the nation state is reduced and barriers to free trade removed, has been examined by a number of scholars. In New

Zealand, argues Dale (2008), globalisation has altered notions and structures concerning the governance, mandate and capacity of education. This influence has manifested itself in the striving for compliance with international standards and benchmarking, a focus on competence rather than on content, the overall subscription to the notion of a knowledge society, and the ability of graduates to contribute to the notions of a knowledge economy (Dale, 2008).

Higher education is particularly attractive to globalisation as higher education is a key producer and disseminator of knowledge (Stromquist, 2002). Globalisation has also contributed to higher education adopting a more competitive approach, as education now has to develop ways to market itself (Peters & Roberts, 2000). The influence of educational technology and the ability to teach at any time and at any scale has also meant tertiary institutions need to adapt in this way or become uncompetitive.

There has been recent pressure for universities to self-finance and generate profit which has meant a reconceptualisation of higher education. As universities endeavour to replace state-funding that has been capped or removed with more entrepreneurial and commercial activities, universities are said to no longer be the place for the advancement of knowledge, they are places which capitalise on knowledge (McSherry, 2006). The phrase "academic capitalism" (McSherry, 2006, p. 867) describes this new pursuit of funding.

The requirement for universities to become self-financing has helped to foster a more consumerist stance within higher education. Naidoo and Jamieson (2006) suggest that higher education is more vulnerable to the sense of consumerism embedded within globalisation and global trends, particularly those higher education institutions with a more recent history and a weaker *academic capital*. By this I understand the authors to mean higher education institutions which focus on vocational and professional programmes and which offer less traditional academic degrees. This shift

to a more consumerist approach within higher education is also demonstrated with a word-play describing research activity within higher education, in which academics shift from "publish or perish, to patent and profit" (Abate, as cited in Stromquist, 2002, p. 128).

Current tertiary funding mechanisms appear to be shaping and influencing research. Funding is awarded to institutions in New Zealand based on results from the performance-based research funding (PBRF) assessment. Points are awarded for different research output categories, and in this way different kinds of research are valued in monetary terms. Needing to fit research to funding criteria, suggests Middleton (2009), impacts on the freedom and autonomy of academics as researchers, a position supported elsewhere in the literature (Roberts, 2007, 2014).

There has been a strong emphasis in New Zealand education policy on quality, and the means with which to provide for and safeguard quality. This has resulted in a number of surveillance and accountability mechanisms within the New Zealand higher education context. The participant institution is from the polytechnic sector, which is governed by quality assurance mechanisms in the form of degree monitoring, moderation, accreditation panels, regular internal and external review. There are other reporting requirements as required by the state and relevant professional associations. Such measures suggest the existence of an extensive surveillance regime.

Features of a higher education system that is under state surveillance and that are apparent within the New Zealand context are allegedly: defined competences and curriculum, competence-based assessment criteria, nationally developed and moderated assessment items, and compulsory training for the above (Locke, 2008; O'Neill, 2005; Sachs, 2001). Locke (2008) describes the state's surveillance of education in New Zealand using Foucault's metaphor of the *panopticon*. In an attempt ostensibly to raise achievement levels, such surveillance and teacher-proofing (O'Neill, 2005) is seen to deprofessionalise educators, disrupt the foundational

knowledge base of curriculum, alienate learners, and trivialise learning (Codd, 2008; Duhn, 2010; Locke, 2001, 2004b; Sachs, 2001; Wheelahan, 2007).

The principles, discourse and enactment of the New Zealand tertiary education strategy and education policy strongly reflect a neoliberal and outcomes-based approach to higher education. Examining the far-reaching effects of such policy on higher and professional education are essential to inform this study and will help me to explain the phenomena that I have observed in my research context.

1.2.3.2 Social drivers of education policy.

Recent New Zealand education policy has attempted to remedy access and availability of knowledge within higher education through a number of social equity measures. Special admission to New Zealand higher education for those over the age of 20 speaks of social justice and equality, massifies education and provides higher education with necessary income. Despite such a meritocratic and social democratic approach to education (Lauder, Brown, Dillabough, & Halsey, 2006), some students lack the cultural capital and family backgrounds with which to make the most of these newly opened opportunities. Rata describes what she calls education's "equality paradox" (Rata, 2008, p. 36), in that an equality of opportunity approach treats individual differences equally, but leads to unequal outcomes. The equity approach as adopted in New Zealand, on the other hand, treats individual differences unequally in order to achieve equal results. This paradox is, suggests Rata, the reason why there are ongoing disputes as to potential role of education in achieving social justice.

New Zealand's commitment to biculturalism and partnership between Māori and pākehā[5], and New Zealand's relationship with many Polynesian

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[5] New Zealanders of European descent

and Pacific communities features significantly in the *2010/15 Tertiary Education Strategy* (TES). A more substantial articulation of this relationship is beyond the parameters of this study. This commitment makes the issues of cultural capital and equity of access in New Zealand higher education critical. Students from these communities are more likely to not have the cultural capital with which to succeed in higher education, and this belief is evidenced by the Tertiary Education Strategy which has prioritised these groups of learners. Concerns have been expressed too that the equity approach to education that New Zealand has employed for many years has only increased disparity within the Māori population, and created greater ethnic division (Rata, 2008).

A number of scholars have reflected on the social consequences of the massification of higher education (Bankston, 2011; Marginson, 2006). One is an over-credentialised work force, where qualifications are required to do even the most basic of jobs and over-qualified graduates take more basic jobs (Lauder, 2011). The original egalitarian principles behind increased access are diluted as qualifications from elite institutions become a premium and are used as a means to differentiate between one graduate from another, resulting in, and reinforcing, a hierarchy of institutions who compete nationally and internationally. Research also suggests that there is no demand for large numbers of highly educated people (Brown & Lauder, 2006), with demand lessened further through globalisation and human resource mobility.

Recent New Zealand policy decisions seem to have created a tension between access equity to higher education, and the regulation of student success and choice. Government policy which caps the numbers of higher education students in specific programmes, that privileges programmes which reflect economic priorities, and that more tightly controls and links funding and student allowances to student success and programmes providing a greater return on investment (Tertiary Education Commission, 2011) are examples of this tension. One of the outcomes of such policy

appears to be a reduction in graduates with qualifications which have no perceived direct employability outcome. Students end up being limited to socialising within education with those from similar backgrounds (Bernstein, 2000; Gilbert, 2005; Maton & Muller, 2007; Moore & Muller, 1999). Open access to higher education is also being made more difficult for those who cannot support themselves without government assistance, and those who receive financial support are forced to choose programmes that meet the government's economic objectives. The social equity objectives of education therefore remain linked to class, status and access to education.

1.2.4 Structure of this thesis

This chapter has provided an overview of the historical, institutional, political, economic and social context of the study, which has helped to inform and shape the nature of the questions in my study. The next chapters provide a more detailed discussion of the literature that I have drawn on to inform and develop my theoretical perspectives and arguments. A chapter detailing the research design principles and methodologies is provided, and there are three chapters dedicated to the findings.

The first findings chapter provides an analysis of the documents that stem from professional practice and from higher education and construct the professions. Taking a critical perspective on the discourse of these documents, I highlight and discuss the influence of the documents on the contexts examined in this study, and how the documents are constructed by context. The thesis moves to then present two further findings chapters, and provides a thematic analysis of the architecture and accounting interview and focus group data.

The findings chapters are followed by a discussion chapter in which I present a number of propositions and arguments that provide answers to my research questions. The discussion chapter includes a section which relates to the application of findings. Given the interwoven nature of the

implications, limitations and recommendations from my study I chose to present these together. The conclusion ends my thesis, but, as I will suggest, my thesis has merely opened up a research pathway that can explore curriculum, knowledge, pedagogy and contextual perspectives for the benefit of professional education within today's tertiary context in New Zealand.

1.3 Chapter summary

This introductory chapter has provided a description of how the research came about. A description of the institutional context has been provided to clarify the study's relationship to the wider higher education context in New Zealand, which has also been described. A historical overview of New Zealand education policy has been given. This has been followed by a broad analysis of policy, the influences that produced it and which emerged as a result of policy. An understanding of the influences on and of higher education policy is important for this study as it helps to contextualise the phenomena that are identified in my research.

Chapter 2: Professional knowledge, pedagogies and curriculum

2.0   Introduction

The focus of this study is to investigate the construction and legitimation of architecture and accounting professionals and professional disciplinary knowledge in the current New Zealand higher education context. By legitimation, I mean the recognition via credentialisation of architecture and accounting professionals and their knowledge within the higher education and work context. This study will also examine how the move, or recontextualisation, of architecture and accounting learning in higher education occurred, its rationale and its consequences. To examine issues of legitimation I have explored via a review of some salient literature the relationship between the academy and the professions and critically examined a number of theoretical perspectives on curriculum, knowledge and the professions. This provides a conceptual framework for the generation of findings and the discussion that follow in subsequent chapters.

2.1. The evolution of curriculum in relation to professions

Curriculum has been defined and conceptualised over time in many ways and with different purposes. It can be a mechanism through which learning is planned and sequenced, and a mechanism which can suggest the mode in which learning should take place. It is historically situated, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, autobiographical, aesthetic, theological and international (Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery & Taubman, as cited in Henderson, 2005). It is highly symbolic. Curriculum within higher education is a way of legitimating, constructing and transmitting knowledge.

The traditional academic curriculum, as a blueprint for the learning that should take place within an educational experience, has its roots in Plato's education system. This originally elitist and hierarchical system, designed

to educate the wealthy classes to become future leaders, was not designed to produce new knowledge but to reproduce existing knowledge (Gilbert, 2005). The earliest European university evolved from this system in Bologna in the late eleventh century, closely followed by Cambridge and Oxford Universities. The curriculum was uniform and dominated by the Catholic Church. Medieval scholars of this time studied the liberal arts, which were divided into the Trivium (grammar, logic, rhetoric) and the Quadrivium (arithmetic, astronomy, geometry, music), before advancing to either theology, law or medicine (Bernstein, 2000; Brennan, Fedrowitz, Huber, & Shah, 1999).

Early universities in medieval Europe hosted these learned occupations and liberal arts, while practically useful, manual, applied, mechanical knowledge and occupations remained and were learned in practice (Crook, 2008; Muller, 2009). The modes of training for learned professions such as the clergy (and its offshoot, university teaching), law and medicine, were supplemented later by master-apprentice models (Larson, 1977). The choice of master was influenced by family social standing. In the pre-Enlightenment era, the distinction between professionals with specialised roles, and other occupations, appeared to be related to notions of wealth and power (Larson, 1977; Schön, 1983).

The divide between liberal and mechanical arts lessened as the artisan-engineers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries became more sophisticated and contested the elitism of the liberal arts, a movement which appeared to come about due to the emerging philosophy of egalitarianism during the Enlightenment. The increasing popularity of mechanical, inductive, scientific knowledge, at the expense of the liberal arts, has been attributed in part to "scientific productivity [which] was now the pre-eminent measure of the global university . . . propelling academic drift elsewhere" (Muller, 2009, p. 209).

The period of the Enlightenment also made education more widely available to educate not only future rulers, but also the young in an

attempt to pursue goals of social equality, justice and to socialise the young to fit into society (Gilbert, 2005; Moore & Young, 2001). Egalitarianism stipulated that all individuals were equal, but it was not until the late nineteenth century that the idea of having a universal public education system evolved.

The first schools were designed to "teach habits of the mind – respect for authority, piety, reliability, punctuality" (Gilbert, 2005, p. 51). Such aims were not necessarily academic, but were desired to socialise people to suit the anticipated needs of society and workplaces, particularly during the time of industrialisation and to support a society that needed workers who could read, write and perform arithmetic. There appeared to be clear distinctions between the workers (those that needed to acquire better habits of mind and basic skills) and the managers (those who demanded such behaviours in the pursuit of industrialisation).

Schools tasked to develop socially acceptable behaviours and dispositions reflected social, political, and economic values and expectations of the time. Curriculum was not necessarily based on theories of knowledge but was "inspired by the view that the traditional discipline of learning promotes proper respect for authority and protects traditional values" (Moore & Young, 2001, p. 447). That knowledge inherent in the educational curriculum was superior to the everyday knowledge acquired in the family and community was a common belief, and reflected once more society's liberal/mechanical and worker/manager knowledge distinction (Young, 2008).

2.2 Defining professions and professionalism

Professions as spheres of legitimised competence emerged following social and industrial developments in the post-Enlightenment period. The industrial revolution and the post-Enlightenment reforms sparked a move to recognise talent and not birth and status. Growing numbers of

practitioners, and urbanisation, which brought more practitioners to the cities, led to increased competition for roles and recognition

Competitive examination systems were introduced that enabled middle classes to enter the professions, and therefore rise up the social hierarchy (Larson, 1977). A number of occupational groups increasingly sought recognition as professions "under the umbrella of an association, institute or other body" (Crook, 2008, p. 12). New voluntary and later more regulated societies and professional associations were created, which increasingly managed entry to the professions, controlled access to practice-based knowledge, and made membership more exclusive. Professions developed norms, cultures and behaviours that shaped and governed their members, and which represented their notion of standards, ethics and values.

It was from the 1930s that thinking about the professions became more systematic through the work of a number of key scholars at the time. Carr-Saunders and Wilson listed professional traits which included service to others, personal integrity, and described professions as shaped by "extended and systematic preparation with an intellectual component taught in an institutional setting" (Crook, 2008, p. 13). In the 1950s, Parsons, describes Crook (2008), alternatively favoured a process model to describe the work and influence of professionals. Hoyle, in the pre-managerialist 1970s, described professionalism as "strategies and rhetorics employed by members of an occupation in seeking to improve status, salary and conditions" (Hoyle, 1975, p. 315), although by 2001 (Hoyle, 2001) his definition of professionalism included notions of quality.

Much of the literature concerned with the professions has struggled to provide an adequate definition of the term *profession* (Downie, 1990; Eraut, 1994; Jarvis, 1983; Larson, 1977; Locke, Vulliamy, Webb, & Hill, 2006; Schön, 1983). An essentialist, inductive approach has been taken, and lists of traits persist which often relate to the traditional professions such as teaching, medicine and law (Collins, Dewing, & Russell, 2009; Locke et

al., 2006), or, occupational groups are listed (Evetts, 2003). Evans (2011) provides a valuable summary of a number of representations of professionalism, such as occupational control, application of knowledge, standards, ethics and quality, and client relationships, and suggests that many interpretations focus on the boundaries of professionalism being externally imposed, a point that I return to throughout this thesis.

Other scholars have defined professions in other ways. Evetts (2003) describes a profession as "the knowledge-based category of occupations which usually follow a period of tertiary education and vocational training and experience" (p. 397). She goes on, however, to suggest that attention should be given to understanding the appeal of professionalism, a point that I return to. In contrast to Freidson (2001), however, who suggests that the term *profession* suffers from pretentious overtones, and prefers to use the term *occupation,* Evetts (2013) argues that to many "researchers in the field it no longer seems important to draw a hard and fast line between professions and occupations" (p. 780). Abbott, on the other hand, tries to "escape the lexical minefield that surrounds 'the professions'" (as cited in Collins et al., 2009, p. 253) and refers to the institutionalisation and embodiment of expertise.

The classical democratic professionalism triangle offers a useful framework for this study. The notion of expertise, as a quality or disposition, is one corner of the triangle. The other two corners are altruism and autonomy (Hargreaves & Goodson; Sachs, as cited in Locke, 2004b; Locke et al., 2006). One definition of professionalism below reflects this classical democratic discourse:

> An occupation whose core element is work based upon the mastery of a complex body of mastery and skills. It is a vocation in which knowledge . . . is used in the service of others. Its members possess a commitment to competence, integrity, morality, altruism, and the promotion of public good within their domain. These commitments form the basis of a social contract between a

profession and a society which in turn grants the profession the right to autonomy in practice and the privilege of self-regulation. Professions and their members are accountable to those served and to society. (Cruess & Cruess, as cited in Torr, 2005, p. 32)

Professionalism has been construed in other ways by a number of scholars and which are theoretically valuable for this study. In his attempt to explain the evolution of the notion of professionalism, Noordegraaf (2007) describes *pure* or *real* professionalism as when professionals "know and do certain things to be professional (content), and they must be part of professional associations (control) to acquire content and be regarded as professionals with special privileges . . . . it is about membership criteria as well as professional identity" (p. 766). Rejecting pure professionalism as inadequate, he goes on to argue that knowledge-, networked-, unpredictable, professional-managerial and ambiguous work contexts are shifting notions of professionalism to what he calls *purified*, *situated* and *hybridised* professionalism. He suggests too (2013) that even classical professions such as medicine and law are increasingly situated and hybrid. Building on Evetts (2003) work, Noordegraaf (2007) advocates for a form of reflexive hybrid professionalism with balances between content, social identity, organised action, and the individual.

What has led to the this evolution of professionalism is considered in some detail by Noordegraaf (2013), who acknowledges neoliberal policy and a culture of managerialism as being one cause. He suggests, however, that such blame puts "exaggerated powers in the hands of politicians and policy makers" (p. 5), and that societal changes (globalisation, digitalisation, individualisation), shifting work boundaries, and sociocultural and demographic changes in the workforce are moving the concept of professionalism away from classical democratic definitions. The cause of these other influences deserve examination, however, as there is some sense, I believe, that many could in turn stem from neoliberal policy, although Farrell and Morris (2003) agree with Noordegraaf in their

discussion of the simultaneously centralised and decentralised neo-bureaucracy that was emerging in the UK.

In her considerations of professionalism, Evetts (2003) unpacks what she calls the appeal of professionalism in her attempt to explain why professionalism holds both ideological appeal and provides a system of normative values. The ideological appeal, suggests Evetts, and reminiscent of the classical democratic definition of professionalism, stems from practitioners having an exclusive body of knowledge, power, collegiality, and autonomy. The normative system, on the other hand, imposed from within or from above, requires practitioners to reconstitute themselves in organisational and occupational forms to achieve career promotion and progress. In her later work, Evetts (2013) adds Foucauldian concepts of legitimacy to help to explain professionalism which is controlled from above or at a distance via external and often governmental means. It is the extent to which ideology or normative values influence a profession that shapes the notion of professionalism for that profession.

Evetts (2013), describing professionalism as being "used to convince, cajole and persuade employees, practitioners and other workers to perform and behave in ways which the organisation or institution deem to be appropriate, effective and efficient" (Evetts, 2013, p. 790), appears to begin to provide a partial explanation for what may be happening for participants in this doctoral study. Her description helps to describe the influences that are being brought to bear on the professional disciplinary knowledge of architecture and accounting in the current New Zealand context.

A further definition of professional is provided by Evans (2008, 2011), who describes:

> Work practice that is consistent with commonly-held consensual delineations of a specific profession or occupation and that both contributes to and reflects perceptions of the profession's or

occupation's purpose and status and the specific nature, range and levels of service provided by, and expertise prevalent within, the profession or occupation, as well as the general ethical code underpinning this practice. (Evans, 2008, p. 29)

Evans (2011) later lists the constituent elements of professionalism as being behavioural (what practitioners do at work), attitudinal (what attitudes are held), and intellectual (practitioners' knowledge, understanding and knowledge structures). I consider this framework to be a useful, more complex and nuanced description of professionalism compared to the classical definition of altruism, expertise and autonomy.

Professionalism as defined outside the profession, and defined normatively by standards and competencies, will succeed in shaping professionals' work. In her attempt to consider *demanded*, *enacted*, *reified*, and *assumed* notions of professionalism, Evans (2011) applied her constituent framework described above to teacher standards in the UK to identify how the standards influenced teacher behaviour, attitude or intellect. She argues that enacted professionalism is the only "meaningful conception" (2011, p. 862) as this best reflects the reality of what an observer can see.

It is prudent to mention at this point the arguments in the literature to do with professionalism as applied to a group, and the extent to which members of the group are homogenous in their knowledge, skills and behaviour. Evans (2008), acknowledging Hoyle's (1975) work on extended and restricted professionality, defines the individual's manifestation of professionalism as *professionality*:

> Ideologically-, attitudinally-, intellectually- and epistemologically-based stance on the part of an individual, in relation to the practice of the profession to which s/he belongs, and which influences her/his professional practice. (Evans, 2008, p. 26)

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An individual's professionality can be measured along Hoyle's extended-restricted continuum, suggests Evans (2008), where extended professionality manifests itself in an intellectual approach to work, and with theory underpinning practice. A restricted professional, on the other hand, is reliant on experience and focuses on the day-to-day classroom. This point is theoretically valuable for this study as it reminds me of the difficulty in making generalisations from this study, but also to what extent the curriculum under scrutiny in this study helps to shape notions of extended or restricted professionality in architects and accountants.

Professions are embedded in social and economic contexts, and social constructivist theories that acknowledge this position are valuable for the focus of this study (Beck & Young, 2005; Sachs, 2001; Vu & Dall'Alba, 2011; Wheelahan, 2010). A social constructivist lens views the professions as "a historically situated concept susceptible to different constructions according to time, place, policy environment and the discursive disposition of . . . its advocates and critics" (Locke et al., 2006, p. 558). This description helps to explain the extent of managerialist influence in the broader context of neoliberal thinking on the professions over the past 30 years (Codd, 2008).

Over time professions have defined their own universalistic principles and taken control of and derived power from a unique area of expertise and knowledge. In carving out a niche for their exclusive knowledge of a practice deemed useful to society, professions were creating a sense of "cognitive exclusiveness" (Larsen, 1977, p. 15). To define their zones of competence and operation, professions have laid out their expectations around learning, training and competence, which are examined later in this chapter. How professions define their exclusive knowledge is considered in the following section within a wider framework of theories of knowledge and coming to know.

2.3 Conceptualisations of curriculum and knowledge

The meaning of knowledge appears to be taken for granted, elusive and insubstantial, although the term *knowledge* appears to provide a sense of certainty (Young, 2009). Knowledge is rarely defined but is discussed in terms of how it is acquired, applied or transmitted (Thompson, 2009; Young, 2008). This appears to be true in the case of New Zealand higher education policy documents, examined in Chapter 5, in which the word knowledge is used without explanation as if its meaning is a given (Ministry of Education, 2010). This also appears to be the case for other higher education contexts such as the UK, South Africa and Australia (Barnett & Coate, 2005; Luckett, 2009; Shay, 2012; Wheelahan, 2010; Young, 2008).

How curriculum is constructed hinges on views of knowledge and the perceived methods for acquiring and validating knowledge. Historically, curriculum was viewed as a blueprint and as being static and prescriptive. Richer conceptualisations of curriculum have emerged, however, that suggest curriculum cannot be static as knowledge itself is not static. Such conceptualisations of knowledge and coming to know are discussed in the following sections.

There are a number of long-held binary distinctions on theories of knowledge, or epistemology. Distinctions have been made, for example, between *subjective* knowledge, an individual consciousness or disposition to behave or react, and *objective* knowledge, which Popper (1979) describes as theories which exist independent to an individual's claim to know. In relation to the latter, knowledge has been defined as justified, objective true belief in the form of rationalist propositions (Bereiter, 2002).

Knowledge has been described as a sense of *personal knowledge*, or *knowledge by acquaintance*, which suggests that we know something through our senses and the object's characteristics (Eraut, 2000, 2004c; Winch, 2013a). Eraut describes personal knowledge as:

The cognitive resource which a person brings to a situation that enables them to think and perform. This incorporates codified knowledge in its personalised form, together with procedural knowledge and process knowledge, experiential knowledge and impressions in episodic memory. Skills are part of this knowledge, thus allowing representations of competence, capability or expertise. (2000, p. 114)

This concept of personal knowledge is valuable for this study as it captures what an individual professional can bring to practice, how they construct theoretical and practical knowledge, and how they apply such knowledge alongside personal and contextual knowledge to arrive at a suitable outcome. This is the process of developing and exercising professional expertise, judgement and autonomy, which are some of the critical skills for professionals and features of classical democratic definitions of professionalism.

Distinctions have also been drawn in the literature between knowledge that is propositional, theoretical, inert, readily codified in curriculum, *knowledge that* in other words, and a more dynamic, non-propositional, context-dependent *knowledge how*. *Knowledge how* is drawn from the field of practice and draws on *knowledge that* and *knowledge by acquaintance* in that together a person has the knowledge capacity to do something with the knowledge (Winch, 2013a). These distinctions have also tended to be binary, and described according to the context in which they are found. These knowledges and the relationship between them are considered in the following sections.

2.3.1 Theories of knowledge and coming to know.

Knowledge within higher education is largely knowledge that reflects traditional notions of an academic discipline. What counts as a discipline deserves exploration. The excerpt below provides a definition of

disciplines and emphasises the importance of disciplinary knowledge in relation to knowers:

> All disciplines, in order to be disciplines, have shared objects of study, and in order to be robust and stable, display objectivity . . . they possess legitimate, shared and stable reliable means for generating truth. Truth is, by this account, a stable relationship between the objects of study and an informed community of practitioners. (Young & Muller, 2010, p. 21)

Knowledge within academic disciplines is theoretical, cognitive, hierarchical, and tends to preserve its form. This *know that* knowledge has been described as Mode 1 knowledge and is: "generated within a disciplinary, primarily cognitive, context" (Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, & Scott, 1994, p. 1). Mode 1 knowledge is "accumulated through the professionalisation of specialisation, largely institutionalised in universities" (Gibbons et al., 1994, p. 9). This perspective is valuable in that architecture and accounting professions have moved into the higher education context and are in many respects undergoing a process of institutionalisation, or recontextualisation.

Dynamic, *know how* knowledge, constructed and used by specific groups, which sits outside traditional academic disciplines and is produced in non-university contexts has been described as Mode 2 knowledge (Gibbons et al., 1994). Mode 2 knowledge is formed in the context of application, or practice, is heterogenic, more transient and more socially accountable. It includes a wider more temporary set of practitioners, collaborating on a problem defined in a specific and localised context, and describes how professional disciplinary knowledge such as accounting and architecture was historically developed and learned. Mode 2 knowledge develops its own distinct features and becomes a sum of parts of new and existing disciplinary knowledge and is "created in broader, transdisciplinary social and economic contexts" (Gibbons et al., 1994, p. 1).

The dichotomy between Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledges, however, has been called into question. Mode 2 does not sit in opposition to mode 1, but is an:

> Adjunct. The significance of Mode 2 lies . . . with the rich cross-fertilisation it brings to bear between different disciplinary knowledge and between formal and tacit knowledge in multiple contexts of application. (Kraak, 1997, p. 63)

Hierarchical forms of knowledge which integrate knowledge at all levels, described above as Mode 1, are homogeneous and uniform. Hierarchical knowledge structures, such as physics, have a "coherent, explicit and systematically principled structure, hierarchically organised" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 160).

Knowledge constructed within and for specific purposes of practice has been described as a model of horizontal discourse (Bernstein, 2000), which Bernstein defines as "oral, local, context dependent and specific, tacit, multi-layered and contradictory across but not within contexts" (p. 157). Horizontal discourse knowledge is segmentally organised, resulting in different knowledges that are not related and do not depend on each other. The learning is limited to the immediate context or experience and as such occurs face-to-face in community and peer group contexts. In these ways, horizontal discourse knowledge is very similar to Mode 2 knowledge.

How professionals acquire tacit, practice-based knowledge can be explained as a process of learning unwritten rules. Bernstein attempts to describe the learning of craft apprenticeship, philosophy, and sociology, for example, through his theory of *horizontal knowledge structures.* Bernstein argues that horizontal knowledge structures, depicted in figure 1, require the learner to learn the rules, or grammar, of the knowledge. There are disciplines with strong grammars which have explicit, precise and formal rules such as Economics, Linguistics, and Mathematics. Sociology,

Cultural Studies and Social Anthropology are listed as examples of weak grammars where the legitimacy of the body of knowledge is unclear and where learners experience doubt and uncertainty. Horizontal knowledge structures with weak grammar are deprived of a way in which to evolve, and are characterised by "short-term obsolescence" (Maton & Muller, 2007, p. 24).

$$L^1 L^2 L^3 L^4 L^5 L^6 L^7 .... L^n$$
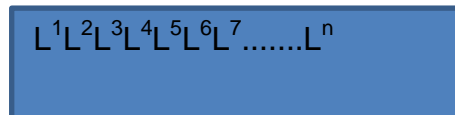
Figure 1. Bernstein's model of horizontal knowledge structure

Defining practice-based knowledge is more difficult, too, because of the distinctions that exist between different kinds of knowledge in practice. Codified, public knowledge made explicit through artefacts such as training materials, manuals, workplace information, correspondence, is one form, and non-codified, tacit workplace knowledge is another (Eraut, 1994, 2004c). The latter is not necessarily explicit, and is informally acquired through participation in social interactions. The difficulty in articulating all practice knowledge in propositional form can be described using the metaphor of an iceberg (Eraut, 2004b). The knowledge that is visible through observable actions, the ice above the water, is easily codified. There is, however, another bulk of hidden knowledge that is tacit and less visible, professional knowledge that represents itself as skills, dispositions and behaviour, and how a professional relates to society and clients.

Propositional, uniform *know that* knowledge is intrinsic to the production of knowledge in the intellectual field, and has been called singular (Bernstein, 2000). Singular knowledges are shaped by "a specialised discrete discourse with its own intellectual field of texts, practices . . . protected by strong boundaries and hierarchies (Bernstein, 2000, p. 52).

The coming together of singulars, or propositional knowledge, with knowledge from the field of practice creates a new sphere of knowledge, which has been described as a region (Bernstein, 2000). Regions are "the interface between disciplines (singulars) and the technologies they make possible" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 52). Regions face inward toward the knowledge base and outward toward practice and application. The singulars that constitute a region such as medicine, for example, may be discrete bodies of knowledge such as biology and maths, combined with more dispositional bedside manner and relational skills. In this way, the projected identity from practice begins to influence the identity being constructed in the academy. Within each region there will be power plays as to which singular is dominant at any point in time, and which knowledge is legitimate. Previously strong boundaries of disciplines, or singulars, appear to have weakened boundaries around their sphere of knowledge as a result of regionalisation. What effect this process of regionalisation may have on professional disciplinary knowledge is considered later in this chapter.

These various distinctions around knowledge appear, however, to inadequately describe professional disciplinary knowledge. Professional disciplinary knowledge is more akin perhaps to a region for a number of occupations, than something singular. Propositional, singular knowledge appears to be inadequate on its own in the construction of new professionals, as it does not help to develop other relational and identity aspects of being professional. Knowledge from practice is perhaps too general to account for specific practice. There is a sense that the knowledges of both practice and higher education are both distinctly valuable as to what they each provide professionals and how they help to develop professionals. Combined, these knowledges have the potential to create rich learning opportunities for professionals (Adams, Daly, Mann, & Dall'Alba, 2011; Barnett, 2009; Barnett & Coate, 2005; Dall'Alba, 2009; Shulman, 2005; Wheelahan, 2010; Young & Muller, 2010). To what extent this coming-together occurs and adequately constructs professional

disciplinary knowledge for architecture and accounting is examined in this study.

2.3.2 Social constructions of professional knowledge.

Social theories of learning consider the importance of social interactions and the field of practice in the construction and acquisition of professional knowledge. Such theories consider the roles of pedagogical practice, contexts and community in knowledge production and acquisition. These theories help to explain a number of phenomena related to the construction of professional disciplinary knowledge and professionals, such as how people come to know and how they develop as experts and professionals, how knowledge constructed in one context is made useful for another context, and how knowledge is acquired. This section will unpack a number of key theoretical tenets from educational literature which have helped to inform this study to provide answers to the research questions.

Theories of social constructivism and social realism have challenged and extended previously held views on philosophical and cognitive theories of learning. Professions can be viewed as socially constructed entities whose knowledge is mediated by the community of knowers and is based not only on learnt, internalised, embodied knowledge and skills (Schatzki, Cetina, & von Savigny, 2001), but also on knowledge and skills that are a group's response to external requirements. This premise is assumed by Bernstein (2000) in his theory on regions and singulars, and with reference to the inner and outer knowledges conceptualised with the Trivium and Quadrivium. The Trivium enabled scholars to develop their thoughts, their *inner*. The Quadrivium was more an exploration of the world and enabled scholars to connect with their *outer*. This inner/outer distinction appears to explain how an individual's professional identity emerges in relation to external influences and in response to the development of one's inner (Bernstein, 2000). The shape of one's professional identity, therefore, depends not only on theoretical knowledge but also on the extent to which

one conforms to external *outer* professional, educational and political influences. If a professional chooses to or is required to lean too far toward an external influence, the more the individual, suggests Bernstein, is distanced from his or her inner. The extent to which this notion is valuable will be become clear as we consider external influences on professional disciplinary knowledge.

Assuming a social realist perspective as a theory of learning means that social structures and communities of learning, and in the case of this study, the professional practice communities, can be viewed as spaces which foster the development of the individual rather than spaces that replicate and reproduce. Distinctions can be made between the different contexts of production (practice) and reproduction (higher education), and acknowledge that the reproduction context and process alone is inadequate (Bernstein, 1977, 2000; Maton & Moore, 2010; Moore, 2012; Muller, 2000; Wheelahan, 2010; Young, 2008). Reproduction is also reductive (Young, 2008), and reproduction works in opposition to a social realist position because "knowledge cannot be reduced to the activities and interests of those who produce or transmit it" (p. 94). How knowledge is regarded and reproduced depends on those who are leading the reproduction, and reproduction does not necessarily allow for other more relevant influences to play a part. This is not a problem if learners and teachers have prior or ongoing access to the foundational components of the knowledge, but is a problem if this curricular approach is a reductive move making the subject matter easier to handle or codify (Bereiter, 2001).

Professional learning, therefore, needs to be thought of as situated, and involve some notion of community; professionals cannot develop in isolation or removed from practice (Dall'Alba, 2009; Doll, 1993; Heidegger, 1962; Lave and Wenger, 1991). The notion of community in professional learning is constituted as a result of the intertwined nature of professional practices, attitudes and cognitive styles with the knowledge of professions and academic disciplines (Becher & Trowler, 2001). Communities such as

this have been described as *tribes* (Becher & Trowler, 2001), *discourse communities*, *disciplinary communities*, *disciplinary clusters* (Biglan, as cited in Muller, 2009), and *communities of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991). As described earlier, the personal knowledge, actions and beliefs of individuals who engage with professional learning also need to be acknowledged in the learning process (Evans, 2008).

Community of practice (CoP) theory asserts that learning occurs through becoming a participant and member of a community of practice (Cairns, 2011; Lave & Wenger, 1991). A community of practice has been defined as "a set of relations among persons, activity and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98). Lave and Wenger's CoP theory has made a significant contribution to narratives that examine and frame work practices in which a novice moves from legitimate peripheral participation to full participation, and toward progressively becoming more expert and professional (Saunders, 2006). Lave and Wenger argue from an anthropological perspective that practice knowledge is contextual, and the acquisition of knowledge is contingent upon participation in collective practices and "an integral part of generative social practice in the lived-in world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 35). They also suggest that their interpretation of situated practice is manifested in the relational character of knowledge and learning and the engaged nature of learning activity for the people involved.

The enculturation and transformation of the individual and the individual's identity as he/she moves from the periphery of the community of knowers, toward more legitimate and full participation, is how Lave and Wenger (1991) describe the acquisition of knowledge by apprentices. Legitimate peripheral participation means offering opportunities to newcomers to co-participate in the practices of the ambient community with a view to gaining full membership.

Community of practice theory, however, inadequately describes professional learning, and has been criticised on a number of grounds. Lave and Wenger's theory is seductive and aids our understanding of the relationship between learning and work, but it undervalues other learning and training contexts (Saunders, 2006). CoP is general, fails to encompass all types of workplace learning (Fuller, Hodkinson, Hodkinson, & Unwin, 2005), and does not account for the huge variance in individual and socially situated knowledges in relation to a rapidly changing postmodern world (Eraut, 2004c). Lave and Wenger's work, Eraut suggests, is based instead on relatively stable communities with shared common knowledge and common learning goals. It also overlooks discursive contestation within so-called communities.

Community of practice theory has also been applied in an imprecise and overly frequent way. There are other ways to conceptualise collaborative situated practice and knowing in action (Amin & Roberts, 2008). Amin and Roberts offer a heuristic which attempts to demonstrate the need for variety in conceptualisations of communities of practice, rather than be tempted to perpetuate a "new orthodoxy . . . . formulaic distillation" (Amin & Roberts, 2008, p. 353) of community of practice theory to explain all types of situated learning. Professional knowledge can be distinguished from other types of knowing in action by describing it as a co-located, specialised, protected form of knowledge which requires mastery of tacit, codified and embodied knowledge through social interaction.

Professionals become members of their practice communities through a process of socialisation, during which time new members are given access to tacit, specialised, and theoretical knowledge, symbols and behaviours. Individuals assume elements of the identity of the group through education pathways and rites of passage. This study examines how professional pedagogies and curriculum achieves this in the current New Zealand context for the architecture and accounting professions.

2.4 Developing professionals through pedagogies and curriculum

Traditional professions such as architecture, accounting, law and medicine appear to enjoy a close articulation between the profession and the discipline and appear to have created robust communities of practice in the true sense of the meaning. These professions appear to have ensured a deep induction into professional values, standards, judgement and loyalty to the profession (Beck & Young, 2005). The characteristics that these robust disciplines seem to share are being research-rich, and having strong academic identities with strong disciplinary knowledge foundations. The study examines the veracity of this perception for architecture and accounting in New Zealand, and how this might be achieved through pedagogies and curriculum.

One might expect professional pedagogy and curriculum to result in practitioners who possess core, foundational, practice-based and theoretical knowledge. Practitioners should embody what it is to be a professional, have constructed their professional identity through practice, and be able to use their judgement and expertise, their "inner compass" (Krejsler, 2005, p. 348), to make informed decisions. There are a number of ways in which scholarly and professional activity have been described to achieve this. Theoretically valuable for this study is the premise that professional learning is a dynamic, non-linear, situation-dependent, context-influenced process that has no definitive end point and a number of possible development trajectories (Cheetham & Chivers, 1996; Chown & Last, 1993; Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006; Eraut, 2005; Torr, 2005). The non-linear model advocated by Clarke & Hollingsworth, cited in Evans (2014, p. 186) is useful as it incorporates the domains of personal, external, practice and consequence, but inadequately, argues Evans, pays attention to reflection and enaction for understanding how professionals develop. Professional development is not a linear, staged, outcomes-dependent, novice-to-expert process focusing on competency, as argued

by Dreyfus, Dreyfus and Athanasiou (1986), and this study helps to demonstrate why.

The Dreyfus model has been criticised on a number of grounds, and these arguments are useful for this study as they help to describe how architecture and accounting disciplinary knowledges are learned. The Dreyfus model inadequately describes how professionals need to be able to explain their actions to clients (Eraut, 2005). To be professionally competent requires a continuous non-linear integration of new skills and knowledge (Torr, 2005). The importance of the individual, in terms of what s/he brings and how s/he might develop, relates to earlier explanations of personal knowledge (Eraut, 2000; Evans, 2008), and is neglected in the Dreyfus model. Professionals develop an embodied understanding of practice which varies according to the individual and her/his experience, resulting therefore in multiple development trajectories (Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006).

An examination of the literature thus far in this chapter has argued that professional disciplinary knowledge is a blend of propositional and practice-based knowledge, is not static, uniform, hierarchical, easily codified, and differs between contexts, practices and practitioners. Professional learning, pedagogies and curriculum cannot therefore be linear and static. How this perspective relates to current conceptualisations of architecture and accounting curriculum is a focus of this study.

A number of theoretical standpoints are useful at this point as they offer ways in which professional pedagogies can be conceptualised by meshing scholarly and professional activity. The relationship between a professional's identity and the knowledge that forms such an identity appears to be interdependent (Beck and Young, 2005; Young, 2008; Muller, 2009; O'Connor, 2007). The notion of *habitus* (Bourdieu & Nice, 1990), suggests a sense of embodied professional identity and achieves the "synthesis of the epistemological, ontological and embodied aspects of

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self . . . how people act in real life situations" (Webster, 2008, p. 69). Professional habitus (O'Connor, 2007) is relevant to notions of professional learning as it accounts for the person who aspires to become a professional and accounts for the discipline with which the profession is associated. It challenges curriculum and pedagogy to take account of the individual and is derived from both scholarly and professional activity.

Reflective practice, as a professional pedagogy, has been viewed as an activity through which professionals develop professional expertise and learn to exercise professional judgement (Schön, 1983). Reflection-in-action, as an intuitive art which is gradually developed through applied, unpredictable professional contexts, is theoretically valuable for this study. It stands to some extent in opposition to the dominant model of inert, propositional, epistemological theories, and stable, fixed parameters and boundaries of what is known, although it inadequately describes professional learning, given the position taken in this chapter to this point.

Schön's reflection-in-action has been variously critiqued (Eraut, 1995, 2004a, 2004b; Mezirow & associates, 1990; Webster, 2008). Professional knowledge that is objective and theoretical should not be entirely discarded (Kinsella, 2007). Reflection is not a passive, intuitive process, but is active and requires critical thinking, evaluation and synthesis (Mezirow & associates, 1990; Eraut, 1995). Eraut (2005) suggests that the professional needs to clarify the purpose and subject of reflection, and needs space to reflect *on* action. How reflection on practice can occur in the higher education context, however, is unclear given difficulties around access and proximity to, and replication of practice.

Combining theoretical knowledge with professional practice underpins the notion of pedagogical praxis, which extends the work on communities of practice by separating out the layers of learning and putting them back together in ways that recognise changing social and economic contexts (Shaffer, 2004b). Pedagogical praxis uncovers:

> The principles embedded in existing learning practices (a problem of cognitive anthropology and descriptive ethnography), develop[s] technologies to help students participate in these practices (a problem of engineering and technology development), and then create[s] experimental learning environments designed to develop life skills through participation in a community of practice. (Shaffer, 2004b, p. 1405)

These communities are framed by a "grammar of culture" (Shaffer, 2005, p. 3). This grammar incorporates both epistemological and ontological factors which underpin the way in which a community of practitioners operates, is constituted, shapes and legitimates knowledge, and the participatory conventions that members of the community adhere to within the community (Shaffer, 2005). The coupling of epistemology and practice can also create "thickly authentic learning contexts" (Shaffer, 2005, p. 4).

Drawing on Schön's theory of reflective practice, pedagogical praxis suggests that professional practices reflect distinct epistemologies which overlap and intersect with traditional academic disciplines. By this I mean that established, practice-based pedagogical tools can be incorporated and developed into the pedagogical practice to suit the epistemology of a profession and its practice. Such a notion is common, and others have suggested that different forms of knowledge demand different and specific pedagogical and curriculum tools (Bernstein, 2000; Shulman, 1986; Young & Muller, 2010).

The theory of signature pedagogies appears to describe the engagement and socialisation of the professions with their novices (Shulman, 2005). Shulman provides suggestions on how novices are inducted and socialised into professions through particular teaching approaches. These approaches address what it means to think, act and perform as a professional and with integrity. Despite his emphasis on habits and habitualising ways of thinking and performing, Shulman insists that pedagogical inertia is unlikely as these professions adopt changes in

practice with ease. While this theory does not adequately describe the shift of professional learning within higher education, it does address notions of socialisation, professionalism and difference between practice contexts that are valuable for this study.

Discussion on how a more formal higher education curriculum and pedagogy should be conceptualised, that incorporates both scholarly and professional activity and in ways that achieve professional learning and professional identity, has revolved around to what extent professional curriculum should be epistemologically or ontologically-constructed. In other words, adopting an epistemologically constructed curriculum that is propositional, inert, conceptual, theoretical and represents theorised practice, or an ontologically-constructed curriculum which attends to the development of the individual, identity, skills, dispositions and practice thereof. Barnett (2009) describes this distinction as "knowledge (existing as a collectively attested set of understandings in the world) and knowing (an individual's personal hold on the world)" (p. 423).

Being able to respond to different situations in individualised ways in practice is critical for professionals and is, in a sense, an epistemological disposition. There is a sense of epistemological uncertainty in that professionals need to be more tolerant of change and able to respond differently, as fixed, static responses are not possible in professional practice. Approaches to professional education that do not provide for professionals to be epistemologically tolerant of unpredictability and uncertainty will be inadequate for practising professionals in unpredictable and evolving contexts.

The way in which a professional must be able to deal with unpredictability is described in two ways, in that both the knowledge being used and the contexts in which it is used are changing constantly:

> The dilemma of the professional today lies in the fact that both ends of the gap he is expected to bridge with his profession are changing

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so rapidly: the body of knowledge that he must use and the expectations of the society that he must serve. (Brooks, as cited in Schön, 1983, p. 15)

The ability to respond to unpredictability and exercise professional judgement should be key outcomes of professional learning, as argued by Schön, and help define what it means to be a professional.

A professional curriculum which comprises ontological perspectives and which enables professionals to become ontologically capable of adjusting behaviours and ways of being, and which incorporates epistemological components, appears to be what is needed in order to construct graduates capable of moving into practice. This position is supported in the literature. What is needed in addition to propositional conceptual knowledge are both context and features that develop professional identity, an ontological perspective. What professional development also needs to include are ways in which professionals can develop their behaviour, their professional intellect, attitudes and ways of thinking, as well as mechanisms to enhance the cognitive internalisation of what it means to be a professional (Evans, 2011; 2014). An inert, propositional, conceptual curriculum is insufficient (Adams et al., 2011; Barnett, 2004, 2009; Dall'Alba, 2009; Wheelahan, 2010).

A number of possibilities for such a curriculum have been provided in the literature. One solution is a form of epistemologically informed ontology, as there are limitations in moving purely to an ontologically based curriculum as "using the ontologically oriented perspective will imperceptibly turn professional identity into a self-evident phenomenon . . . whose epistemological foundations have themselves not been questioned" (Krejsler, 2005, p. 338).

A curriculum that is socially constructed, with clear distinctions between domains of knowledge and curriculum and pedagogy, and between subject-content and information, is another solution (Young & Muller,

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2010). Such a curriculum safeguards foundational, conceptual bodies of knowledge from external influences, and acknowledges ways of engaging with and responding to knowledges which exhibit and possess an inherent sequence and level of difficulty, Young and Muller's (2010) Future 3 curriculum appears to suit these requirements.

In their eyes, a Future 3 curriculum is epistemologically grounded and allows for clearly defined new disciplines to emerge in a coherent manner from a stable core. It allows for attention to the ontological development of the learner in contemporary social contexts, where new and different dispositions and qualities are taught through being and becoming, rather than as discrete knowledge items, thereby promoting a sense of social justice. A Future 3 curriculum requires teachers to be knowledge specialists first, learning specialists second. Although Future 3 was not specifically designed for professional learning and pedagogies, the way in which learning, learners and context are conceptualised in this model does make it valuable to help meet the requirements for professional learning that have been described so far in this chapter.

The Future 3 curriculum is an alternative to the Future 1 curriculum (Young & Muller, 2010), which perpetuates a two-tier elitist educational system in which concerns over power, knowledge and justice remain, and where knowledge remains under-socialised and distant from knowers. The Future 2 curriculum, which is perhaps the curriculum being constructed by current neoliberal New Zealand education policy, removes boundaries and a de-differentiation occurs between knowledges and disciplines. Such a curriculum may be considered a form of critical pedagogy and a means to address social justice issues, rejecting elitist forms of knowledge in favour of inclusive and diverse epistemologies and practices (McArthur, 2010). However, the current Future 2 approach is leading to a blurriness, is modular, and is leading toward competence-based learning which will result in an "erosion of expertise" (Young & Muller, 2010, p. 21).

Ontological perspectives in curriculum and education policy appear to be neglected in neoliberal skills-focused thinking, which instead seems to encourage graduates and workers who are able to do, rather than workers who are able to judge and reflect. This distinction is described as "acting being[s] as opposed to cognitive being[s]" (Barnett, 2009, p. 430), and this position is supported by other scholars (Barnacle & Dall'Alba, 2008; Barnett, 2009; Barnett & Coate, 2005; Dall'Alba, 2009; Doll, 1993; Schön, 1983). The acting being will struggle to survive and succeed in our current working contexts shaped by change and unpredictability, as she lacks a firm, conceptual body of knowledge and the skills with which to acquire and demonstrate judgement and expertise:

> Knowledge will not just be out of date, but will always be insufficient to describe the novel and unstable situations that present themselves; on the other hand, skills are always addressed to known situations, and cannot be addressed to unforeseen (and unforeseeable) situations. (Barnett, 2009, p. 439)

Having considered how professional learning can and should be conceptualised in curriculum and pedagogy, the discussion will now focus on how the context of higher education, and the recontextualisation of professional learning into higher education, and the extent to which the idealised notions of professional pedagogies and curriculum can be realised in the current higher education context in New Zealand.

2.5 Reconstituting knowledge between higher education and practice

Broad conceptualisations of knowledge and curriculum, and those specifically related to the professions, have been explored so far in this chapter. What has also emerged from the literature is a sense of how the knowledges constructed and privileged by these two contexts are legitimated and negotiated in the construction of new professionals, and in

the move of knowledge from the field of practice into the academy. The final sections of this chapter examine this phenomenon.

It is important to consider each context and their relationship to come to understand the influence that context has on professional learning and disciplinary knowledge. The tendency to emphasise skills, competencies, and employability in the higher education curriculum, for example, appears to be the result of neoliberal influences in education which aim to make transparent the behavioural and performance aspects of knowing how, to emphasise skills that can directly relate to the labour market, and to position skills as currency (Dall'Alba, 2009; Olssen & Peters, 2005; Roberts, 2005; Thompson, 2009; Wheelahan, 2007; Winch, 2013c; Young, 2008; Young & Muller, 2010). To construct professional curriculum in higher education requires the fusion of discipline-based propositional knowledge with the practical application of knowledge specific to the particular profession and with sufficient features so as to be granted academic status (Bromme & Tillema, 1995). To what extent, then, professional learning from practice and professional curriculum in higher education can be constructed in ways that suit the nature of the knowledge, that incorporate legitimate features of practice and opportunities to practice, that successfully broker the interdependence between propositional and practical knowledge and which meet the expectation of the state's education policy agenda, is a key focus of this study.

We know little about the influences that are being brought to bear on architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge, practice and curriculum in New Zealand. The professions in New Zealand have had a relationship with higher education that has often mirrored and been linked to developments in professional education worldwide. Educational, social and economic trends in New Zealand frequently reflect those seen in the UK and Australia and such similarities are noted in the literature (Yates & Collins, 2010; Yates & Young, 2010; Young & Gamble, 2006).

Literature emerging from the New Zealand context and pertaining to the professions has predominantly come from the profession of teaching in the compulsory sector (Codd, 2008; Duhn, 2010; Locke, 2004c). Literature emerging from the UK, USA and Australia tend to refer to teaching and health professions (Amin & Roberts, 2008; McNamara, 2010) as barometers for change within professions, and the health sector is said to exhibit characteristics common to a wide range of professions (Amin & Roberts, 2008). These public professions have had significant changes imposed upon them as the state has attempted to instantiate neoliberal discourses in public policy. Nursing in the UK, for example, became a graduate profession in the 1990s following long industrial disputes around pay, conditions and parity of esteem with others in their field. Questions continue to be asked, however, as to the legitimacy and shape of nursing as an academic discipline (McNamara, 2009), and what is happening to the nursing profession as a result of the move to become an academic discipline. Such research is valuable for this study as it explores professional disciplinary knowledge in practice and the academy in New Zealand.

A close relationship between propositional and practical knowledge is valuable as the concept of expertise is implied in the inferential relationship between "knowledge how to do certain kinds of things . . . but also knowledge of particular subject matters" (Winch, 2013a, p. 131). This blend of knowledgeable action and *know how* is a feature of classical definitions of professionalism, and enables development of professional expertise and the ideal sequencing and hierarchy of learning according to how a body of knowledge is systematically organised, or the "epistemic ascent" (Winch, 2013a, p. 134) of knowledge. The following sections examine how propositional and practical knowledges may be brought together and given legitimacy, and how the process of legitimation in turn can affect the construction of professionals and professional disciplinary knowledge.

2.5.1 The effects of relocating professional disciplinary knowledge into the academy.

It has been established that defining the relationship between knowledge within higher education and knowledge in practice is problematic. When knowledge is moved between contexts, as professional learning moves from practice to the academy, for example, it must be expected that the shape of knowledge will change; how knowers within each context demonstrate what they know also changes. This process of relocation, recontextualisation and transfer has been theorised in the literature. These theories help to illuminate this study as it examines how professional disciplinary knowledge is constituted and reconstituted in the two contexts of practice and higher education.

Recontextualisation is the process of selecting and organising specific knowledge as it is relocated from one context into a curriculum in pedagogic form (Bernstein, 1990, 1996, 2000). In other words, the relocation of knowledge from the field of practice, in this case the architecture and accounting professions, to higher education in order to create a curriculum for students. Recontextualisation theory is highly relevant for this study, and helps to explain the shift of architecture and accounting professional learning from practice into the higher education domain. This shift has been described in ways which consider the relationships between the field of production, the *distributive* relationship, and how knowledge is taken from the field of production and adapted to become pedagogic knowledge, the field of *recontextualisation* (Bernstein, 2000). The framework also considers *evaluative* rules, and how knowledge is transmitted and acquired in pedagogic form.

Throughout this thesis I use the term recontextualisation in Bernsteinian terms and in ways that should help to explain how and why professional disciplinary knowledge and curricular knowledge are not the same, and that knowledge changes as it moves from practice to higher education. I find Stavrou's (2011) description useful:

Recontextualisation refers to the process of the selection and organisation of knowledge within curricula . . . . it relates to the structuring of transmission systems, of forms of knowledge, and of power and control relations concerning knowledge, generated by the recontextualising principles. This Bernsteinian concept is anthropological, penetrating time and space, and aimed at investigating the selection of what it to be transmitted to learners and of how it is to be transmitted to them. The principles change according to socio-historical contexts and to the "thinkable" within each society: Which knowledge? What ways of transmission? For whom (which individuals/learners)? Answering these questions involves a consideration of social order. Recontextualisation enables an examination of the transmission of knowledge, in its material and pragmatic dimension, as a social phenomenon. (p. 142)

There are a number of recontextualising agents and devices that influence the relocation of practice knowledge into curriculum and pedagogy that are identified in this study. Assessment tools, quality frameworks and professional standards become recontextualising devices and reflect the socio-political context, the discursive positions of stakeholders and the discursive position of users. Stakeholders such as academics and professional associations become "agents of recontextualisation" (Luckett, 2009, p. 442), and bring their views to bear on curriculum and pedagogy through a range of instantiations of knowledge and instructional discourse. In this way "pedagogic discourse is constructed by a recontextualising principle which selectively appropriates, relocates, refocuses and relates other discourses to constitute its own order" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 33).

The shift of knowledge between practice and higher education has also been described as transfer and resituation. The transfer from occupational practice into codified theoretical knowledge, by this I mean the academic

concepts, theories and methodology associated with formal learning (Eraut, 2004b, 2004c), is described in the following excerpt:

1. The extraction of potentially relevant knowledge from the context(s) of acquisition and previous use;

2. Understanding the new situation, a process that often depends on informal social learning [from within professional practice];

3. Recognising what knowledge and skills are relevant [for the situation at hand];

4. Transforming them to the new situation;

5. Integrating them with other knowledge and skills in order to think/act/communicate in the new situation. (Eraut, 2004b, p. 256)

Eraut (2004b) suggests that higher education ignores stages four and five as they are perhaps difficult and require more than the teaching and acquisition of visible, propositional knowledge. Invoking Eraut's metaphor of the iceberg, it is a difficult and therefore a frequently neglected activity to articulate non-propositional knowledge, professional skills, dispositions and behaviours into a higher education curriculum, or, describe practice-related *know how* in *know that* terms. While it may be difficult to articulate k*now how* in *know that* terms (Ryle, as cited in Bengson & Moffett, 2011), *know how* can become subsumed within *know that* (Bereiter, 2002).

Professions themselves struggle to codify such non-propositional knowledge and dispositions despite the historical and reliable ways in which new professionals were constructed in practice. To codify such knowledge in ways that suit the higher education context and as a stage within the recontextualisation process is difficult. It can distort the very nature of the knowledge that it is attempting to impart to others. There is a risk and a tendency to separate theory and practice in recontextualised

programmes such is the magnitude and complexity of the processes underpinning the move of practice knowledge into higher education. Such recontextualisation processes appear to be under-theorised, and the space needed in curriculum for recontextualised knowledge underestimated (Eraut, 2004b).

The context into which practice knowledge is moved plays an important role in how recontextualisation takes shape and how professional learning, as is the case in this study, is reconstituted and transmitted to learners. As we have seen in Chapter 1, New Zealand higher education has until recently enjoyed a level of autonomy as what Bernstein would describe, a *pedagogic recontextualising field*. This autonomy, however, appears to have come under threat from what can be described as an increased and pervasive regulatory state-constructed discourse stemming from neoliberal public and education policy (Bernstein, 2000; Muller, 2000; Shay, 2011; Stavrou, 2011).

It is frequently argued that professionals should be enabled to practise and demonstrate their expertise autonomously so as to be credible and to maintain control of their sphere of knowledge. Professional autonomy and monopoly of expertise are essential to safeguard expertise and to enable professionals to exercise their professional judgement (Downie, 1990; Freidson, 2001; Locke et al., 2006).

A professional should therefore be protected by robust processes and removed from other influences. Professionals, however, appear to be experiencing a number of difficulties as a result of neoliberal, accountability-focused public policy, and tensions are emerging between professional autonomy, altruism and expertise as a result of such policy (Beck & Young, 2005; Evans, 2008, 2011; Freidson, 2001; Hargreaves, 2006; Locke, 2004b; Locke et al., 2006; Peters & Marshall, 2003; Watts, 2000). It seems as if "autonomy has evidently given way to accountability" (Evans, 2008, p. 21).

It is prudent at this point to examine notions of autonomy, responsibility, accountability and altruism within the context of professionalism to see how these characteristics are treated in the literature and manifest in relation to this study. First, I will provide a number of definitions from the literature which I have found valuable in shaping the theoretical framework for this study.

Altruism, as the third corner of the classical democratic professionalism triangle, suggests a sense of "living and acting for the interest of others" (Locke, 2004a, p. 116). It is also suggestive of acting in the interest of the common good, or for the good of those affected by one's decision. How professionals approach and respond to a work situation requires, as I have described earlier this chapter, shades of professional judgement, which is shaped by a range of knowledges, experience and by being able to reflect on these aspects in order to develop an appropriate and *good* response to the situation in question. The notion of goodness is a salient theme in this study.

Professional accountability, on the other hand, gives a sense that a professional is held to account to some other external person or body, which means that the external other to whom a professional is accountable asserts superiority over the professional (Mulgan, 2000). Romzek and Dubnik, cited in Cheng (2012), define accountability as "a relationship in which an individual or agency is held to answer for performance that involves some delegation of authority to act" (p. 787). By being accountable, or more concisely, externally or extrinsically accountable, a professional accepts sanctions imposed by the external other, and an individual can also have a number of "'accounters'" (Cheng, 2012, p. 786).

Responsibility, on the other hand, has been associated with a sense of personal or intrinsic responsibility based on one's conscience or values. Mulgan (2000) describes the relationship between

accountability/responsibility, a position which is supported by others (Mausethagen, 2013):

> The expansion of "accountability" has thus been accompanied by a corresponding contraction in "responsibility". Sometimes the two terms are used interchangeably, but now "responsibility" is increasingly confined to its more accustomed ethical territory of personal liability, freedom of action and discretion. (Mulgan, 2000, p. 558)

In this way, suggests Mulgan (2000), the concept of internal or instrinsic *accountability* has emerged. Mulgan (2000) examines the idea of internalised professional accountability which is not only shaped by a person's professionalism (or professionality if we recall Evans' argument), but is also shaped by an individual's sense of morality and values such as honesty, integrity and fairness. It is difficult, argues Mulgan (2000) to separate professional ethics and personal values, and the professional is accountable to her/his own sense of self and professionalism. The fine line to do with extrinsic and intrinsic accountability, or between power or moral commitment, has been theorised in the literature (Bovens, 2005; 2007, as cited in Cheng, 2012) through a hard/soft and vertical/horizontal framework that may be valuable in examining accountability in professional work.

Professional responsibility in contemporary social and work contexts deserves examination, suggests Barnett (2014), as professionals attempt to secure their own legitimacy in shifting, unpredictable, and increasing technologised contexts. In defining his concept of an ecological professional as being someone who is "sensitive to the complexities of the environment" (2014, p. 35), Barnett distinguishes authenticity from responsibility. Authenticity, being true to oneself, is pitted against responsibility as "it betokens a regard for the exterior world, and almost a disregard for self" (2014, p. 36). Barnett argues too that there are two

inter-related and critical forms of responsibility, epistemological and ontological, which help to shape an individual's sense of professionalism.

Autonomy, a corner of the classical democratic triangle of professionalism and a nuanced form of authenticity or intrinsic accountability, has come under threat, many would argue, due to a range of surveillance and external accountability frameworks. The reshaping and demands of professional work and professionals in the wider societal context are reshaping notions of autonomy (Noordegraaf, 2013), resulting in what he calls "constrained autonomies" (2013, p. 19).

Teacher autonomy, argues Hoyle (1975) in describing the change being experienced by the system of curriculum, teaching and learning, is also constrained within the school context given the control that is implicit in the education system. Teachers, in gaining greater control and within an increasingly collaborative context, relinquish their autonomy, extend their professionality and "enter[s] into a functional interdependence in which the very act of teaching comes under the scrutiny of colleagues" (Hoyle, 1975, p. 317), a position argued also by Locke (2004b). Locke builds on Hoyle's work and describes the discursive influences of curriculum in constraining teachers' autonomy as "relentless and surveilling panoptical gaze" (Locke, 2004a, p. 115). There is a trade-off for teachers having more overall say within the school and curriculum. In return for constrained autonomy, teachers can become more involved "in formal or informal networks of relationships that *foster* their right to make judgement calls" (Locke, 2004a, p. 120). The latter, argues Locke, is a positive form of constrained autonomy, and is, I suggest, some sense of altruism if teachers are acting in the interests of the common good.

That professional autonomy is under threat was foreseen by Becher (1993), who described the consequences of increasing state interference on professional education as:

> A reduction in the potentiality for self-critical development and for change that goes beyond incremental practice-led modifications of established routines; a scaling down of professional programmes to the level of training rather than higher education . . . a resultant failure to attract students of the calibre needed to ensure healthy survival of the profession. (Becher, 1993, p. 178)

Due to external official demands on how it is expected to perform and constitute itself, higher education is increasingly obliged to comply with state and official rules of engagement. Academics' autonomy may be threatened as part of this engagement, as the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge conceptualised in curriculum, and how it is taught and assessed, changes when curriculum are also subject to external influences.

External influence in the form of standardising frameworks, an outcome of education policy in New Zealand as discussed in Chapter 1, appears to weaken the foundations of knowledge in the attempt to incorporate knowledge from the field of practice into higher education curriculum. A key standardising mechanism in curriculum and knowledge has been the modularisation of papers and the introduction of credit frameworks. Constructing courses and programmes in this way increases student choice, an aspect of both neoliberal thinking and the social justice agenda. Students are able to choose papers, individualised paper sequences and pathways and can construct programmes of study to tailor-make a qualification that suits their time, interests and finances.

Standardisation and being able to describe and assess knowledge in objective rational terms sits well with the regulatory surveillance tendencies of the neoliberal agenda, but does not necessarily sit well with the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge, how knowledge is constructed in practice, and the construction of professionals. Standardising knowledge in the way that has been described may de-personalise knowledge, and distance knowledge from the knowers and the

experts, in this case the practising professionals. This fear of knowledge being separated from knowers in current higher education contexts is echoed elsewhere in the literature (Bernstein, 2000; Luckett, 2009, 2012; Maton, 2007; Young, 2008).

The initial move toward standardisation and credit-based frameworks was, however, welcomed positively by professions and academics. The development of a standardising framework for professional knowledge was, at the beginning of the neoliberal era, seen as a positive outcome for the professions (Larson, 1977). In her study, Watts (2000) reports that initially academics found the idea of credit-based frameworks appealing, but that they soon realised that such frameworks cost them their autonomy. How a profession privileges and legitimates its knowledge, reports Hall (1994), and the autonomy a profession has over what is learned and how, is threatened by modularisation and in needing to prescribe professional knowledge in propositional, objective ways.

Reporting and monitoring mechanisms are other features of a standardising framework, and reflect the expectations of others, and not necessarily the knowledge, the profession or the experts. Weakening the foundations of knowledge, and the experts' control of such knowledge poses a threat to professional identity, as professional disciplinary knowledge has become the "lynch pin of the [professional's] identity. Any attempt to weaken or change [the subject] may be felt as a threat to one's identity" (Bernstein, 1971, p. 212). Surveillance frameworks weaken the previously autonomous *pedagogic recontextualising field* of higher education, forcing it to become a less autonomous *official recontextualising field* (Bernstein, 2000; Locke, 2008; Locke et al., 2006; Maton & Muller, 2007; Muller, 2009; Olssen, 2001; Shay, 2011; Stavrou, 2011; Wheelahan, 2010; Young, 2006, 2008).

Given the demands of neoliberal higher education policy, knowledge being recontextualised into higher education will need to appear to contribute to economic goals and state priorities. This may lead to recontextualised

knowledge in higher education becoming pluridisciplinary, skills-focused with a weakened disciplinary base (Luckett, 2009; Shay, 2011; Stavrou, 2011). The process of recontextualisation is further complicated by state-led recontextualising agencies and stakeholders suffering from a lack of a coherent recontextualising logic, evidenced in the fact that all agencies are able "to participate in the definition of meanings" (Stavrou, 2011, p, 148).

The sense that recontextualised knowledge is pluridisciplinary is explained here, and how this fosters a skills-focus and weakened disciplinary base. New subject fields which seem to reflect new, temporary, market and specific professional needs and occupations are emerging in higher education. These new subjects appear to be a response to the state's pursuit of economic priorities, the state's positioning of higher education, and the extent to which the state's influences higher education and professional practice. These new subjects are a response, then, to neoliberal globalisation strategies, the process of recontextualisation and credentialisation of professions within higher education, the neoliberal repositioning of higher education, and the desire to bring about increased access to education in the interests of social justice and equity (Muller, 2009; Stromquist, 2002).

Pluridisciplinary can be also taken to mean a sense of interdisciplinarity, which is increasingly popular in higher education offerings. Advocates for interdisciplinary spaces, or regions, argue that strong disciplines should form the base (McArthur, 2010). Their individual strength will enable disciplines to be permeable to constructive change (Muller, 2009), but will also ensure that the disciplines survive manipulation during times of change and in contested spaces. The extent to which this occurs is a focus of this study.

New fields of study, or regions, as described earlier (Bernstein, 2000), appear to have a knowledge base that is unspecialised and generic. New fields of study, such as tourism and management, appear to have not yet:

Managed to corral a compliant robust set of singulars into a federation, instead depending on de-classification of often already weak boundaries to bring putatively weak or non-existent knowledge bases to heel. The weakness of the knowledge bases become apparent when . . . [the disciplines are] unable to select, with any stability, a coherent consensus curriculum to act for the weakly constituted professional field. (Muller, 2011, p. 20)

There are a number of risks associated with the trend toward new fields of study. The intellectual standing and credibility of disciplines per se may be threatened, especially if conflict emerges in the public arena (Becher & Trowler, 2001). Given the lack of a solid, theoretical, conceptual base, the knowledge base of the new subject fields threatens to be continually reshaped as new contextual knowledge is introduced and assumes control. New contextual knowledge risks filling the curriculum to a point where learners and educators struggle to get through all the material. There is no process of epistemological legitimation or checking-in with the old knowledge, as foundational knowledge does not exist, and is based on a practice or occupation. Given the increased opportunities for the state to influence these new subject fields, the state is able to produce citizens with certain dispositions, behaviours and knowledge, traits perceived to be useful to the economic and social well-being of the state both nationally and globally.

Traditionally strong disciplines and curricula based on a conceptual body of knowledge risk being replaced by these new, highly contextual and conceptually-weak subject fields. Curriculum knowledge risks being mandated by the state's neoliberal preferences for skills and dispositions that are more easily articulated, arranged and monitored in the current higher education context, rather than knowledge shaped on a conceptual, practice or dispositional basis.

There are other risks and implications associated with recontextualisation. The new context may be inadequate or unreflective of the realities of the

original knowledge and practice. Original specialist, practice-based knowledge, how it is produced and applied is often tacit and implicit for those in the field of production, and will need to be made deliberately explicit, dominant and visible during the process of recontextualisation or risk losing some its foundational principles. As knowledge is potentially lost in translation, there is the increased risk of a discursive gap during recontextualisation (Bernstein, 2000; Luckett, 2009; Maton & Muller, 2007; Stavrou, 2011; Thompson, 2009). Such gaps may then be filled by dominant market, state or institutional imperatives of the time.

A curriculum for professional learning which is constructed on a contextual or theoretical basis, or on a purely outcomes basis will be flawed. A theoretically-based curriculum, shaped by the current higher education agenda, will not do justice to practice. A *know how* outcomes or skills-based curriculum potentially displaces conceptual knowledge (Winch, 2010, 2013c; Young & Muller, 2010) and a curriculum with a skills focus will not do justice to the full capacity of professionals (Winch, 2013b).

The process of recontextualisation therefore appears to do many things to professional disciplinary knowledge, the academy and practice. Recontextualisation shifts the distribution of power, marginalises some participants and empowers others. Successfully recontextualised professions, such as medicine and engineering, however, suggest that recontextualisation can occur and produce outcomes that support and perpetuate the professions and that sit well within the academy. Over time these professions/disciplines have developed high levels of autonomy, robust professional identities and have carefully safeguarded the training offered (Muller, 2011). How these particular professions have been successful is not examined in this study. What this study examines, however, is how recontextualisation occurs for the architecture and accounting professions in New Zealand, and what effect this has on the professions and their knowledges.

2.5.2 Recontextualisation and professional learning.

Moving professional learning to higher education has led to a number of changes in higher education, and changes to the notion of discipline, the professions and the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge. The shape and constitution of academic disciplines is becoming blurry as new professions give rise to new academic disciplines, a consequence of neoliberal policy. The shift of professional learning to higher education appears to elevate the status and gives legitimacy to the professions, but it has also resulted in a number of other outcomes as described in the previous section.

A number of concerns have been identified regarding the shift of professional learning to higher education contexts. There have been concerns that the move of professional education to the university would result in the neglect of practical knowledge in favour of knowledge that was more theoretical (Larsen, 1977), or knowledge that is more easily codified or "academicised" (Eraut, 1994, p. 8). In other words, knowledge that can be succinctly formulated and theorised. Architecture appears to experience more difficulties than most in being moved into higher education (Walker, 2008), exacerbated by a higher education context marked by neoliberalist, managerialist tendencies, although Walker fails to expand on this. To what extent professional disciplinary knowledge and practice can be codified to the satisfaction of current higher education expectations and other stakeholders is a focus of this study.

The move of professional learning to the university from practice has brought about a shift in expectations of professional learning. One consequence appears to be that professional learning in higher education has become more concerned, for example, with increasing the learner's critical comprehension of practice, and empowering the learner to embark on a pursuit of lifelong learning in the professional context. Expectations of what professional education can achieve may also be impractical, and

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employers, students, society, and academics may unrealistically expect graduates to exit being able to practise autonomously and effectively.

Early literature related to professional education, however, recognised that education alone did not grant licence to practise (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951; Jarvis, 1983). The inadequacy of architecture professional learning based solely within higher education, and the importance of combining theory with practice, is supported in the excerpt below. Benefits for learning are gained through the blend of theory and practice:

> In expecting graduates to have "just add water" technical skills at graduation, critics miss the point of a university education complemented by practical training: it is the synergy between the two that makes the structure of architecture studies so intelligent and responsive. (Gloster, 2008, p. 257)

Genericism seems to emerge as a consequence of recontextualisation, particularly when recontextualisation equates to a process of regionalisation and development of new subject fields. Genericism in higher education consists of lists of competences or skills perceived necessary to an area of work, independent of pedagogic recontextualising fields and without reference to the cultures and contexts of practice. Genericism is made more likely through regionalisation, as practice knowledge would be "abstracted from specific occupations or fields of study on the basis of similarity" (Thompson, 2009, p. 48) and repackaged. Such an approach appears to describe the way in which higher education is making curriculum knowledge more accountable to the state, the imperatives of surveillance and to meet goals of employability. A generic approach, therefore, may have already been adopted within higher education in response to the economic and political agenda (Muller, 2009; Thompson, 2009; Wheelahan, 2010; Young, 2010).

The move of professional learning to the university has put the professions in a place where they are subject to greater scrutiny, surveillance and influence. While professions appear to be relatively autonomous, the pervasiveness of neoliberal education policy in higher and professional education suggests that this autonomy has been over-stated, and the professions are unable to exert as much influence on learning as they would perhaps have liked. Scrutiny and surveillance appear to be common features of a neoliberal managerialist agenda.

Calls for greater scrutiny within the professions have increased over time, following a rise in cases of professional deception, fraud, incompetence and crises, offering a picture that professionals often do not live up to the values they espouse (Schön, 1983). Professionals have been accused of purposefully mystifying their knowledge to make it seem more complex and closed to inquiry (Schön, 1983), and for increasing the level of client dependence (Noordegraaf, 2013). Each new knower is portrayed as joining others in the myth of the emperor's new clothes, not wanting to explode the myth but continue with this self-perpetuation. By opening themselves up to scrutiny and becoming more publicly accessible and accountable, professions would be demystified and status barriers dismantled (Hargreaves, 2006; Maton & Muller, 2007). They would also, of course, become more permeable to external influence.

Professions have responded to accusations of mysteriousness by explaining their need to guarantee and protect their zone of expertise and to guarantee their credibility, although Freidson (2001) suggests the professions have not defended themselves well and have advocated continued self-interest. Professionals have emphasised the necessary gap between themselves and laypeople through their training and certification, and defended this by needing to protect their training and credentials given the investment made in their development and acquisition (Larsen, 1977).

The state has positioned itself as offering protection to the professions by endorsing powerful monopolistic status-awarding professional associations and by demanding standardised training, certification and licence to practice. This move coincided with neoliberal policy and increased regulatory control of all public activity. By lending support to professions through professional associations, education and training shaped by neoliberal policy, the state appears to have gained access to the professions, has been able to open professions up to scrutiny, has been able to reshape the professions to fit neoliberal market-focused ideals and develop a sense of constrained professional autonomy.

Professional associations have been tasked to protect and regulate the professions and their sphere of professional expertise, and to ensure that new professionals learn the key knowledge, or in other words, to "socialise their tribes" (Karseth & Nerland, 2007, p. 351). Professional associations in New Zealand traditionally achieve this by accrediting tertiary programmes, supporting professionals in practice, managing entry to practice and offering opportunities for professional development when in practice. In recent years, intervention has led to more professional development requirements, devolution of power and control, and the adoption of accountability, surveillance and standards-based frameworks.

Practising professionals are required to undertake specific, regular and regulated professional development, and retention of professional membership is dependent on the completion of continuing professional development (CPD) portfolio to specified standards. Scholars have described this process of professional development, or being professionalised, in a number of ways. Being professionalised through learning and training is described by Jarvis (1983) as being a rite of passage. Evans (2008), recalling the description of professionality in section 2.2, defined professional development as "the process whereby people's professionality and/or professionalism may be considered to be enhanced" (p. 30), which Evans later adjusted to reflect a more persistent

level of change "professional development is the process whereby people's professionalism may be considered to be enhanced, with a degree of permanence that exceeds transitoriness" (2014, p. 144).

Professional development and CPD is explored from a number of angles by Evans. Building on her perspective of Hoyle's notions of extended and restricted professionality, Evans (2009a) acknowledges the value of situatedness of CPD by stating that "a situated learning approach is compatible with the development of a culture of 'extended' professionality" (p. 143), and the importance of "clarity and specificity of purpose and direction provided by the development of a culture that is based upon a model of 'extended' professionality" (p. 144).

Professionality is extended through the concept of developmentalism, which Evans (2009b, 2013) defines as "a commitment to (self-) development . . . . A developmentalist professional or occupational culture is one within which development(alism) is valued, to the extent that it is generally and pervasively recognised as a pre-eminent attitude and/or activity" (Evans, 2013, p. 485). She acknowledges elsewhere (2009b) that professional cultures of developmentalism are more evident in some groups than others.

That CDP and developmentalism are not the same becomes clear with Evans' (2009b) definition of CPD as an "activity that people engage in consistently and enduringly, and this may or may not involve participation in explicitly designated events of activities" (p. 299). Workshops are *ostensible* CPD, argues Evans (2009b), but there is little proof that participation results in attitude, understanding or behaviour change. A commitment to CPD is an effective way to build a culture of professional developmentalism and that will foster an attitudinal shift, suggests Evans, but it is critical to determine whether the CPD is profession-led or externally imposed. If CPD represents "a response to top-down performativity-focused pressure" (Evans, 2009b, p. 301), CPD becomes another tool with which to exert control over professionals, a phenomenon

that becomes salient in this study, and does not, suggests Evans (2011) lead to an intellectual or attitudinal shift but leads only to a behavioural shift. It is here that I refer the reader back to notions of enacted professionalism, constrained autonomy and extrinsic accountability discussed earlier this chapter.

Professionals seem to be unable to choose professional development which suits the individual and her/his context. This restriction on choice is perhaps disempowering for professionals, as is the monitoring around CPD and the "regulatory gaze" (Duhn, 2010, p. 50) over CPD activity. While there may be some focus on reflection and renewal of current practice within CPD, it seems more usual for CPD to introduce new knowledge that relates specifically to practice.

I have outlined a number of perspectives from the literature to do with external control and influence on the professions. Such intervention, influence and regulation on the professions has been called a process of deprofessionalisation, professional erosion, reprofessionalisation and the proletarianisation of the professions by a number of scholars (Duhn, 2010; Locke, 2001; Locke et al., 2006; Noordegraaf, 2007; Sachs, 2001). Deprofessionalisation is described as a process which demeans the status and function of a profession and how it perceives itself (Locke, 2001). The impact of this deprofessionalisation on an individual's professional identity can be damaging, potentially resulting in a professional identity that is confused, or "schizoid" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 71).

There are opposing views to this concept of deprofessionalisation, however, which argue that external control, accountability and normative systems are components of "new professionalism" (Evans, 2013, p. 475). New professionalism, where "accountability and performance indicators have now become a fundamental aspect of professionalism" (Evetts, 2003, p. 408), has its appeal due to the professionalisation trend that is emerging in a range of occupations and in the voluntary sector (Evetts, 2013; Noordegraaf, 2007). The appeal of professionalisation, suggests

Evetts (2013), is due to society's demands that occupations and organisations are accountable, transparent and trustworthy. This is achieved through surveillance and accountability mechanisms. Noordegraaf (2007) points out too that this shift toward professionalisation is in contrast with the pressures on traditional professions to deprofessionalise.

Increased intervention is also evident through the wider use of formalised peer review in the form of accreditation panels in the higher education context. Accreditation panels wield ante hoc and post hoc control of professional curricula (Becher, 1993). What could be a collegial, supportive exercise aimed at strengthening curriculum and supporting academics and professionals, has instead become a tool to regulate a competitive credential market and to monitor academic sub-contractors (or both) (Walker, 2008). Becher (1993) suggests too that professional associations and their related accreditation panels have been accorded significant powers as the state has become more involved in the activities and regulation of the professions. In this way, these panels risk becoming a further tool for the state with which to shape the professions, practice and higher education curriculum.

How the use and influence of accreditation panels plays out in the context of architecture education in New Zealand is explored by Walker (2008). He believes there should be greater articulation between architecture degrees and professional practice, which reflects earlier exhortations (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951). What the architecture accreditation process has instead become is "a ritualised, adversarial game played out by academics against practitioners" (Walker, 2008, p. 250), in the belief that the professional association is the "formal authorising power" (p. 251). Where power or symbolic control lies, how professional disciplinary knowledge is legitimised in higher education and how these two perspectives influence the nature of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge is a focus of this study.

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Professional associations in recent years have played a mediating role between knowledge that is constructed and legitimised in practice, and knowledge that is given legitimacy in curriculum. Associations have become "critical agents of knowledge" (Karseth & Nerland, 2007, p. 336) and are perhaps struggling with the multiple and at times competing demands and loyalties between the state, practice and academy. Their responsibilities to the professions are clear, but increasing state intervention, accountability measures, and a culture of compliance, are redefining the role of the association in relation to the profession, which in turn is reshaping the education and construction of professionals and the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge.

Disciplines within higher education, particularly those with links to a professional pathway, appear to be contestable spaces at the mercy of a number of dominant forces. These forces include the applied knowledge and realities of practice, the influence of professional associations, the contextual demands of higher education, and the neoliberal thinking behind education, economic and social policies. How this contest for the legitimation of professional disciplinary knowledge takes shape, and the effect this has on professional disciplinary knowledge, is examined in the following section.

2.5.3 The legitimation of professional disciplinary knowledge.

Professions in the post-industrialisation period have sought higher status, legitimation and greater security through a process of tertiary recontextualisation. While status and security may have been achieved through this move, professions have been seen by some to have relinquished control of their knowledge to universities and to the state (Schön, 1983), in return for credentialisation and status as a discipline.

Disciplinary knowledge is constructed and legitimated in higher education through various forms of power and control. Disciplinary knowledge is constructed too through disciplinary boundaries, which play an important

role in creating robust learner identities and are conditions for acquiring powerful knowledge (Young & Muller, 2010). The extent to which a discipline is afforded power tends to be a result of how strong it is perceived to be, the boundaries and degree of insulation between disciplines, and how boundaries are preserved and validated by the discipline's power and distinctiveness in relation to external influences (Bernstein, 2000).

Disciplines in higher education appear to be afforded power, for instance, through discursive practices. Curriculum as a codified document, and the regulatory and surveillance frameworks as technologies, each with specific discursive underpinnings, become discursive instruments wielded by the state, the academy and professional associations. This is described to some extent through Bernstein's (2000) classification and framing theory:

> Classification strength is the means by which power relations are transformed into specialised discourses, and framing is the means whereby principles of control are transformed into specialised regulations of interactional discursive practices (pedagogic relations) which attempt to relay a distribution of power. (Bernstein, 2000, p. xvii)

Such symbolic control of knowledge through discourse is reminiscent too of Foucauldian perspectives on discursive power and discursive positioning. Discourse is afforded power as it constitutes knowledge and also establishes the rules of engagement with that knowledge. Weedon (1987) interprets Foucault's view of discursive power as:

> A dynamic of control and lack of control between discourses and subjects, constituted by discourses, who are their agents. Power is exercised within discourses in the ways in which they constitute and govern individual subjects. (p. 113)

How various discourses compete for control of professional disciplinary knowledge alongside experts in the academy and in practice, means that professional disciplinary knowledge in the form of disciplines becomes:

> Fields of struggle over status and resources in which the beliefs and practices of actors embody competing claims to legitimacy or messages as to what should be considered the dominant basis of achievement within the field. (Carvalho, Dong, & Maton, 2009, p. 487)

Stakeholders in professional curriculum, namely professionals, academics, professional associations, the state, will at various times and to various degrees have potentially opposing views on what is legitimate professional disciplinary knowledge. How knowledge is afforded legitimacy and power in curriculum is examined in this study in the contexts of architecture and accounting. Little is known about the relationship between the academy and practice, the contest for legitimacy and the effects of this relationship on knowledge for these two disciplines in New Zealand.

The legitimacy of disciplines is dependent on a range of factors. One perspective is that the epistemic relations of knowledge and how it is made should give it legitimacy (Wheelahan, 2010). Legitimacy can also be determined by considering "whether knowledge claims are legitimated on the basis of external relations of power or by principles intrinsic to knowledge itself" (Moore & Maton, 2001, p. 156). As discussed so far in this chapter, this contest is played out in the tertiary relocation process, and alongside the regulatory frameworks that shape higher education and practice.

Legitimation Code Theory (LCT), as an extension of Bernstein's horizontal and vertical discourse model, argues that specialist knowledge-knower structures are created as a result of the legitimacy on which a discourse or practice is based: "the principles underlying these practices can be addressed in term of their legitimation codes of specialisation" (Maton,

2007, p. 93). Legitimation codes, depicted in figure 2, help in the description of knowledge and knowers and to illustrate possible dimensions to the relationships between knowledge and knowers (Moore & Maton, 2001). This is because:

> The simple premise that every practice, belief or knowledge claim is about or oriented towards something and by someone, and so sets up an epistemic relation to an object and a social relation to a subject. (Carvalho et al., 2009, p. 487)
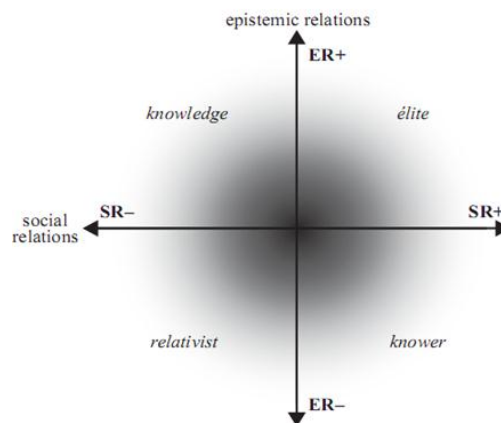
Figure 2.Legitimation codes of specialisation.

From: Knowledge and Knowers: Towards a realist sociology of education. (Maton, 2014, p. 30). Reproduced with permission.

Legitimation codes, listed below, called languages of legitimation (Maton, 2000), are "the claims made by actors for carving out and maintaining intellectual and institutional spaces within education, i.e. the proclaimed raison d' être that provides the conditions of existence for intellectual fields" (Maton, 2000, p. 149). Claims to legitimacy are based on four principles which conceptualise a discipline's external relations, internal relations, the basis for its specialisation, and its orientation in time (McNamara, 2009).

- Knowledge (ER+, SR-), which emphasises the possession of specialised knowledge;

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- Knower (ER-, SR+), which privileges natural or cultivated dispositions;
- Relativist (ER-, SR-), one's identity is shaped by neither knowledge or disposition;
- Elite (ER+, SR+), legitimate membership is based on specialist knowledge and certain dispositions.

LCT is being used by a number of scholars in their investigation of the legitimacy of curriculum knowledge and to map practical and theoretical knowledge (Carvalho et al., 2009; McNamara, 2009, 2010; Shay, 2011, 2012; Stavrou, 2011). LCT has been used to conceptualise the legitimacy of nursing as an academic discipline in the UK (McNamara, 2009), and to analyse the internal and external relation of recontextualised knowledge in higher education in South Africa (Shay, 2011). This work is valuable within the context of this study as it offers ways in which to conceptualise the possible legitimate recontextualisation of practice knowledge into pedagogic knowledge, the shaping of professional identities and the construction of practitioners.

2.6 Chapter summary

In developing theoretical frameworks in this chapter I have drawn upon a number of scholars who have offered theoretical perspectives on curriculum, knowledge and professional pedagogies. I have argued that perceptions of professional disciplinary knowledge and coming to know alone are inadequate to address the research questions articulated for this study. Propositional knowledge in curricular form also does not do justice to professional disciplinary knowledge expressed as skill, disposition and relational ways of being.

How knowledge constitutes itself and is constituted by others in practice and in higher education has been a critical consideration within this chapter, and helps to illuminate my research questions. I have described how professions have sought legitimacy and status within the higher education context and the implications of this move. I have explained how

new subject fields have been the result of new professions, and how this is blurring the notion of academic disciplines.

A number of theoretical strands from Chapters 1 and 2 are coming together to weave a picture that helps to explain the nature of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge within the contexts of practice and higher education in New Zealand. These strands include the influence of education policy and how it is shaping curriculum and pedagogy, how professions, professionals and professionalism have been defined and enacted, and how these definitions are influenced by policy. Further strands include, too, how professional curriculum and knowledge are conceptualised in relation to the professions, and how knowledge and curriculum are constructed as a result of the move of professional learning into higher education.

The next chapter provides an overview of the formation and function of architecture and accounting professional associations in New Zealand. The critical analysis of the documents that construct architecture and accounting professionals in the polytechnic and professional contexts helps to aid the description of the professional associations and their relationship with the academy. This is an essential task to provide answers to the research questions in this study.

Chapter 3: The architecture and accounting professions in New Zealand

3.0 Introduction

This chapter will provide history and context for the professions of architecture and accounting within New Zealand that are under investigation in my study. The chapter will begin with an overview of each profession in turn, situate each within the higher education context in New Zealand and describe the influences that are brought to bear on each profession in this context. Descriptions will be provided that contextualise the findings from documentary analysis, participant interviews and focus groups which appear in the Chapters 6, 7 and 8.

There are a number of ways in which professional education is currently configured in New Zealand:

- Apprenticeship, increasingly monitored through some kind of accredited institution or independent training organisation (ITO);
- Accredited and independent professional schools;
- Examinations set by the qualifying professional association, increasingly linked to study within a higher education institution;
- A period of study at a higher education institution which gives access to the professional examination and/or further professional study and/or the profession itself;
- The gathering of material for a practising individual's professional practice portfolio judged by the professional association, frequently located within a higher education institution.

Architecture and accounting in New Zealand, as we will see, have adopted approaches to professional education as described in the latter three bullet points. These approaches in particular demand a close relationship between the profession and higher education, and it is this relationship that is under investigation in this study.

3.1 Professional education in New Zealand

The majority of professional education programmes within New Zealand higher education institutions are accountable to national and international professional associations. Professional associations have varying levels of influence on curriculum development and accredit professional education programmes within higher education, necessitating a relationship between the association and the institution. The relationships between the participant institution, the professional programmes, professional associations and other contextual influences are explored in this study. These relationships are critical to the knowledge that underpins the programme, and the credibility and success of the programmes and their graduates. An understanding of the ways in which the relationships function and the effect the relationships have on each party and on the professional knowledge are valuable, as collectively, we would assume, these relationships help to shape the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge and what it means to be a professional in the specific domain. If we are to understand the influences that are brought to bear on the nature of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledges, such scrutiny is essential.

How professionals and professionalism are defined, positioned and valued within New Zealand education policy, in educational contexts and by professional associations are key perspectives to consider as we examine the professions and professional education within higher education. It has been suggested that professional associations have increasingly been excluded from discussions on education policy within the current neoliberal framework (see, for example, Apple, 2006; Lauder et al., 1999; Locke, 2004b; Sachs, 2001; Scanlon, 2011a).

There is considerable literature on the perceived threat to the professionalism of teachers in the compulsory sector, and increasingly, academics in higher education, as a result of neoliberal education reform which advocates a standards-based approach and greater levels of

accountability (Beck & Young, 2005; Codd, 2008; Evans, 2011; Locke, 2004b; Sachs, 2001; Watts, 2000). How this threat plays out in the context of architecture and accounting professional education is one strand of this thesis.

3.2 Architecture: The profession

Architecture is said to belong to the family of design professions (Schön, 1983). Others have provided a full history of the architecture profession and education elsewhere so the purpose is not to repeat information that is otherwise available but to provide enough information to set the scene for this research (Paisey, Paisey, & Institute of Chartered Accountants of Scotland, 2000).

To contextualise architecture as a profession, the following description from a 1951 New Zealand Ministry of Education report is offered. The architect as a *supervisor*, *coordinator* and as an *authority* is particularly noteworthy:

> An architect is one whose profession it is to design buildings and supervise their erection. As such he is concerned with their siting, planning, construction, equipment and cost. He is the co-ordinator of the necessary professions, services, trades, arts and crafts. In aesthetic matters he is the authority. (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951, p. 4)

Yet architecture's status has now become somewhat more precarious despite the history it enjoys. The status and the social and aesthetic value of architecture have been disrupted in a context driven by capitalist, regulatory and neoliberal forces (Coleman, 2010), and by the increasing dominance of the construction industry in both practice and curriculum. It has been claimed that the focus on regulatory and accountability measures has led to an increasing demand for "professional architectural education that is overwhelmingly predicated on skills development, or technique, to the near exclusion of all else" (Coleman, 2010, p. 202).

There is increasing demand for work-ready graduates, and a range of factors have led to an emergence of newer professions over the past 30 years, in areas such as planning, construction engineering and landscape architecture.

3.2.1 Architecture education: The shift from practice to university.

Architecture as a profession was, until the 1950s, learned through work-based apprenticeship models in which the apprentice or office junior observed and worked alongside seasoned and experienced practitioners before being deemed capable of working independently. The post-war worldwide trend in the 1950s to relocate the learning to be an architect into the universities caused significant debate at the time. A number of significant decisions were made at the 1958 UK architecture education conference (Paisey et al., 2000; Roaf & Bairstow, 2008) and they included commitment to:

1. raise the minimum standard of entry from 5 passes at 'O' level to 2 passes at 'A' level[6];
2. situate all [architecture] schools in Universities;
3. have only full-time courses, and sandwich courses on an experimental basis;
4. endorse the policy of developing post-graduate courses.

The 1958 conference report also noted that, in shifting architecture education to the university, it was imperative to build a cross-faculty bridge to ensure that students had a well-rounded education:

> If architecture is to take its place in the University and if the knowledge which it entails is to be taught at the highest standard, it will be necessary to establish a bridge between faculties: between the Arts and Sciences, the Engineering Sciences, Sociology and Economics. Furthermore, the Universities will require something

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[6] requires a further 2 years of secondary study to achieve this

more than a study of techniques and parcels of this or that form of knowledge. (Roaf & Bairstow, 2008, p. 441)

Boyer and Mitgang's review of the state of architecture education in the 1990s in the USA makes special mention of the need for architecture education to provide the essential initial training along with acculturation into the profession. This review occurred at a similar time to another architecture education conference in the UK at which criticism was levied at the architecture profession. This criticism led to a number of consecutive reviews and reports on architecture education, namely the Burton Report in 1992, and a review led by Sir Colin Stansfield Smith in 1999, such was the difficulty in establishing consensus.

Boyer and Mitgang (1996) noted the profession's aspirations for a connectedness to society, which included altruistic elements common within the professions:

> Not only the basic training of beginning practitioners, but also the initiation of students into this common legacy of knowledge, skills and language, while instilling a sense of connectedness to the human needs that architecture, as a profession, must continually address. (Boyer & Mitgang, 1996, p. 4)

Boyer and Mitgang's review identified a number of goals for tertiary providers of architectural education. These were similar to those noted in the 1950s, and included "a more fruitful partnership between educators and practitioners . . . standards without standardisation...a more unified profession . . . a connected curriculum" (1996, p. 26).

Greater links between architecture faculties and practice had still not been made by the time of an architecture education conference in the UK in 2008. Although some connections were stronger, not enough had been done to appease original participants at the 1958 conference, one of whom wrote in the conference proceedings for 2008:

I have to deplore the failure to establish architectural practices within schools . . . . [This] was defeated, as I understand, by small-minded local practitioners who complained [it] would steal their livelihood. More important is the virtual absence of multi-skilled education without which effective multi-disciplinary education is impossible. (Derbyshire, 2008, para. 6)

A number of concerns about the nature and state of architecture education remain. Scholars have identified a number of tensions as to whether architecture education should focus on creativity or practical skills. Booth (2012) and Fulcher (2012) wonder about the creativity status of architecture and whether creativity has been displaced by architecture being more ancillary. Wyatt (2013) laments the lack of practical art within architecture education with graduates being unable to respond to the realities of practice. Wyatt also remarks that architecture has not been updated to reflect the significant changes that have occurred in society and in the wider political and economic context. My study, then, alongside such concerned calls for changes to architecture education, is timely.

3.2.2 Architecture education in New Zealand.

In New Zealand, changes were also being made to architecture education following a report commissioned in 1951 by the Minister of Education, who established a committee to look at the scope, nature and adequacy of architectural education in New Zealand. It is evident from the report that the discussion, the attempt to reach agreement, and the development of recommendations were not easy. Final recommendations included:

- the existing qualifications and Professional Examinations be replaced by a Bachelor of Architecture;
- a requirement for students to have the equivalent of one year's experience in an architect's office before sitting an Intermediate Examination (which can be taken after 2 years of study). After which there was another 3 years of study;
- the setting-up of an Architects' Registration Board;

- that post-graduate and research in architecture be encouraged.

The Committee's encouragement of research reflected the shift of architecture education into the university, and suggested that research would enhance the credibility of those teaching as "a School of Architecture that does not refresh its teaching by research by its staff and students is unworthy of the status of a University school" (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951, p. 38).

The report specified the nature of the research that should be undertaken. The Committee had recognised the value of both practice-related and more liberal and aesthetic research, "two main types of research in architecture could be carried on in New Zealand – building research and the more general inquiries into historical and speculative problems of architecture" (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951, p. 37).

This 1951 report provides a valuable insight into the discussion on architectural education at a time when professional education was moving from an apprenticeship model to the university. One reason given for the architecture shift in New Zealand was that the practitioner, as trainer, was unable to keep up with latest developments to be able to instruct adequately. The notion of currency is discussed in great detail in the responses of the participants.

The 1951 report, however, issued a number of warnings in relation to having full-time schools of architecture. Students would need to imagine the nature of practice, and courses risked becoming irrelevant:

> [Full-time schools need to] either simulate the conditions of practice of architecture or rely on the student's imagination to fit the instruction given him into its proper place in the life of architecture . . . The curricula grew with extra studies added as they were considered necessary, but often without much relation to one another or to the course as a whole. Thus, courses have tended to

degenerate into expanding agglomerations of incompletely related subjects. (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951, p. 64)

The inability of the university alone to fully prepare students for practice was clearly acknowledged, "Although University training has certain educational and social advantages, it does not in itself equip the student for the practice of architecture" (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951, p. 34). The suggested remedy for this was to "infuse" (p. 34) students with practice.

The requirement for the university to remain cognisant and respectful of the practice domain is evident from the following statement by the Consultative Committee: "The University should not be asked to teach those things that are better acquired in an architect's office" (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951, p. 30). A further recommendation suggested that part-time instruction should occur concurrent with junior office work. Underpinning this belief was that architecture teachers should be experienced practitioners:

> The use of practitioners as instructors, rather than those who are primarily teachers, is a time-honoured practice . . . in so much of what is taught . . . it is necessary to be familiar with the application of the knowledge in order to teach it effectively. (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951, p. 65)

The establishment of the Registration Board in the 1951 recommendations was perhaps the first attempt to safeguard the knowledge of architects who had undergone the new education regime, and to uphold the profession of architecture. This Board was tasked to guard the name of the true architect: "It is unjust to the profession and undesirable in the public interest that qualified architects who have undergone an arduous and expensive course of training should be faced . . . with competition in

their practice from unqualified people styling themselves as architects" (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951, p. 35).

The dilemma as to how to structure architecture education continues to the present day and similar dilemmas can be found in other countries. Recent commentary from within the Australian architectural community considers the dilemma facing architecture schools. Tanner (2008) argues that architecture schools need to equip graduates with the skills to cope with the demands of professional practice, but recognises that some academics will disagree with such learning. Recent reflections on the nature of architecture education in the UK and USA also suggest that architecture has never quite settled into the university context, with one reason being that "architecture education collu[des] with the profession" (Coleman, 2010, p. 204). Architecture is not allowed to reside easily in either the humanities or the sciences as it is "neither fish nor fowl" (Coleman, 2010, p. 204). This uneasiness is a theme that emerges in the findings and, as will be shown, manifests itself in a number of ways.

3.3 Accounting: The profession

There was limited literature exploring accounting education in New Zealand to draw upon during the course of this study. The lack of research on the accounting profession overall was discussed too by Anderson-Gough, Grey and Robson (2002), which they suggested was a result of scholar preference and of the competitive and secretive nature of the accounting profession. Much of the sourced literature was located in the UK, the USA, and in particular, Australian contexts which enabled me to compare and align how accounting education was being conceptualised and discussed (Wells, Gerbic, Kranenburg, & Bygrave, 2009).

The practice of accounting enjoys a long history. This has been documented elsewhere and will not be repeated in full here (Paisey et al., 2000). Luca Pacioli has been credited with being the "father of accounting education" (Sangster & Scataglinibelghitar, 2010, p. 423), following his work as an educator in the 15th century in Italy. His text, *Summa de*

Arithmetica Geometria Proportioni et Proportionalitá, printed in 1494, is said to have provided the first written account of business studies (Sangster & Scataglinibelghitar, 2010).

Schools known as "abacco" (Sangster & Scataglinibelghitar, 2010, p. 3) started to emerge in the 1200s to support the trades, merchants and the less privileged with book-keeping (traditional Trivium and Quadrivium being available to the upper classes). The way in which book-keeping was taught, from its early beginnings until relatively recently, was one of:

> Cognitive apprenticeship . . . the teacher, in the role of a master, teaches a skill to his student (his apprentice). During this process, the teacher models the task in a real-world context which is relevant to the student. (Collins, Brown & Newman, as cited in Sangster & Scataglinibelghitar, 2010, p. 6)

In his teaching, Pacioli incorporated a great amount of detail and context, with the intention to both increase the student's engagement in the task, but also to provide a background and a purpose to the work. Sangster and Scataglinibelghitar (2010) reflect on this and compare this with the modern approach, with students "learn[ing] accounting simply for accounting's sake . . . something we are prone to do today as we insist on teaching book-keeping without any more than an occasional reference to the business world in which it operates" (2010, p. 7).

Trade, vocational and commercial accounting academies were established in the UK from the 1590s and frequently led on to or were closely associated with apprenticeship positions in business. Academies, such as the Islington Academy in 1766, advertised their work as being for "gentlemen intended for trade or merchants' counting-house [who] may be taught to write well and cast up by a short and practical method in a few weeks" (Hans, as cited in Edwards, 2011, p. 9).

The education of accountants has shifted over the past century from being located in practice, through training known as apprenticeships and

"articled clerkships" (Mathews, 2001, p. 2), to a location in higher education. The apprenticeship model ensured new accountants mastered the skill of accounting through lengthy observation and scaffolded independence while undertaking tasks in practice. Although examinations for practice were introduced by the end of the 19th century, the mode of learning did not change until the mid and latter parts of the 20th century.

3.3.1 Accounting: The shift from practice to university.

The training and education for accountants differed across continents. The UK, Australia and New Zealand preferred part-time technical colleges and professional examinations, and the US preferred College or university study prior to sitting professional examinations (Mathews, 2001).

Until the 1960s accountants across the Commonwealth were typically trained through a blend of work, part-time study, and practice-based examinations (Mathews, 2001). In the US, schools of business had been uneasily introduced into universities from the 1880s (van Wyhe, 2007) to professionalise the work of accountants and to give higher status to these professionals.

Serious concerns about the relevance, function and role of accounting education were raised n the 1990s (Albrecht & Sack, 2000; American Accounting Association, 1986; Mathews, 2001; Paisey & Paisey, 2007). Differences were noted between new universities that included a work placement segment, and older universities that focused on theory. These concerns can be traced to the 1980s, when the relevance of accounting education and the shape that accounting education was beginning to take were called into question:

> There is little doubt that the current content of professional accounting education, which has remained substantially the same over the past 50 years, is generally inadequate for the future accounting professional. A growing gap exists between what

accountants do and what accounting educators teach. (American Accounting Association, 1986, p. 172)

There were concerns not only about content but also about teaching methods, teaching quality assessment, the role of research and accreditation (Paisey et al., 2000; Ravenscroft, Rebele, St. Pierre, & Wilson, 2008). New technology, the pace of change, the impact of globalisation, increasing competition, the changing work environment, new recognitions of risk, increased regulatory activity, and outdated curriculum, assessment and pedagogy were among causes for concern (Albrecht & Sack, 2000; Mathews, 2001; Paisey & Paisey, 2007).

Albrecht and Sack (2000) exhorted the accounting profession and accounting educators to respond to these challenges and changes to business practice to ensure the ongoing relevance of accounting education for accounting practice.

3.3.2 Accounting education in New Zealand.

There are a number of study and career pathways to becoming an accountant in New Zealand (Participant institution, 2008a, 2008b). This reflects the general trend across several countries and many institutions as they determine and refine the ideal structure of accounting education and the shape of accounting professional identities and knowledge (de Lange & Watty, 2011; Freeman & Hancock, 2011; Wilson, 2011). The current requirements to become an accountant in New Zealand are listed below in tabular form. Three accreditation pathways are open to would-be accountants and all make provision for a mix of study, professional practice, an assessment of professional competence, and continuing professional development, although to varying degrees.

Table 1. Accreditation pathways for accountants in New Zealand.

	Chartered Accountant	Associate Chartered Accountant	Accounting Technician
Length of study	7 years	5 years	4 years
Academic programme	Four year degree programme	Three year degree programme	Two year diploma or degree programme
Practical Experience	12 months of general practical experience 24 months of specified practical experience with a mentor	12 months of general practical experience 12 months of specified practical experience with a mentor	12 months of general practical experience 12 months of specified practical experience with a mentor
Continuing Professional Development (CPD)	20 hours verifiable per year, 20 hours non-verifiable	15 hours verifiable per year, 15 hours non-verifiable	10 hours verifiable per year, 10 hours non-verifiable

Training and higher education institutions that wish to prepare students for careers in accounting must be accredited by the New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants (NZICA). All requirements are communicated to each accredited training institution in New Zealand individually (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2012a) to enable students to determine how various education programmes meet the requirements as determined by NZICA and what professional pathways are suitable.

Building on Albrecht and Sack's (2000) suggestions, Mathews (2001) commented on the route to becoming a chartered accountant in New Zealand. He noted that the basic three-year programme of study plus one additional year of study "which may or may not be directed towards an undergraduate or graduate qualifications" (Mathews, 2001, p. 4) meant that it took a significantly longer period to qualify in New Zealand than in other countries. The literature and participant data alerted me to the fact

that accounting programmes and professional pathways are not internationally comparable.

3.4 Architecture and accounting education within higher education

Discussion has occurred in earlier chapters as to the definitions and qualities of professions and disciplines. One of the key assumptions following the shift of accounting and architecture education to higher education is that they are each now regarded as an academic discipline as well as a profession.

There has been some debate in the architecture and accounting literature as to whether both architecture and accounting are disciplines and/or professions (Coleman, 2010; Paisey et al., 2000). Coleman (2010) provides a valuable perspective on the qualities and traits of architecture and he attempts to match architecture to traditional notions of professions and disciplines. He suggests that architecture is a discipline, as design can be said to have a definable body of knowledge. Coleman also presents a convincing argument as to how and why architecture therefore belongs to the humanities.

Despite accounting having a firm foothold in higher education, there has been some discussion as to the rightful place and evolution of accounting as an academic discipline (Demski, 2007; Fellingham, 2007; Paisey & Paisey, 2007). As early as 1924 the question was asked, "is accounting an academic discipline?" (Hatfield, as cited in Fellingham, 2007, p. 159). Fellingham (2007) explores the rightful place of accounting in the academy from a number of perspectives. He suggests that accounting tutors perhaps do not belong in the academy if their role is to provide training for the workplace. Fellingham questions if the primary function of accounting educators is to prepare students for practice, or contribute to the academy and research. He also suggests that accounting has yet to achieve full academic citizenship.

Demski (2007), too, suggests that accounting is not an academic discipline, and believes that the university's focus on getting graduates into the workplace is "initial-job myopia" (2007, p. 153), and putting both professional knowledge and research at risk. A further risk is that practitioners add little intellectually to the academy in terms of scholarly contributions.

The discussion above frames architecture and accounting alongside the descriptions of disciplines and professions in previous chapters. It is evident from the literature that accounting has a tenuous hold on status as an academic discipline, whereas there seems to be less concern voiced over architecture's position. The next section will consider the shape of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge in greater detail.

3.5 The shape of professional disciplinary knowledge

Previous chapters have provided extensive overviews of the nature of knowledge, curriculum and the professions in broad conceptual terms. This section will describe in more detail the features and elements of the professional disciplinary knowledge of architecture and accounting.

3.5.1 The nature of architecture professional disciplinary knowledge.

A number of scholars have debated what constitutes architectural knowledge, and these competing claims of knowledge have revolved around the balance and legitimacy of liberal arts, technical knowledge, creativity, tacit knowledge, design, professionalism, communication, and aesthetics (Boyer & Mitgang, 1996; Buchanan, 1995; Carvalho et al., 2009; Coleman, 2010; Paisey et al., 2000; Schön, 1987; Seagrest, 1997). Or in simple terms, "knowledge, skills and language . . . a sense of connectedness to the human needs" (Boyer & Mitgang, 1996, p. 4). The complexity of design processes and potential contexts of architectural design do not in themselves make definitions and boundaries of architecture knowledge easy, particularly as there are different grounds on

which variations of design knowledge are legitimised (Carvalho et al., 2009).

Communication in architecture, and by this I mean the modes of writing, drawing, and speaking, and to a range of audiences, is treated in different ways in the literature (Buchanan, 1995; Schön, 1983; van Raat, 2000, 2001). Drawings, as architectural representations, are valuable to the client, to society and to peers and new architects (Coleman, 2010). Written narratives about buildings, on the other hand, are useful only, suggests van Raat (2001), to higher education and research contexts.

Difficulties in defining architectural knowledge substantively are exemplified with the concept of provisionality and indeterminancy, and the fact that there is no one right answer for design solutions. Buchanan (1995) describes indeterminancy in architecture as "no definitive conditions or limits to design problems" (p. 14). Provisionality is taken to mean that knowledge development is temporary, ongoing, circular and non-finite. To practise architecture in this way and to identify and work with the limitless possibilities of architectural and design solutions, requires tacit and technical practice knowledge, and knowing what is aesthetically possible and creatively probable within the constraints of a particular context. Architects' knowledge and design solutions are therefore unique as "architects explore and develop their own intellectual programme" (Lawson, as cited in Carvalho et al., 2009, p. 498). Indeterminancy as a component of architecture knowledge does not, then, reside easily in contexts such as higher education with defined parameters and which demand accountability.

Architecture does not lend itself well to a positivist epistemology, as "knowing and doing are inseparable" (Schön, 1987, p. 78). Wang (2010) also suggests that design education and knowledge is under threat in the "positivist university paradigm" (2010, p. 173), because tacit creative knowledge and "[lacks] academic respectability" (2010, p. 181).

The nature of architecture knowledge is influenced by the wider political, economic and contextual factors, the culture of increasing accountability and positivity in higher education, and the surveillance mechanisms employed by professional associations. There is a significant overlaying of demands on architecture as determined by the profession and by the state. This is described as:

> Being subsumed within a "building industry" and organised accordingly to the objectives of scientific management, architecture must be content with playing a limited role in determining the character or appropriateness of the built environment. (Coleman, 2010, p. 208)

Accreditation processes and agencies exist that assess and determine how architects are constructed, measured, and monitored. The scope and influence of accreditation agencies has become a fundamental feature in architecture curriculum, in the pathway to becoming a (registered) architect and the construction of architecture professional identities. These processes and contexts wield significant influence on the nature of the architecture knowledge and curriculum, the context in which learning happens, and on the skills and capabilities of emerging and more experienced professionals.

3.5.2 The nature of accounting professional disciplinary knowledge.

The nature of accounting professional disciplinary knowledge has been considered by a number of scholars particularly as accounting too finds itself at a crossroads in the current context of accountability, surveillance and suspicion (de Lange & Watty, 2011; Demski, 2007; Freeman & Hancock, 2011; Jones, 2010; Mathews, 2001; Paisey & Paisey, 2010; Paisey & Paisey, 2007; Paisey et al., 2000; Ravenscroft et al., 2008; Wells et al., 2009). Much of this literature refers to accounting knowledge as being primarily propositional or declarative knowledge, based on facts and information (Eraut, as cited in Paisey & Paisey, 2007), with some elements of procedural knowledge in the form of techniques and skills. In their study

on the socialisation of accountants in the UK, however, Anderson-Gough, Grey and Robson (2002) found that accountants perceived conduct, behaviour and appearance as significant elements in being an accounting professional alongside credentials, training and expert knowledge.

Given that accounting education currently tends to be based largely on legislation and standards, the inevitable growth in the legislation can lead to a growth in propositional material to be learned, if the inclusion of new material is not well managed into the curriculum. An increase in propositional knowledge may well be at odds with other curriculum stakeholders who have their own agendas as to the knowledge to be developed. Paisey and Paisey (2007) suggest, for example, that increasing propositional knowledge succeeds only in helping graduates exercise certain accounting functions rather than to identify themselves as accountants. There appears to be little opportunity for an ontological or relational dimension in accounting curriculum.

Some argue that the procedural knowledge that accounting learners are exposed to in higher education fails to provide them with adequate professional consultancy, communication and literacy skills (Paisey & Paisey, 2007), leading to questions being asked as to whether university study appropriately prepares accountants for practice.

One solution to this perceived lack of consensus about accounting education is to conceptualise a core accounting curriculum (de Lange & Watty, 2011; Paisey & Paisey, 2007). Through a core curriculum, greater use would be made of ways in which propositional knowledge could be identified, shared and learned, and consideration could be given to the sequence and pace of learning in the degree or as continuing professional development. Another suggestion is to develop greater links between the academy and the professions, and to realign professional strategic objectives (de Lange & Watty, 2011).

Jones (2010) argues that generic attributes in accounting are conceptualised and constructed based on disciplinary influences and professional knowledge and skills, and that such skills are not always congruent between the academy and the profession. Jones (2010) further suggests that there is a prevailing assumption that generic skills can be easily identified, articulated and measured, and therefore lend themselves well to neoliberal agendas. She states that while some generalisability is possible, such skills cannot be "understood in total isolation from the social and cultural context in which they exist" (Jones, 2010, p. 7).

3.6 Chapter summary

The history of the education of architects and accountants in New Zealand has been summarised in this chapter. The relatively recent move of architecture and accounting professional education to the university context has also been described. Learning to become an architect and an accountant has been steadily and progressively shaped by and to suit the higher education context in which the majority of the learning is situated. This reshaping does not necessarily reflect the epistemological or ontological nature of the original professional disciplinary knowledge.

The influence of the New Zealand professional associations is significant throughout the career of the accountant and the architect, beginning with the higher education programme accreditation and the ongoing practitioner requirement for verifiable continuing professional development (CPD). The educational and professional careers of architects and accountants are subject to a number of external agencies which identify, monitor and measure performance against specific standards. How these agencies define their standards is in part what is under investigation in this study.

Chapter 4: Research Design

4.0 Introduction

The key objective shaping the design of this research was the desire to gain an in-depth understanding of how knowledge in architecture and accounting education was viewed, constructed, managed and shared by the various stakeholders, namely the academics, practising professionals, the higher education institution and the associated professional accreditation bodies. These groups within both the architecture and the accounting disciplines have a clear interest in how the higher education experience shapes the emerging professional.

In order to answer the research questions and to gain this deeper understanding, I employed a number of qualitative research methods, namely one-to-one interviews, focus groups, and document analysis. This chapter will outline and justify the choices that I made in this regard, and demonstrate how the methods chosen were planned to provide data with which to answer the research questions.

Qualitative research intersects a range of disciplines and subjects (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). The researcher working within a qualitative paradigm with a range of methods and tools has been called a *bricoleur*, a Jack-of-all-trades (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994), who produces a *bricolage*, a reflexive, dense, pieced-together text that attempts to make sense of a phenomenon. Qualitative research is described as being "multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 2). A qualitative approach utilising a number of methods to investigate my research questions best fitted the nature of this study.

Qualitative research has been defined as "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 17), thus emphasising its difference from quantitative research. Qualitative research

enables a greater depth and exploration and can provide insight into the "intricate details of phenomena that are difficult to convey with quantitative methods" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 19). Quantitative research, in contrast, is less concerned with the detail that can emerge from rich descriptions of phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

Although the qualitative/quantitative paradigms are becoming less and less discrete, and the distinction between the two are less strict following historical, social and political changes, and epistemological and theoretical shifts, it is important to state that this study is situated in the qualitative paradigm (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2008; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002). It is no longer deemed necessary for researchers to defend their position as qualitative researchers, such is the pervasiveness of qualitative research and the evolving research traditions (Wolcott, 2009).

This study investigated the nature of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge and the construction of new professionals. Choice of research methods needs to be consistent with theoretical orientation and be a good match for the research questions (Patton, 2002). The research questions guiding this study were:

1. How is professional disciplinary knowledge (architecture/accountancy) constituted and legitimised in a New Zealand polytechnic context?
2. How are professional practitioners constructed and legitimised within the architecture and accountancy disciplines in this context?
3. To what extent is the professional disciplinary knowledge identified in Q1 subscribed to and influenced by the profession?
4. What relationship exists between the academy and the professions in respect of issues related to the construction and legitimation of professional disciplinary knowledge?

My methodological choices were underpinned by my theoretical orientations. This starting point reflects Miles and Huberman's view that "it

is good medicine, we think, for researchers to make their preferences clear. To know how a researcher construes the shape of the social world and aims to give us a credible account of it is to know our conversational partner" (1994, p. 4).

This section will highlight a number of theoretical approaches I have taken toward my research. Guba and Lincoln (2005) list the ontological, methodological and epistemological differences between the alternative inquiry paradigms of positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, constructivism and participatory research. They explain, however, that such boundaries are continuously being blurred as researchers navigate and extract elements of each in order to address their particular research questions. Guba and Lincoln also advocate for an axiological perspective in research, as this would account for the values and ethics that a researcher brings to the research context.

In establishing the theoretical framework for my study I drew on the work of various scholars said to operate from constructivist, structuralist and social paradigms. Bernstein, for example, is said to have a social realist approach to knowledge (Young, 2008), and reconceptualised Durkheim's work on sacred and profane knowledges to arrive at theories of horizontal and vertical discourses, described previously in Chapter 2. Social realist approaches to knowledge acknowledge the social situatedness of knowledge and argue that the "social origins of knowledge . . . give [the knowledge] its objectivity" (Young, 2008, p. 146). Foucault's post-structuralist conceptualisations of power embedded in discourse are also said to operate from a social constructivist perspective (Young, 2008). These frameworks and others (Fairclough 1992; 2005) influenced my methodological and interpretive choices. Social realist perspectives enabled me to analyse data in terms of difference between the contexts of practice and higher education, and difference between theoretical knowledge and knowledge from the field of practice. I was also able to

examine notions of power and control within the discursive underpinnings of policy and frameworks.

In assuming elements of constructivism in my study, I was able to consider the negotiated, dialogic and co-constructed nature of professional disciplinary knowledge in different contexts and as a result of the move to higher education, and the extent to which knowledge was not negotiated, but shaped by other influences. There are also elements of a participatory paradigm in my framework as a consequence of gathering and interpreting participant data from practitioners and academics, and providing representations of what they had to say. There has been a "congruence of experiential, presentational, propositional, and practical knowing" (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 196) in how I have framed the data collection and analysis and considered the theoretical perspectives on the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge, achieved by how the data and discussion of data has been treated at various points in the thesis.

I have enabled a constructivist multivocal presence in my study, and my voice as researcher and interpreter of data sits alongside a range of participant voices. Through a number of rhetorical devices I have enabled the reader to gain appreciation of the plurality of voices and the individuality of participants. The data was accounts of participants' experiences as they saw them, a mutual construction of meaning as part of the interview process, embedded in interpretation and re-interpretation (Silverman, 2011). I have connected my personal self to my writing, and my writing reflects the various roles and tension in my roles as a researcher and critic, and as sympathetic and dispassionate (Weiss, 1994).

The social phenomena being discussed (in the case of an interview or focus group) or written about (in the case of documents) are accounts of phenomena or are related to it, and are limited what participants choose to remember and share at a particular point in time. This in turn is dependent on whether and how the researcher then chooses to take note of it. Interpretations of the data are constructed by the researcher as an attempt

to make sense. This process, described in the following sections, can be creative, messy, and political, and "defined by a series of tensions, contradictions, and hesitations" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 15).

4.1 The research context

At the time of the data collection for this project, the participant institution was defined by the New Zealand government as meeting the definition of a polytechnic. The government definition of a polytechnic is that it provides "skills for employment and productivity; support[s] progression to higher levels of learning or work through foundation education, and act[s] as a regional facilitator" (Ministry of Education, 2007b, p. 14).

In one of its recent annual reports, the institution emphasised its commitment to the professions and professional education. The polytechnic promised to "ensure that the professional and vocational education sector develops and maintains . . . specialised programmes that meet the needs of communities, industries and professions" (Participant institution, 2009, p. 2). The commitment to the professions, to work and to the workplace was made apparent in a guiding principle statement, which said that the institution aimed to "educate people for work, in work and through work" (p.2).

The academics that took part in the focus groups were all employed by the institution in a range of positions. All had worked or were still working in a diminished capacity as a professional in their discipline of architecture or accounting.

The practising professionals who participated in this study were all drawn from established working environments, medium-sized regional practices, or large national New Zealand organisations. Several of the practising architecture and accounting professionals both practised their profession and contributed to the education of emerging professionals in some capacity, either through contract or guest lecturing, or through being involved with the professional accreditation body as an examiner, mentor

or materials writer. Details of all focus group and interview participants are given in Appendix E.

4.2 Data collection methods and tools

The research questions dictated a need to gather rich data. It is therefore important to explain and justify the methodological choices and describe how they relate to the theoretical framework of this study.

This study utilises a number of data collection methods and tools, as listed in table 2 below, in order to address the research questions. The process of data collection was broken down into stages for this study. These stages are portrayed in the table. The table also provides an indication of the relationship between the data collected with the research questions.

Table 2. The relationship between data collection processes and research questions.

	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5
	Head of school interview	Academic focus groups	Professional focus groups	Professional documents	Academic documents
Q1. How is professional disciplinary knowledge constituted and legitimised	√	√			√
Q2. How is the development of aspiring professionals constructed and structured	√	√		√	√
Q3. To what extent is the professional disciplinary knowledge in Q1 subscribed to			√	√	
Q4.What relationship exists between the academy and the professions in respect of issues related to the construction and legitimation of professional disciplinary knowledge?	√	√	√	√	√

4.2.1 Interviews.

As can be seen in the table, the majority of data was gained from interviews. The research interview as a conversation, dialogue, or interaction between two or more people is a common method described in the qualitative research literature (Fontana & Frey, 2005; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Minichiello, Aroni, & Hayes, 2008; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The interview as a research tool succeeds in "democratising experiential information" (Gubrium & Holstein, 2001, p. 4) by recognising that all sectors of society have a voice and opinion and potentially something of interest to say. Others describe the interview process as accessing the inaccessible, or observing what we cannot directly observe (Patton, 2002; Peräkylä, 2008). Interviews are ways of overcoming numerous barriers and entering into "the other person's perspective" (Patton, 2002, p. 341).

Rubin and Rubin (2005, p. 79) suggest that there is a "conversational partnership" between the researcher and the participant, based on respect, trust, but with a necessary boundary which enables the researcher to remain focused on the goal of gathering data. According to Fontana and Frey (2005) and Mishler (1986), the interview is negotiated and mutually developed by all participants. This partnership will tend to be one-sided, however, as the interviewer is the initiator of the discussion. The onus is on the interviewer to manage the interview process, as the quality of the information obtained is largely dependent on their skill, strategy and execution of the interview (Patton, 2002).

How a research conversation is conceived of and conducted by the researcher is based on the researcher's epistemological assumptions. Kvale and Brinkmann distinguish between knowledge being *collected* or being *constructed* through the course of a qualitative interview. Their metaphorical description of the interviewer as a miner, digging deep for nuggets of knowledge, or as traveller, "wandering together with [the participant] . . . asking questions and encouraging them to tell their own stories of their lived world" (2009, p. 48) is useful, and reflects how

Silverman distinguished between positivist, emotionalist and constructionist interviews (Silverman, 2011). The notion of depth and its importance in qualitative research has been emphasised in case study literature (Patton, 2002; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009). Scholars suggest that hidden perspectives can be uncovered by delving deep (Johnson, 2001; Wengraf, 2001), and deep understandings will allow the researcher to grasp other and multiple perspectives on the topic.

The qualitative researcher is not a neutral player and observer in the research process. Class, race, gender, language, values and ethnicity of the researcher all have an impact on the research, as do her theoretical research framework, set of questions and interpretive mode. The researcher's beliefs about ontology, epistemology, and methodology help shape the interpretive paradigm in which she is working. The lens through which the researcher views the research and the researched is shaped by these perspectives. I articulate my perspectives as a researcher throughout this chapter and was concerned throughout the research process at being able to do justice to my research and the participants.

Scholars call for the interviewer to self-reflect and acknowledge their own biases and conceptual lenses (Johnson, 2001; Wengraf, 2001) as it is impossible to pretend that one's individual background and beliefs and values do not impact on one's research. Subjectivity is difficult to manage as the researcher relies on her interpretation of the participants' interpretation of the experience. I wrote field notes, a sample of which are included in Appendix G, for myself at a number of stages throughout the research process as a form of self-reflexivity, to aid my analysis and reflect on the research process, methodological suppositions and my initial findings. Providing examples of field notes is helpful, suggests Silverman (2011), particularly when accompanied by information on how the notes were recorded and in what context. What is critical, however, is that field notes are made promptly, are dated, clearly identify what is seen or said

as compared to the researcher's interpretation or reaction, and that the notes demonstrate rigour and consistency (Patton, 2002),

These notes were made during the first reading of transcribed interview data with practitioners. I am both drawing out and remarking on features of what the practitioners say. The salience of these features is influenced by the conceptual framework and how the responses potentially help to answer the research questions. An example of this is the following small section of field notes where I have remarked on what some of the architecture practitioners have said in their interviews:

> "architect – chameleon/mutli-role/persona?" (Author's field notes, February 2011),

> "drawing/tech; managing; designers, being self might be ok" (Author's field notes, February 2011), and

> "voices according to who speaking to" (Author's field notes, February 2011).

The next excerpt demonstrates how I begin to relate what participants say with what I have identified in the literature, and I begin to interrogate and interpret the data:

> "dilemma about sequence of learning, understand concept/apply concept. Is this all an issue due to levels and NQF and modularising?" (Author's field notes, March 2011).

After all transcripts had been coded, I began to develop high level codes which are in turn expanded upon. In my field notes I have written:

> "observation. I'm noting a difference in codes for practitioners/academics – which codes emerge for each cohort/differ. Can this be substantiated by further investigation?" (Author's field notes, 31 March 2011).

My attempts to check and re-check codes are also documented in the field notes. I revisited the findings chapters 18 months later at which time I asked myself: "subthemes grouped appropriately ie have similar things to say? Test sequencing logic" (Author's field notes, 2 December 2012).

There are, however, limits to this self-reflexivity, as "reflexivity as the disclosure of one's possible biased interpretations does little to reduce them" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 500). I sought feedback from supervisors, and actively monitored and rechecked my analysis and writing at various stages to check for openness and predisposition. The way in which I have reported on what the participants said, and my interpretation of their words, enables the reader to identify whose perspectives are being described.

4.2.1.1 Approaches to interviewing.

There are a number of approaches to the research interview which range from an interview being informal, unstructured, flexible, open-response information-gathering, to being standardised, carefully worded, inflexible, closed-response questioning. I chose a semi-structured approach for my interviews for which I prepared a list of questions to be explored with the intention to achieve an in-depth, interaction is reflected by Johnson (2002), who reminds us that:

> Whether the researcher is a neophyte or a returning veteran, in-depth interviewing involves an interactive process in which both interviewer and informant draw upon and use their commonsense knowledge to create some intelligible sense of the questions posed and the ensuing discussions about them. (p. 108)

The same questions were developed for both the individual interviews and focus groups are included in Appendix D and were shared with participants prior to being interviewed. The questions were not piloted prior to data collection. Through these open-ended questions I was looking for answers to the research questions, and each question was developed in

order to attempt to obtain individual, relevant and rich participant data. Many of the questions included a presupposition, as by presupposing I was assuming that the participants had something valuable to say (Patton, 2002).

Many of the questions I developed were aimed at understanding the participants' experience and awareness of aspects of work and practice in the professions and the academy. All of the questions sought to identify the individual's experience, opinions and the value placed on certain aspects of being an academic or practitioner. The wording of the questions enabled the participants to reflect, if they chose, on their own experiences as a learner, as a practitioner or as an academic. Question 1, for example, sought to find out what the term *professional* meant to each participant, and was purposefully open to allow for a range of perspectives and contexts. In questions 2-5, participants were invited to think about personal perspectives on being a professional, and to think about their own views professional becoming.

My writing of question 6 was informed by the literature I had read early in the doctoral process, focused on being, becoming, knowing and knowledge, and I wanted to attempt to apply these concepts to the professions of architecture and accounting (Barnett & Coate, 2005). The participants' understanding of and opinions on the processes of acquiring professional disciplinary knowledge were sought in questions 7-9. Question 10 then invited participants to imagine potential curriculum change and to think about how this could be achieved. The final question is direct in looking for the participants' view on who or what currently drives curriculum and professional learning, and I attempt to seek out their perspectives on owning the *knowledge*. By this I mean whether participants felt they could teach what they wanted to teach or whether curriculum represented professional disciplinary knowledge that was not, in their view, relevant or appropriate.

I chose to use a semi-structured approach as this enabled me to stay within the bounds of my topic to answer my research questions, and to be consistent and systematic when working with a number of participants (Patton, 2002). Using a semi-structured interview schedule too allowed me to pursue points of interest on an individual basis but in a bounded context. The interview schedule in Appendix D shows that I listed a number of possible prompts to remind myself as interviewer. These prompts reflect, for instance, the literature on knowledge as a concept that I had brought into my theoretical framework at the time (Gibbons et al., 1994).

The interviews with the heads of school and individual practitioners were all recorded and later transcribed thus enabling me to interpret participants' actual words without relying on memory. I drew upon Weiss (1994), who explains that by using recording devices the interviewer can better engage and respond to the participant while recording the interaction. I took notes during the interview and relied on these as well as the recordings and transcripts. I used the notes in the post-interview period to reflect on what I had heard (Patton, 2002), and to evaluate the material that I had gathered.

In accordance with my ethics application I advised participants in the initial introductory letter of my intention to record our discussions. This was also stipulated in the informed consent form that the participants were asked to sign at the time of our meeting, a copy of which was supplied to them later. These documents are available in Appendices A, B and C. In addition, participants were given the opportunity to add, delete, and comment on the transcripts of the interview. Only two of the practising professionals made any changes, mostly to do with accuracy, ensuring anonymity and to limit risk to others; no academic staff made any changes.

Weiss (1994) lists a number of advantages to interviewing participants more than once. The first interview is often the initial establishment of the research relationship, and participants may be more forthcoming in second and subsequent interviews. With only one interview the interviewer would need to be focused and strict with questions. In this study the

participants were interviewed and attended a focus group once only for pragmatic reasons and in consideration for the scale of this doctoral work. I justify my methodological choice to interview once as the interviews produced a wealth of rich data and covered an extensive range of questions. The participants and I readily developed a rapport and sense of engagement in the one interview. By choosing to make the interview questions available to the participants prior to the interview, I believe the participants had time to prepare and reflect, which resulted in the extensive and in-depth responses presented in my data.

4.2.2 Focus groups.

I conducted two focus group interviews for this study. One with a group of architecture academics and one with a group of accounting academics. These complemented the individual interviews with the two heads of schools and a number of architecture and accounting practitioners. Focus group interviews, as a means of gathering qualitative data, have increased in popularity in the last few decades. Morgan (1996) defines a focus group as "a research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher" (p. 130). He suggests that the focus group be regarded as a wide-ranging method so that it can be flexible for different research requirements. The rise in popularity of the focus group has been ascribed to the recognition that decisions are made in a social context (Patton, 2002), and that a focus group seems to address issues of social and cultural equality (Morgan, 2001). As a tool popular with marketers and pollsters, focus groups were adopted by social science academic research in the 1980s and 1990s as researchers saw the benefits of being able to elicit thoughts and experiences of smaller but more specific sections of society (Morgan, 2001). This also coincided with an emergence of qualitative methods in social science research.

A key tension in facilitating focus groups is the ability of the facilitator, or moderator (Krueger, as cited in Patton, 2002), "to keep the discussion on topic while encouraging the group to interact freely" (Morgan, 2001, p.

146). In order to enable multiple interactions and perspectives, the focus group facilitator needs to be skilled and needs to nurture the group discussion (Patton, 2002). My experience as a facilitator of numerous workshops and evaluation discussions was called upon in conducting the two focus groups for my study. The focus groups ran smoothly, were free of tension, and participants seemed happy with the process and seemed to feel that there had been adequate opportunity to participate. The potential limitation of focus groups, that participants are reluctant to speak when in the minority or because they are less vocal, did not seem to be an issue in the focus groups I conducted. Focus group participants were also invited to read through and comment on transcripts. No feedback was received, which suggests a high level of participant acceptance with what was said and the focus group process.

There are a number of advantages to using focus groups instead of individual interviews, such as the opportunity for participants to expand their own thinking by listening to others. While there are claims that focus groups are less valid and a one-to-one interview is more "naturalistic" (Lincoln & Guba, as cited in Morgan, 2001, p. 150), participants frequently enjoy the social nature of the experience (Patton, 2002). I found that the focus group participants made use of what others had said and this enabled them to add to their previous comments and to acknowledge alternative perspectives. There was no striving for agreement and consistency and nor was this an aim of my data gathering strategy. However, there were instances where participants provided checks and balances on one another (Patton, 2002) thus enhancing credibility of what was being said.

Focus groups are also cost effective (Patton, 2002) and this method enabled me to talk to more participants and to maximise my time gathering data. Using focus groups with groups of academics from the same department and discipline meant that the participants would largely have the same background and knowledge and that they tended to know each

other. Not being strangers did not seem to adversely affect what was said and the contributions made, despite warnings to the contrary (Patton, 2002). The homogeneity of the group enabled a deep engagement with the topics at hand.

4.2.3 Documentary research.

As indicated below, I supplemented interviews and focus groups with document analysis. In my selection and analysis of documents for my study I weighted the value of the potential documents to (a) my research, and (b) according to how they were valued by participants. The types of documents collected were:

- Institutional curriculum and programme documents;
- Institutional quality assurance documents (annual reports, evaluation reports, accreditation & moderation processes, reviews);
- Institutional programme brochures;
- Institutional planning materials (Charter, Vision & Mission);
- Government strategy documents (Tertiary Education Strategy, Education Act, National Qualifications Framework);
- Professional association standards & legislation.

Documents are invariably "mute evidence" (Hodder, 2000, p. 703). There is very rarely any opportunity for the reader to seek clarification from the writer, and the writer has rare opportunity to clarify her intent to the reader once the document is released. Documents risk being badly written, explicitly or implicitly predisposed to a particular set of beliefs, and such qualities may only be noted by the more perceptive readers. How much a document has an impact depends on the extent to which it is disseminated, whether the document is related to a regulatory framework, and is difficult to measure unless some form of reader response is set up, which I did not do in this study.

Descriptions of documents in research as "(1) receptacles of content and (2) as agents in networks of action" (Prior, 2008, p. 112) enabled me to

look at what documents do as well as what they say. Documents are read and provide background, they are used to guide talk, to develop arguments, and they can be used to incite action. They are used in various ways by various users and can be used to exert or demonstrate support or power or provide a neutral stance for the web of activity in which they are situated. Later sections in the thesis which report on the process of analysing documents will describe the approach I took to the critical analysis of the documents in more detail.

4.3 Sampling procedures

A range of sampling procedures can be employed in a research context, and include probability and non-probability, or purposive, sampling (Cohen et al., 2007). Non-probability sampling is commonly used by qualitative researchers because researchers operating in this paradigm wish to explore a particular phenomenon in depth. This is in contrast to probability sampling employed in quantitative research. Quantitative researchers tend to look for representative samples from which generalisations can be made (Cohen et al., 2000, 2007).

A number of non-probability sampling strategies are listed in the literature (Brace-Govan, 2004; Cohen et al., 2000) and they include purposive, quota, convenience and snowball sampling strategies. This study which sought to interview architecture and accounting academics and practitioners used non-probability snowball sampling, as described in the following section. This methodological choice was made in the full knowledge that the sample would not represent the wider population but that it would represent a particular population and this population would include participants interested in articulating views about architecture and accounting knowledge.

4.3.1 Interview and focus groups.

It is generally acknowledged that sampling participants for qualitative interviews and focus groups should be done on the basis that the

participants are fit for purpose, likely to be knowledgeable in the areas being researched (Warren, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Weiss, 1994), and can provide the rich, thick (Geertz, 1988) descriptions that are sought. Participants in my study were recruited using purposeful snowball sampling. Snowball sampling, argue Biernacki and Waldorf (1981), is not "a self-propelled phenomenon" (p, 143), but is a sequence of active and deliberate decisions and actions to ensure that the quality of data is such that research questions may be answered and that questions of ethics, anonymity, power and bias are attended to during the research process.

The focus group participants were all academic staff members in my organisation, teaching in various capacities in the architecture and accounting programmes. I sought to gain an in-depth understanding of the nature of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge in the academy and identified academics as being a source of rich data. The rationale and uses of purposeful sampling fitted the purpose of my study and align with Patton's (2002) argument, which defends purposeful sampling as not needing to make wider generalisations, but is to "illuminate the questions under study" (p. 230).

I chose to conduct the study and collect participant data and analyse documents from within my own institution. In doing so, I recognised the difficulty in juggling the roles of being an insider/outsider in the research context (Rubin & Rubin, 2005), and the advantages and disadvantages in conducting insider research in my own organisation.

I faced a number of dilemmas in wanting to conduct insider research and these dilemmas are summarised by Labaree (2002). They include whether the *insiderness* of the research resulted in a unique perspective that I could not have gained as an outsider, whether insiderness resulted in a biased interpretation, what my motivations in conducting insider research were, and how different outcomes and interpretations may have arisen had I chosen a research context in which I was an outsider. I will examine my response to these dilemmas here.

The notion of insiderness has evolved over a number of years, and has shifted from being perceived as a "severe insider-outsider dichotomy" (Labaree, 2002, p. 117), to an insider-outsider continuum, and more recently to discussions of positionality and trusted insiderness (Deutsch, as cited in Labaree, 2002). I defined my own positionality in this study and with regard to the academic participants as being defined by what I did, my job in the organisation, and by my intended doctoral study, and it is these perspectives that informed my decision-making process.

In Chapter 1, I described my work as an academic developer as what had led me to this study and to ask the research questions I developed. I wanted, like Labaree (2002), to explore "the hidden crevices . . . developing a deeper understanding of the complex dynamics" (p. 98) of my organisation, namely architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge. I had developed the study after working with the architecture and accounting programmes, and may have, as Drake (2010) suggests, developed assumptions and a theoretical position before commencing the study. Being aware of my positionality, and with clearly defined research questions and appropriate methods, strengthens the study because I am aware of how my insiderness, relationships and background may influence the particpants and the study, and I have considered how methodological choices support the theoretical positions I am taking.

I was an academic staff member at the same institution as the participants, and might have been viewed as a colleague. Yet I had had very little and irregular previous professional or personal contact with the participants, and did not regard myself as a friend, nor an *intimate insider* (Mercer, 2007; Taylor, 2011). The academics were not necessarily strangers to me, as is often assumed in interview and focus group research (Gubrium & Holstein, 2001; Weiss, 1994), but nor were they close colleagues or friends. I argue that I had a low degree of insiderness.

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My position as academic developer, which required that I work across the institution with all academic programmes and staff, however meant that I also mediated programme approval and accreditation according to NZQA and institutional requirements. It is here that I faced the potential problem of perceived power, and coercion by the participants in this study. I carefully considered whether the heads of school and academics felt coerced into participating given my potential or perceived power over them as either a facilitative or obstructive (de Laine, 2000) gate-keeper to NZQA approvals. I also gave thought to whether any insider participants may have been influenced by my position within the institution to the extent that they altered what they said to me, therefore affecting my ability to provide a true representation as to the nature of architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge within this thesis. I decided, however, that I had taken sufficient steps in the preparation for the focus groups to assure participants of confidentiality and anonymity, and to distinguish for them my position within the institution and my doctoral research work. I address aspects of these methodological issues in my section on limitations in Chapter 9.

Having obtained the required ethics approval, permission from the institution, and from the heads of school of architecture and accounting, I firstly arranged the one-to-one interviews with each head of school. The interviews with the heads of school were semi-structured, transcribed, took place in their offices and lasted approximately one hour. Details of the interview participants are given in Appendix E.

The head of each school provided me with the names of potential focus group participants, who were lecturers on their programmes. This was snowball sampling strategy. In this sense, the heads of school were also gate-keepers, and my responsibility to them was to ensure that they were fully informed of the nature of the study. Their responsibility to their staff and the institution was to protect the interests and well-being of the programmes and staff, and to exercise surveillance around this.

Two semi-structured focus groups firstly with architecture academics, then accounting academics, were arranged and each lasted approximately one hour. Despite invitations to attend the focus group going to a large number of potential participants, in the end the focus group with the architecture lecturing staff had three participants, and the accounting focus group had five.

I needed to consider whether academics, having been nominated and their participation endorsed by their head of school, felt coerced to participate due to the perceived power of the manager over employee, and whether this explained the low number of participants for the architecture focus group. There is a risk that having names of potential participants given to me by a third party, and significantly in this case by their head of school, would alter the way in which the participants responded. I wondered whether the academics would feel pressurised or expected to participate as their manager had referred them, if in fact they took part at all. To acknowledge the potential for coercion overtly, I did not use the head of school to help set up the focus groups but contacted the group in a group email that did not name other email recipients, and organised a time and room that would seem to work according to timetables. The voluntary nature of participation was specified in the participant information sheet.

I considered a number of other ethical and methodological issues in pursuing research in my organisation. It was incumbent on me as an insider-researcher to consider issues of privileged access and trust. As an insider, I had a good idea about who to talk to, and which documents to ask for. As an insider, staff may have been more willing to cooperate and enable this access. As an ethical researcher, I considered whether my research should be conducted in another institution, or whether to develop a comparative study and look at two or more institutions in order to better affirm or counter the findings from the study.

I made a number of decisions in my thinking through these dilemmas. It was pragmatically sensible for me to interview participants from within my institution given the size, scope and intent of the study. I have earlier described the participant institution, a polytechnic, as unique in the New Zealand higher education given its relationship with NZQA. This uniqueness makes a direct comparison with another institution less likely, but I was not looking to compare institutions and programmes, I was looking to look in-depth at particular programmes. The other local tertiary institution with whom a comparison could have been done was a university. Each institution given its designation was required to comply with distinct reporting requirements and their qualifications were accredited through distinct processes. A comparison of architecture and accounting between the two institutions may have, therefore, thrown up differences or similarities in the treatment of curriculum and knowledge, which could have emerged due to the different designations as institutions. I examine this under research limitations in Chapter 9 and identify this as an area for possible future research.

Given the current neoliberalist intent within higher education in New Zealand, however, I was aware too of the competition that can exist between institutions in trying to attract students and staff. I believed that access to participants and in particular to documents in this other institution would have been very difficult given the possible comparative element to the study, and my being employed by a competitor organisation.

I was aware too of the training and accreditation requirements for all architecture and accounting education, as dictated by professional associations. For this reason, I determined that the academics in both institutions would demonstrate a high degree of homogeneity in terms of the data that I was looking for in order to answer my research questions.

Snowball sampling, as an approach whereby potential participants are identified by current participants through their social networks, was used to identify potential knowledgeable practitioner participants practising within

the professions of architecture and accounting. The heads of school each provided me with an extensive list of names of such professionals. I approached a number of these by email and interviewed four practitioners from within each profession who responded positively. Each of these semi-structured interviews lasted approximately one hour, were recorded and transcribed, and took place in their offices.

The same risks of snowball sampling and of professional participants feeling coerced to participate existed here. I explicitly used the name of the head of school when explaining how I obtained their names. Judging by the take-up rate by all participants (all those contacted were happy to participate) and some comments made in the interviews, this approach seemed to be acceptable.

In accordance with consent arrangements, I ensured all participants were informed of the nature and purpose of their participation, were informed of my intention to protect their identity, knew how to withdraw and how to contact me to do so, and were advised that their participation was voluntary. Documents given to all participants to this effect are included in appendices A, B, and C.

Participant confidentiality, not disclosing identifiable information about participants, and anonymity, as a process to protect participants from the accidental breaking of confidentiality were assured to the highest degree possible in my study through a number of common ethical practices such as the use of pseudonyms and by removing identifying features from the excerpts. Confidentiality could however, not be unequivocally assured in the focus groups but particpants were urged to keep all comments within the group. The measures I took to assure confidentiality to a high degree in the early stages of the research process may have been critical in securing participation and access. Each interview and focus group participant was disguised by a given pseudonym, and I describe the rationale behind this choice in section 4.5. The full list of pseudonyms and participant descriptions are provided in Appendix E.

I considered the likelihood of and my responses should my organisation apply pressure for me to share findings, veto participants' contributions, or require me to breach my commitment to participant confidentiality, and what I would do if made privy to incidental information that ought to be passed on to the employer. These issues are highlighted by de Laine (2000).

To some extent the snowball sampling used to recruit the practising professionals meant that these participants possessed almost too similar characteristics. I did not recognise at the time that having names given to me by heads of schools meant that the professionals would have had some kind of educational connection to the school, and this is perhaps a limitation in this study. What I did value, however, was the professionals' ability to comment in detail on the education of professionals in their field.

After some reflection on whether this sampling choice was a limitation in my study and that I might need to also talk to practising professionals with little or no ongoing connection to higher education, I decided that it was in fact more useful to my study to have knowledgeable participants. Participants who could comment with some authority on the education and evolving development of aspiring professionals would best meet the needs of my study and be able to respond in an informed manner to the nature of the research questions.

I reflected on whether the size of my sample for each discipline focus group was adequate and sufficient. I adopted Patton's approach to sampling within qualitative research, that "sample size depends on what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry . . . what will be useful, what will have credibility" (Patton, 2002, p. 244). I justify the size of my sample (eight individual interviews, four from each discipline, and two focus groups of three and five participants respectively) in that the participants individually and together provided me with rich, meaningful insights into the phenomena under investigation, at the same time acknowledging that they constituted an interested and knowledgeable group.

I had planned for the opportunity to return to my focus groups and interview participants to explore and elaborate on my first round of findings after analysing the documents and their data. I decided, however, not to arrange more interviews and focus groups because of the sufficiency of the data that I obtained in the first round of interviews.

4.3.2 Documents.

A range of documents were purposefully and strategically selected and analysed in the course of my research. These documents were rich in information, based on my experience in the higher education sector, and provided me with information relevant to my research questions. Documents selected for analysis comprised:

- Institutional curriculum and programme documents;
- Institutional quality assurance documents (annual reports, evaluation reports, accreditation & moderation processes, reviews);
- Institutional programme brochures;
- Institutional planning materials (Charter, Vision & Mission);
- Government strategy documents (Tertiary Education Strategy, Education Act, National Qualifications Framework);
- Professional association standards & legislation.

The strategy I used to sample the documents was a blend of criterion and operational construct sampling. The constructs were developed from my experience in higher education and in accordance with the kinds of data I was looking for and what I had read in the initial stages of my research. The documents met the criteria of being produced by and for higher education and by and for the professions. Operational construct sampling involves sampling "real-world examples of the constructs in which one is interested" (Patton, 2002, p. 239), and criterion sampling as using "some predetermined criterion of importance" (Patton, 2002, p. 238).

Access to documents was relatively straightforward, as the majority were publicly available. I approached programme directors and heads of school to negotiate access to some of the programme, curriculum and evaluation documents for the architecture and accounting programmes, and also asked if they could recommend other documents that I might find useful. Access was freely given, and I have discussed the issues and advantages of access and insiderness in the previous section.

As part of my ethical responsibility, I have attempted to protect the identity of the participant institution, individual authors of institutional, government and professional association documents, and those named within these documents. In my submission of my thesis for examination I provided the examiners with a full reference list, which has included full bibliographic information on all documents. This list identified the participant institution. In order to protect the identity of the institution during wider dissemination of my research these references will be withdrawn prior to final submission of my thesis.

I took an emergent view with regard to sample size of documents. I had a list of documents that I wanted to analyse, and this could have been increased if what I had was not rich enough for the purposes of my study. Such an approach is advocated in the literature (Patton, 2002). Documents, as "stimulus for paths of inquiry" (Patton, 2002, p. 294), guide the researcher to other areas of the investigation and more potential sources of data.

Excerpts from within the documents were identified as illuminating my study. Such excerpts consisted of clusters of sentences, paragraphs and entire sections. It was important to include surrounding text during selection and analysis of excerpts in order to contextualise the data. The analysis of isolated sentences risks destroying semantic coherence, and makes interpretation and credibility difficult (Weber, 1990). The process of data analysis is explored in more detail later this chapter.

4.4 The case study as method

In broad terms, this study comprises two case studies. A number of scholars suggest that case studies have a dual nature (Cohen et al., 2000), and that a case study "is both a process of inquiry about the case and a product of that inquiry" (Stake, 2005, p. 444). Anthony and Jack (2009, p. 1172) suggest that the case study is a "methodology grounded in an interpretive, constructivist paradigm, which guides an empirical inquiry of contemporary phenomena within inseparable real-life contexts." Case study research is typified by depth and detail, holism and thick descriptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002), with the potential to reveal "complexity . . . and have a ring of truth that has a strong impact on the reader" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 10).

Using a multiple case study approach enabled the disciplines of architecture and accounting to be explored together in some depth, giving a rich and unique description of each within a bounded context of place, time. The importance of *bounding* the case is emphasised (Cohen et al., 2007; Stake, 2005), as the researcher needs to focus on the specifics of a particular case. Boundaries need to be drawn around the circumstances of the case study and a case will have particular geographical, institutional, temporal and organisational contexts. This multiple case study has such boundaries and is a snapshot of architecture and accounting education in the New Zealand polytechnic sector at a time marked by particular educational, economic and societal trends and government policy-making.

Each discipline was treated singly, though, with a view that there was the potential for the two case studies to be mutually illuminative. The disciplines are conceptually different on numerous levels, yet similar in terms of their relocation to higher education from a practice-based learning or apprenticeship model, the ongoing necessity to relate learning to practice, and in terms of the influence of and relationships with their respective professional associations. These similarities allow for some generalisations from my study about the nature of professional education.

By looking in-depth at the experiences and practices of the two disciplines in the educational and practice settings, the project and its findings are potentially enriched. It is commonly acknowledged (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009) that case studies rely on subjective experiential data such as interviews and observations. Case studies arise out of the intention to explore complex ordinary social phenomena in their typical bounded context. Case studies might tell us how frequent or how common an experience or event is. They describe a phenomenon in depth as opposed to enumerating frequencies of an occurrence.

4.4.1 Validity, reliability and plausibility.

A number of scholars (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009) emphasise the need to triangulate case study data so that the findings of the research can have their reliability enhanced. Triangulation is seen to strengthen a research study by combining methods (Patton, 2002), and by employing a range of methodological combinations the researcher can test for consistent observations and findings across the data. Triangulation is undertaken "to capture and report multiple perspectives rather than seek a singular truth" (Patton, 2002, p. 546), and to this end my study used several data sources (interviews, focus groups, documents) and through the use of both thematic and critical discourse analysis. The pursuit of consistent findings, however, is not my ultimate endeavour, as research findings that both converge and diverge are illuminative, and inconsistent findings offer opportunities for insight (Patton, 2002).

I have invoked Richardson's (1997) notion of a *crystal* as a metaphor to describe how multiple perspectives, multiple truths and different ways of representing truth can be enabled. Guba and Lincoln (2005) suggest that this metaphor enables us to see the interwoven processes of discovery, seeing, telling, storying and re-presentation of research:

> The central imaginary is the crystal, which combines symmetry and substance with an infinite variety of shapes, substances, transmutations, multi-dimensionalities and angles of approach.

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Crystals grow, change, alter but are not amorphous. Crystals are prisms that reflect externalities and refract within themselves, creating different colours, patterns, arrays, casting off in different directions. What we see depends on our angle of repose . . . . Crystallization, without losing structure, deconstructs the traditional idea of "validity". (We see how there is no single truth); . . . crystallization provides us with a deepened, complex, thoroughly partial understanding of the topic. Paradoxically, we know more and doubt what we know. (p. 97)

The notions of validity and reliability in research undertaken in the qualitative tradition have replaced positivist scientific expectations of objectivity, evidence of rigour and consistency, and minimal researcher prejudice. The issue of validity in qualitative research is, suggest Guba and Lincoln (2005, p. 205), "irritating . . . neither easily dismissed nor readily configured by new-paradigm researchers". The crystal metaphor above enables a loose and evolving sense of validity.

Any suspicion that the researcher may have shaped findings to suit a specific predisposition needs to be averted by the researcher, and Patton (2002) provides options for how to achieve this. I have attempted to make my position and theoretical orientations apparent throughout this chapter. I have endeavoured to not only look for instances where the data converge and are supportive of my predispositions, I have also been "engaged in a systematic search for alternative themes, divergent patterns, and rival explanations" (Patton, 2002, p. 553) and identified instances where data diverge and where dilemmas emerge, as will be seen in responses from participants. I considered alternative ways in which to organise, view and label the data. Actively looking for data that supports alternative findings enhances credibility, and not being able to find (enough) to support these alternatives gives weight to one's original interpretations.

Yet all research should be trustworthy and the trustworthiness of qualitative research can be judged on the grounds of credibility,

dependability, transferability, generalisability (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Patton, 2002), or "relative plausibility" (Mishler, 1986, p. 112) and "authenticity" (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 207). Credibility is achieved through choosing participants who are fit for purpose as this demonstrates how well the data collection processes have been conceptualised (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). The transparency with which the reader can view the data collection and analysis processes also increases the credibility of a research project (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002). The accuracy of representation of participants and their data is crucial, a "cardinal principle" (Christians, 2003, p. 219) in writing up research. As explained earlier, I chose knowledgeable participants for my study who were fit for purpose. I have provided clear descriptions of all stages of the data collection and analysis processes. The inclusion of my thematic codes in Appendix F enables transparency and possibly replication.

Case studies explore what is both common and particular to the case at hand. The potential for case studies to be generalisable to wider populations, the potential utility of qualitative case study findings is limited, as I have acknowledged in section 5.3.1. As Cronbach (as cited in Patton, 2002, p. 582) describes, "generalisations decay. At one time a conclusion describes the existing situation well, at a later time . . . [it] ultimately is valid only as history". There is a danger too that the researcher is so preoccupied with a commitment to generalise that she fails to notice the key features of the case itself (Stake, 2005).

I have attempted to produce two case studies that enable the reader to learn of the participants' experiences. My writing up of these experiences can assist readers to take inferences to other cases, contexts, professions and disciplines using their own intuition and conceptualisations. This is an instance of *particularisation* (Cronbach, as cited in Patton, 2002; Stake, 2005), whereby "a full and thorough knowledge of the particular" (Stake, as cited in Patton, 2002, p. 582) is arrived at. Individuals can use this

knowledge to make naturalistic generalisations based on intuition and can experience the research vicariously through a well-conceptualised and well-written case study (Stake, 2005).

4.5 Data analysis: Theoretical considerations and implementation

There are a number of risks associated with the analysis of qualitative data. These risks relate to the nature of the data, and the interpretations of the data made by the researcher, the volume of the data, and the circumstances surrounding the collection of data. I was aware of the complexities surrounding data analysis and the onus on me to analyse such data competently (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The importance of highlighting the researcher's self-awareness and caution for the project to be regarded as trustworthy is highlighted by Cohen and others (2007). In their words, data analysis is "a reflexive, reactive interaction between the researcher and the decontextualised data that are already interpretations of a social encounter" (2007, p. 469). The reflexivity of the researcher continues throughout the research process as she continually interprets the data in the pursuit of features and patterns particular to the case itself.

It is an ethical imperative to provide an accurate representation of the participants in any study. I was guided and reminded of my responsibility as a researcher by noting that "those using the findings of research have a right to expect that research be conducted rigorously, scrupulously and in an ethically defensible manner " (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 47). I followed the ethical guidelines established by the University throughout my study.

It is argued that data should be allowed to speak (Denzin, 1994). I believe that participants' voices are clearly heard through my data interpretation and writing, through the steps I have taken throughout the research process. I have carefully chosen what story to tell from the stories told to me by participants; however it is my interpretation of participants' stories that the reader is engaging with. How these layers of interpretation, or

interpretive circles, play out (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), has much to do with the respective positions of the researcher, the participant and the research reader.

I have included and interpreted verbatim participant quotations in the findings chapters, collected from interview and focus group interviews. Including verbatim quotations has become standard practice in applied social research (Corden & Sainsbury, 2006), and my chosen transcript excerpts illuminate links between the interpretations and conclusions drawn from my data, and enhance the credibility and validity of the research.

Corden and Sainsbury (2006), in their project to specifically look at how participants and their verbatim quotations were represented in research, highlight issues in how quotations are treated during the research process. All of their participants felt that using pseudonyms would be false, yet were divided on whether their speech should be altered or words removed. Some thought regional or impaired speech, and grammatical errors and hesitation should not be altered. Others thought that editing such speech was essential to enhance readers' comprehension. I chose to edit participants' speech in the excerpts included in this thesis to aid reader comprehension and to enable my text to work rhetorically and grammatically. My decision to use pseudonyms was justified when a number of participants stated their desire for anonymity in the interview, and provided feedback on the transcripts to ensure no identifying factors were included.

Researchers need to assume that what we are told by participants is a representation of the truth as perceived by them. Researchers also alter the mode through which the phenomena are described (oral to written in the case of interviews), and the written (the documents) is then written about as in the construction of this thesis. The participants are represented by and through my writing. This thesis is read and interpreted

by the reader, who brings their own disposition and background and who takes what they will from the writing.

A researcher can run the risk of data overload, and may also have issues to do with availability of people, and not know if missing people and data (and sources) might be important (Cohen et al., 2007). The researcher may be inconsistent between initial and later analyses of data, and may overemphasise confirming or appealing data at the expense of data that disconfirms.

In this section I describe the process of data analysis within the "three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 10). My aim was to get to a point where my data was so reduced as to be able to display, interpret and draw conclusions. The data reduction process is a continuous iterative exercise that requires the researcher to select, focus, abstract and transform the data into useable chunks. This process needs to be well documented from the beginning to warrant claims of robustness, consistency and validity.

The process of analysing data has been described in a number of ways. The early stages of analysis are described as both intuitive and "elusive" (Mauthner & Doucet, 2006, p. 121), and "messy, confusing and uncertain because we are at a stage where we simply do not know what to think yet" (Mauthner & Doucet, 2006, p. 122). In contrast, the latter stages of analysis are marked by continuity and systematicity. Mauthner and Doucet's suggestion that "data analysis is our most vulnerable spot" (1998, p. 123) was true for me given the feelings of uncertainty I experienced. It took me some time to code and group data together, and extract relevant data from the whole data set to a point of making sure that I did justice to the data and the participants.

My reductive systematic approach to data analysis led to a number of conclusions that I drew from the data. Initially these conclusions were held

lightly as they gradually became more explicit. The extent to which such conclusions are explicit and therefore plausible, valid and reliable is established and tested by checking back to the data, by establishing a coherent argument in the writing up of the data and by the other measures of validity and reliability outlined in the previous section.

My research was made more dependable by data being collected over a short period of time with minimal opportunity for major broad external influences on either the subject matter or the research process. I developed and used the same interview questions for academics and practising professionals respectively. While I strayed at times from these questions to suit the nature of the individual discussion, similarities in the overall direction and content of the interview were maintained. Steps to address issues of dependability in qualitative research need to consider "both factors of instability and factors of phenomenal or design induced changes" (Lincoln & Guba, as cited in Graneheim & Lundman, 2004, p. 110).

4.5.1 Thematic analysis.

Analysis of qualitative data obtained from a number of sources requires careful consideration, I decided that a thematic analysis approach and theory generation provided the best "fit(ness) for purpose" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 461). The interview and focus group data used in my study were analysed thematically after data had been transcribed. Thematic analysis has been defined as "a process for encoding qualitative information" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4). Attride-Stirling argues that thematic analysis:

> Provides a technique for breaking up text, and finding within it explicit rationalisations and their implicit signification . . . seeks to unearth the themes salient in a text at different levels, and thematic networks aim to facilitate the structuring and depiction of these themes. (2001, p. 388)

Boyatzis (1998) differentiates between themes at a *manifest* level, directly observable in the data, and themes at a *latent* level. Analysis at a latent level "goes beyond the semantic content of the data, and starts to identify or examine underlying ideas, assumptions and conceptualisations" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84). Similarities between this approach and discourse analysis have been drawn (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Latent thematic analysis is the process that I employed as it helped to uncover underlying principles within participant discourse that exists in the interview transcripts.

I chose to use a critically discursive approach to the documents, and this approach is described in the following section. What differentiates critical discourse analysis from, say, thematic analysis, is "its focus on linguistic patternings which illuminate issues such as power, positioning, representation, marginalisation and constructions of reality. These linguistic patternings include such features as diction, metaphor, transitivity, modality and pragmatic devices. It aims to identify discursive underpinnings that reflect larger patterns of Discourse (with a capital "D") in the wider social world and the hegemonic or counter-hegemonic work all Discourses do. Because all Discourses are associated with particular linguistic patterns, the operation of a Discourse in a particular text can be evidenced by *markers*, indicators of these particular linguistic patterns at work. A critical discourse analyst will be alert to such markers" (Locke, T., personal communication, 22 October, 2014).

The iterative process of finding, refining and elaborating concepts and coding to retrieve what has been said about various concepts (Rubin & Rubin, 2005) is a way of highlighting "the complexity of human interaction by portraying it in the words of the interviewees and through actual events and to make that complexity understandable to others" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 202). Developing themes is essential as it enables the researcher to have something to describe (Ryan & Bernard, 2003) and provides a hook on which to hang the discussion.

I began by familiarising myself with the data, reading and re-reading my interview and focus group transcripts, identifying and selecting usable chunks of data which were sentences, paragraphs or a few words, and in the case of the focus groups, mini conversations and debates. What was important during this process was the retention of enough surrounding data, context, so as to make available larger patterns in the making (Maxwell & Miller, 2008).

During this iterative continuous process of reducing and displaying the data I resisted coding the data too early into a tidy, convenient set of codes. The process of creating codes and themes involves much pattern-seeking. A pattern suggests frequency, typicality or intensity (Sandelowski, 2001). In case studies such as mine which have a number of participants, I wondered whether and how to use numbers, or words that suggest a number to capture the prevalence of particular views. In my analysis I employed a range of terms to demonstrate the prevalence and typicality of the data. Scholars suggest that "numbers do not provide the 'power' in purposeful sampling" (Chang, Voils, Sandelowski, Hasselblad, & Crandell, 2009, p. 839), and that it is more valuable to determine clear thematic distinctions than to conduct frequency counts. A theme can be prevalent in that it represents something important in relation to the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006). What is critical is a high level of consistency in determining such importance. Frequency, they suggest, is distracting, as "even if a pattern or configuration of circumstances was discernible in only one person, it would still 'count'" (Chang et al., 2009, p. 840). The extensive list of codes in Appendix F demonstrates my endeavour to be consistent in establishing prevalence of themes.

The initial codes that I developed were open, since I took an inductive approach in my analysis. I was open to what the participants were saying and I attempted to give each utterance a label at the most basic level to describe what participants were saying at both latent and semantic levels (Glaser & Strauss, 1999; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ryan & Bernard, 2003).

Although open coding is suggestive of grounded theory, I had in mind a theoretical framework that I had developed through issues I had identified in my literature review and through my research and interview questions, and applied this framework as I read.

After my first read-through of my transcripts and before I had given each utterance a label to help organise my writing and guide me to a fuller theorisation of the data, I realised I had already begun to theorise the participants' utterances. I went back and re-read the transcripts a number of times and attempted to give a code to each chunk. At first I tried to package my data chunks into a nominally small group of codes that seemed tidy. I soon realised that this would not work and allowed myself the freedom and flexibility to generate a substantial list of codes, thus enhancing the credibility of my study so that "other readers...can see that the researcher is open . . . rather than determined to force-fit the data into pre-existing codes" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 62).

The codes that I developed as a result of this phase, listed in Appendix F, were descriptive short-hand codes such as *C-Prac* (notions of practice in curriculum, *K-Incid* (incidental knowledge) and *MMHEPAss* (mismatch between higher education and professional association). These labels and their application were refined and checked during each read-through of the transcripts until I decided I had exhausted the options, felt comfortable with the patterns and clusters that were emerging and had accounted for variability and consistency (Taylor & Ussher, 2001). Over time I experienced what Miles and Huberman (1994) call the *decay* and *flourish* of codes which forced me to re-conceptualise the clusters and create sub-codes. I occasionally found myself becoming complacent during coding which meant I needed to re-read the transcripts.

In clustering together the coded data into potential themes, I was mindful of the need make my analysis coherent by considering carefully how "different ideas or components fit together in a meaningful way" (Leiniger, as cited in Aronson, 1994, p. 1). Such coherence was ensured as I read

and reviewed the themes and the coded data, and refined the clear definitions of each theme. I then wrote the two findings chapters which appear later in this thesis. Chapters 6 and 7 display the data of the individual cases, and include what I believe to be compelling excerpts which demonstrate the issues I have identified and support the arguments I am making in this thesis. These two chapters are near mirror images of the other, highlighting the significant convergence of each case study on a number of key and salient themes. This phenomenon of convergence shapes Chapter 8, which provides a discussion of the findings from the data, and Chapter 9, which offers suggestions for future research and articulates the contribution that this study has made.

4.5.2 Critical discourse analysis.

There was brief mention in earlier chapters of the potential power of documents and discourse and how power can be exerted on the reader through text. Particular knowledges are privileged through the creation and dissemination of documents with specific *discursive designs*. A text can have discursive designs on a reader and position the reader to view the world in a certain way. In this way, language in documents is political (Gee, 2011), as language makes certain things significant, and contributes to the enactment of practice and the construction of identity. Using critical discourse analysis (CDA) to analyse the documents that I gathered for my study was therefore a logical choice, as CDA enables the analyst to look for patterns as to how meaning, professional disciplinary knowledge and professional identity are being constructed through text.

Discourse can be defined in a number of ways, from "language in use" (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 1) to "more than just language use: it is language use, whether speech or writing, seen as a type of social practice" (Fairclough, 1992, p. 28). Fairclough later extended his definition and emphasised that discourse could only be described in relation to its internal and external relations, "discourse is not simply an entity we can define independently; we can only arrive at an understanding of it by

analysing sets of relations" (Fairclough, 2010, p. 3). Weedon also argues that discourse is defined as "ways of constituting knowledge, together with the social practices, forms of subjectivity and power relations which inhere in such knowledges and relations between them" (1987, p. 108). As a method, critical discourse analysis enables the researcher to describe and interpret not only discourse in context, but how and why the discourse came to be and how it functions within the broader social context (Rogers, 2004, 2011).

The notion of *critical* discourse analysis is particularly relevant to my document analysis, as this approach enables the researcher to "uncover power relationships and demonstrate inequities embedded in society" (Rogers, 2004, p. 3). Other descriptions suggest that CDA "views power in society not so much as imposed on individual subjects as an inevitable *effect* of a way particular discursive configurations or arrangements privilege the status and positions of some people over others" (Locke, 2004a, pp. 1-2). CDA also attempts to describe and interpret the relationship between the form and function of language (Gee, 2004), whereby the researcher investigates how "form-function correlations themselves correlate with specific social practices that help constitute the very nature of such practices" (Gee, 2004, p. 19).

A number of scholars discuss the power exercised through social practices and the discourse constructed within such practices (Codd, 1988; Fairclough, 2010; Foucault, 1977, 1980; Weedon, 1987). Foucault suggests:

> There are manifold relations of power which permeate, characterise and constitute the social body, and these relations of power cannot themselves be established, consolidated nor implemented without the production, accumulation, circulation and functioning of a discourse. There can be no possible exercise of power without a certain economy of discourses of truth which operates through and on the basis of this association. (Foucault, 1980, p. 93)

Weedon agrees, with her description of power as "a dynamic of control and lack of control between discourses and the subjects, constituted by discourses, who are their agents. Power is exercised within discourses in the ways in which they constitute and govern individual subjects" (1987, p. 113).

The legitimating power of documents is seen to reside in the discursive construction of professional identities through the documentation produced by professional associations. Discursive practices perform what Gee (2005) calls a range of building tasks, in that the documents build knowledge, construct politics, build relationships and identities.

Through my approach to the critical discourse analysis of documents produced for and within higher education in New Zealand, I am able to identify certain invisible forms of power (Olssen et al., 2004). Power resides in the discourse and the extent to which the discourse is subscribed to. The documents in my study are constructed by the state and its agencies, as the state largely controls the higher education system. State control of education is enabled through documents such as policy, curriculum, frameworks, management systems, and assessment schedules. Such political and symbolic control of the education system is described as follows: "Every educational system is a political means of maintaining or modifying the appropriation of discourses, with the knowledge and power they bring with them" (Olssen et al., 2004, p. 67). Fairclough too argues that such texts are constructed and given agency by the wider socio-political framework and that "texts are the situated interactional accomplishments of social agents whose agency is enabled and constrained by social structures and social practices" (2004, p. 229).

To uncover the perceived realities of the power afforded to documents within higher education and the professions I needed a framework that facilitated the *analysis* element of critical discourse analysis. This framework also needed to support the analysis of text and the social and political practices underpinning the text. I chose to adopt Fairclough's

framework in my study (Fairclough, 1992; Locke, 2004a; Olssen et al., 2004). I find Fairclough's three-dimensional conception of discourse, whereby text is embedded within discursive practice, which in turn is embedded within social practice, useful, as it allows for multiple interconnections, patterns and divergences to be identified, and multiple ways to access the text.

The application of Fairclough's three-dimensional model is described in some detail by Simons, Olssen and Peters (2009a) in their broad analysis and discussion of re-reading education policy. They, like Fairclough, argue that at a discourse level, language is central to ideological tensions as ideological diversity manifests itself in language, and language "can reveal how practices are ideologically maintained, strengthened or resisted" (Simons et al., 2009a, p. 62).

Critical discourse analysis at the level of text enables examination of new, borrowed or recontextualised discourse and in what way such discourse is operationalised. An examination of the way in which the texts are produced, and the particular styles, modes and genres that are employed is also made possible with Fairclough's model. Fairclough (as cited in Simons et al., 2009, p. 63) extends his critical discourse theory and distinguishes between three forms of critique, the ideological, the rhetorical and the strategic:

> Whereas ideological critique focuses on the effects of semiosis on social relations of power, and rhetorical critique on persuasion (including "manipulation") in individual texts or talk, what we might call "strategic critique" focuses on how semiosis figures within the strategies pursued by groups of social agents to change societies in particular directions. (Fairclough, as cited in Simons et al., 2009a, pp. 62-63)

My approach to the textual analysis of documents in this study has drawn on Fairclough's framework as my intention was to examine professions

and professional disciplinary knowledge as essentially social constructs. As part of this investigation I examined to what extent documents and text shape and construct the professions and professional disciplinary knowledge. Using an interdiscursive approach, then, has enabled me to provide both a textual and a social analysis on the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge.

Critical discourse analysis at the level of sociocultural practice enables the exploration of immediate context that has given rise to the text in question. It enables an examination of "sociocultural practices and discursive conditions at both institutional and societal levels that provide a greater contextual relevance" (Locke, 2004a, p. 42) and helps to determine whether the text supports a particular "discursive hegemony . . . or whether it stands in a counter-hegemonic relationship to certain prevalent conditions" (Locke, 2004a, p. 43).

Simons, Olssen and Peters (2009a) offer a fourth approach to critically analysing discourse. They state that there is scope for *tactical critique*, which will provide critical policy researchers with a means to develop counter-discourse.

Being able to look critically at documents as *agents* is possible if we look at how documents come into being (Prior, 2008) and the context in which they are produced and read. Prior (2008) also notes that documents are "fluid . . . slippery objects for analysis" (p. 117) as multiple interpretations can be employed and relate to the cultural and social context in which they are read.

Situating a document in a context, and bounding a document, makes analysis simpler and acknowledges the context and enables the context of culture to be discursively mapped. Prior (2008, p. 125) asserts that a document needs to be "analysed in action" as the contextualisation of the document aids understanding. The culture, or cultural system in which the document is located at a point in time, is comprised of "a system of

symbolic meanings anchored in particular arrangements of social institutions and patterns of interpersonal interactions" (Kleinman, 1980, p. 24) and as such is a fundamental part of the analysis.

The documents that I chose to analyse reflect power and official knowledge of various kinds. Such power is wielded by agents such as current and previous governments, the institution and the academics working within the schools and professional associations. As authors of the documents which guide or embody curriculum within higher education, and within the education of would-be architects and accountants, such agents are able to "grant official legitimacy to particular groups' knowledge" (Apple, 1993, p. 11) and wield symbolic control (Bernstein, 2000) over the learning that takes place.

Policy, produced by the government and mediated by its agencies and institutions, is a typical embodiment of power and is "about the exercise of political power and the language used to legitimate that process" (Codd, 1988, p. 235). Policy constitutes the official discourse (Codd, 1988) of the entity that brings policy into being and affords it power. Policy is an official recontextualising device, as discussed in Chapter 2 (Bernstein, 2000).

I took the analysis *of* policy approach (Codd, 1988; Olssen et al., 2004), whereby I examined the effects of policy and the values and assumptions underpinning its construction and execution. As a researcher, it was important for me to look at the provenance of the documents that I analysed. Not only do I explore who, when, why and for whom the documents were written and what they say, I also look at what the documents do or are intended to do. Inherent here too is what they do as an unintended or unanticipated consequence of their having been written. See Chapter 5.

4.6 Chapter summary

This chapter outlining the design of my research explains the contextual and theoretical underpinnings of my study, and the ways in which data

have been collected and analysed. I have demonstrated how my theoretical perspectives have informed the approaches taken to the data, and how I have justified the chosen process alongside the literature and process itself. I have demonstrated how critical aspects of ethical behaviour, trustworthiness, validity and plausibility have been conceptualised, thereby adding weight and substance to the findings and discussion that follow.

The next chapter is the first in which findings are reported. The next chapter provides an analysis of the documents selected for my study using the approaches and conceptual framework outlined in this chapter. The following chapters are the case studies of architecture and accounting in which the findings are shared with the reader, and in which participant excerpts are provided and interpreted. These findings chapters form an essential component to providing answers for my research questions.

Chapter 5: Document analysis

5.0 Introduction

This chapter reports on a critical discourse analysis of documents produced and disseminated by the New Zealand government and its educational and professional agencies and that help to construct architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge. These documents are seen to employ a range of discourses, such as those pertaining to the classical democratic view of professionalism, and those that fall under the umbrella of neoliberalism, such as performativity, employability, and the privileging of the economy. These discourses and related documents can be viewed as exerting symbolic control over higher education and as constructing architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge. While I do not provide an in-depth textual analysis of the documents, my analysis does draw attention to contextual elements that add to and inform my interpretations of the participant data.

5.1 Analysing education policy

I discussed neoliberal influences in education policy in New Zealand in Chapters 1 and 2. Such influences were apparent in the 1989 Education Act, the tertiary education policy Green and White papers of the 1990s, documents produced by the Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC) in the 2000s, and in the Tertiary Education Strategy (TES) documents since 2002. Sections of the 1989 Education Act related to tertiary education implied an instrumentalist view of higher education, with a clear focus on economic, social and environmental goals, and increasing checks, accountability measures and surveillance mechanisms to shape tertiary education in a certain way. A degree of marginalisation around curriculum was present as there was little mention of the term *curriculum* in the tertiary sections of the 1989 Act, although curriculum was mentioned a small number of times elsewhere in the document.

The term *knowledge* also started to appear with some frequency in New Zealand policy documents during the 1990s. In her doctoral work critically analysing the discourse of New Zealand education policy documents, Morton (2013) reports that, in the eyes of academic participants in her study, much of the policy language was superficial, lacked substantive meaning, lacked definition and suffered from being amorphous, nebulous and open to interpretation, a position supported by others (Roberts, 2008). Policy was loaded with "bureaucratic jargon" (Morton, 2013, p. 214) and was ambiguous.

The Foresight Project and the first Tertiary Education Strategy (2002/07), two New Zealand policy initiatives from the early 2000s and "examples of the 'new' knowledge discourses" (Roberts & Peters, 2008, p. 42), are heavily influenced by a blend of what Lyotard (cited in Roberts & Peters, 2008) calls scientific and narrative knowledges, to which is added market knowledge, a neoliberal form of knowledge (Roberts & Peters, 2008). Market knowledge, suggest Roberts and Peters, is manifested through discourse markers such as *choice, stakeholder, performance indicators*.

Manifestations of neoliberal policy in terms of student choice, the positioning of the student as a consumer, and institutions in competition with one another, feature significantly in New Zealand education policy in the 1990s, as I outlined in Chapter 1 (Codd, 1993; Peters & Marshall, 2004; Roberts, 2008; Robertson & Dale, 2002). Choice, argues Codd (1993) becomes a newly declared core value within an overly centralised education system in which consumers have felt powerless and limited.

The neoliberal construction of choice and of people in society being autonomous choosers is problematised by Peters and Marshall (2004). Providing a consumerist degree of choice in education assumes that students and families are capable of making choices and evaluating quality, interest, and what meets their needs. Peters and Marshall suggest, too, that by enabling consumer-driven choice, there is an assumption that the quality of the commodity provided will improve as a result. Consumers,

however, will struggle to be autonomous as they "exist[s] in world in which so much of our social, economic and cultural life is now marketed, branded and 'sold'" (Peters & Marshall, 2004, p. 120).

In his analysis of the 2007/12 Tertiary Education Strategy, Roberts (2008) highlights a number of similarities and differences with the first strategy (2002/07). Neoliberal discourse prevails, he argues, but is less pronounced in the second strategy, although terms such as *productivity*, *competencies*, *innovation* and *lifelong learning* are salient. Roberts (2008) also remarks on how and how frequently the terms *quality* and *relevance* are used in the document, arguing that "on their own, they are devoid of substantive policy content" (p. 5), are ambiguous and open to interpretation. This emptiness and ambiguity of New Zealand policy at this time appears to be a common theme, and the focus on quality reflects the neoliberal preoccupation with accountability and value. What was positive in the second strategy, however, is the increasing inclusion and acknowledgement of academics' input into more recent policy development (Roberts, 2008).

In the 2007/12 TES, knowledge has become a commodity and is incidental in a marketised performative education model, argues Roberts (2008), as knowledge is made indistinguishable from other goods and services and knowledge framed as skills. The intrinsic value and worth of traditional academic knowledge has, in policy, both been inadequately substantiated and been shaped in marketised, skill forms. What influence this has on architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge and professional identity is a key focus of this study.

Within the New Zealand education policy context, in which neoliberal influences manifest themselves in market knowledge terms, a marketisation and performativity discourse has emerged which appears to commodify education and knowledge as demonstrated above. The commodification of education and knowledge is usefully described as follows by Fairclough (1992):

Commodified educational discourse is dominated by a vocabulary of skills, including not only the work "skill", and related words like "competence", but a whole wording . . . of the processes of learning and teaching based upon concepts of skill, skill training, use of skills, transfer of skills, and so forth . . . . This wording helps to commodify . . . education, in the sense that it facilitates its division into discrete units, which are in principle separately teachable and assessable, and can be bought or sold as distinct goods in the range of commodities available on the educational market. (Fairclough, 1992, p. x)

Placing value on research and academic knowledge through research assessment exercises such as the PBRF, is also regarded as an instantiation of the commodification of knowledge (Middleton, 2009; Roberts, 2007, 2014; Roberts & Peters, 2008). The 2010/15 TES document (Ministry of Education, 2010) is geared towards the global marketplace via a higher education system which focuses on upskilling workers in particular areas and for identified industry sectors. The foreword of the 2010/15 Tertiary Education Strategy strongly reflects a neoliberal discourse. A mix of neoliberal principles and socially inclusive ideals are embodied in the policy statements and in the language of the TES document. Words such as *consumers, stake-holders, competencies, adding value*, place great emphasis on employment, the labour market and the economy, with the objective of tertiary education being to "lift the productivity of the nation . . . help our businesses [to] compete on the global stage . . .become more relevant...to the labour market and the economy" (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 2). The implication is that productivity will be improved through more people having better access and better success in particular sectors of higher education.

As the quotation below indicates, the Tertiary Education Strategy (TES) links higher education inextricably with a focus on skills, and the performance and growth of New Zealand's economy:

> The tertiary system will play a key role in the skills driver, which is focused on improving literacy and numeracy, youth achievement, and tertiary system performance. It will also play an important part in supporting the evolution and growth of industries through the innovation and business support driver. (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 3)

The emphasis here on skills strongly resonates with the work of Peters and Marshall (2003), who wrote about the neoliberal tendencies apparent in New Zealand education policy in the 1980s and 1990s. They described the 1993 New Zealand Curriculum Framework as "a selection of knowledge packaged as skills, which represents a particular world-view and specific set of interests . . . . A skills-based orientation towards learning, thus, [which] provides an easy transition from school to the labour market" (p. 70). They argue that by decoupling knowledge from learning contexts, and making skills transportable, the state is shaping learning and learners for the labour market as defined by the state, which is also seen in the juxtaposition of skills and business support drivers in the previous quotation.

Managerialist discourse (Sachs, 2001), which in education enables the market to play an important role in the shaping of education policy, permeates the 2010/15 TES. The TES implies that higher education needs to improve its self-management to become "more efficient" (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 2), and the tertiary education sector is expected to attract its own resources. There is specific mention of "performance-linked funding" (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 18), and the entire sector is tasked to work collaboratively in identifying and remedying industry skill demands. Such language again reflects the demands of the marketplace, and positions higher education as subservient to the needs of employers.

The TES uses the economic language and evidence-based discourse (Krejsler, 2013) of key performance indicators (KPIs) in relation to the achievement of its priorities. These indicators unsurprisingly link higher

education to employment, and suggest that such achievements are and should be measurable through forms of numerical and statistical evidence:

- more people under 25 enrolling into higher education;
- higher first-year retention rates, particularly for Māori and Pasifika students;
- more school-leavers entering higher education;
- more people engaged with qualifications that aim to improve literacy, language and numeracy skills. (p. 10)

While objectives articulated in the TES suggest a strong commitment to equity and access to higher education (Ministry of Education, 2010), it is apparent that the development of the TES has been largely informed by neoliberal, managerialist drivers which emphasise the importance of skills and employability, reflected in such aspirational goals as:

- provide New Zealanders of all backgrounds with opportunities to gain world-class skills and knowledge;
- raise the skills and knowledge of the current and future workforce to meet labour market demand and social needs;
- produce high-quality research to build on New Zealand's knowledge base, respond to the needs of the economy and address environmental and social challenges;
- enable Māori to enjoy education success as Māori. (p. 6)

The emphasis in the Strategy on younger people accessing higher education might be construed as an altruistic discourse of concern for youth and a prevailing belief that school leavers are best accommodated in higher education. However, such a construal would be challenged by reading such an emphasis as an indication that higher education is becoming massified, and that people risk becoming over-credentialised. These are trends identified in participant findings in Chapters 7 and 8.

The Tertiary Education Strategy refers to measuring "the contribution that tertiary education makes to New Zealand's economy and society" (Ministry

of Education, 2010, p. 22). Valuing tertiary education in economic terms is strong evidence of neoliberal discourse. The emphasis on measurability within higher education, while tinged with hint of altruism, is manifested through a range of accountability measures, and is also linked with neoliberal and evidence-based discourses around education. By its very nature, however, neoliberal preoccupation with self-interest makes altruistic social behaviours and tendencies difficult, and the state appears to be struggling to reconcile this in recent policy as was also the case in the 1980s and 1990s (Robertson & Dale, 2002).

Mechanisms to measure and monitor curriculum and pedagogy are provided within the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) Register of Quality Assured Qualifications (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2007), and in the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF), as described in Chapter 1. This increasing demand for extrinsic accountability and preoccupation with outputs, evidence and monitoring demonstrates once again a hegemonic neoliberal discourse.

From a critically-discursive standpoint, the adoption of the Qualifications Framework is evidence that New Zealand education policy makers were operating out of a rationalist paradigm in which a structure is imposed, indicated in terms such as *frame* and *model*. The demand for schools to "implement a curriculum for students" (Ministry of Education, 2007a, p. 44), and the state's role in specifying "the areas of knowledge and understanding . . . the skills to be developed by students" (Education Act 1989, s 60A, cl b(i)), are in contrast to more organic, evolving post-modern ideals and humanistic discourses of education.

The language of the Register, prior to the development of a joint Framework through which all tertiary qualifications in New Zealand are *quality assured*, suggests a prevailing preoccupation with external accountability. Quality assurance occurs through compliance with the demands of the state and professional approval and accreditation bodies, deemed as being "responsible for the quality that underpins the delivery of

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qualifications" (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2007, p. 7). Responsibility for what defines quality, and defining and measuring quality via a range of performativity measures is removed from educators, and instead given to other agents, who are not necessarily academics and practitioners.

The discursive effects of education policy documents produced in the last 30 years can be seen as shaping the approach taken within higher education toward curriculum and learning. The discourses reflected in the documents discussed above begins to affect the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge in ways that reflect the requirements of the state and employers, and in ways that potentially threaten the power and disciplinary knowledge and practice of the academics and practitioners. How documents constructed *within* the participant institution and by professional agencies influence the professional disciplinary knowledge of architecture and accounting are discussed in the following sections.

5.2 Professional and institutional documents that shape architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge

One of the primary functions of the participant institution is to deliver professional and employment-focused programmes such as those for architecture and accounting. This function is reflected in the institution's Strategic Plan which states that "through vocational and applied professional education and practically oriented research, [name deleted] equips people to realise their aspirations" (Participant institution, 2010a, p. 14). The relationship between the polytechnic, industry and employers is evidenced in the language of a number of institutional documents, and supports a number of discourses which are examined in the following section.

Professional programmes are subject to the expectations and demands of professional associations and rely on being accredited in order to remain

valid and attractive to students. The expectations and demands that shape the programmes and the knowledge and professional identity of architects and accountants are articulated in a range of documents produced and enforced by professional associations. The documents also stipulate processes and activities that programmes and professionals are expected to adhere to. My analysis of professional documents, provided later, has also shown that these processes, inevitably, influence in a way curriculum and the construction of professional disciplinary knowledge.

I have identified a number of discursive instantiations in my textual analysis of institutional and professional documents. Neoliberal and employability-focused outcomes that are demanded by education policy, the state and by professional associations emerge in a number of ways and are explained. There is a preoccupation with evidence and measurement, which at the same time sits alongside text in which the discourse of classical democratic professionalism is reflected.

The first section focuses on documents produced by academics within the participant polytechnic that have a bearing on the design of architecture and accounting programmes. The second section looks at the professional association documents that shape the expectations and work of practising professionals.

5.2.1 Institutional documents that shape architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge.

This section will look at a range of documents which operate within the participant institution, that serve particular purposes and that influence architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledges in various ways. I will examine institutional administrative documents which govern how programmes are conceptualised and managed. I will also consider curriculum, or programme, documents constructed by academics for the professional programmes of architecture and accounting.

A range of discourses are evident in the 5-year Strategic Plan of the participant institution in this study. The discursive effects of a neoliberal education policy are found in the institution's plan and are evident in its commitment to work-based learning and integration with the real world. The assertion that the institution will meet the changing needs of both students and workplace are evidence of this: "be a world-class, world-scale Institute of Technology that is an agent of economic, social and environmental change . . . we are passionate about the transformative power of education" (Participant institution, 2010a, p. 3). In recognising learning and community in this statement, the institution appears to acknowledge its altruistic responsibility to society and community. In addition, however, the statement suggests that education has the ability to bring about economic and social success, which resonates with my earlier discussion of New Zealand education policy.

The aspiration of the institution "to be an excellent business" (Participant institution, 2010a, p. 26) could be construed as a neoliberal preoccupation with finance, profit, and with being fiscally responsible and self-funded, justifiably perhaps, as this is demanded by the Tertiary Education Strategy and current education policy. The preoccupation with quantity, with numerical and statistical evidence, given the performance indicators that the institution has set for itself in its Strategic Plan, and that the achievement of educational objectives are measured through numbers of graduates being employed supports this construal. Hints of altruistic, socially-responsible discourse are evident too, however, with the institution's commitment to reduce its "environmental footprint and resource consumption" (Participant institution, 2010, p. 51).

Altruistic, community, and humanistic discourses of education appear throughout the institution's Strategic Plan. The four key priorities of the institution include "meeting . . . the needs of our communities…enhancing the student experience (Participant institution, 2010a, p. 26). There is an expressed commitment to engage with Māori and Pasifika communities.

Three of the five initiatives that underpin the institution's community involvement by "establishing strategic relationships with key business and employer groups" (Participant institution, 2010, p. 31) suggest, however, a preoccupation with the interests of with employers and industry. This discursive mix is evident too in statements around curriculum and learning where the institution will deliver "programmes integrated with the world of work and [that are] genuinely dynamic" (Participant institution New Zealand, 2010, p. 50).

I analysed a number of programme-related documents. I was given similar information by the architecture and accounting departments although the documentation was different in terms of purpose and format. Architecture provided programme documents and annual programme and external examiner reports. I received a substantial volume of data from the accountants in the form of programme documents, 5-year review reports and advisory committee minutes, but no annual programme reports. I would suggest that this difference reflects the various reporting demands that the respective professional associations make on the academy, and the specific ways that each profession, professional association and discipline legitimates professional disciplinary knowledge, measures quality in the academy and exerts power on the profession and academy through textual practices.

Both the architecture and the accounting programmes are guided by a programme document, or curriculum document. Every programme within the institution is required to have a programme document which is subject to institutional, peer and external scrutiny, and NZQA approval. My textual analysis of architecture and accounting programme-related documents shows that the demands of the professional associations and accreditation processes play a pervasive role in curriculum design. The external accountability discourse is a direct acknowledgement of stakeholders to whom professional degrees and academics have been made accountable. These include professional associations, the state, a more globalised

network, as well as peers and experts from other educational institutions and from practice. What appears to be under threat in this context is the role and influence of the academy, experts and practitioners, and results in, as we will see in the interview and focus group data, a degree of tension and contradiction in curriculum design and delivery.

As with the institutional documents, there are a number of examples in the programme documents which point to multiple and potentially conflicting discursive positions. The architecture programme document promises that the programme will "provide students with a thorough knowledge of the professional, social and environmental responsibilities that are brought into play by the practice of architecture" (Participant institution, 2007, p. 3). There are a number of discursive strands that might be construed from this statement. One is the classical democratic discourse of professionalism, in service of which the programme will instil in the students a knowledge of and expertise in being a professional. Encompassed in this discourse is the sense of professional altruism and being socially responsible, where students are enabled to engage with the social and aesthetic dimensions of building buildings. This statement does not, however, suggest that students will be able to exercise such responsibilities autonomously, and therefore renders somewhat invisible the third element of classical professionalism, i.e. autonomy. As will be seen, notions of autonomy are prevalent in the interview and focus group data, where I have identified perceived threats to professional autonomy from the discursive effects of regulations and monitoring, where an evidence-based approach to defining professionalism threatens the autonomy of practitioners and the academy.

One of the architecture graduate profile statements asserts that graduates "will be competent and accountable when working in a range of building industry related employments" (Participant institution, 2007, p. 14). *Competent* can be interpreted in a number of ways. It can suggest a technicist, skills-based managerialist approach to practice in that the

competence of graduates is defined by others rather than by themselves, and therefore limiting, perhaps, professional autonomy. Competence can also be interpreted through the lens of being expert. Being competent alongside being *accountable,* however, suggests accountability to some other and to expectations defined by the TES, the institution and the professional association. Taken alongside other statements that are examined in this section, developing a subscription to external accountability measures seems to take precedence over developing autonomous, trusted, expert professionals.

A neoliberal preoccupation with employability is reflected in the architecture and accounting programme documents in their subscription to notions of work-readiness. The architecture programme promises to "produce graduates well equipped . . . to become effective in a variety of roles related to architectural design" (Participant institution, 2007, p. 10). As the quotation below indicates, the accounting programme is concerned not only with work-readiness, but also with productivity and "the need for tertiary education to transform young adult participants into 'work-ready' and productive employees . . . our graduates will think and behave as independent, professional and capable business practitioners" (Participant institution, 2008, p. 15).

There are a number of ways to construe such notions of productivity. One interpretation is of an underlying neoliberal discourse of purposeful education which brings tangible value to employers and the workplace. *Productive* could also be interpreted in conjunction with words such as *independent, capable* and *professional,* thus foregrounding notions of professional autonomy. Productivity in the following excerpt from the architecture Annual Report, however, is clearly linked to the economy: "Our focus [is] on providing the highly productive talent and skilled workforce that Auckland, New Zealand, and indeed the world economies need" (Participant institution, 2010b, p. 6). Being productive, then, is

construed as meeting employers' needs within the national and global context.

How programmes should meet employers' needs and meet the expectations of professional associations is articulated in a number of documents. These documents provide for monitoring mechanisms and processes within the participant institution which include visiting panels of experts, periodic reports and reviews and advisory committees. These documents make professional standards explicit, and outline ways in which professional knowledge, learning and quality in the academy should be conceptualised and managed. These documents are considered in section 6.2.2.

The discourse of professional accreditation and compliance, and what compliance means for students as evidence of quality, is particularly prevalent in the accounting programme documents. The programme "is structured to ensure that the academic requirements for membership of the NZICA [New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants] and CPA Australia [Certified Practising Accountants] are met" (Participant institution, 2008a, p. 17). The discourse around accreditation is one of external accountability and the need to demonstrate quality. Expertise is defined and measured through the achievement of externally imposed standards rather than as a body of knowledge possessed by the professional person.

The emphasis on standards, where they are upheld in the name of quality assurance, is manifested in the Lecturers Quality Assurance Manual within the architecture school. Evidence-based discourse permeates the manual, illustrated in the following quotation which exhorts lecturers to "implement and maintain a Quality Assurance system that ensures courses are delivered to the required content and standard" (School of Architecture, 2009, p. 3). The manual reflects a neoliberal agenda, and can be construed as a further example of external accountability and performativity at the expense of lecturer expertise and autonomy. The document acts as a buffer between the institution and the external

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agencies, and shapes and demands compliance and certain behaviours by lecturers.

The extent of explicit influence from the professional associations on professional curriculum in higher education will be more fully considered in the following section, using the cases of architecture and accounting. The standards and expectations that are set for the programmes, and the review and reporting requirements for the institution, strongly resemble the neoliberal evidence-driven position that has become dominant within education in New Zealand. This position appears to ensure the success, viability and relevance of degree programmes in relation to employers, the economy and to the state's tertiary education policy.

The extent of any tension or contradiction between the professional association and the academy is difficult to ascertain from the documents alone, but clearly the academy is limited in the curriculum choices it can make. One wonders, however, whether there would be much difference in what the academy would teach if left to their own devices, but the control exerted through the state and its agents is such that we cannot know. One can assume too that the definitions of quality and the standards that are set were originally based on the profession and practice itself. The specific degree of influence of the profession and academy on curriculum and on the standards and requirements is hard to surmise from this brief textual analysis. Analysis of the participant data in the following chapters will provides an opportunity to explore via participant experiences the relationship between the professional associations and the academy and how this shapes professional disciplinary knowledge within curriculum.

5.2.2 Professional documents that shape architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge.

I undertook a textual analysis of a number of documents produced by professional associations and by the New Zealand government. I have done this because the state has been pivotal in the creation of policy and rules that govern professions such as architecture and accounting. One

scholar has described this occupational alliance with the powerful state as an exercise in the appropriation of knowledge, and that through this alliance the professions gain "exclusive rights to exercise and control a certain field of work" (Krejsler, 2005, p. 343). To what extent the guidelines, legal statutes and rules analysed here appear to shape initial and ongoing education, guide the registration process and direct the knowledge and practice of architects and accountants is the focus of this section.

Legal statutes related to the architecture and accounting professions call for the establishment of professional bodies tasked with monitoring each profession in a number of ways. The largely regulatory, evidence- and quality-based discourse that is apparent in other and subsequent documents produced by both professional associations is legitimated in the legal acts through which the associations are constituted.

The education and professional practice of architects in New Zealand is subject to the Registered Architects Act (2005) and the Registered Architects Rules (2006). The Act (2005) provided for the establishment of the New Zealand Registered Architects Board (NZRAB), which performs a regulatory function and undertakes the following tasks:

- registers architects who have been assessed by their peers as being competent to practise independently;
- maintains an online register;
- reviews the competence of architects every five years;
- investigates complaints, and if needed, disciplines architects.

(Registered Architects Act, 2005 (NZ))

The New Zealand Institute of Architects (NZIA) was established in 1905 and is currently a professional association representing 90% of New Zealand architects. It sets out in some detail the standards, behaviours, definitions, requirements, and processes surrounding the registration and monitoring of architects, and enacts and monitors the requirements articulated by the Act and NZRAB.

The practice and education of accountants in New Zealand is similarly regulated. The New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants Act (1996) provides for the registration and control of the accountancy profession and its education. This Act also provides for compliance and monitoring activities to be undertaken by the New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants (NZICA). The Act has been mediated by NZICA so that NZICA performs a number of governance functions, which are framed by a discourse that is regulatory but that also reflects the discourse of classical democratic professionalism. NZICA will:

- Promote quality, expertise and integrity in the profession of accountancy;
- Promote, control and regulate the profession of accountancy;
- Promote the training, education and examination of persons practising, or intending to practise, the profession of accountancy.

(New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2011a, p. para. 6)

NZICA specifies the criteria for programmes of study and accredits and monitors tertiary institutions in New Zealand to ensure that programmes meet the academic requirements for professional membership (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2012a, 2012c). Discourses of quality, control and accountability permeate the NZICA website and documentation, apparent in the following quotation: "that is why our Code of Ethics includes an obligation for you to maintain standards of competence and to carry out work in accordance with appropriate technical and professional standards throughout your professional career" (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2012c, "CPD Guidelines.").

The interdependent relationship between the institution, the programme and the professional association comes under some scrutiny later in this section and in my analysis of participant data. The nature of this relationship was also considered in the previous section where I

suggested that professional expertise was being defined by standards constructed by the profession, and that the expertise and autonomy of the academy was potentially under threat from the discursive influences of policy and regulations.

I examined the extent to which professional practice, identity and expertise are shaped by the requirements of the professional associations. One common requirement is around continuing professional development (CPD). There are significant overtones of evidence-based discourse in the way in which CPD has been conceptualised in policy and mediated in practice in both architecture and accounting, with reasonably clear articulations as to what counts as evidence according to the policy writers. Evidence, in the eyes of the policy-writers, appears to be that which is tangible and measurable. By providing evidence as prescribed, it can be ascertained that practitioners demonstrate quality and expertise.

The New Zealand Registered Architects Board (NZRAB), as directed by the Registered Architects Rules (2006), provides for a compulsory five year competency review process in which an architect's competence to continue registration is assessed. Architects must submit a declaration and evidence of what CPD they have undertaken:

> The NZRAB is required to satisfy itself that you meet the minimum standard for continued registration, in order to grant you an entitlement to annual registration for five more years. This form provides the NZRAB with information to make that judgment. (New Zealand Registered Architects Board, 2009, "Continuing Registration Competence Review Assessment Form". Introduction)

CPD activities are organised by NZRAB and others and have differing credit values. The intention is that architects self-nominate activities and submit evidence of CPD through an annual online portfolio. Evidence in this case is defined as achieving 1000 points of CPD across five domains: "If an architect reaches this target, this is deemed sufficient evidence that

the architect has taken 'reasonable steps to stay current'" (New Zealand Registered Architects Board, 2009, Competence Reviews Background Information. Second section). External forms of evidence are legitimated in the architecture CPD discourse which reflects neoliberal influences on the construction and identity of professionals. External forms of evidence take precedence over internal forms of evidence, in that professionals appear not to be entrusted to be professional, and unable to acquire the knowledge, skills and dispositions of being a professional through perhaps tacit, contextually situated and immeasurable means. How CPD is mediated within the practice of architecture, then, poses a threat to previously discussed classically professional concepts of autonomy and expertise.

NZICA mandates continuing professional development for its members in a similar way. The CPD Guidelines specify the hours and activities that will provide the accountant with the training they are required to undertake. The language around CPD in the NZICA document is loaded with compulsion and warning, and puts the onus firmly on the accountant to participate in CPD. Written in bold capitals at the introduction is:

> **CPD IS THE MEANS BY WHICH YOU FULFIL YOUR PROFESSIONAL OBLIGATION TO YOURSELF, YOUR CLIENTS, THE PUBLIC AND YOUR PROFESSIONAL COLLEAGUES** (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2012b, p. 2).

Such discourse evidences high levels of external accountability, but at the same time the words appear to reference the classical democratic discourse of professionalism. Accountants are urged to be autonomous and responsible, to be considerate of the public and others in the profession, and the subtext suggests that CPD will enhance one's expertise. As I have suggested earlier, there is an uneasy mix of neoliberal, regulatory discourse alongside professional discourse in the documents that shape and inform the practice and education of architecture and accounting.

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As with the architects, particular sorts of evidence, as defined by the NZICA CPD Guidelines, provide assurances to the profession and other stakeholders that an accountant is competent. It can be construed from the following quotation that without this CPD an accountant is incompetent: "If you are not up-to-date with current technical and general knowledge relating to your work, then you cannot provide professional services competently" (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2012b, p. 2).

Accountants are also required to complete an online CPD portfolio and "CPD hours (either verifiable or non-verifiable) can be claimed for all NZICA professional development" (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2012c, CPD policy and online log.). Technologies of surveillance, evidence and external accountability appear dominant in the discursive space around CPD for the professions of architecture and accounting. The word *verifiable* is one example of this. The professional associations seem to have become agents of the state following the state-constructed legislation that shapes the professions. Constructions of quality, professionalism and evidence are defined by the state and not necessarily the profession. In seeking an alliance with the state and allowing the state to legislate professional knowledge and practice, it could be construed that the professions have traded their autonomy and independence for power and legitimised knowledge spaces.

Practitioners and the practice of architecture and accounting are also shaped and governed by a number of other rule books and codes, which, as their titles suggest, are loaded with regulatory language alongside a professional discursive thread. The language within the Registered Architects Rules (2006) is indicative of a strong regulatory function. Words such as *mandatory*, *comply*, and *quality objectives* are frequently used. The "Code of minimum standards of ethical conduct" (2006, p. 26) includes a number of standards for architects in relation to clients, the profession, the law and peers. The language and modality of the language

within these standards demonstrate regulatory, professional, humanistic and altruistic discourses where an architect "must observe the confidentiality of the client's affairs . . . . must not maliciously or unfairly criticise at attempt to discredit another['s] . . . work" (2006, p. 27). There is, however, some tension between not being able to criticise peers and pursuing "professional activities with honesty and fairness" (2006, p. 27).

NZICA's extensive Code of Ethics provides for a number of principles which all members must abide by. A number of discursive positions are evident and there is again a mix of neoliberal language of accountability, with notions of professionalism:

- Integrity;
- Objectivity and independence;
- Competence;
- Quality performance;
- Professional behaviour.

(New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2006)

The Code asserts confidence in NZICA itself, claiming that by following the code, "members [will be] recognised as trusted expert business professionals, probably more so than any other professional group" (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2006, p. 2). Unpacking the discursive markers in this statement, it is apparent that NZICA is comparing itself favourably with other professions in the standards that it demands of its practitioners. The use of *trusted* and *expert* are markers of classical democratic discourses of professionalism as described in Chapter 2 and earlier this chapter.

The language in the Code is interesting in that it refers to *you* throughout, identifying the accountant as the reader of the document. Another statement uses bold language and includes markers of classical democratic professionalism discourse. The use of quotation marks in the text for *professional* suggests a certain disregard for other professions:

> Ask someone what sets an Institute member apart from other "professional" groups that provide services to business and the community, and the responses you get will likely include competence, integrity, objectivity, quality and professionalism. (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2006, p. 2)

Notions of professionalism feature in the NZRAB documentation, where there is the altruistic demand for *good practice* from architects, although good is undefined:

> Comprehend, and [to] apply his or her knowledge of, accepted principles underpinning (i) widely applied good practice for professional architecture, and (ii) good practice for professional architecture that is specific to New Zealand. (New Zealand Registered Architects Board, 2007, p. 10)

The example below demonstrates intertwining threads of altruism, expertise and autonomy, which contrasts somewhat to how the institutional documents have framed architects and academics as being predominantly externally accountable:

> Create a design for a complex building that is capable of realisation through the exercise of knowledge, imagination, judgement and professional responsibility. (New Zealand Registered Architects Board, 2007, p. 10)

Review and advisory mechanisms through which practitioners and academics are made accountable to external surveillance frameworks are mandated by professional associations and by statute and appear, as my analysis suggests, to influence the programme and the nature of knowledge. As noted earlier, NZICA demands a number of review and monitoring processes and standards that accredited institutions must comply with. The institution and the programme are measured against pre-defined standards, stipulating, for example, staff qualifications, quality assurance processes, and student resources.

In my textual analysis of documents I identified how review processes can exert influence on accredited programmes and institutions, illustrated by reviews undertaken on the Bachelor of Business (Accounting) at the participant institution by NZICA (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2011b) in 2006 and 2011 in which the programme and the participant institution were measured against NZICA's Tertiary Accreditation Standards.

The 2006 review panel recommended unconditional continuation of the programme, but made eleven recommendations. Most of these recommendations focused on the very crux of the purpose and function of the degree. The modality and language in these statements was strong and the programme's external accountability apparent. Academics were strongly recommended to review and restructure the programme based on what the panel had identified. There appeared to be little scope for academics' autonomy:

> The foundational core of the degree [should] be restructured to prepare students to better progress through the programme with courses which introduce students to business fundamentals;

and,

> The graduate profile [should] be reviewed and that this review occur in the context of discussions about the nature of the programme and the degree restructure.

(Participant institution, 2006, pp. 9-10)

The mandated Advisory Board to the accounting programme has significant industry representation and appears to influence in ways that suggest that they, as employers, are more concerned with the perceived quality of the programme, and the future employability of graduates (New Zealand Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2011b). The minutes of these meetings demonstrate that participants take a great interest in enrolment trends, student recruitment and retention initiatives, school and

institutional structure and vision: "Expenditure within the budgeted figures achieved . . . . Strong enrolment growth . . . . Strengthen links with local business community" (Participant institution, 2008b, section 6).

There is less discussion within the Advisory Board of the programme, curriculum content and pedagogy. The tendency for the Board to focus on the financial and viability aspects of the programme mirrors too perhaps the pressures put on higher education programmes in recent years that were discussed earlier in the thesis, where recent education policy appears to neglect curriculum and knowledge in favour of financial and fiscal accountability, student success and employability and employer satisfaction.

The participant architecture programme is also subject to a mandated external examination process. Predetermined standards, as a focus on quality assurance, prevail in what appears to be an audit culture. The examiners in this instance were "satisfied that the QA procedures . . . have been complied with" (Participant institution, 2009, p. 12). A number of neoliberal discursive strands might be construed from this quotation, namely those of evidence, compliance, and measurability.

Discourse that privileges professional disciplinary knowledge and pedagogy is evident in a number of recommendations in the architecture external examiners' report that I considered (Participant institution, 2009). A number of recommendations specifically relate to the programme's need to attend to areas of the curriculum in order to better reflect practice, namely assessment, drawing, technological thinking, visual communication, critical engagement with architectural history, and sustainability. Some of these areas were highlighted as having been "noted in previous reports" (Participant institution, 2009, p. 11), and as needing ongoing attention as they were "fundamental issue[s] for practice" (Participant institution, 2009, p. 11). That the architecture programme had not yet adequately addressed areas highly valued and relevant for practice may be indicative of the difficulty in being able to incorporate practice into

curriculum and pedagogy, a finding identified from interview and focus group participants.

This brief analysis of the institutional and professional documents that shape architecture practice and education has demonstrated a number of strong and mixed discursive influences. Discourses of neoliberalism, external accountability and regulation are prevalent, and sit alongside discourses that reflect the classical democratic view of professionalism, namely altruism, autonomy and expertise. The broad textual analysis and examples I have provided shed some light on the way in which these discourses attempt to shape professional disciplinary knowledge, practice and practitioners in ways determined by the state to meet the state's agenda, and to meet the expectations and requirements of the profession. As I illustrate in my analysis and later in my thesis, these external conceptualisations of knowledge and pedagogy do not necessarily reflect interests and views of participant institution professionals.

What may be under threat is the professional independence of the academy, given the requirements, expectations and pervasive influences on curriculum and pedagogy originating elsewhere. This broad analysis of documents that construct what it means to be an architect and accountant provides an important context for the interview and focus group findings in the following chapters.

5.3 Chapter summary

This critical discourse analysis has explored the discursive underpinnings of a range of documents related to architectural and accounting education, the construction of professional disciplinary knowledge and the construction of professional identity. I have highlighted a number of discursive tensions in the documents, and how multiple discursive threads intertwine as documents are directed by the agendas of a range of stakeholders. I have demonstrated how the documents act to shape the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge and the construction of professionals. I have illustrated how and the extent to which a number of

stakeholders exert symbolic control over professional disciplinary knowledge through policy, written standards and expectations, mandated surveillance mechanisms and through a context of practice, legislated accreditation and evidenced compliance.

The following chapters present data on how practitioners and academics involved in the learning processes in higher education and in practice perceive the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge and the construction of professionals. Through the analysis in this chapter, I have been able to provide a discursive context in which my interview and focus group participants operate as practitioners and as academics.

Chapter 6: Perceptions of architecture practitioners and academics

6.0 Introduction: Learning architecture

Learning to become an architect in New Zealand takes place in both higher education and practice. Within each, there are a range of factors that affect the constitution of architectural professional disciplinary knowledge. This chapter will explore the nature of these contexts, and examine how the professional disciplinary knowledge of architecture has been and is being shaped by the contexts within which the learning is happening.

There are clear qualification and training pathways for those who wish to practise architecture in New Zealand. While anyone can study for a degree in architecture, to legally practise and call oneself an architect one must gain and retain professional registration. Graduates from architecture degrees may practise in the domain of architecture but they are not entitled to call themselves architects.

Architecture education moved from practice-based apprenticeships to higher education in the 1950s, and thus has a relatively recent tertiary history. Since the 1950s, as we have seen in previous chapters, higher education in New Zealand has undergone significant transformation. It is not surprising then that architectural education, and the knowledges that are valued within it, have also experienced transformation, not only as a result of its new place within higher education, but also as a result of the changes to higher education itself.

The themes that have emerged during my analysis are, in broad terms, those around change as a consequence of the move to higher education from an apprenticeship model, accountability and autonomy, the construction of professional disciplinary knowledge, professional identity, issues of authenticity, and professional relationships.

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Ideas of extrinsic accountability are prevalent in the participants' discussions around accreditation, registration and the various requirements imposed by higher education, the state and the profession. Participants reflected on the nature of architecture professional disciplinary knowledge in many ways, from ideas of design, creativity, problem-solving, drawing, and technical skills, to the uncertainty and provisionality of architecture as a practice. How architectural knowledge is created and learned was also a prevalent theme. Issues of authenticity ranged from the difficulties in replicating practice in higher education, to the contrived re-creations of practice in higher education, made worse by contextual factors within higher education. The theme around professional relationships exposed the tensions between the profession and the academy while also highlighting the value in having practitioners participate in higher education.

Within each of the overarching themes, a number of sub-themes are presented. These themes portray a number of insights into the nature of architecture professional disciplinary knowledge and the construction of its practitioners through recent changes in the higher education context.

6.1 Perceptions of change

The shift to tertiary provision of architecture education was commented on by several research respondents, from a range of angles. One respondent, a practising architect, drew attention to the way theory provided in the tertiary programme enabled him to make sense of the technical language he had been exposed to in an architecture firm. From his perspective, then, locating architectural training in the tertiary context had much to offer:

> *After three years in an architecture firm all of a sudden a lot of the jargon was washed away and you see sense behind it and you understand when you're coming to exams . . . . What's important and where the emphasis is.* (Architect, II, 204)

In contrast, a senior academic related the shift to the tertiary context to what he saw as an overall lowering of standards in education in general. From his perspective, an increase in access to education had compromised standards by allowing admission to courses of students he would deem to be unsuitable, either in terms of their literacy abilities or their cultural knowledge, although it is hard to know whether he meant tertiary education specifically or the senior years of high school. In the extract below, he appears to confuse functional literacy with what might be called cultural literacy:

> *We're now in an era of mass education and it has become dumbed down to some extent . . . . Many of our students are functionally illiterate when they come here* [to higher education]... *the students who the secondary schools deliver to us. Now their ignorance is grotesque and they know nothing about History . . . . If someone doesn't know whether Napoleon came before Caesar or the other way round they just don't know or they've never been taught any History they don't know who Napoleon was. Now maybe you don't need to know who Napoleon was to be an architect but I think you need to know something about History to be an educated human being.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

A number of academics reflected on the user-pays aspect of the tertiary context, drawing attention to what they saw as consequences of this. Regardless of the reason, the key point here is that students need to work to finance themselves:

> *Now students have to work 'cause they're . . . paying more for their education, they're much more materialistic so they have a greater need for money.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

Another academic was more sympathetic, viewing the need to earn money to fund course costs over five years as a *pressure* that he wanted to *accommodate* in some way:

> *The reality is students now have got different pressures . . .*
> *particularly those to do with money and need to work and I guess*
> *ideally you would try and accommodate that a little bit more. A five*
> *year course is a long course. A lot of them struggle to complete*
> *that.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

Another pressure was the suggestion that there was a lot more competition to get a job at the end of it all, and no guarantees, "*they know there's much, far more competition to get a job*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205).

Other respondents saw this move to user-pays as producing students who viewed themselves as consumers of educational products and thereby entitled to certain consumer *rights*. This is how one architect described the attitude of consumer entitlement:

> *They* [students] *think they are paying for their education – and they*
> *are not, they are paying for a small portion.* [They feel] *they are*
> *owed a certain set of behaviour by academics.* (Architect, II, 202)

Another architect saw this increased sense of entitlement as having the potential to compromise academic standards and in this respect echoed the concern raised by the senior architecture academic (205) quoted above. Staff were being positioned as accountable to students, with some pressure on them to create a *no fail* environment, as students saw themselves as consumers:

> *Academics are effectively scared of students . . . I've seen students*
> *who should have been failed in their first, second, third and fourth*
> *years keep going through because they've appealed their marks*
> *and nearly always got through and the staff are just saying, '"Well*
> *why fail them?". We're just going to go through the same shit again.*
> *Just pass them and get rid of them for the next year . . . . And I think*
> *that's just appalling* (Architect, II, 202);

We've been teaching fourth or fifth years and they really aren't designers and, but what do you do after four years of education? Are you going to deny them a degree? (Architect, II, 203).

6.2 Accountability and autonomy

The overarching themes of accountability and autonomy within higher education were prevalent and evident through a number of thematic strands. Notions of intrinsic and extrinsic accountability emerged frequently in the data and are reported in the following sections: extrinsic accountability is explained as the validation, protection or regulation of a particular way of being by an external agency. An example is the requirement to become and remain registered as a professional, receive specified training, or to have one's work assessed by some other agency with its own centrally-determined criteria. Intrinsic accountability, on the other hand, relates more to the notion of autonomy and personal agency, and an individual professional's notion of what it means to be a professional, and having the knowledge, expertise, judgement, and integrity in order to self-manage and to adhere autonomously to the principles of the profession.

The recontextualisation of the training for architecture in higher education has led to increased accountability. The nature of the knowledge and knowing was acknowledged by participants as being shaped by extensive systems of extrinsic accountability. These systems are being determined by institutional and professional stakeholders through attempts to ensure quality and consistency of learning, and to guarantee specific outcomes.

Professional associations, as noted in Chapter 2, are established by professions and are, at least from the outside, self-regulating, intrinsically accountable, and protective of their patch. Yet on closer inspection, they , notwithstanding the credentialing authority handed to them by the state, are ultimately made accountable to the state. Several participants acknowledged that the state therefore has licence to demand specific

outcomes, and such outcomes, several suggest, would naturally reflect the state's idea of what it means to be a (professional) architect.

6.2.1 The structuring of knowledge.

As has been discussed previously, the state exerts its influence on the higher education curriculum, and therefore on the construction of professional identity, in a number of ways. The structure and sequence of curriculum, and the requirement to include and assess particular outcomes and achieve particular managerial objectives are all dictated and measured by the state as a governing body. The most recent change to the 5-year undergraduate architecture degree, replacing it with a 3-year undergraduate and a 2-year postgraduate qualification, reflects international trends in university education (the Bologna Process[7]), which the New Zealand government has been keen to adopt. One academic drew attention to the way in which such a change could be interpreted as a commercial one, driven by the *industry* and the extrinsically accountable *business* model emerging in education:

> *Three plus two . . . . It's part of the education industry, the business, and it's part of the fact that there's stages attached to degrees.* (Senior Academic Architect, II, 205)

His mention of stages is noteworthy. I assume he refers to the degree papers structure which enables knowledge and learning to be segmented and sequenced according to beliefs as to the nature of architectural knowledge. One practitioner interpreted this move to 3 plus 2 as one that prioritised the teaching of *technical* knowledge in the first three years, enabling technically-competent graduates to exit as draughtspeople. We may take from this, perhaps, that the last two years were to be viewed as the ones in which non-technical and dispositional knowledge is taught, and that this knowledge produces more autonomous, competent architects:

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[7] The 1999 Bologna Process created the European Higher Education Area, making degrees more comparable and compatible.

As I understand it that 3 year Bachelor is more technical or it covers the technical bases first. So at least then you have an option to pull out and go off and be a draughtsperson. (Architect, II, 204)

There was reasonable support from the participants that the changes to the 5-year degree would benefit architectural practice in the more essential technical and drawing work that needs to be done. Participants identified the fact that practices had been suffering from a lack of technically-competent graduates who could draw. As one practitioner noted, drawing had been neglected in the architecture curriculum and by architecture students in favour of more status-laden activities. Drawing was considered as being a lowlier skill, whereas architecture was a nobler and higher status activity:

We weren't producing draughtspeople who could put the building together and because it fell out of fashion, much better to go to Architecture School, the sights were higher . . . . You have these people coming out who want to be architects when really the directors just want somebody who can draw some drawings and architecture students aren't taught that. (Architect, II, 204)

The senior academic reinforced the importance he attached to title and status by clarifying to me that his father, although called a *draughtsman*, was in fact doing the work to earn himself the title of architect:

But he'd [my father] *been working as a draughtsman. In fact, he was an architect.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

The senior academic was confident that students would still pursue the higher degree as it satisfied the students' sense of self-worth, affirming the existence of what I perceive as being a degree of hierarchy and status within the architecture profession:

Most students will fight quite hard to get a Masters rather than Bachelors degree because it makes them feel better about themselves. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

He contrasted the current approach to architectural education with the architecture education that his father had, typical of apprenticeship-type learning. This excerpt below also provided some insight into the evolution of architecture as an academic discipline:

> *It was only I think in the 1960s that New Zealand architects began to be required to have a university degree. Before that many of them had a diploma which is normally done part time while they were working done by evening sort of night classes . . . went to university part-time to study.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

What to teach and when, a dilemma of sequence, was a frequent point of discussion among participants. The higher education context demands that knowledge is packaged and sequenced within university papers. These papers are sequenced through the degree by notional levels of difficulty or logic, as determined by the academics, people who are experts in a range of fields. One practitioner contemplated whether something should be taught when a student learns without understanding how such learning may be applied (first year), or should something be taught when a student is better placed to understand its application (fifth year):

> *It's, I don't know, the Philosophy and Ethics paper I mentioned before, it was always a discussion whether that should be a first year paper or a fifth year paper because first years didn't understand it but what they did understand they could use. The fifth year people understood it and how it might be applied but they didn't have the opportunity to apply it any more. And it's the same I guess with architecture education, what do you put first?* (Architect, II, 204)

The same participant explored the timing of student exposure to practice, and suggested that early exposure to the realities of practice would help to contextualise subsequent learning:

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I think being exposed to what happens in an office is probably, is an important thing and it's probably an important thing that should happen very early. (Architect, II, 204)

Another practitioner, however, drew attention to the increased global trend toward accountability within higher education. From his perspective education was becoming too rules-driven: "*The world is becoming a lot more regulated as well . . . I think the education system is the same*" (Architect, II, 202).

In many of the participants' views, the recontextualisation of architecture into higher education and the way architecture practice was being taught were likely to bring about substantial change to the nature of the knowledge of architecture and the nature of the profession.

6.2.2 Accountability through accreditation.

Earlier sections of this thesis and this chapter have highlighted that curriculum in higher education is subject to the extrinsic requirements imposed by the state, professional associations and registration boards. Accreditation processes were frequently commented on by the senior academic, perhaps due to his proximity to these processes. Accreditation plays a gate-keeping role to being able to teach architecture; in order to gain accreditation, an architecture school must provide evidence of ticking the box on a number of competencies as specified by the registration board: "*Without accreditation you're out of business . . . There are 143 competences set by the professionals which the schools have to meet*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205). He did, however, acknowledge the freedom in how these competences could be addressed with "*a large degree of flexibility*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205) and expressed little objection to the competencies. He described them as "*unobjectionable . . . perfectly reasonable*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205). The senior academic drew my attention to the balancing act that many professionals often perform in reconciling the constraints of extrinsic

accountability measures with their own judgements shaped by experience as professionals.

The use of the word *benign*, however, by a participant in the focus group was interesting when describing the registration boards, and suggested a certain resignation: "[They are] *a necessary . . . benign influence . . . in the background"* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206).

Accreditation, as an exercise in standardisation, was commented on by several academics in some depth. Both the senior academic and an academic in the focus group remarked on the increasing powerlessness and lack of opportunity for them to exert their influence on the curriculum. The privileging of extrinsic influence on the shaping of curriculum resulted in the sense of sameness that was emerging across profiles of architecture schools in New Zealand. In the participants' view, academics were unable to develop and sustain their own vision of what it meant to be an architect: "[The schools] *look a little bit alike*" (Academic, Architecture FG, 206) and - "*They're all sort of the same"* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205).

The senior academic, however, elaborated further to explain how such sameness was also to the detriment of the evolution of practice and new professionals:

> *What you end up is kind of randomised mix where...difference is important and we're not achieving it . . . A school should have a particular flavour and it develops a flavour by most of its members agreeing that there are certain outcomes that they want.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

The influence exerted by registration bodies is twofold. Expectations around what will be learned are determined by the registration bodies, and an architecture school will not be accredited to teach the degree and will cease to operate, if the inclusion of these competences cannot be demonstrated. While the competences themselves are not problematic, in

the participants' view they produce a homogenous array of options which limits choice and the directions in which the profession might otherwise evolve. The academics believe that their own influence on the nature of the curriculum has diminished and in their view has threatened their ability to realise their vision of what it means to be an architect.

6.2.3 Joining the club: Registration, continuing professional development and extrinsic accountability.

The process of becoming a registered architect occurs after graduating with an accredited degree, and was described in greater detail in Chapter 3. The title of architect is protected and a graduate must earn this title by undertaking a range of codified and measurable professional development activities when in practice. The knowledge or skills codified for such a purpose and deemed to be essential for initial and continuing registration created some controversy among participants, as did the surrounding processes.

One architect likened the professional registration and earning the label of architect as being given membership to a *club*. There was a certain value associated with such membership, although he provided no elaboration on this: "*It's easier to be part of the club than to be out of the club*" (Architect, II, 201).

Another, however, did elaborate on the value of such membership. His perspective was that membership provided some kind of guarantee to the client as to the quality they can expect of members. Membership measured and defined *professionalism* and the registration process became an extrinsic accountability measure that supported an architect's claim to being a professional. This respondent provided some interesting insights as to the reason behind the membership and the nature the process in becoming a member. He made reference to the *free market* and the need for *client protection*, giving some hint as to the wider socio-political context in which this phenomenon is situated. Such a context actively encourages consumer choice, and actively creates an unequal

relationship that privileges the consumer. The respondent also mentioned that design was not measured necessarily in such continuing professional development (CPD), which suggests that either he was unsure whether design was within the specification for CPD, or there was some variance in the nature of CPD, or he is highlighting one aspect that he had noted by its absence:

> [Registration] *doesn't measure design and it doesn't measure a whole bunch of other things necessarily. But it measures professionalism how, it's really about client protection and which I suppose in a free market that's kind of what we're there to do when we act as professionals to do that.* (Architect, II, 204)

The provision of CPD by a range of providers, and the quality, currency and value of such CPD, was commented on by many participants, some less favourably than others. A focus group participant was generous in his description of how CPD occurred, in that he acknowledged the involvement of many agencies and how it seemed to be a collegial exercise:

> *Some of the formal activities will be coming out of manufacturers and industry, some of them will be coming out of the academies and it's probably quite a good kind of collegiality. Whereas practitioners will be presenting to other practitioners, so everybody's involved really.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

One practitioner struggled to identify any CPD provided by architecture schools. CPD was instead organised by the professional association:

> *Very little of that is actual, well none of that is actually, to my understanding there are the odd, there are lectures but none of that is actually organised by the three schools. It's primarily organised by the Institute.* (Architect, II, 203)

Another practitioner clearly stated there was a "mismatch" (Architect, II, 204) between the nature of continuing professional development and the

realities of practice. Another spoke very animatedly about his concern around CPD. His anger and frustration at the content of CPD that he had attended was evident. He felt that such CPD had not been at all related to or mindful of the realities of practice:

> *We come out absolutely outraged at how pathetic they were...how often they show stuff which you know you wouldn't do, you would not do within the office, "This is the way to do something". "No it's not!"* (Architect, II, 202)

His criticism extended to not only the nature of the CPD but also the way in which attendance and learning were measured. His reference to *authorised agencies* was interesting in that it suggested yet another mechanism with which processes and activities are made accountable to some entity. A further mechanism employed to measure CPD was made evident with his reference to *points* and *box-ticking*. Each CPD event was allocated points, and these were accrued through attendance. This was identified as the *worst* kind of exercise in being accountable that he had experienced: "*We go to a lot of events which are set up by authorised agencies, for which we'll get 5, 10 CPD points. It's . . . box-ticking in the worst*" (Architect, II, 202).

The retention of an architect's professional membership was, suggested one architect, dependent only on paying the registration fees and self-loading the points you had acquired from CPD online: "*Actually incredibly easy, an easy way to keep your registration. Effectively all you have to do, you do have to pay money*" (Architect, II, 203).

This participant also drew attention to the fact that the learning that supposedly occurred in CPD sessions was not assessed. There were a number of angles from which to view this. By not making CPD accountable to the profession and ensuring its relevance was perhaps negligent: "*But as long as you go . . . . That's all you have to do, you're not even tested*" (Architect, II, 203).

The senior academic's definition of CPD as "*creeping professional distrust*" (II Senior Ac Arch 205) reflected clearly the frustration felt by other practitioners in relation to CPD. He suggested that, in having to undertake CPD he did not feel trusted as a professional. The metaphorical use of the word creeping is indicative of a sense that CPD has sneaked into being part of practice.

Another practitioner suggested a further outcome from the prevalence of accountability mechanisms. He seemed to suggest that *mediocrity*, a sameness, would be (consciously) achieved by such mechanisms, and that this might or might not be part of a cyclical trend:

> *Mediocrity that is arising out of all this accountability . . . I'm sure that if we live long enough it* [accountability] *will burst and go the other way, but at the moment it's certainly not.* (Architect, II, 202)

6.2.4 The virtue of risk-taking.

Taking risks was commented on by several participants as being an essential and valuable learning activity in the development of creative, autonomous architectural professionals, and was perhaps at odds with the highly regulated and accountable architecture professional and higher education contexts outlined earlier in this chapter. Several participants noted the value of higher education, in that students were free from deadlines, financial constraints and building legislation that would otherwise constrain experimentation:

> *Being in that environment where you are basically not constrained by having to have something out of a certain time….that kind of freedom to…like, maybe we require a drawing that's kind of hard lines but maybe a student can do the drawing . . . doesn't have to come out at five o'clock* (Architect, II, 203);

> *The academy . . . is the place where I think a lot of that stuff is really learnt because you get a chance to experiment with it . . . the sorts*

of the things that practice restraints don't allow you to do . . .
actually to spend time on things. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

According to one focus group participant, students were necessarily shielded from the complex realities of practice in higher education. He warned that without a chance to experiment before being exposed to the constraints of practice, *certain skills* would fail to later materialise:

There's not so many constraints as there would be in the real world scenario and that's deliberately designed to foster certain skills that would otherwise be just sort of annihilated by the sheer complexity of the whole thing. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

One practitioner believed this freedom was essential in order for the architect to hone design and problem-solving skills, the very crux of professional architectural knowledge: "*If you don't let students, don't give them that freedom, they're not going to create the opportunities they'll otherwise create*" (Architect, II, 203).

Another participant advocated for architecture schools to be administered in a unique way to create a *risk-positive* environment: "*I also think that the way that architecture schools are run should be quite different to the way most other university faculties are run . . . . The way you teach architecture should be . . . openly supportive and a risk-positive environment*" (Architect, II, 202).

Giving time and space to students to practise, take risks, and make mistakes was seen as not only developing their independent creativity in a risk-positive environment, it also enabled fresh perspectives to be integrated into practice. One practitioner believed that this freshness was necessary for the evolution of the profession and a reason why he recruited graduates:

Your ability to wonder and see the things that maybe aren't so prescriptive, the things that you were looking for, see the unexpected kind of things. So, I guess that's what I mean by

fresh. It's disappointing if they [graduates] *don't challenge or offer something else. It's kind of one of the reasons we have graduates.* (Architect, II, 203)

6.3 The construction of professional disciplinary knowledge

Ideas of professional disciplinary knowledge were discussed by the participants in various ways reflecting differences in defining the nature of knowledge and the shades of meaning that are possible in the word knowledge. At times participants referred to a form of knowledge that I would describe as being technical, factual, or legislative knowledge. Participants seemed, at other times, to also suggest that architectural knowledge was a skill, a talent, or competence.

In analysing participant data I was able to broadly distinguish between the technical knowledge of facts and legislation, and the more practical, applied, context-specific knowledge embodied in, for example, problem-solving and communication. Several participants seemed to grapple with the issues that we discussed, and both individually and collectively used language in imprecise or diverging ways. Drawing, for example, was described both as a method of communication and as a skill. Design was a talent, or natural flair. Yet one participant suggested it can be a "*learned process*" (Architect, II, 201). This section of the chapter will present various descriptions in an attempt to make meaning of participants' perspectives.

6.3.1 The professional nature of architecture.

Learning to become an architect continues after graduation and in practice. Practice is the place where architects continue to develop as professionals. As we saw in Chapter 3, the objectives set by the profession and the professional association aim to generate a sense of professionalism supported through collegial experiences.

What it means to be a professional architect was commented on by many participants from a range of perspectives. In response to my question

seeking definitions of professional architects, the senior academic produced an answer which seemed determined by the professional association and the registration process:

> *To be a professional architect simply means that you've got a recognised degree and you've gone through the requirements of registration and become registered as an architect and that's what entitles you to call yourself an architect. So the simple answer is that you've gone through that process satisfactorily.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

A practitioner drew attention to the fact that non-registered architects can sometimes behave more professionally than those who have been awarded the professional title. He did not however elaborate on the behaviours that informed such a judgement:

> *I think there are a lot of very professional architects who do not belong to professional bodies, and there are a lot of architects who do belong to professional bodies who are not very professional.* (Architect, II, 202)

Both academics and practitioners drew attention to the qualities, attributes and abilities that define and shape what it is to be an architect. The senior academic employed quite powerful and specific words in his description of an architect:

> *Demonstrating by words and action that one has the conceptual, ethical and technical abilities to fulfil the aspirational qualities inherent in the discipline. Architectural professionalism should be measured against the latter.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

In analysing the words of the senior academic, a theoretical and applied blend of architect characteristics is suggested by *demonstrating by words and action*. The breadth of knowledge suggested by *conceptual, ethical and technical abilities* is important, in that it demonstrates again the blend of theoretical and applied knowing, and more factual knowledge.

Aspirational qualities suggests both an altruistic and hopeful element in the construction of an architectural identity. His use too of *discipline* to describe the body of knowledge or the profession is worth pointing out here, too, as there is discussion elsewhere in this thesis as to the disciplinarity, or disciplinary characteristics of architecture.

Other respondents shared their perspectives on the dispositions of what it means to be a professional architect. One practitioner alluded to the altruistic characteristics of being a professional. He viewed architects as providers of a service, with some guarantee and integrity: "*Someone who provides a service . . . does that to a certain standard*" (Architect, II, 201).

A sense of altruism emerged from the words of a focus group participant who suggested that a professional would have a sense of responsibility and a level of social consciousness as to the impact his or her work might have on society. He invoked, too, a sense of trust, *expectation*, that is placed on the architect by the community to *do what is necessary*:

> *The term professional implies that as the public has an expectation if they engage our services that we will actually do what is necessary . . . . We would do our very best, not only for them, the client, but also for the wider community.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

A number of participants provided more depth to their description of architects as professionals. One of the academic focus group participants grappled with the idea of an architect being all knowing. This dilemma is interesting as it highlights the distinction between truly knowing, and merely having the label or the qualification that says that you know:

> *Someone who's all knowing . . . it's not necessarily the person that's all knowing, it's the person who professes to be all knowing.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

Other descriptions that referred to confidence were suggestive of a sense of autonomy or intrinsic accountability that an architect develops, is granted or is allowed to exercise:

> *Professes to be confident and competent, I would think, in matters dealing with the discipline of architecture to a high level.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206);

> *You need to have a level of confidence in yourself and in your design ability.* (Architect, II, 202)

The latter practitioner elaborated further on notions of confidence by suggesting that such confidence needed to coexist with *humility*: "*Confidence . . . matched with a degree of humility*" (Architect, II, 202). This choice of the attribute of humility suggests having the right measure of autonomy and professional judgement to be able to know what you do not know and act accordingly.

6.3.2 Design and creativity.

Both design and creativity within architecture were themes commented on at some length by all participants. One of the academic focus group participants mirrored my dilemma of interpretation as to whether you could categorise design as knowledge. He finally settled on the definition of design as a *skill*: "*I don't know if you have knowledge in the area of design, I think you have a sort of, a skill*" (Academic, Architecture FG, 206).

This allows some distinction between drawing and design. Architectural design, as this next practitioner explained, is creativity constituted in the solution of a problem. His suggestion that it was a *learnt process* was interesting:

> *Design . . . that covers being able to creatively think of solutions for problems, so it's problem-solving. It's doing that in a way that –*

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> *that's the whole question of what creativity is . . . that is just a learnt process.* (Architect, II, 201)

Another practitioner gave a particularly valuable extension to the above, by stipulating that only when you had a *successful outcome* did you know if the problem was solved:

> *Architecture is about problem-solving. So until you've solved the problem you kind of don't know whether you have a successful outcome.* (Architect, II, 203)

Design as an appreciation of context and of the implication of actions was the perspective taken by two practitioners. One described design as the ability to weigh up decisions and options:

> *A designer* [understands] *the implications of things . . . whether they have a kind of beneficial implication or a negative implication.* (Architect, II, 203)

Another described design as *understanding* how people function in their daily lives, and how a building contributes to such a function:

> *From the philosophy point of view . . . understanding how people live and work.* (Architect, II, 204)

Architectural design and creativity, however, were seen by many participants as being under threat. Participants drew attention to the constraints that were brought to bear on design by extrinsic accountability measures, such as regulations. The sense of risk-taking through design and trying out ideas to see if they work was hindered by risk-averse legislation. This architect described this impact on his practice to the extent that the final design of a building was never as originally intended:

> *You never do it* [architecture] *quite the way you want to. It's never quite how you see it in your mind or draw it the first time. There are so many constraints and so many external forces . . . and you just, you need to be trained as an Engineer, a Quantity Surveyor, a*

Hydraulic Engineer all those things and do a house for yourself for it to, to be ideal, on a desert island and with no City Council. [laughter] . . . *because typically that's how the District Plan makes it and all those constraints have so much more to say than about the building that you as an Architect do.* (Architect, II, 204)

Another practitioner sympathised with this view, lamenting the loss of *adventure*, suggesting that society would rather have safe, predictable building outcomes than *good* architecture, presumably which is less predictable and more adventurous:

*The world is becoming a lot more regulated . . . . [*It] is a real shame as [stricter building consents are] *taking the adventure, the adventurous-ness, and the exploration, potentially taking it out of architecture itself. . . . The world doesn't want good architects as everything the world is doing at the moment is preventing good architecture rather than supporting it.* (Architect, II, 202)

He felt very strongly that his expertise and freedom to practise were threatened by risk-averse tendencies, so much so that he questioned if people were any longer trusted to exercise professional judgement: "*That whole business of trust, trust the people...nobody is trusted to do their job anymore*" (Architect, II, 202). An academic focus group participant agreed, affirming that increased regulations had hindered practice:

I was in practice for twenty seven years . . . very constraining in lots of ways…I couldn't get over that, for a twenty seven year period, in producing two sheets of drawings for a house to like thirty six sheets of drawings, changed quite markedly [laughter]. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

The impact of technical limitations and regulations on practice were outlined by another, noting, too, the other contextual factors that altered the original design concept:

You kind of start overlaying the technical aspects. You start overlaying the compliance aspects, the budget aspects, the client aspects and you kind of reduce things down. (Architect, II, 203)

6.3.3 The art of communication.

Relational knowledge, essential in the practice of architecture, was a prevalent theme discussed by all participants, and discussed in a range of ways. Being able to articulate and communicate knowledge in a range of modes and to communicate with a diverse range of people was explored by several participants. This practitioner acknowledged how *good communication* is an important skill and part of the skill is being able to recognise how communication is received:

Good communication skills . . . what's good to you is different to what's good to someone else and I suppose that's why communication becomes so important . . . . Know[ing] *who you're dealing with.* (Architect, II, 204)

Other participants provided some insight into the importance of knowing how to communicate well. One practitioner noted the importance of knowing how to relate to people: "*people skills*" (Architect, II, 201). A member of the focus group of academics drew attention to the importance of relationships and empathy with clients as being crucial to the success of a practice:

So much of a success of a practice is built on personal relationships and your ability to . . . talk to people, to understand, to empathise. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

Another practitioner likened an architect to a *chameleon*, able to change and adapt speech and behaviour to the context:

[As] *a chameleon . . . it depends on the client and the corporate client versus a residential client, you do treat them differently . . .*

dealing with the contractor is very different than dealing . . . with the client. (Architect, II, 203)

Another practitioner touched on the litigious consequences of poor communication with people involved in the building process:

It can be communication with consultants, with clients, with builders, and because I suppose it's . . . interpersonal. It's also about communicating on paper or in digital form . . . do it in such a way so that you don't leave yourself open to claims of any sort. (Architect, II, 201)

Practitioners emphasised being able to give presentations. One practitioner saw these as crucial in the ongoing success of the architectural practice in securing work:

There's kind of those moments [when giving presentations to clients] *where you have to improvise and you kind of live or die by it.* (Architect, II, 203)

Several of the practitioners reflected on the neglect of presentation skills in architecture schools: "*You never get taught how to present your work*" (Architect, II, 204). Another participant not only emphasised this, but also reinforced that presentation success can make or break a practice:

When you go and see clients you've got to get it right first time and if you don't it's really hard to recover . . . none of the schools I've been involved in do that [give presentation practice] *and I think they should.* (Architect, II, 202)

The importance of drawing as a means of communication was commented on by a number of participants from a range of perspectives. One practitioner drew specific attention to the communication that occurs through a drawing, acknowledging that communicating an idea can occur through models and images. He acknowledged, too, that such communication was not easy:

Talking to people and communicating and how you do that. Whether it's through drawings or writing or models or whatever it might be or you know 3D images or that, knowing how to communicate to different people in ways that they will understand as well is difficult. (Architect, II, 204)

A number of participants commented on the *technical* aspect of drawing. One participant reinforced the need for an architect to be mindful of how their drawings would be interpreted by others:

There's technical things and even the way they [drawings] *look, you've kind of got to understand the way they look, or the way, will affect the way people perceive them and kind of understand them.* (Architect, II, 203)

Another emphasised that drawings need to be interpreted appropriately so that others can build the drawn building:

The technical side is how to put buildings together, how to document them to enable them [buildings] *to be put together, how to communicate that.* (Architect, II, 201)

One of the practitioners went so far as to offer a definition of a *good* architect as one who can draw and detail a building. The use of detail as a verb here draws attention to a blend of both skill in drawing and communicating and applying theory and ideas into a drawing for a third party to interpret and build from:

To be a good architect you should be able to draw a drawing and you should be able to detail a building. (Architect, II, 204)

A number of participants drew attention to the value of drawing within the higher education curriculum. One practitioner expressed concern at drawing not being included or emphasised enough, with the *end goal* being privileged instead. It is not clear what this end goal was that he

referred to, although I interpret this as being the end result of a built building that reflects the learning that has occurred:

It's whether that balance in the Architecture School isn't quite right and you need more of that [drawing] *and less of sort of . . . the end goal.* (Architect, II, 204)

One of the focus group participants seemed to elaborate on this. He viewed drawing as a foundational skill, a skill that also enabled students to benchmark their own work to the drawings and buildings of others:

Somehow you've got to . . . get that up front stuff [drawing], *otherwise they don't develop a perception of what other possibilities there are against the norm that they're observing.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

6.3.4 Tensions between technical knowledge and design principles.

The importance of technical knowledge was discussed by many participants from a range of angles. There were some tensions apparent between the technical and regulatory knowledge applied to a context, and the design principles that may be demanded by those involved or by the context. This practitioner noted the need to know about the physical properties of products used in construction:

You're more concerned about how the concrete's going to come together or how the aluminium joinery's going to come together, the technical knowledge. (Architect, II, 204)

Likewise the senior academic described in some detail the factual, technical knowledge needed in conceptualising and building a building as intended:

High levels of technical knowledge, you need to know about the insulation values of materials, the strengths of materials, their corrosion potentials. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

Many participants, particularly the academics, discussed technical knowledge in terms of the regulatory and legislative knowledge that an architect needs to know or demonstrate knowledge of in the design and execution of buildings. The academics referred to the legislative requirements in a number of ways; the senior academic was interesting in his use of the word *manoeuvre* to describe how an architect acknowledged the existence of legislation:

> *You need to know about legislation, you need to know about the legislative requirements and how you manoeuvre your way through them.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

One of the focus group participants described planning legislation as *regulatory* knowledge, noting too that the volume of such legislation has increased in recent years:

> *I think a regulatory knowledge like . . . sort of planning regulations, the building codes, those sorts of things . . . . That's the area that's expanded in the last ten years as a result of sort of a variety of issues.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

The examples of legislative knowledge given by the senior academic demonstrated the breadth of such regulations:

> *The correct proportions are for the treads and rises on a staircase or different kinds of staircase you know what's permitted, you need to know what's permitted by fire risk codes and safety from falling.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

There are tangible and legal risks in not knowing such technical knowledge. Knowing what you do not know and the "*dangers of not knowing*" (Architect, II, 202) were significant themes in the data. If architects are unsure or lack knowledge, it is possible that a problem is not identified and remedied quickly or easily, as this practitioner explained:

If [architects] *don't know what they are doing you can be a long way down a track towards an issue or a problem on site which may never be picked up and repaired and or may cost somebody a lot of money and they can cost the architect, not to mention time and frustration.* (Architect, II, 202)

This practitioner talked about the dangers of ruin and litigation that could follow from substandard work, and drew attention to the increasingly *litigious* character of society:

Ruinous to one's career and the ability to survive as an architect, and ruinous financially because the world is becoming more litigious. (Architect, II, 202)

Another newer architect agreed that new architects were a risk to practice and "*a liability for a very long period of time . . .* [know] *only enough to be dangerous*" (Architect, II, 204). He noted that new architects would often be asked questions that they were not yet ready to answer. He explained that established architects expected new architects not to know and to exercise caution accordingly:

You're often getting asked questions which you probably shouldn't be asked and of course you certainly shouldn't give answers to. (Architect, II, 204)

What is noteworthy, however, is that although academics clearly know about regulations and legislation, such knowledge has not been taught or practised in higher education curriculums, according to one practitioner:

Never been taught about District Plan rules or never learnt how to, I certainly wasn't taught that, height in relation to boundary coverage and how to put together a Resource Consent and a set of drawings. (Architect, II, 204)

In the previous section, one participant offered a description of a good architect, as someone who can draw. Another practitioner explored what

makes a good architect in the excerpt below. This practitioner's dilemma was one between technical competence and good design and how neither necessarily made a good architect:

> *Great designers might not be good architects because they don't understand the technical issues, the processes or any other aspects of it . . . . I mean the most technically competent people may not be good architects, they are just technically competent architects.* (Architect, II, 202)

A number of practitioners noted that technical knowledge is insufficient on its own, and needed to be combined with applied, factual, context-sensitive knowledge. Such knowledge was determined by what was visually pleasing, whilst also fulfilling the technical demands of the project:

> *Architecture kind of sits there in the middle sort of going "Well how do we keep the water out and what looks good?"* (Architect, II, 204);

> *The building stands or falls on its visual merits and on the technical skills of the people who've assembled it to make sure it doesn't leak or blow around in the wind.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

6.3.5 The uncertainty and provisionality of knowledge.

Many of the practitioner respondents reflected on the uncertainty of knowledge in architecture. A sense of uncertainty relates to the humility that one respondent referred to previously: having the humility, the confidence, professional judgement and autonomy to identify and respond accordingly, even when you don't know something. Several participants also reflected on the unfinalisability of knowledge in that multiple answers are possible, and the acquisition of architectural knowledge is ongoing.

A number of practitioners recalled teaching experiences in which students struggled with the fact that there was no right answer to a design problem, and that their tutor did not offer the right answer either. This is how one practitioner described this phenomenon:

> *There is no right answer and they* [the students] *can't expect their tutor to tell them the right answer as their tutor doesn't know it either.* (Architect, II, 201)

Another practitioner recalled an occasion when a particular group of students had been expecting throughout their degree for someone to give them the rules of architecture. The students felt cheated and the practitioner had needed to explain that there were no stable rules, as the rules were dynamic and underwent constant change:

> *I remember I was teaching 5th year...three quarters of the way through the year we had a session with the students and they were getting ancey and we had a good session and it finally transpired that what they were upset about was that they'd almost got to the end of their course and nobody had told them what the rules of architecture were. And my point was well nobody has told you there are any rules because in fact it's almost impossible to define a set of rules, and if you did define some, there would be another set next week. But for four and a half years they had been waiting because they thought someone was concealing this information from them.* (Architect, II, 202)

Another practitioner acknowledged the stress felt by students as they realised that no one was going to provide them with the right answer:

> *Yes that's quite standard for people to feel that as there is no right answer. So the ones who are uptight about not being told about where to find the answer or what the answer is, spend a lot of energy on being uptight.* (Architect, II, 201)

The same respondents provided some explanation as to why it was acceptable to not have a right answer. Another practitioner drew attention to the fact that it was hard to predict how a client would respond to a proposal: *"You can't really predict what this other party's going to do"* (Architect, II, 203).

The nature of learning architecture, and the fact that time was a key component to the learning, was emphasised by a number of practitioners. Two practitioners commented on how long it takes to come to know: "*It does take so long to build up enough knowledge to practise*" (Architect, II, 201), and "*Even though five years seems like a very long time it's actually not enough to, twenty five years isn't enough to learn how to be an architect which is part of the frustration*" (Architect, II, 204).

Practitioners spoke of graduates being frustrated as they realised there was still more to learn after graduation: "*But there are some hard lessons because often graduates come out thinking that they do know it all then find that they don't*" (Architect, II, 202).

Being *bullet proof* was how another practitioner described graduates, in that they arrived in practice and thought that architecture was simply a matter of drawing a building and giving the diagram to a builder who builds it:

> *I think is often the case with graduates in that you . . . feel like you're bullet proof and you've designed buildings before and here we go and I'm just going to work for two weeks on this drawing and send it to a builder who builds it.* (Architect, II, 204)

This practitioner was sympathetic to graduates, acknowledging how graduates must feel when they realised that there was more to learn in practice. He suggested that graduates would have questions around their self-worth and the study that they had completed:

> *I think it's hard for students as they suddenly feel diminished and feel that they've everything they've learnt is wasted and unimportant.* (Architect, II, 202)

There was consensus among practitioners that they did not expect new graduates to be "*work ready*" (Architect, II, 202). Another practitioner was also sympathetic to graduates, and agreed that they were not going to be *productive* immediately after graduation:

There are some people that complain about graduates not being productive when they come out of tertiary education, but I tend to think that it's just not possible. (Architect, II, 201)

Another was equally as clear in saying he had no expectation that graduates could operate autonomously when new to practice:

I don't see the role of the architecture schools to, at the end of five years, produce someone that I could sit down at desk and leave them to produce a building. (Architect, II, 203)

6.3.6 The creation of new architectural knowledge.

The creation of new architectural knowledge was explored by several participants from a range of perspectives. One of the focus group of academics suggested that architectural knowledge was shaped by a mix of stable principles and more dynamic developments, often the result of technological innovation:

There is both a constancy and a dynamic. . . . The facts may change over time a little bit, particularly in terms of technology, but principles and attitudes probably don't actually, more stays the same than changes. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

Another of the focus group participants speculated about the existence and characteristics of a professional body of knowledge, and the perhaps inaccessibility of such knowledge to those outside the profession. He drew attention to the fact that knowledge undergoes evolution:

I guess there's a body of knowledge associated with that particular profession, some of it's rather arcane and a bit of a closed shop to others perhaps, but having said that there is a kind of body of knowledge, and that necessarily has kind of developed over time which is particular to that profession. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

Several participants discussed the dynamism of new architectural knowledge from various perspectives. In contrast to the earlier assertion that technology makes a significant contribution to new knowledge, several participants saw new knowledge as being constructed when new buildings were built and copied. For this practitioner, the physical construction of a building was more valuable than the virtual conceptualisation of a building:

> They'll build something which gets seen and copied thousands of times. . . . Real buildings still have some value, currency, whereas virtual buildings rarely do that. (Architect, II, 204)

Another practitioner, however, felt that even a conceptual demonstration of architectural knowledge was enough: "*I kind of do see knowledge as the idea of understanding, being able to test your hypotheses…even kind of conceptually*" (Architect, II, 203). However, he later remarked on the value of seeing a building built to test ideas:

> The work that they were doing was kind of very heavily about ideas but they kind of made it, they built it. . . . His ideas sort of came first and the building came second, but it was kind of nice that there was a building to test it. (Architect, II, 203)

Several respondents discussed other potential sources of new knowledge. There was debate among several participants as to whether the profession or the academy led the evolution of new knowledge. One practitioner and one of the focus group noted the cyclical way in which new knowledge emerges from both the profession and the academy:

> I guess it goes through cycles. See if you kind of asked me that question back in the 80s I would have said it was the academics that were leading the way. And architecture seemed less about building, more about the ideas. That's not to say that there aren't kind of ideas, but maybe it's just a shift (Architect, II, 203);

> *I suppose I guess as to who dominates I guess I'm not sure if anyone necessarily does, it kind of ebbs and flows, pretty much.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

The predominant view, however, was that the profession led the way with new knowledge, with particular emphasis on breaking new ground as it did so:

> *They* [architects] *will often forge the way* (Architect, II, 204);

> *My impression would be the leading professionals that push the boundaries.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

This excerpt clearly supports this assertion and positions the practising architect viz-a-viz the academy:

> *The reality is, however, that the best work in architecture or the best ideas about architecture are not coming out of the academies they're coming out of the best practices. The top international practices are the ones who are pushing the envelope, not the academies, and that to me is the proof that it's the discipline that holds the, it's the profession that holds the knowledge and not the academies.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

6.3.7 Learning architecture.

This section will consider how learning architecture occurs both in higher education and in practice as a result of both explicit and implicit teaching and learning opportunities. One of the focus group participants drew attention to the tacit nature of the learning that occurs in the more formal higher education context:

> *They're . . . being educated to think in a particular way, an innate sort of way of thinking.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

Another, while struggling to elaborate on the nature of the tacit learning, was adamant that some learning had taken place: "*I don't think you're*

actually taught it but you learn it, does that make sense?" (Architect, II, 204). This was reinforced, too, by the senior academic, who introduced the notion of habituation and routine in the learning that students experience in higher education: "*Our students are being kind of habituated*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205).

A number of practitioners drew attention to the tacit and incidental learning that occurred in the classroom, both in contrast to and as a result of the more *explicit* outcomes that were being addressed. Clearly these practitioners had identified that some learning had occurred, as a *by-product*. One practitioner was able to define this tacit learning as being more about professional behaviours and an appreciation of and a response to the demands of practice:

> *I suspect a lot of the things that I'm saying are about, in practice, the school is teaching, they're sort of by-product of the courses. They're not really explicit aims or, but generally the good students, I think, have kind of learnt to deal with the same sort of issues. Deadlines, the issue of success versus failure, you know, pinning up in front of people.* (Architect, II, 203)

Learning the language and discourses of architecture was noted by many of the respondents in a range of ways. Higher education values and privileges knowledge demonstrated through the written word. Yet this written mode is in contrast to the visual and tangible, built modes valued by architecture. The senior academic noted the potential devaluing of the visual mode in higher education through privileging the written word:

> *I think it's possible to argue that architecture is primarily a visual art and therefore to teach it in ways that privilege the narrative undermines the importance of the visual.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

He pointed out the discrepancy between higher education and practice, with the emphasis on writing as opposed to building, noting that the primary function of academics, in his view, was to value writing:

> *Architectural education seems to have become increasingly dependent on the student's ability to generate a narrative about their building and narratives are linguistically based, they're word based. . . . The narrative has no value in practice because architects don't stand in front of their buildings explaining them to the passing public. . . . It's not surprising perhaps that when the academies are managed by academics that they should privilege discourse because that's what academics do more than anything else.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

A practitioner acknowledged the place of writing-about-architecture, yet his preference was on the building: "*I kind of accept that architecture is not just about buildings, it could be about writing about buildings….I'm interested in supporting the building, not supporting writing about it*" (Architect, II, 203).

Several participants talked about learning the language of architecture, which this academic referred to as "*the jargon of this culture*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205).

Two practitioners talked at some depth about the difficulties that architects experienced when working with others who had not learned their language:

> *It's even more difficult when you're dealing with people you sometimes hardly know and who often don't have the language to talk about architecture and talking about you know timber frame building against a concrete building.* (Architect, II, 204)

The following practitioner (202) provided a description of an incident with a council building inspector. For the practitioner, this exchange exemplifies

the disconnect between practice and external and regulatory agencies due to a lack of shared language and knowledge:

> *He* [the building inspector*] doesn't have any knowledge at all as far as I could see. And so we don't even have a common language – we're using terms he didn't understand and they weren't complicated ones, just basic from the construction industry.* (Architect, II, 202)

6.4 Authenticity

Issues of learning authentic architecture and learning in ways which are authentic to practice within the higher education were commented on by many respondents. This section of the chapter will present the range of issues and perspectives on authenticity that were identified by the interview and focus group participants.

6.4.1 Difficulties in replicating practice.

The difficulties in replicating practice in higher education were commented on by several participants from a range of angles which extended beyond actual pedagogy used in higher education. Crits, where students present their work to tutors and peers for critical evaluation and comment, and design studio, an open space for self-directed project work, are typical and common learning and teaching activities in architecture education. Practitioners and academics, however, acknowledged that such activities were not real enough. An academic from the focus group suggested that: "*Our studio projects are mainly based on contrived scenarios . . . not . . . real-world situations*" (Academic, Architecture FG, 206).

This practitioner respondent described studio as being: "*A bit of make-believe as you were doing projects that didn't result in a real project, they resulted in models and drawings*" (Architect, II, 201).

One practitioner commented on the difficulties in the assessment of studio work:

How the hell do you . . . I mean where do you start and stop your assessment? What do you what's the scope that you're considering? Is it, are we worried about the waterproofing of it? Do we apply the same logic to this scheme where they're interested in sustainability versus this scheme which is interested in an iconic building? Are all of the things that we're assessing buildings by are they equally you know applicable to that one and that one? (Architect, II, 204)

The same practitioner noted the realities of practice were overlooked in studio:

Things like you know city planning gets lost. You very rarely get, you're in touch with the pragmatic things and often that's stuff that we deal with here all the time. (Architect, II, 204)

These statements, however, were in contrast to earlier assertions in the section on autonomy and risk-taking, where practitioner and academic respondents both placed great value on students having the freedom to experiment without "*practice constraints*" (Academic, Architecture FG, 206).

Although practitioners recognised the importance of crits, one practitioner suggested that students did not value crits, which was demonstrated by poor attendance:

I think the crits are actually really valuable. And unfortunately at the moment they're not really valued…the crits were very poorly attended. (Architect, II, 203)

The senior academic pointed out that the physical act of building was predominantly neglected within New Zealand architecture schools:

To the best of my knowledge we're the only school in the country that's doing any building; you know real physical building getting students to build. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

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He remarked that building projects undertaken by students lacked authenticity, and did not relate to practice and to the more altruistic role of architects in society:

> *Many of the projects that students do bear extremely little relationship to what architects do in practice or to the needs that society has for architects.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

Particularly noteworthy was that one of the focus group academic participants suggested practice is something best acquired through practice rather than learned in higher education:

> *Professional practice I think is very difficult to learn in this institution, because it's the sort of the thing that you gotta do, it's just a real life experience.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

A number of participants reflected at some depth on where architectural knowledge should be learned. This practitioner placed equal value on the learning that occurred in both practice and higher education:

> *I think they are both really valuable, tertiary and workplace, it's not either or and I think they are both necessary to produce fully fledged architects.* (Architect, II, 202)

> *By students . . . the crits were very poorly attended.* (Architect, II, 203)

One of the academics, however, felt there was a specific delineation of where learning occurs. His use of *out there* was significant and suggests a personal sense of distance and disconnect between practice and higher education, and that the two were distinct realms:

> *There are certain things which are more appropriately learned here* [higher education] *and certain things which can't be and have to be done out there*. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

A number of participants seemed undecided as to how to delineate where learning should occur. The senior academic wondered if architecture belonged in higher education, as it was a craft: "*I'm not even sure that architectural education belongs in a University. It's a craft skill fundamentally*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205), which contradicted the value he placed on the breadth of architecture degrees earlier in his interview:

> *On one level, a broad liberal humanist education in the creative arts . . . it's extremely widely based and I think that's the merit of the discipline that it is widely based.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

He contended, however, that architecture education would remain in higher education, as an entire industry had emerged around this: "*But you can't say that because there's a whole industry involved around generating architectural academics*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205).

One practitioner speculated on where design and technical skills were best acquired. He seemed to change his mind while discussing where technical skills were best learned. He initially suggested technical skills were best placed in the undergraduate curriculum:

> *Design skills are probably best learnt in the undergraduate curriculum, that's partly because, well that's mostly because it's easier to learn those skills learning with a group of people learning at the same time . . . The technical side of things . . . they should and do get learnt in the undergraduate course.* (Architect, II, 201)

But later he decided that such skills were better off in practice: "*Probably the technical skills would tend to get learnt in practice I would imagine*" (Architect, II, 201).

Several architects seemed to value higher education as providing students with a solid, generalist foundation of knowledge. This participant's

reference to *vocabulary* is reminiscent of the earlier discussion around the specialist language of architecture and technical words: "*There is a general background level of understanding and vocabulary that comes from the undergraduate course*" (Architect, II, 201). A focus group academic participant reinforced this view by arguing that students needed exposure to a substantial range of foundational knowledge to *function effectively*:

> *You need to know that, not everything about it but you need to have a substantial base of knowledge in there to be able to function effectively, I think.* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

Yet the perspective given by another practitioner demonstrated the interdependence of the two knowledges of practice and higher education. He reflected on how he had learned to *get there* by presumably applying undergraduate knowledge within practice:

> *I think it's only once you leave Architecture School that you learn how to get there which is strange.* (Architect, II, 204)

One practitioner made an interesting distinction between the official process of becoming an architect through higher education and by gaining registration, and the more authentic *really learnt* informal process of implicit applied learning, gained in practice by working alongside experienced others:

> *You can go and sit your papers at University and you can work in an office quietly in a corner and present your case studies and become registered, but no one ever does it that way 'cause it's, you get mentored and you mentor others and you learn alongside people and . . . I think that's how architecture is really learnt.* (Architect, II, 204)

6.4.2 The importance of experience.

One way in which higher education attempts to replicate the realities of practice is to require work experience for students. The participating institution has in place a compulsory, non-credit-bearing, work experience component within the degree, which appears to be unique in the New Zealand context: "*It's unusual in New Zealand* [to have work experience in a degree]" (Architect, II, 201), but not unique in European and American contexts. The senior academic placed great value on this experience:

> *There's no credit attached to that but it's a requirement of graduation, none of the other schools do that and it's not very common in Australia. Some schools do it but we're the only one in New Zealand, it seems absolutely essential to me.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

All participants interviewed for this study, the academics in the focus group and the individual practitioners, acknowledged the value of the experience for students studying architecture. One focus group participant noted that exposure to practice increased students' confidence: "*Confident when they secure their first job*" (Academic, Architecture FG, 206). One practitioner and a focus group participant remarked that exposure to practice would make the transition to work easier:

> *The work experience component in our programme helps tremendously in terms of preparing students* (Academic, Architecture FG, 206);

> *When they get out they're not going to be too phased by it all....I kind of got into a practice and was, "My god, what do I have to do", you know, and . . . "So how do you do it?"* (Architect, II, 203)

This practitioner went on to describe work experience as a way of learning through observation: "*They'll see drawings . . . kind of monkey see . . . you'll learn that way*" (Architect, II, 203).

The senior academic discussed the multiple benefits that work experience brings to students. In his view, students were able to try out any of the multiple roles and tasks an architect may undertake, enabling informed career choice:

> *Find things they're interested in, like some of them might become more interested in computing because they see that that is important in practice or they might be interested in the marketing.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

He noted, too, that exposing students to practice through work experience highlighted the differences between higher education and practice and enabled students to acknowledge and reflect on such differences, a kind of benchmarking exercise: "*Develop an understanding of the kinds of things that happen in practice which they discover are different to some extent to the kinds of things we teach in school*" (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205).

This practitioner expressed concern that the process of architecture was not taught in higher education, and that students should be given the tools to understand process:

> *I think architecture students, you don't really get taught process and I think it really is a process.* (Architect, II, 204)

Another practitioner echoed this sentiment:

> *The academic institution should really just teach the process or give the student the facilities to kind of manipulate process.* (Architect, II, 203)

Later in his interview, however, he acknowledged that the *better* students undertook continual reflection in their studio work *themselves*, suggesting that there had been no explicit teaching of reflective practice but that better (he offered no definition) students seemed to know what was required:

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A process of refinement…that notion of critiquing work, continually . . . tutors do it but generally the better students do it themselves. So there is this process that the problems are being analysed in the work and then something's being done about them. (Architect, II, 203)

One practitioner, in particular, emphasised the benefits of being able to understand, control and manipulate process:

I'm particularly interested in the process of getting things in the right order, and you know how you can control things by that process and, find results, good results through it. (Architect, II, 204)

Practising architects who tutor in studio acknowledged that this process of constant refinement and continual reflection was frustrating for students as there was not always the one right answer, but that this uncertainty and provisionality mirrored practice:

Sometimes, as a tutor, the work gets put up, and you've seen the work for maybe six weeks, the work gets pinned up, so you hadn't really seen that work but you kind of know...and then you look at it and it's on a wall, slightly different environment, and you see something completely different. Which is, I suspect, what students consider to be unfair, but it's just that you've moved forward, like clients do, the work, maybe, has moved slightly and so, it's kind of what you have to deal with, as in practice (Architect, II, 203);

You know I'm guilty of it myself turning up one day and saying something and thinking about it overnight and coming back and saying "Well you know that thing that you know how about this instead or you know think about it this way". (Architect, II, 204)

6.4.3 The importance of collaboration.

Collaboration and collegiality are core activities espoused in the practice of architecture. According to this practitioner, there is an absolute emphasis on collaboration in order for a building to be successfully constructed:

> *So I think there is no doubt that good buildings arise out of good collaboration, and those collaborations are within the office say, but collaborations with so many other consultants, and so many other contractors.* (Architect, II, 202)

The responsibility to train the next generation was supported by a practitioner:

> *I think the architectural profession in the main accepts that the job is to, part of its role is to train graduates to become more rounded people, head towards becoming architects.* (Architect, II, 202)

Another practitioner elaborated yet more on this in terms of a sense of collegiality in new architects being able and expected to ask for help:

> *I wouldn't expect* [new architects] *to know the answers but I kind of expect them to have some notion about, if they need to find out an answer for something technical, how they could kind of research it and find it, even if it's by asking people*. (Architect, II, 203)

Another practitioner provided a further dimension to the collegial nature of the learning that occurs in practice. He emphasised that such learning occurred through the development of a shared sense of responsibility in the pursuit of solving a problem. He suggested an emerging sense of shared responsibility: "*Mentoring is in the office too it's not 'Watch me do this' it's 'This is what we need to do'*" (Architect, II, 204).

In the view of one participant, collaboration in higher education had been discouraged by the nature of assessment in higher education and the focus on the performance of the individual:

The students tend to be protective because there's always this mark at the end which tutors can't really, don't really care about...different pressures . . . where the tutor's interested in a good building, the student's interested in passing or getting a B. (Architect, II, 204)

A focus group participant highlighted the tension between students being competitive in group-work scenarios, and the attempt to foster collegiality and replicate authentic practice in such learning opportunities:

The other thing is group work where the setting is essentially a competitive one, like the students are actually competing against each other, so it's actually quite hard to frame group work in that context. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

6.5 Tensions between practice and higher education

Tensions between practice and higher education were again highlighted through practitioner-academics working within the higher education context and the competing demands from academy and practice. One result of this tension is that academics become isolated and disconnected from practice and become inward-focused. This was how the senior academic described this phenomenon:

I think there are grounds for concern that academics for a whole lot of reasons, cultural reasons as well as things, reasons to do with the expertise they maintain, lose track of what professional architects do . . . recent changes in education have encouraged them [academics] *to become insular*. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

The senior academic expressed anger at academics not being obliged to engage with practice:

[The academics] *don't have to sully themselves with issues of practice or money or dealing with reality. And I think it's a pernicious*

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bloody doctrine frankly, it's actually ludicrous. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

A focus group participant supported this claim, noting that their duties in the academy needed to take precedence over practice. Discomfort at this was evident as he recalled the value of practice:

Yeah, we've all practised…we're currently practising….Probably diminishes with time depending on whether you carry on your practice while you are an academic . . . . There are good reasons for . . . trying to maintain that as long as they don't interfere with your sort of overall academic responsibilities. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

One of the practising architects expressed concern about the emphasis on research and qualifications in higher education, and how this was perhaps inappropriately used to measure performance and fitness to practise:

The obsession with research and credits behind one's name, you know, qualifications, if you haven't got a doctorate you can't get a job. If you don't do research you can't get whatever those things are you get [PBRF]. *. . . The only way you measure someone's work is by their qualifications or their research. So I just find it very sad and very tragic and just boring as hell*. (Architect, II, 202)

The senior academic explored at length the tension between research and practice within higher education. The remainder of this section focuses on his informed perspective as to a reason for the increasing divide between practice and higher education. He believed that the relatively new PBRF (Performance Based Research Fund), described in Chapter 1, had created a tension, in that academic research was privileged over practice, exacerbated by the difficulty in placing a value on practice within the scope of PBRF:

Practice work is not valued certainly for research or PBRF outputs. Or if it is valued it's very hard to have it properly valued. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

This privileging of research rated highly by the PBRF process, often more theoretical and abstract, had in his view led to a neglect of technical, factual and practice-based knowledge within higher education. PBRF, as an extrinsic accountability measure, was leading to a reframing of professional knowledge in the context of the academic:

The things that are most highly privileged in a School of Architecture are the things that contain the fewest facts and the most opinions and issues of culture. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

The senior academic drew attention to the likelihood of academics producing research and teaching within higher education without having worked in practice. Becoming an academic had become in itself a career path and, as noted earlier, provided limited opportunities to engage in practice:

In order to be an academic these days you have to make that decision quite early and you get your first degree preferably with Honours and then you might get a Masters degree or might go straight on and do a PhD so by the time you're 28 you've finished your PhD and you've done no time in practice at all or very little. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

He continued to describe a sequence of events which was resulting in research not being practice-based, and thus ensuring further neglect of practice:

Clearly research is not going to be about practice because you don't know anything about it so your research is more likely to be in the relatively esoteric areas that you've worked in . . . so technology, professional practice, all those areas that are crucially important in

practice are severely undercooked in Schools of Architecture because there are very few people who know about them or care about them or privilege them. (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

He predicted that the gap between practice and the academy would increase further and the academy risked becoming irrelevant to others (reminiscent of his earlier assertion of academic insularity). This was particularly worrying given the altruism with which architects are supposed to operate:

> *The discourse in the academies becomes more and more refined and more and more obtuse and more and more detached and more abstract and that's not how the best architects in the world work. . . . But I think we end up more and more talking to ourselves and therefore the risk is that what we talk about becomes irrelevant to other people.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

He concluded that the cumulative result of this trend would be that architecture graduates would be unprepared for practice and would need to *re-educate* when entering practice:

> *I think the risk is that . . . architectural education will produce generations of people who are irrelevant or more correctly people who have to re-educate themselves when they enter practice.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

The issue of academics' practice currency was hotly debated by a number of participants, practitioners and academics alike. One practitioner described the difficulty of academics being current as something of a paradox as they are unable to be practice-current as well as current with the demands of the academy:

> *It's sort of a bit paradoxical in that often I can't see that, because an academic, it's hard for an academic to be that current in practice.* (Architect, II, 203)

Another practitioner seemed to grade the kind of currency that an academic might have, suggesting currency is constituted differently and to varying degrees of usefulness: "*Oh yeah. They* [academics] *are certainly current...whether some are more appropriate...but some are more current than others*" (Architect, II, 202).

In contrast, this practitioner dismissed the currency debate, preferring to mark the respective territories of the academy and of practice:

> *Questions of currency, or how current they* [academics] *are, current knowledge is almost a non-issue because I kind of see them as having a certain field of knowledge, and practitioners having a certain field of knowledge, with not a lot of crossover.* (Architect, II, 201)

This positioning of the academy and practice was alluded to by the senior academic, who accepted that many of the academics in his school lacked practice currency and professional registration (he seemed to suggest that the two are not the same):

> *I don't think that everybody should have to maintain practice currency or be registered . . . certainly many of our staff I think don't have practice currency. . . . There are others who have never practised architecture.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

Other practitioners were uncomfortable, however, with the suggestion that non-current academics were teaching, particularly teaching technical courses. One stated that some of the academics were semi-retired, suggesting that they lacked practice currency:

> *So, I don't know how they're teaching the courses, I know that they do have more technical courses at* [name deleted]*, but I don't know how they're being taught . . . and some of the people teaching are sort of semi-retired.* (Architect, II, 203)

His negativity around academics' currency and his concern over what was being taught can perhaps be explained by his personal experience. He reflected that legislative and technical lectures were particularly outdated and had no bearing later in practice:

> *Some of those lecturers taught us things like services and structure and things like that, their lectures were the most out of date lectures. They were the lectures they were giving five, ten years ago, which meant that if we were to try and apply those in practice they would be redundant, you know. There, there wasn't anything of value in kind of technically what they taught us.* (Architect, II, 203)

Another practitioner acknowledged that academics probably lacked technical currency, but that academics were likely to be at the cutting edge of design and philosophical debate:

> *They* [academics] *are probably more aware of current design fashion and philosophy on the arts and that sort of thing, and less aware of changing technical issues, um, and changing bureaucracy.* (Architect, II, 201)

6.5.1 The value of practitioners in higher education.

The value in practitioners working within higher education was noted by the majority of participants. Many noted advantages and difficulties for architects working in both spaces, though some of the anticipated benefits were not always forthcoming. An academic focus group participant noted the benefits for practices when practitioners participated in the academy, as practitioners were invigorated:

> *Practices actually are keen for their . . . staff to come and do those crits and also some have quite a positive attitude towards them coming and teaching in the studio, because they see that as of benefit to their practice. So it's not a one way thing. It's not them giving us all their knowledge and information . . . what's happening*

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here is invigorating and revitalising a lot of their work. (Academic, Architecture FG, 206)

Practitioners endorsed this sentiment. One noted that architects were interested in what was happening in the academy: "*Some practitioners are more interested in seeing what's happening in the academic world*" (Architect, II, 202). Another noted the learning gained through teaching: "*So that's why I keep teaching in like especially architecture school where you have things on paper . . . So yeah it's a good way of learning, teaching*" (Architect, II, 204).

One of the focus group believed that having practitioners coming to deliver guest lectures gave the school a *"level of credibility in the eyes of the institution*" (Academic, Architecture FG, 206).

The senior academic dedicated considerable time in the interview debating difficulties around practitioners working within the academy. Instead of bringing practice into the classroom, practitioners tended to alter their behaviour to fit (in) to the culture and language of the academy, defeating the purpose of their being there:

> *A lot of them* [practitioners] *come in and then they don't deliver you what you want which is you want them to bring with them the culture of practice but they default into the culture of Academia to a greater, not invariably, extent.* (Senior Academic Architecture, II, 205)

The value of practitioners within the academy was not questioned. Attracting and retaining academics might be problematic given the income differential. What was somewhat worrying was the suggestion of practitioner default into academic discourse and behaviour, defeating the objective of attempting to expose students to the realities of practice.

6.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has highlighted and explored the themes that emerged from discussions with practitioner architects and architecture academics. The tertiary recontextualisation of the construction of architects has led to numerous difficulties and advantages for academics, practitioners and students alike. Academic participants report that there is a mismatch between high levels of external accountability demanded by the state and the academy, compared to architecture being a risk-positive autonomous profession in which creativity is exercised to solve design problems. There was a reported disconnect and discomfort between the uncertainty, provisionality, indeterminancy, and evolving nature of design problem-solving accepted by the architecture profession, and the guarantees, monitoring and surveillance demanded by higher education and the state.

The tertiary context, according to many participants, does not easily enable exposure to practice. It is difficult and there are limited opportunities for would-be architects to experience a level of acculturation into the profession alongside practitioners, and to gain the tacit, practice-based knowledge of architecture. Reasons for these difficulties are reported as being to do with the academy as a highly-regulated, risk-averse and externally accountable context. There is tension, too, for the academics in straddling the academy and practice, in meeting the requirements of each of these contexts, and in defining their roles as practitioner, academic and researcher with a sense of personal agency. This tension is also aggravated by the widespread dissatisfaction by the participants with the provision of CPD.

Difficulties in replicating practice in the academy and of exposing students to practice and practitioners are, according to participants, leading to issues around the authenticity of teaching, learning and assessment practices. Architecture professional disciplinary knowledge is being shaped by extrinsic accountability requirements and the value of

collaboration and experience and practice-based tacit knowledge is neglected.

The next chapter presents data from the practitioner and academic accountants in response to the research questions that were asked of the architects. This is followed by a discussion of all findings in the Chapter 8. What is note-worthy is the extent to which the themes are similar across the two cases given the very different nature of the professions. This phenomenon is explored in detail in Chapter 8.

Chapter 7: Perceptions of accounting practitioners and academics

7.0 Introduction: Learning accounting

As with the architects, there are two main contexts in which learning to become an accountant occurs, higher education and practice, and there are a range of factors that affect the constitution of accounting professional disciplinary knowledge. This chapter will explore the nature of these contexts, and examine how the professional disciplinary knowledge of accounting has been and is being shaped by the contexts within which the learning is happening.

In Chapter 3, I described the ways in which accountants are trained and qualified. There are also a number of career and professional pathways after graduation. Graduates from accounting degrees and in fact anyone may practise accounting, or book-keeping, but the title of *chartered accountant* is protected. To practise and call yourself a chartered accountant, the title with the highest status, you must gain and retain professional registration. To become a member of professional associations, a graduate is required to have taken an accountancy degree at an accredited institution.

Accounting education in New Zealand gradually moved from a blend of work, part-time study and practice-based examinations to higher education through the 1960s, and thus has a more recent tertiary history than architecture. One of the focus group academics noted the shift that had occurred in the learning to become an accountant, from the *vocational* apprenticeship practice-based model, to a degree within higher education:

> *Many years ago accounting wasn't even a degree. I mean it was very much one of those vocational things, and it was almost an apprenticeship. And so it's had a meteoric rise to fame* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

The themes that have emerged during my analysis of accounting data are broadly similar to those identified in the architecture data. A number of the sub-themes within each are different but in many cases the position taken by the accounting participants is similar to that taken by architecture participants. The discussion around such convergence, and any divergence, will take place in the Chapter 8.

Ideas of intrinsic and extrinsic accountability are prevalent when discussing accreditation, registration and the various requirements imposed by higher education, the state and the profession. Participants explored the nature of accounting professional disciplinary knowledge in many ways, from ideas of ethics and currency of experience, to financial literacy, technology and the uncertainty and unfinalisability of accounting.

How accounting knowledge is learned was also a prevalent theme. Issues of authenticity highlighted the difficulties in replicating practice in higher education. The theme of professional relationships exposed a range of tensions among various stakeholders while also highlighting the value in having practitioners participate in higher education.

The next section highlights the implications and causes of recent changes to accounting education.

7.1 Perceptions of change

The shift of accounting education into the tertiary context was commented on by a number of respondents from a number of viewpoints. Most notably, respondents articulated a significant difference between the students who are currently studying and graduating in accountancy, and previous generations of students. Most respondents referred to current students as being less able. This practitioner clearly held this opinion, and seemed to describe the causes for this as being attributable to increasing numbers of students and less able students having access to higher education:

> *The students are dumber. You can put soft words around it, but it's the average of the top 15%, versus the average of the top 25%. I*

don't think they're [higher education] *getting far enough down the track in terms of the quality.* (Accountant, II, 301)

The suggestion that higher education has lowered standards in accepting lower calibre students was reinforced by another practitioner:

> *So I think there may have been a lowering of standards just to churn the people through. So the people they might be attracting into the degree might be of a lower calibre.* (Accountant, II, 303)

Two accountancy educators described the classroom context and the surprising attitudes and lack of student capabilities. The senior academic noted students' inability to use computers to perform basic tasks: "*Just getting them* [my students] *to use a computer to manipulate data was a bit of a challenge this semester. Understanding a percentage*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305). She went on to describe:

> *Some of the students that we're getting have got real deficits in their literacy and numeracy. I've been teaching at 500 level this semester and I've just been gob-smacked with the inability of some of our students to calculate numbers. . . . They come to an accounting course and they don't even think to bring a calculator.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

Another academic-practitioner supported this claim, noting that students were not *street-smart*, and that she was surprised she needed to tell the students how to locate current news items and cajole students into developing an interest in business:

> *The students . . . are not street-smart enough. A lot of them don't read the paper and you have to force them to do it. I try and do that by making some of their assignment where they have got to have read bits from various published sources which they then have to further investigate. But they do it grudgingly. . . . And I say, you're studying business!* (Accountant , II, 302)

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The lack of interest in the accountancy context was remarked on by the same practitioner in that students no longer seemed to want to discuss business or position themselves within it. Students, she indicated, wanted to be told what to learn:

> *You'd get some students that really were interested and would come talk to you afterwards about what they should invest in or what they should do, but there seem to be more and more of them now that just want to be told what to go away and learn and regurgitate it.* (Accountant, II, 302)

The suggestion that accounting graduates were not well prepared for practice was commented on by two academics. The academics had received feedback from outside the institution:

> *There were some members of the Advisory Board who basically indicated that some of our students are not well prepared.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

Another practitioner described this disinterest in work as a generation Y phenomenon. She noted that non-graduates also demonstrated a less committed attitude to work:

> *Because we have come through a generation that hasn't seen the wars, we've come through a generation that hasn't had to work nearly so hard in terms of a depression or anything like that and that there's been two cars in each family. . . . I'm not sure that that's an answer in terms of work ethic and ethos. Maybe generationally we have people who have an expectation that it's all about me and that whole Y generation thing, why do I have to turn up for work today. We've seen that in people who aren't graduates. Same deal.* (Accountant, II, 303)

7.2 Accountability and autonomy

The overarching themes of accountability and autonomy emerged from the accounting participant data and were evident through a number of thematic strands that are explored in this section. Notions of intrinsic, and particularly extrinsic, accountability emerged frequently in the data and are reported in the following sections.

A number of accountability issues as a consequence of the tertiary recontextualisation of accounting education emerged from the data. The nature of the knowledge and knowing, as with architecture education, was seen as being shaped by extensive systems of extrinsic accountability. These systems were designed by state, institutional and professional stakeholders through attempts to ensure quality and consistency of learning, and to guarantee specific outcomes.

Professional associations, as noted in Chapters 2 and 3, are established by professions and appear self-regulating, intrinsically accountable, and protective of their patch. As described in earlier chapters, however, these associations are increasingly accountable to the state. The state's influence on the accounting profession is seen to be particularly strong, given the proximity and influence of the associations to the institution and curriculum.

7.2.1 The structuring of knowledge.

Moving the learning of how to become an accountant to higher education has led to a high level of scrutiny and accountability as discussed above. This extends also to how the learning is structured. Being subject to the National Qualifications Framework, there is the requirement to create courses of particular credit values to facilitate the organisation of the programme and therefore the organisation of accounting knowledge. One practitioner suggested that there was some flexibility in how professional association learning outcomes could be met across the degree. She believed that a more holistic approach and achieving outcomes over more

courses should be adopted, yet outcomes were instead being put into discrete courses:

> *But they* [learning outcomes] *don't have to be covered in one course, they can be covered in a variety of courses. So it means you can still teach the same content but over more courses. But at the moment that's just not happening, it's just being put in one course.* (Accountant, II, 302)

She went on to describe an approach to curriculum taken within her institution, which perhaps suited what students were looking for and was more of a commercial decision than a decision grounded in sound disciplinary and pedagogical theory. A degree was *brought in*, in which there were 15-credit papers as opposed to the 20-credit papers that she had been working with. Papers with reduced credits meant less classroom time and it was assumed that this would appeal more to students. The learning that still needed to happen in her professional view, however, demanded that she try to squeeze the same learning into papers with smaller credit value and shorter learning time:

> *Our previous head of school brought in a degree with 15 credit papers, and we'd always had 20 credit papers. . . . The students were sold it . . . on the basis that it would only take 3 hours of their time a week to do the course, but the content is still the same as what I was doing with the 20 credit course.* (Accountant, II, 302)

This desire to shorten time studying degrees was remarked upon by an academic in the focus group. He acknowledged the need for students to begin work. He problematised the dilemma in trying to ensure students learned well, while preparing students to be ready for work in shorter time frames:

> *Students appear to want to fast-track courses, they want to do summer school and they want to finish it in three, it used to be four years. They want to be out in three years now, they prefer to*

perhaps be out in two and half, so there's this need to get out into
employment. . . . It's counterproductive to having decent learning
and actually being work-ready by the time you're finished.
(Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

A further example of how learning accountancy was being restructured was given by the senior academic. Under pressure to seek efficiencies, she had been asked to develop a generic, core, first-year paper that would meet the needs of multiple business degrees. She resisted such a move on the grounds that there would be too much for accounting students to learn and would not be acceptable to the professional association. Her description clearly demonstrates the tension and dilemmas she experienced in a space of multiple influences, where she struggled to exert her professional autonomy:

We were trying to develop the BBus [Bachelor of Business Studies]
in an Accountancy major. . . . They [the institution] *wanted a*
standard generic core, general business core, but we couldn't fit it
in. . . . if we met the needs of the BBus plus the needs of our
professional body there was just too much in level five for students
to do. (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

7.2.2 Accountability through accreditation.

The influence wielded by professional associations on the curriculum and the institution has been significant. This practitioner-academic explained the extrinsic accountability of the institution to the professional association:

[The professional association] *gives us a set of learning outcomes*
that you have to have done, those learning outcomes have to be
covered. (Accountant, II, 302)

The senior academic believed the association's influence on curriculum was substantial:

> *I think our biggest driver of our discipline are the institutional, are the professional accounting bodies, like the* [name of organisation deleted] *has these statements of learning outcomes. So we've got to have courses that include these statements of learning outcomes.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

The same practitioner, however, later minimised the pervasiveness of the professional association when comparing it to the scrutiny of the New Zealand Qualifications Authority. She found the scrutiny of this national agency to be quite extreme:

> [The professional association] *are not laying down the law as much as* [the national qualifications agency] *does with their prescriptions and their learning outcomes where you've got to evidence every damn outcome and it's got to be in the right percentage.* (Accountant, II, 302)

While there may have been hints of discomfort at the influence of the professional associations, there was, according to this practitioner, an acceptance of the learning outcomes that the association demanded:

> *When we were doing revised learning outcomes, I don't think anybody was saying, "There's stuff here that is a waste of time". I think we're all agreed that what they come out with, the required learning outcomes, are what you would expect from anyone who has gone through an education process to become an accountant, that's what they should know.* (Accountant, II, 302)

Despite a general level of comfort with the role and influence of the professional associations, some tension was noted in the interview conducted with the senior academic. She described the feedback she had received on a programme document, and noted the differences in opinion between what her programme development team believed, and the views of NZQA and the professional association. Her main concern was the lack

of provision in the proposed curriculum for the acquisition, development and practice of practical skills and technical knowledge:

> *I just looked at some of the feedback that we received on the document that we've just had out. There's still that emphasis on technical competence, but there are concerns that students don't necessarily think beyond the facts you know what I mean? They might collect facts but they can't interpret what they are, so I think things like critical thinking, being able to identify problems and provide potential answers to those are a very, are important skills.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

But to remain internationally competitive and compliant, the professional association specified an increase in the specialist technical knowledge that students needed to learn:

> *They've been told by their international partners for reciprocity they need more technical stuff in that material.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

The academic's professional autonomy seemed to be threatened within the higher education context in that she was unable to develop curriculum in a way that she saw fit. This increase in extrinsic accountability and threat to autonomy was further highlighted when she discussed assessment, and despaired that she had no room to manoeuvre or innovate: "*It's assessment driven now so everything's got to be assessed, so you tell me, where is there any latitude for innovation or whatever. . . . I really shake my head*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305).

One of the practitioners was troubled: "*We don't have much time to teach them how to become an accountant because there is so much content that we've got to get through*" (Accountant, II, 302). It seems that her understanding was that she needed to cover all curriculum content and she felt that this was at the expense of helping students develop their professional identity.

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This was strongly reiterated by the senior academic, who remarked again on the power of assessment driving the curriculum:

> *There's just no time to develop skills of students….I'm not saying that what we're doing is bad but I do think we've got to back off the content in some ways. . . . I still think developing the skills is really important and* [our focus on content] *something that's worrying me currently. . . . It's just chocker full of knowledge, you know it's just content driven and assessment driven.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

Another threat to professional autonomy and an example of scrutiny and accountability wielded by the professional association was demonstrated in the shortened review time placed on the programme. As part of accreditation processes, there are periodic reviews. The outcome of the latest review indicated that the association was uncomfortable with delivery, and gave only a two-year approval:

> *We've been given approval to be an approved provider for five years. Well this year they decided to only give us two which I must admit I was very disappointed with.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

The senior academic was under the impression that this was because the association was concerned about the institution and its teachers. This exemplifies the extent to which the association involved itself with the operational activity of the institution: "*They're more worried about the institution. I think it's more institutional issues and more staffing issues that were worrying them, which is really part of the product*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305).

Professional associations, through their accreditation powers, seem to wield a great influence on the curriculum and the institution to the extent that they take little heed of the professional input and autonomy that the academics can have in relation to the curriculum. The curriculum and the

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academics are extrinsically accountable, and while there was a level of acceptance of what was expected, there was also a sense of discomfort at not being unable to develop curriculum as they would have liked.

7.2.3 Registration, continuing professional development and extrinsic accountability.

Several respondents remarked on the advantages in attaining professional registration. According to this practitioner, the achievement of the highest status of chartered accountant (CA) enhanced both the individual's reputation and salary. He believed that, as he had been required to pay for the title of chartered accountant, there needed to be a level of certainty around the quality:

> *Because that's who we align ourselves with, that's how we brand ourselves, that's how we are represented to the rest of the world, that's what adds value to our salary. And that's where we can command five times more salary than someone else. . . . It is a recognised brand. . . . That's why we chartered accountants subscribe to it. That's why we pay a thousand dollars a year or however much it is, and that's our brand and that's the member of the body that should be of a certain standard.* (Accountant, II, 304)

The academic participants spoke at length about CPD. Many worked hard to retain their chartered accountancy registration while in the academy, and struggled to find the time to complete the compulsory requirements:

> *Being in the CA* [chartered accountant] *College we've got to do 40 hours of continuing professional development but if you choose wisely that should be within your, the two weeks that we get.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

However, she also identified a tension in using such leave for CPD and not for research: "*Academic development leave is essentially for those that do research*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305). A further tension identified by one of the focus group academics was in the expectation,

from the institution I presume, to undertake further academic study: "*I was also encouraged to go on to do a Masters and onwards in my discipline as well*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

A further difficulty for the academics in fulfilling the CPD requirements was the high cost: "*The cost of the courses is prohibitive*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306). A number of practitioners directed criticism at the current format of CPD. As part of the requirement to become registered, a graduate must do one year's work experience.

Some concern that the association did not have robust processes around CPD was evident, with this practitioner advising that learning was not assessed in CPD workshops, and graduates could "*slip through into the workshops who may not be as prepared as we expect. Because we don't test in the workshops*" (Accountant, II, 304). The technical knowledge, however, gained from continuing professional development (CPD) was appreciated by the senior academic, "*CPD is still very important in terms of being up to date technically*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305).

7.2.4 Being accountable and the threat to the profession.

Being located within the tertiary environment was blamed by a number of participants for threatening professional standards. One argument was that it was too easy to gain admission to accounting degrees, and that tertiary institutions had granted students entry when perhaps they should not have. This practitioner suggested that institutions admitted accounting students because there was a demand, and such degrees provided easy income:

> *The growth in business - and they* [institutions] *- might be struggling at the moment, is always going to create a huge demand for accountants. So it's balancing that demand with quality and they're between a rock and a hard place. So the University is screwing the society of accountants.* (Accountant, II, 301)

He went on to explain that institutions had made access to accounting degrees easier, since they were less resource-intensive and cheaper to deliver. He alluded to the fact that there might be an over-supply of accounting graduates:

> *Maybe the society of accountants is stuffed* [full] *because it's too easy to generate BComs* [Bachelor of Commerce] *cheaply and. . . . I agree with what the University is saying. . . . They're still going to overcharge for cheap courses like BComs, because they are cheap, you don't need the cadavers, to dissect them.* (Accountant, II, 301)

The suggestion that there was an over-supply of accountants was endorsed by one of the focus group participants, who expressed concern at the high numbers graduating:

> *I'm horrified to hear that* [name deleted] *is expecting nine hundred next year. There's an absolute blowout in the number of people who are registering to qualify as chartered accountants. . . . How do we absorb new accountants every year?* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

A further suggestion that the profession was under threat was around the pressure to allow students to pass the professional association examinations which are taken after graduation: "*I think they're* [professional association] *under pressure to pass people. And there's not much they can do about it*" (Accountant, II, 301). The focus group of academics also speculated on this phenomenon. One participant seemed to feel uncomfortable engaging in such a discussion "*So I don't want to speculate that the profession is picky about who they qualify*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

One practitioner offered an explanation as to why the professional association might not have altered its admission criteria: "*But you know, maybe they've [the professional association] been beaten into submission.*

You know, by their experience of the quality of the answers they're getting" (Accountant, II, 301).

Another reflected on his first-hand experience of the standards applied by the professional association, admitting that he had passed when he thought he should not have: "*They can slip through and they can struggle in the workshops . . . if everybody slips through the system as easily as I did"* (Accountant, II, 304).

He also queried the robustness of the chartered accountant (CA) examinations. He seemed to suggest that these examinations were a box-ticking exercise rather than a rigorous assessment of learning:

> *To get your CA you go and do a workshop for a whole year, six workshops, and you're tested at the end . . . But we aren't marked, we aren't tested or critiqued or followed up, we are to some extent, but it could be more rigid.* (Accountant, II, 304)

7.3 Construction of professional disciplinary knowledge

Ideas of professional disciplinary knowledge were discussed by the participants in various ways reflecting differences in defining the nature of knowledge. At times participants referred to a form of knowledge that I would describe as being technical or factual knowledge. Participants seemed to also suggest that financial or numerical literacy was an essential component of technical accounting knowledge or skill.

In analysing participant data, I was able to broadly distinguish between the broad theoretical, technical knowledge of standards and financial literacy, and the more practical, applied knowledge embodied in, for example, ethical decisions, interpretation and communication.

7.3.1 The professional nature of accounting.

Graduates from accounting degrees continue to develop as professionals in practice, and their sense of professionalism is seemingly nurtured through collegial experiences and objectives set by the profession and the

professional association. What it means to be a professional accountant was commented on by many participants from a range of perspectives.

The professional positioning and the allegiance of accounting academics to either or both the accounting and the teaching professions was discussed at some length within the focus group. One participant saw herself as a professional lecturer but in a specific discipline: "*I'm being a professional lecturer in my discipline of lecturing accountancy*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306). Another described the two roles as an evolution from one to another: "*Before joining* [name of institution deleted] *I worked in the business sector for quite a long while. So my profession right now is academic teaching but by training I'm a qualified accountant, back thirty odd years ago*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

Another seemed comfortable to straddle the two worlds of accounting and academia "*I tend to view us as both, we are in the profession of accountancy as well as being in the lecturing profession*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306). Another went so far as to see himself choosing his discipline to suit the context he found himself in: "*We're all different I think, I tend to throw myself in depending on who you're talking to. So I can go 50/50, whatever suits*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

The senior academic provided a concise list of knowledge, skill and attributes, which tellingly correspond to the traditional triangle of professionalism: professional knowledge and expertise, autonomy and altruism described in Chapter 2: "*What I think being a professional in accounting is roughly, ethics, continuing professional development, particularly technical competence and in order to meet the public interest*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305).

One of the practitioners, however, felt that membership of the professional association determined whether or not an accountant was a professional. This official definition, he felt, made them an equal and was a benchmark: "*Anybody that's involved with the institute, generally, I regard them as a*

professional like me" (Accountant, II, 304). The official status of membership was exemplified by the chartered accountant label being protected by legislation: *"The CA designation is protected. . . . So unless you're a member . . . it's in the Act"* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

Another participant clearly asserted the need to be qualified in order to be a professional accountant: *"There's no room in the profession for unqualified accountants. If you want to be an accountant you have to be qualified"* (Accountant, II, 301). It was, however, according to this focus group participant, possible to practise accountancy without having this endorsement:

> *What I understand from the website of the Institute, anybody in New Zealand can call themselves accountants. Not even having a degree in accounting.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

Another practitioner tried to describe a rite of passage one had to undertake to join the profession. He seemed to question whether in fact accountancy was a profession:

> *It's called a profession and it probably is a profession, but there's a stage you have to go through. . . . It's probably an interesting case study from where you have a closed profession, where you have to go through this alley to get into the profession.* (Accountant, II, 301)

This was in stark contrast with what he said at other points in the interview. At one point he clearly distinguished between the trade of book-keeping and the profession of accountancy: *"Being a bookkeeper is a trade, being an accountant is being a professional* (Accountant, II, 301). However, after more discussion, he changed his mind: *"I'm a bit of cynic on this to be honest, because I don't actually see accounting, as such, as a profession. I think it's more a trade"* (Accountant, II, 301).

I detected a distinction between what participants described as a professional accountant and a less skilled accountant. A professional accountant can be relied upon, is someone who possesses sound,

specialist business knowledge and acumen, and has sound business morals. This description contrasts with someone who merely, from the bean-counter metaphor, counts money:

> *It's about being a good business person. This is what actually makes us unique. . . . People rely on us for that side of information too, so that's in accounting. . . . So there is qualitative aspects to it and there is a need for that and that's why they're more than just a bean-counter* (Accountant, II, 304);

> *They also want them to be accountants, these days want to be seen to be not just the bean-counter.* (Accountant, II, 302)

The contrast between these two perspectives was made more powerful by the excerpts from two participants below. One description was of an accountant who added value and helped inform sound business decision-making, demonstrating professionalism as defined by a blend of theoretical and applied knowledge; the other was someone who was technically competent and functioned without any extended application of knowledge:

> *My role is about ensuring that the business operates efficiently and effectively and people operationally have the information to make decisions around whether their part of the business is operating efficiently and effectively* (Accountant, II, 303);

> *You can have an accountant that is, he can even do tax returns but they are not a professional, they're just a smart cookie that knows how to file a few tax returns or do their own GST returns or whatever.* (Accountant, II, 304)

There was further reflection as to whether accounting was a profession. One of the focus group academics queried how robust the accounting profession was in comparison with teaching: "*The accounting profession . . . it doesn't seem to be a profession as such. Whereas the*

teaching profession seems to a strong profession" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

The sense of altruism as a hallmark of professionalism was clearly acknowledged by many academics. The senior academic emphasised that it was imperative that graduates serve society's interests: "*The main core in accounting is ensuring they* [graduates] *meet the public interest"* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305). One respondent spoke of a sense of citizenship and service to the community: "*We're expected to help contribute to the community…do some form of voluntary service. . . . That's us being a good citizen"* (Accountant, II, 304). Another spoke of their nurturing role and being in tune with the community: "*A caring professional within the community . . . you're wanting to connect with the community"* (Accountant, II, 302).

This sense of duty, responsibility and pride seemed to extend to those training would-be accountants. One practitioner had particularly strong views:

> *If that's your profession, have some pride in your goddamn profession, because you're passing that on. . . . Crap in, crap out. That's the way it is. And this is our golden future. What are we doing, feeding them, you know, shit.* (Accountant, II, 304)

The importance of accounting graduates developing and demonstrating professionalism was evident in the words of this practitioner:

> *The things I'm looking for when I am employing somebody with a tertiary education revolve around that discipline, so almost heading towards the professionalism that they approach the role with.* (Accountant, II, 303)

Several practitioners described the work of professionals in similar ways and which drew on features of expertise, autonomy and the realities of practice:

If you're involved in a project there's three main things that you've got to think about. The first is always what you want to do, quality of the work that you want to go and do as a set project. The second is timing, it's got to happen in certain time periods. And then the third cost. And so, when there's costs involved then there's budgets, and when there's budgets there's accountants (Accountant, II, 303);

[They] *provide information for making good decisions, and then that becomes the judgement-type things rather than being able to go to the book and look it up and say, ah yes, this is. It's professional judgement.* (Accountant, II, 302)

7.3.2 Technical professional knowledge.

Factual and technical knowledge was discussed by many participants, with a particular focus, perhaps unsurprisingly, on being able to work with numbers, and communicate and interpret numbers. The importance of working competently with numbers and financial data was clearly a crucial knowledge or skill for accountants. This, according to participants, along with knowledge of business systems and insights on how businesses actually operate, helps underpin and provide the backbone to the nature of accounting professional disciplinary knowledge. There was an emerging sense that this technical knowledge was not best taught in isolation, and needed context and application in order for it to make sense to new accountants.

The impact of technological innovation on the practical application of accounting knowledge was stated clearly by the senior academic: "*Now you've got computers that can you know generate the data, so there's been a major change in our knowledge base*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305). This academic suggested that a catalyst for this shift was that the profession needed to upgrade its tools in order to better compete with novice, less qualified or unqualified accountants:

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Because they've [accountants] *got competition from people who call themselves accountants but they're not members of a body. They can easily - with a computer package - punch out a set of accounts. Whether they're accurate is another question. So yes they've had to move to that next level. . . . Times have changed and the knowledge has changed.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

Several participants made reference to the importance of and their reliance on technology as a tool in their work as accountants: "*We are so reliant on IT and information systems and financial information systems*" (Accountant, II, 304). One of the focus group participants referred to IT systems as "*whole systems*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306). By this I suggest he means the entire system of how the business operates.

All participants chose to frame knowledge of numbers in terms of financial literacy:

A base requisite is financial literacy. Being good with numbers. Now you'll get people saying "Oh, accounting is a lot more than that", but you have to be good with numbers (Accountant, II, 301);

The people who come to me as graduates have the ability to understand debits and credits, which transactions are expenses and assets. (Accountant, II, 303)

Several participants endeavoured to explain financial literacy in terms of the ability to manipulate numbers, ensuring numbers are accurate, and interpreting and communicating numbers in a way that informs business decision-makers:

Whatever you do, you need to be able to relate it back to the numbers and understand what numbers are telling you and things like that (Accountant, II, 301);

A lot about knowing the actual organisation and its needs…what the transactions represent to your organisation and what is specific

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to our company and the business we do, so a lot about how to record those transactions to give a true and fair view (Accountant, II, 303);

Being able to communicate…both verbally and in writing. So, report writing. . . . We aren't just data dumpers now. We need to be able to interpret data. (Accountant, II, 304)

Several practitioners emphasised that accounting was not just about displaying numbers: *"Not just profit and loss and balance sheet"* (Accountant, II, 304), but that it was also about how to communicate and respond to what the numbers said about a company's performance in order for informed decisions to be made. This excerpt suggested that the accountant was also expected to make decisions about the data:

Have an acceptable level of knowledge to be able to make some decisions about the information that they are seeing and how to treat it (Accountant, II, 303).

7.3.3 Tensions between theoretical and applied knowledge.

The tensions that several participants expressed about theoretical and applied knowledge related to the difficulties in linking what was learned in higher education to how such knowledge should be applied in practice. This practitioner gave a particularly useful description of professional disciplinary knowledge in accounting as a practical, evolving, context-specific knowledge that involved knowing how to respond to a specific situation. She made the distinction between non-formal tacit knowledge of how accounting is practised and that is fairly routine, and factual knowledge, the details of which change frequently:

It's probably more knowing than knowledge because things change so frequently in accounting and new derivatives coming in all these bits and pieces and having to deal with them. . . . So I think it's more about knowing and understanding rather than having a specific body of knowledge. (Accountant, II, 302)

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The same practitioner suggested a level of automaticity and routinisation in her application of tacit knowledge in her early book-keeping career. She knew what to do to balance the books and what results needed to look like but did not appreciate why she was required to do things a certain way, and what or how the information would later be used:

> *I knew that these things had to go in this column, and this had to go there, and you had to make sure that everything . . . all balanced up. But I really didn't think too much about why I was doing it or what the meaning of it was. I was just very good at knowing where things needed to go and putting them in without really thinking through the consequences of it all.* (Accountant, II, 302)

The senior academic referred also to the manual act of book-keeping, noting that technology had changed the applied nature of knowledge. The following excerpt demonstrates, too, the factual nature of accounting knowledge and the need for accounting to be correct and reliable, suggested in her use of the word *compliance*:

> *As I said it was a very compliance-driven profession. . . . If you can imagine they had ledgers and huge manual ledgers to work through all that number crunching. Now you've got computers that can you know generate the data. So there's been a major change in our knowledge base.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

There was a huge breadth of technical knowledge involved in accounting which, as one focus group participant maintained, was too much to learn in isolation before entering practice. Such knowledge was in any case best learned through application and understanding how the application related to practice:

> *The technical side is unbelievably complicated and it's a huge amount to expect anybody to learn before they've got out there to see how it relates to practice.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

Learning through the application of knowledge in practice was reinforced by another practitioner who said: "*When I went out into the real world…where you really started learning*" (Accountant 304). This suggests he saw higher education as an inauthentic context.

One of the tensions that a number of practitioners highlighted was that they had been unable to make connections between the theoretical knowledge learnt in their studies, and what they were experiencing or applying in practice. This practitioner noted that this connection did not happen until she was a senior accountant:

> *It took me a long time to converge the two schools of thought* [practice and theory]. *So what I was doing at Tech was very remote from what I was doing at work. It wasn't until I got through to a much more senior level that I was able to merge the two lots of thoughts.* (Accountant, II, 303)

What is interesting in the next comment is the suggestion that students' *technical skills* had been affected by changes to teaching or curriculum. It is unclear on what grounds this external partner had based his comments:

> *I've a cousin who's a partner in one of the big firms and his complaint is that the change in the way that they're taught has meant that their technical skills have dropped.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

7.3.4 The art of communication.

Communication was viewed as a key component of practice-based, applied and contextual knowledge. Many participants strongly believed that the core element of business was effective communication, as business depended on communication for its successful operation. One practitioner spoke about the importance of being able to communicate with a range of people with diverse backgrounds in a wide range of contexts. This entailed not only the theoretical and practical knowledge of the subject, but knowing how best to communicate:

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> *Those people skills and the effective communication and the ability to interact with different people in different roles. . . . Being able to talk to people in different levels and with different experience bases.* (Accountant, II, 303)

Another practitioner emphasised the value and importance that employers attached to communication. She extended this to include communication within groups, suggesting that communication does not occur in isolation but needs both a context and an audience: "*Group work, communication skills that's what our employers want*" (Accountant, II, 302).

She went on to say that she was warned not to teach group work as that was taught in a communication paper: "S*omebody said you shouldn't need to be doing that. They do that in Communication*" (Accountant, II, 302), a practice she viewed negatively as it separated theoretical content knowledge from its application.

Several participants discussed how communication might best be learned or acquired. One practitioner emphasised the evolving nature of learning how to communicate. Communication was not learned because you have passed the paper, it was learned through application in practice: "*But communication isn't a box that you shut the lid on and say, ah passed that. Now you need to transfer those skills into here* [practice]" (Accountant, II, 302).

Another practitioner acknowledged that communication could be learned through formal and informal means. He emphasised, however, the value of explicit learning opportunities in refining a number of skills:

> *You can learn presentation skills and you can learn communication skills in lots of different ways. . . . But you can actually develop communication skills and presentation skills and leadership skills.* (Accountant, II, 301)

The academic focus group explored also how they taught communication. All of the group interpreted communication in the mode of writing. While

They indicated that communication, through writing tasks, was woven to some extent throughout their teaching and admitted that this could be enhanced:

> *The kind of communication skill we cover is writing skills, writing reports, writing memos, things like that. But I think we need to try to put quite a bit of communication all the way through.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

The focus group discussed the idea of how work-ready graduates were, and one participant acknowledged that higher education might be seen to be failing employers as graduates were arriving without communication skills or technical knowledge:

> *That's where we maybe end up with some criticism because perhaps the students come in* [to practice] *with not enough skills. They* [employers] *expected them to have better written skills, or better technical skills and they don't have them.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

7.3.5 Ethics.

The sense of ethical behaviour and of practising accounting ethically was commented on by most participants. A number of participants referred to the Code of Practice produced by the accounting professional association and described in Chapter 3. One focus group participant declared the commitment to work within these guidelines as a duty of being professional: "*We're in professional roles and we have ethical guidelines that we have to meet*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

One practitioner provided an example of ethical behaviour in knowing the limits of your professional capabilities: "*Accounting ethics say that you never take on any assignments that you're not properly qualified for*" *(*Accountant, II, 302).

The sense of ethical behaviour was problematised by the focus group who discussed the relativity of ethics, and how individual responses to ethical dilemmas can vary according to the context and one's experience. One participant's distinction between *ethical* and *legal* to describe how accounting problems are approached, highlighted the difficult choices that accountants need to make:

> *The problem is because ethical is all so relative, because in accounting there's actually a standard set of ethics that you need to adhere but. . . . What's ethical is not necessarily legal and so it depends on your background you've come from and the environment you're in.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

Different responses to ethical dilemmas based on individual perceptions were reinforced by another participant: "*You have totally different sets of conceptions about what is ethical in certain situations*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

One participant described the pursuit of a greater sense of ethical behaviour among the accounting profession as being driven by the desire to be seen to be reliable. He clearly felt justified in comparing this desired level of trustworthiness with the trust that he felt lawyers and surgeons enjoy:

> *We wanted to change the image of an accountant, over time, to be so that you could rely on them as if they were your surgeon, or as if they were your lawyer and, and that you could trust them 100%. So that's why the Code of Ethics is quite strong.* (Accountant, II, 304)

Clearly the profession and a number of participants in this study were aware of accounting scandals that had recently rocked the profession, and this helps to contextualise these excerpts. Academics had obviously been quizzed about the teaching of ethics in higher education. While this focus group participant acknowledged that violations did occur, he believed that more attention could be given in teaching to ethical dilemmas:

Given the current accounting scandal, a lot of people were actually asked whether ethics can be taught in the classroom or not. And from my perspective, I think if . . . changes are to be made to the curriculum, for student to become an accountant, I think the ethical component could be increased. Because accounting staff quite often . . . face ethical dilemmas, being asked by your boss to cook the books and things like that. (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

The senior academic endorsed this position, emphasising the importance of ethics as part of being an accounting professional: "*We do teach about ethics in some of the courses, which is an important element of being, belonging to the profession"* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305).

8.3.6 The uncertainty and provisionality of knowledge.

The uncertainty of knowledge within accounting was remarked upon by a number of practitioners. There was a general acceptance among the respondents that it was acceptable not to know the answer or have particular theoretical knowledge, or not to know how to respond or apply knowledge to all questions and situations. This is described by one practitioner: "*To be able to have the confidence to know that they don't know everything"* (Accountant, II, 303).

Being able and confident to declare when you did not know the answer was part of being a professional. As this focus group academic described, being professional meant that you acted within the boundaries of capability and knowledge: "*I see myself being a professional by performing to my level of competence, not beyond it"* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

Knowing what to do when you do not know, a kind of procedural and applied knowledge, meant that you needed to have the knowledge of where to seek the answer, according to these practitioners:

If you don't know how to do it, you need to know how to recommend or to find the guidance to know (Accountant, II, 304)*;*

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> *If you don't know the answer, the important thing is to know the question . . . or know who to ask.* (Accountant, II, 301)

This was framed as a warning from one of the practitioners who believed that graduates were overly confident:

> *I think probably when the graduates come out they have an expectation that they are qualified, and that they can take on the world. So a little tinge of reality* [is needed]. (Accountant, II, 303)

One practitioner also referred to the uncertainty of knowledge, in there being more than one answer to accounting problems:

> *When I say to them, "Yes, that could be an answer", they say,"Well what is the answer?". And I say, "Yes that could be one, now think of another one". But no it's got to be, well this is accounting and there can only be one answer. And I say well no, accounting is not like that.* (Accountant, II, 302)

As has been reflected throughout this chapter, accounting has become more than the display of numbers and involves now interpretation and communication, which means that there is more than one possible outcome.

7.3.7 Pathways within the profession.

In the course of my discussions with participants there was significant mention of the various pathways that were available to graduates of accounting degrees. There were also numerous positions available to graduates in a range of organisations and with a range of tasks. One of the focus group listed a range of job titles:

> *It's a little bit of a hard task, because the term accountant also means within that accounting you've got auditors, tax experts, management accountants, financial.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

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One of the practitioners elaborated further:

So it's someone who is an accountant and a treasurer and a financial analyst and a business analyst and a company secretary. (Accountant, II, 301)

The pathways and multiple roles of accountants were explored in great depth across my interviews with participants. The complexities and differences in following the chartered accountant (CA) route and other routes were explained to me. Hierarchy within the profession was maintained through the protection of title *chartered accountant* as noted earlier.

The pursuit of the status denoted by the title of chartered accountant was not always necessary, given the need for other kinds of accountant in different kinds of practices. Many of the participants noted that the profession, and the various industries and companies in which accountants work, needed a range of types of accountants, and not necessarily chartered accountants. One participant explained one of these:

The industry route, where you have a lot broader, different set of skills, a little bit more pedestrian administrative skills. Where you don't need the technical expertise to the same degree of accounting standards. (Accountant, II, 301)

Throughout the interview, this participant seemed troubled by the status of different career choices, given the professional status attached to the role of a chartered accountant:

There's an almost inevitability that there will be an A stream and a B stream and maybe that's not necessarily bad because you get the A stream, really smart people. And this is coming from perhaps a person who went down the corporate - and I don't consider myself stupid - going down the CA route. And maybe that's right, because as I said, they need to be really good at something. People in the

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corporate environment have to be quite good at lots of things. (Accountant, II, 301)

He continued by making the suggestion that the professional association needed to change, to better "s*erve those two different types of roles*" (Accountant, II, 301).

A number of participants remarked on how graduates pursuing the chartered accounting stream were supported, while those pursuing other professional stream were not supported to the same extent:

> *Our students who go out to practice as accountants, not going the professional membership route, I think we need something for them. Because they're the ones that go off and get a job in accounting and they don't have that professional support.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

New graduates had expectations had expectations related to particular career pathways, and tended to pursue the chartered accounting goal, given that it led to elevated status and salary. The consequence of this was that menial tasks and book-keeping work were being neglected in practice: "*If you've got to pay a forty thousand dollar starting salary to your new graduate, then. . . . .Who's meant to be doing the filing*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

There was some discussion about graduates' capability to work as accountants, with the work of a book-keeper seen as being more achievable: "*A lot of the people going in are capable of being bookkeepers, but are they capable of being accountants?*" (Accountant, II, 301).

7.4   Authenticity

The authenticity of the teaching and learning of accounting within higher education was discussed by many participants. The risk that learning within higher education was not authentic, and did not meet the needs of the profession, was highlighted by the senior academic: "*There's a real*

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tension between content, and development of these skills which the profession demands" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305).

This focus group participant noted that learning in higher education was happening without the benefit of practice or experience. This was an example of students learning technical knowledge without the opportunity to develop authentic, relevant applied knowledge: *"So they're* [students] *learning a lot of this* [technical knowledge] *in awful isolation"* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

Many participants referred to the importance of experience in learning the practice of accountancy, exemplified by this focus group academic: *"Experience, that's the only way you can become an effective accountant"* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306). However there were numerous difficulties associated with providing experience within higher education.

Participants discussed the difficulties in replicating practice in higher education, and the challenges facing academics, practitioners and students in ensuring students have exposure, experience and understanding of the nature of practice. There was a suggestion that these difficulties stem from how or to what extent practice is being replicated in higher education, and how higher education requires the learning to become an accountant to occur.

7.4.1 Difficulties in replicating practice.

The value of accountants being exposed to practice, and also acquiring theoretical and applied knowledge was reported by several participants. Students needed to be able to reference theoretical knowledge and learning acquired within higher education to the application of learning in practice. One practitioner noted that employees who were combining work with study were clearly demonstrating how they could apply theoretical knowledge in their workplace:

> *The students that we have that are working, the more senior ones that are working on more complex jobs than just the nice simple*

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little do-a-nice-little set of financial statements and a tax return. . . . You can see that they are starting to, things are starting to come together and they are starting to see the bigger bit rather than just seeing accounting as being something where you've got a calculator, or rather these days a computer and you're putting numbers in. (Accountant, II, 302)

Another practitioner reflected on his own development as an accountant. He had worked as a shipping clerk before completing an accountancy degree. This experience of work and the acquisition of tacit and practice-based knowledge enabled him, he believed, to better understand accounting knowledge in his later degree as he could appreciate the practice context for his accounting degree: "*I was a shipping clerk and doing shipping stuff and sales support . . . but it* [the practice experience] *all made accounting even easier, because you knew what you trying to achieve*" (Accountant, II, 301).

The inclusion of practice-relevant skills in the curriculum was appreciated by another practitioner. She seemed to believe that such *professional* skills would help students appreciate the realities of work and practice:

I think it's good that the focus has changed to a much broader focus of skills, so the professional skills have been linked to the qualification more than just the technical skills. So it's about being in business, I think that's a lovely tick. (Accountant, II, 303)

The senior academic suggested that the institution needed to reconsider how to bring practice into the classroom:

We've got to think innovatively or creatively about how we bring practice to the classroom without us necessarily having to be there all the time. Can be guest speakers or it can be getting the students just to quickly go out there and talk to someone in business. (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

7.4.2 The importance of experience.

Work experience programmes in professional degrees attempt to provide practice experience to students. The accounting undergraduate degree within the institution that participated in this study included a paper called Industry Based Learning (IBL). This compulsory paper, completed in the final year, required students to spend 140 hours (2 days per week) over 10 weeks working for a company. The student negotiated his or her IBL duties through a Placement Plan, and tasks or projects were approved by the institution. Assessment for this paper involved the preparation of a portfolio that reflected workplace learning and evidence of success. The student prepared this in collaboration with the employer.

Many participants commented on the value of such work experience during undergraduate degrees. The senior academic believed that students should gain initial exposure to practice in order to learn what business is about, and that work placement should follow:

> *I'm a firm believer that students should be exposed to elements of the workplace right at the beginning of their degree programme. Even if it's like a tiki tour[8] that they go around and be exposed to what business is about and then later on you know get an actual placement.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

One of the focus group participants was supportive of the view that students should gain earlier and continued exposure to practice alongside formal learning. This blend of applied and theoretical knowledge would be valuable and would reflect, in his eyes, what happens for trainee doctors and teachers. He was concerned, however, with the practicality of this:

> *I would like to see more work experience components. In an ideal world I think the students should be out there throughout their*

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[8] A "tiki-tour" is a trip where instead of travelling from A to B you make numerous detours along the way.

degrees and seeing what's happening and practise in conjunction with learning. Much the same way as, you know, the medical profession do it, or the nurses, or the teachers. All their students go out on placements regularly throughout their training. And I think that would benefit us too. But it's probably not practical. (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

The timing of work experience was highlighted by a fellow focus group participant, who was clear that some experience of practice was essential: "*Whether that* [work experience] *should be done at the tertiary level or an add-on before you actually consider yourself an effective accountant....I think that's what you need to be an effective accountant*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

One participant was somewhat defensive about what was taught in the degree. He was clear, however, that such theoretical knowledge needed to be combined with the application of knowledge, gained in practice:

> *We are certainly teaching systems in our courses. Although probably students still need to experience those systems in their practical experience of system actually operating. But I probably believe that they've got to get out there to properly understand that.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

According to this participant, the degree did not provide enough practice *experience*: "*What needs to be added to be an effective accountant, you need experience and I think that's probably what we don't give them enough of*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

Another suggestion from a participant was to stage the learning and to insert practice-based experience during study: "*Do their diploma and go and be bookkeeper for a while and then come back and do the rest of the degree*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

Several focus group participants commented on the practical difficulties in facilitating the industry based learning (IBL) paper. This participant framed

the difficulty as being one of cost, and how it was cheaper to deliver a taught progamme rather than supervise IBL students on placement. He seemed disappointed that this barrier existed:

> *It's also more expensive to have students out on placements. If you look at our work credits, we get six credits for an IBL student as opposed to sixty for a course. If we only had ten students in a course then it would be the same as us supervising one IBL student so it costs a lot more to do that. We don't seem to have that freedom to move and go down that path.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

Many practitioners commented on pragmatic issues involved in accommodating students on a work-experience programme. This practitioner reflected on the difficulty of students not being able to appreciate much of what was happening, or how they could help during the placement. The students were not able to grasp the wider context of business:

> *I have been through a process where we have had graduates or degree students come through the organisation and do some work experience. But it's really difficult in a short space of time, like a week, to try and have somebody sit beside you, and understand what your needs and the needs of the business are. Because they really don't see or perceive what's going to happen.* (Accountant, II, 303)

This sentiment was expressed also by another practitioner, who noted that students were often surprised by the speed of practice, and how business happened despite their input: "*Even when we have somebody come to work for us it takes a month to get over the shellshock of how fast the organisation flows and what actually gets done here without them*" (Accountant, II, 303).

One of the focus group participants alluded to the difficulty practitioners can have in giving students work, since it might be confidential: "*It's still very difficult when students are still in training to give them the kind of experience they need, because people don't want to let them loose on anything that could be confidential*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

An accountant's credibility was seen to be enhanced if there was evidence of some experience. This focus group participant suggested that clients would not trust new graduates with no experience:

> *You need experience. . . . If a graduate started up business, an accounting firm, by themselves, straight out of university, their qualification, put up a sign, chartered accountant, Joe Bloggs . . . they'd get no one. No-one would perceive them as an effective accountant because they've had no experience.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

The notion of experience was interpreted widely by a number of participants. One believed that *life experience* in of itself was valuable: "*I don't think it has to be gained in a finance role, experience is just life experience*" (Accountant, II, 301). This practitioner linked experience to time, suggesting that the length of time in practice enabled the acquisition of tacit practice-relevant knowledge: "*They haven't really done the time*" (Accountant, II, 304). This is supported to some extent by another practitioner. Practice experience helped her in her professional examinations: "*It was invaluable that I had the work experience when I came to sit my final qualifying exam*" (Accountant, II 303).

The value of experience is likened by a number of participants to the development of common sense, a kind of tacit knowledge that is developed when working with or observing others. This respondent, a practitioner, suggested that such tacit knowledge gained through experience enabled practitioners to work beyond simply numbers alone.

This applied, tacit knowledge complemented technical, numerical knowledge:

> *Being a finance professional is having those broader skills of common sense and experience and being able to look across wider issues rather than just the numerical issues. . . . Common sense is what you have just after you need it . . . What that says is, you get to a situation, you don't know what to do, and as soon as you've got through that situation, and it worked out well or not, you know what the right thing was, you should have done. You know if it worked out well, you did the right thing. If it didn't work out well, you knew you should have done something else.* (Accountant, II, 301)

In this description the practitioner likened common sense to the notion of reflective practice, discussed earlier in this thesis. He seemed to suggest that one way of learning professional knowledge is through practice, reflecting on your own practice, and through trial and error. It was acceptable, he seemed to suggest, to not only make mistakes but to also learn from them, which he described as: "*An ability to just stop and think about the issues broadly and, and not go down an avenue, a blind avenue unknowingly*" (Accountant 301). The senior academic also remarked that "*the ability to think*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305) was a critical skill that students needed to acquire.

7.4.3 Learning from other people.

The importance of learning accounting by working alongside or observing practitioners was discussed by many participants. An official mentoring scheme was in place to assist graduates with their professional examinations, and this was described in Chapter 3, where practitioner colleagues act as mentors to new graduates who intended becoming chartered accountants. This practitioner discussed her role with regard to the scheme. There was the requirement for the mentor to be an expert and she likened her role in the scheme to the role she had as a manager:

> *In your mentoring guidelines you've got to choose one or two specialised areas, "Are you competent in this, doing the audit process?". So this is under audit. So you've got to be specialised in one of those areas. . . . I'm a mentor and I've got two people that I'm trying to bring up as a CA* [chartered accountant]. *It's often the same as with any management role. It's working with the staff members, understanding their needs.* (Accountant, II, 304)

Another practitioner, also a mentor, described his role as mentor in ensuring the success of the mentoring relationship. He also suggested that it was difficult to measure how successful mentoring was. He suggested that the quality of mentoring relationships related to the size of a company, and that mentoring was done better in larger companies:

> [Mentoring] *probably works well in some situations, poorly in others, depending largely on the mentor. How could it be done more effectively? Bit hard to say because I don't know how well it's being done. I think it's probably not being done that well in small business, small corporate environments because they don't have the resources. It's probably being done quite well in the big CAs.* (Accountant, II, 301)

One of the focus group participants suggested that when graduates joined the workplace they were still apprentices and had much to learn from practitioners: "*They are an apprentice . . . In apprenticeship-type situations*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306). Another participant described mentoring as working closely with a practitioner: "*It's actually working closely with somebody*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

A number of participants alluded to the responsibility that practitioners and employers had for the ongoing development of new graduates. There was a level of expectation that employers continue to enhance this learning: "*You would expect that their employers would continue their learning*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306). Another of the focus group academics

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seemed to suggest that there was some professional accountability: *"You're mentoring to get your professional experience sign-off"* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

This was not the case, however, for the entire focus group. Another participant queried the boundaries of responsibility between academics and practitioners in the mentoring of new graduates. She seemed to suggest that some practitioners were reluctant mentors:

> *Where does our responsibility end and somebody else's start? I don't think that necessarily our accounting professionals consider it* [the ongoing training of graduates] *part of their responsibility.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

This practitioner seemed to value the role that she could play as a mentor. She noted that she mentored all employees the same and viewed this as essential to upskill staff about the company as a whole:

> *I think that even those people who aren't studying, and who aren't advancing their careers, I have other people on my team who don't have any formal qualifications but are also are part of my team and therefore subject to me mentoring them to get the best out of what they are doing. That is part of the whole learning about what the company's needs are and sharing my knowledge and getting the best for the organisation. They get to participate whether they want to or not.* (Accountant, II, 303)

Another practitioner appeared to assume responsibility for the continuing development of his staff in an altruistic way. He believed that as he had the experience and insider knowledge, he had a duty to share:

> *I have people who report to me, very capable people, but a lot of what I do is try and get them to focus on the things that I think are important . . . based on just my experience and access to information.* (Accountant, II, 301)

A focus group participant remarked, however, that this need for mentoring could be mitigated if graduates experienced more of a transition to practice, and that employers better supported bridging the gap between higher education and practice:

> *Now, in a way it would be better if there was a further training programme for those students so there was a transition that supported by the employees in their learning.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

7.5 The professional relationships of practice and higher education

The relationships between higher education, professional associations and practice were reported by participants in a number of ways. Tensions between higher education and practice were discussed at length. One practitioner suggested that while both higher education and practice contexts were equally important, academics were not well placed to teach professional skills:

> *They're* [academics] *not really in a position to teach the finance professional skills, which are those broader, softer business skills . . . I sit on the fence . . . They're* [higher education and practice] *both important.* (Accountant, II, 301)

As a way of addressing the higher education and practice divide, the senior academic was trying to develop a balanced staffing mix of practitioners and academics. She acknowledged the value that practitioners add and the credibility that they bring despite them not being academic:

> *Those people* [practitioners] *would never get in on the normal academic track but they've got such excellent professional credentials that they can really add value. As I said it could be a balance in your staff, in your staffing, in terms of having part-timers*

come in and do various bits and pieces. (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

The senior academic also talked about how research was perceived by academics and practitioners and how attitudes to research diverge. She struggled to convince practitioners to read research despite arguing that such research is usually grounded in practice:

> *Looking at a bit of theory or what research has found about things…I don't think it is at all too academic if it's informing practice. Most of those kinds of academic articles have been applied in terms of what they've found out about what people do, but others think, "Oh no it's too academic".* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

The divide between practice and how learning is structured within higher education was made evident when a practitioner described how she explained to students how the workplace operates with strict timeframes:

> *The students always complain that the tests were too long. I'm saying, "Yeah but in the real world out there your boss is going to be saying, you know we've only allowed for x for this job, it's got to be done in 2 hours and you've got to make sure that you've done it in 2 hours". No time for sitting around and pondering.* (Accountant, II, 302)

Dissonance existed too within the professional association. One practitioner highlighted how the professional association CPD workshops valued teamwork, yet the professional exam taken after such workshops privileged individual contribution. There was therefore a mismatch in the teaching and the assessment by the professional association:

> *A lot of the workshops are about team work and involvement, so…when they hit the exam the quality for their final exams is not there. And they've gone and invested thousands and thousands and thousands of dollars.* (Accountant, II, 304)

The senior academic described one way in which the divide between higher education and the professional associations was lessened. She seemed to value the collaboration that occurred in facilitating workshops and marking students' work:

> *I think that* [name of institution deleted] *is a really good forum where academics and practitioners come together. We facilitate together, generally you know we're partnered with someone from practice and also we're involved in marking the scripts of students*. (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

7.5.1 The problem of currency.

The issue of academics' and practitioners' currency created some challenges for many participants, which they discussed in detail. This practitioner referred to a fear of not being current, even as he worked across both higher education and practice: "*I'm too scared not to stay involved and lose touch*" (Accountant, II, 304). Another reinforced this worry of not being current: "*I'm worried that something new has come out that I haven't caught up*" (Accountant, II, 302).

There was also the concern that students were not being exposed to practitioners who were current. One practitioner went so far as to relate instances in which her students were perhaps more current with practice and with research into practice than she was, and that her manager did not perceive this as being problematic:

> *So many of our students are actually working as accountants, probably a good half of our senior students are out there working, and they will say, "Did you know that they've just published the whatever?" I'm thinking, Oh god I haven't even read that yet. And management just say that that's not really important.* (Accountant, II, 302)

One of the focus group members made this issue of practice currency very clear, by outlining the dilemma they have as academics: "*Do we really*

know that the things we're teaching are currently being used, or was that last year's skill?" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

Several academics debated the multiple demands they were under, and the difficulty in balancing practice, currency and research:

> *It's very difficult to do, you know to be up to date in your scholarship, to develop networks, to be an active researcher, and also you know to have this practical dimension as well.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

The senior academic outlined the dilemma she had as an academic in a practice-focussed polytechnic. She felt that as an academic she should be adding to the body of knowledge through research, but the expectations of her at a practice-focussed polytechnic meant that research was neglected:

> *We ought to be active researchers because I think that we should add to the body of knowledge and practice, but there is an expectation here at* [name of institution deleted] *that we are very practically orientated.   So that's a challenge.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

However, the expectation to be practice-focused seemed to be unsupported or discouraged by the participant institution. One focus group participant drew attention to the difficulties they experienced in organising practice placements:

> *There was talk, a long time ago, that we should take our professional development leave and go out for two to three weeks in the industry. If you can't find a place for an IBL student, how on earth are they going to find something for us to do.* (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

A number of potential solutions were offered by the senior academic throughout the course of the interview as to how to enhance the practice currency of academics. One idea she had was to offer academics

sabbatical time in industry: "*I think what we should do more of is to look at allowing staff to take sabbaticals but perhaps industry sabbaticals*" (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305).

There seemed to be conflicting messages for academics from their institution around their professional development (PD) leave and funding. One practitioner described the dilemma for academics on how to spend their PD funds, and the tension between conference attendance and professional association registration:

> *We don't have that many* [academics] *that are members* [of the professional association] *. . . they'd much rather go and spend their PD money on a conference than spend it on a membership with a professional body. (*Accountant, II, 304)

An example of the institution not supporting academics remaining current in practice was evident in the senior academic's description of the institution's outside work policy. It seemed that the institution had needed to tighten up process around outside work, but this was to the detriment of those who wanted to practise to enhance their currency:

> *The other thing is* [name of institution deleted] *has clamped down on outside work. And I can understand why. But for those folks who were doing some private work, it's suddenly become very difficult.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

This institutional policy was problematic, according to one focus group participant: "*There are some real benefits to be had from doing some extra work. . . . You're meant to disclose, but then their process was so poor. I applied three, four years ago and never heard back*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

Bringing practice in, and inviting external speakers into the academy was affirming for students. The senior academic relayed an incident in which students felt assured that what they had been learning was in fact a true reflection of practice:

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Another staff member had a guest lecturer who's on the [name of board deleted] *on auditing standards. The staff member said some of the students said to her afterwards, "Oh what you were saying is what happens". You see so it gave credibility - this does happen in practice and she's not removed from it.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

Later, however, she described an occasion when having a guest speaker come in to meet students was halted over concerns the company had around privacy and company disclosure.

I rang the company and said, "Look my students are doing this I'd really love someone to come along and just talk about the company". They said "Oh well we've got a result coming up and we're loath to make a presentation". And I understand under the continuous disclosure regime they're not allowed to reveal anything, but come on this is a Level 5 group of students so I was disappointed but I didn't rock the boat. (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

7.5.2 Practitioners' contribution to and influence on their profession.

All the practitioners I spoke with were involved in the work of the professional associations. This ranged from the practitioners contributing to the development of the accountancy professional standards, and to the delivery and assessment of continuing professional development (CPD) material. This practitioner felt that her ongoing involvement with CPD meant that she could ensure that the association stayed in tune with the realities of practice:

I think that's one of the reasons why I've stuck with doing the professional competency work with [the professional body] *is to try and just expose those people at that level to the fact that there is a reality out there. That sometimes we do actually use some of the stuff in a day-to-day business and it does actually make a*

> *difference to the organisation as a whole and just try and raise the awareness.* (Accountant, II, 303)

She also spoke in an altruistic way about how she could influence future accountants: *"It helps me to shape them along their way"* (Accountant, II, 303). She found her involvement with the professional association to be mutually beneficial. She was able to learn from graduates, learn about other contexts and how accounting was done elsewhere:

> *But it's been quite rewarding, because it exposes me, from a small accounting organisation - from a large industry, but a small accounting team - to a number of different graduates and the way that they perceive things.* (Accountant, II, 303)

The way in which CPD was organised by the professional association meant that there was a great deal of collaboration between facilitators and examiners. The collaborative nature of this work between academics and practitioners was described by the senior academic:

> *Academics and practitioners come together and we facilitate together, generally we're partnered with someone from practice and also we're involved in marking the scripts of students* [who have sat professional exams]. (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

This practitioner was clearly satisfied with the way in which students were assessed through these processes within the professional association: *"I'm really impressed with* [the training wing's] *marking methodology. I think it really does install . . . the candidates get a fair assessment"* (Accountant, II, 301). He later contradicted himself, noting that his marking was harsher than the academics and that he and the academics needed to work through differences:

> *I was new into the environment and so I wasn't going to stand up there and spout too profusely about telling them how to do their job. I'm not that silly but, we all kind of worked it through. There are variances and I just happened to be at the high end. We worked*

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through all the issues and things like that and came to a consistent standard, which is regularly checked. (Accountant, II, 301)

Members of the focus group discussed the influences that were brought to bear on the professional associations. This participant seemed quite confident that the association involved practice and industry in determining its learning outcomes:

I believe what the accounting professional body want to include in the curriculum is somehow affected by the input from the industry. So I understand that they . . . survey the industry about . . . future accountants and then they take into account this information and then come up with the traditional requirements for accountants. (Academic, Accounting FG, 306)

Likewise another participant felt as if they, as academics, had some say on the changes to learning outcomes and accounting standards: "*We do get quite a lot of opportunity to have a say in any changes that are coming through*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

7.5.3 Respect for the academy.

Practitioners demonstrated respect for the academy in a number of ways. One practitioner appreciated the time academics had to think deeply about accountancy issues. This was seen as particularly valuable, given the lack of time there was to reflect in practice:

So academics have more opportunity to talk and discuss. I said earlier about how they tend to beat an issue to death a lot more than the corporates and you see that in the marking. Well I think that's a good thing. Because in the business environment you don't necessarily have time for that, but it needs to be done. (Accountant, II, 301)

This practitioner was also a firm supporter of higher education. Education was seen as valuable in itself, not only to the accounting profession but also to society in general:

> *It shouldn't be all finance professional, I still think you need to have some academic endeavour, purely for the purpose of academic endeavour. Otherwise we go backwards as a society.* (Accountant, II, 301)

The composition of the professional association meant that both academics and practitioners had a say on the education of accountants. The academics wielded a great deal of influence, supporting the notion that training is research-informed:

> *I guess* [the professional association] *actually is quite academic anyway because the actual committee is so heavily influenced by academics. . . . It wasn't just the practising accountants so much that were saying, "This is what we need". It was more the academics on those committees that were dictating in a way what went in there.* (Accountant, II, 302)

This was further reinforced by the senior academic, who remarked that academics were on the boards of international professional associations. In her view, this meant that the development of accounting standards would be research-informed:

> *In the very echelons in the top universities, a lot of their top academics are members of some of the international accounting standards boards, so research can inform.* (Senior Academic Accounting, II, 305)

One of the focus group participants defended the credibility of the professional training that accountants received, given that it was influenced by research: "*I do think the profession's got a lot of research and credibility behind what it requires in its education*" (Academic, Accounting FG, 306).

7.6 Chapter summary

The tertiary recontextualisation of the education of accountants has led to a range of issues, a number of difficulties, but also some advantages as reported in this findings chapter. The data shows that academics struggle to balance the competing demands of the academy, the profession and professional association, both in terms of curriculum and pedagogy within the higher education context, and in terms of retaining their own professional registration and practice currency. Academics reported that there was a level of tension between their roles as educator, practitioner and researcher, brought about to some extent by, in their view, the inadequately defined relationship between higher education and practice, and the extent to which academics appear to have lost a level of professional autonomy in their design of curriculum, with curriculum more accountable to external professional and state requirements.

The state and the professional associations' influence on the curriculum, exerted through the design processes and through surveillance mechanisms, was also reported by academics as shaping the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge. Given these influences on curriculum, participants reported that accounting knowledge was being packaged into credit chunks. There was a strong emphasis on assessment and facts, and inadequate coverage of the more social and altruistic aspects of accounting, namely ethics, communication and the development of professional identity.

Participants expressed significant concerns about the authenticity and practice-relevance of the learning in higher education, compounded by difficulties in exposing students to the realities of practice. Participants reported students having inadequate opportunity to experience or appreciate knowledge learned within the degree alongside the realities of practice, or in other words, to use the knowledge learned in their degree to work alongside practitioners and develop the tacit knowledge that appears to underpin practice of accounting. Given the emphasis on mentoring

within the accounting profession, this lack of exposure to practice and practitioners is troubling.

Being located within the tertiary context has led to a range of qualifications for accounting that are driven and complicated by credentialisation processes and status. The pursuit of high status careers appears to be leading to a lack of accountants keen to undertake book-keeping, which is creating a need within practice. The process of credentialisation, enabled through CPD and other monitoring processes, was largely accepted by the participants as being valuable in ensuring quality and in the outcomes it produced. It also appeared to be an effective forum in which practitioners and academics worked well together.

The findings of the interviews and focus group with architecture and accounting academics and practitioners are similar in many ways, and these will be discussed in some detail in the next chapter.

Chapter 8: Discussion: Cross-case perspectives on architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge

8.0   Introductory comments

This chapter brings together the findings from the two case studies of architecture and accounting. This chapter is divided into a number of sections. The first section will comment on surprises in the data; and the second considers the influence of context and the move of professional learning to higher education on the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge. The remaining sections focus on specific and salient major themes from the findings and demonstrate the extent to which my individual and cross-case analyses identify convergence and divergence.

8.1   Surprises in the data

In the previous discussion, I have focused on what themes exist in the data rather than what themes do not. In this section I will touch on what themes did not emerge or become salient in the participant responses which I might have expected to observe following my review of the literature.

Participants did not express concern about the shift of professional education into higher education, although they did discuss some of the difficulties they experienced working in the higher education context. The participants' critique of curriculum focused on how they managed multiple and competing influences. These competing influences comprised, for example, the expectations of the professional associations and of the institution. The participants did not focus on the specifics of curriculum content.

A major surprise was the extent to which the findings of architecture and accounting converged in so many ways. Not all data and examples of this are included in this thesis as they did not specifically relate to the

framework of this study. On the basis of this convergence, there are strong indications that call for this study to be extended to other professions and for a future study to assume comparative, transdisciplinary or transprofessional perspectives. These areas of commonality are possibly attributable to the shared contexts, and a shared commitment by the participants to their profession, fostered by largely common learning and working experiences, and the bigger contemporary political and educational context. These areas of convergence manifest themselves in the data through notions of accountability and surveillance, the provisionality of knowledge, the relational aspects of professional knowledge, and the difficulties in replicating practice in higher education.

Notions of accountability and surveillance are manifested in the push toward standardisation within higher education. By this I mean learning that is academicised, structured and made accountable according to measurable standards and external expectations and which is creating conflict between the profession and higher education. Within higher education, academics struggle to make professional disciplinary knowledge fit into outcomes, credits and curriculum frameworks. Academics struggle to enable professional learning for their students in the way expected by higher education, to their own satisfaction as experts, and to the satisfaction of the professional bodies.

8.2 The influence of context in shaping professional disciplinary knowledge

The findings suggest very strongly that the moving architecture and accounting professional knowledge into higher education has resulted in tension between the demands and expectations of practice and higher education. If we understand the process of recontextualisation as the relocation of disciplinary knowledge from one context into another, the findings offer more evidence that the recontextualisation process and the context in which knowledge is recontextualised shapes what is being recontextualised, as noted elsewhere in the literature (Eraut, 2004b, 2004c;

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Maton, 2011a; Stavrou, 2011; Thompson, 2009). Moving the learning to be a professional into higher education is transforming the shape of both professional disciplinary knowledge and what it means to be a professional.

The role and importance of context has been theorised by Bernstein (2000) in what he calls pedagogic recontextualising fields (PRF) and official recontextualising fields (ORF), as discussed in Chapter 2. The work of others (Coleman, 2012; Frandji & Vitale, 2011; Luckett, 2009; Maton, 2011a; Stavrou, 2011) is useful in interpreting the findings in that their work has variously explained and evidenced the official recontextualising phenomenon that I have researched. The findings are similar to Shay (2012), who examined tertiary curriculum development in South Africa, and Stavrou (2011) who examined the higher education context in France.

There are a number of recontextualising devices that influence the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge in the tertiary context under examination in this study, and which contribute to tensions between practice and higher education. The study took place within a polytechnic in New Zealand. The polytechnic must comply with standardisation frameworks, curriculum and assessment policies, and surveillance and accreditation processes as stipulated by the state and the accrediting professional associations. These frameworks and accompanying policy and statutes act as recontextualising devices as disciplinary knowledge is reshaped for tertiary curriculum purposes. This phenomenon is examined in this section.

The findings seem to suggest that recontextualisation, and the need to comply with a curriculum standardisation framework, is leading to a segmentation of knowledge (Maton, 2011a), and a sequencing of knowledge and pace of learning that suits the requirements of the framework and curriculum. In making learning and knowledge transparent and assessable, the process of segmentation appears to be distorting the nature of professional conceptual knowledge and knowledge from the field

of practice, and removes the ability for conceptual and practice knowledge to be meshed, and to be treated in ways that suits the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge and professional practice, as noted elsewhere in the literature (Bernstein, 1996, 2000; Frandji & Vitale, 2011; Muller, 2009).

Both architecture and accounting participants expressed feelings of disempowerment at being unable to contribute their professional expertise and judgement in the structuring of curriculum and content of professional learning. Academics, particularly from architecture, discussed difficulties in sequencing knowledge through a four–year degree and struggled to agree as to what should be taught first. Their discomfort and criticism of the way in which curriculum and pedagogy needed to be structured according to higher education contextual requirements was associated with their belief that professional and intrinsic autonomy and expertise was threatened as a result of the need to be externally accountable, and that learning, as a result, lacked authenticity.

Many participants from both architecture and accounting believed that the higher education context lacks authenticity, is contrived and does not provide learning opportunities that reflect the nature of practice. The accounting participants were concerned, for example, at the lack of authentic opportunity for learners to appreciate the impact of their professional decisions. A number of scholars have considered notions of authenticity in higher education (Herrington & Herrington, 2005; Sutherland & Markauskite, 2012; Vu & Dall'Alba, 2011), and are critical of the conventional approach of superficially importing tasks from practice into the higher education curriculum.

Forms of assessment, as recontextualising tools in the tertiary context, appear to shape learning in a way that is at odds with the way in which learning is valued by professionals in practice. In the case of architecture, there is a disconnect and a lack of authenticity in the way knowledge is taught and assessed in the participant institution, and in the way

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professional practice legitimises knowledge and demonstrations of knowing. Students are required to undertake assessment tasks which are competitive and solitary. Such assessment does not align with the professions' notions of collegiality and the importance of others and relationships in practice. Measuring and making judgements about learning and expertise through the mode of written tasks is at odds with how mastery and expertise is acknowledged in practice, particularly in architecture where a building or a concept is the basis on which judgements are made.

Effects on knowledge as a result of recontextualisation were specifically identified in my architecture findings, and included a difficulty in developing creativity and problem-solving skills given the risk-averse polytechnic environment. The notion of risk manifests itself in various ways throughout the findings. The architects sorely lamented the demise of being able to take risks in practice now that architecture practice is threatened by the regulatory nature of the state. This view was less prevalent in the data from the accounting participants. Participants from both case studies, however, were appreciative of the polytechnic being a place in which mistakes could be made by learners and which could be shaped into learning experiences.

8.2.1 Policy, frameworks and the threat to knowledge.

Education is being made more instrumental and accountable in serving the needs of the state and its political, economic and social priorities, as discussed in Chapter 1. There is emerging literature in New Zealand and Australia (Gilbert, 2005; Hipkins, 2010; Locke, 2008; Olssen & Peters, 2005; Roberts, 2005; Wood & Sheehan, 2012; Yates & Collins, 2010) and around the world (Apple, 2006; Moore & Young, 2001; Saunders, 2006; Simons et al., 2009b; Young, 2008, 2009; Young & Muller, 2010) that warns of the consequences of the influence of neoliberal thinking on higher education. One of the consequences of such an agenda on

education is the removal, lack of definition or neglect of knowledge within curriculum. This and other consequences will be presented in this section.

Findings from this study support the large and growing body of literature which suggests that knowledge is being distorted and dislodged from curriculum. Standardisation frameworks, as recontextualising devices and an outcome of educational policy, create a tendency to package knowledge into discrete assessable units. Knowledge is being shaped into learning outcomes which represent knowledge in ways that neither reflect conceptual principles of the knowledge itself, or principles from the field of practice. Knowledge is being desituated and stripped from context, and is being shaped into outcomes that are more easily assessed and commodifiable, and in ways that increasingly reflect the state's surveillance, accountability and employability objectives.

Members of the academy and professions report that the state's managerialist neoliberal approach to education has led to new ways of constructing professionals and professional identities. Identities are being shaped by market and employability needs, and give stakeholders (employers) greater control as to the skills and training needed. This approach, argue a number of scholars (Beck & Young, 2005; Bernstein, 2000; Wheelahan, 2010), produces "market identities" (Wheelahan, 2010, p. 110). It also, they argue, commodifies knowledge so that it is divorced from disciplinary frameworks and concepts. Fairclough (1999) argues that state-generated discourse has been fundamental in the re-shaping of identities and behaviours so that one size fits all. He describes this as the "commodification of discourse" (Fairclough, 1999, p. 77), which results in a lack of difference between knowledges in making it commodifiable. This resonates with discussions in Chapters 1 and 2. Neoliberal discursive influences, standardisation frameworks and the displacement of knowledge from curriculum as outcomes of current education policy are leading to increasingly generic tertiary programmes and learning

outcomes, and the construction of professionals and professional identities that suit the market and the state.

The process of genericisation strips conceptual and practice knowledge from curriculum and further desituates curriculum and learning from the field of practice. Professional curriculum in higher education are being constructed in ways that mean they are neither based on practice, and knowledge from the field of practice, nor based on conceptual bodies of knowledge. Both domains of knowledge are being treated inadequately in higher education curriculum.

Professional curriculum are being constructed and measured on the basis of the perceived contribution and value of knowledge and learning to the state's social, education, economic and employability agenda. For education to make a contribution to society and economy and have altruistic and economic value there is the sense of higher education needing to clearly serve employability-related expectations and the requirements and ideological perspective of the state, professional associations and society. As the findings and analysis of documents have shown, the state exerts symbolic control over curriculum and the construction of architects and accountants as professionals through a range of means, many of which are discursively articulated in statute and rules and mediated by the state and professional associations. This mediation of policy is discussed in the next section.

8.2.2 Contextual influences and extrinsic accountability.

The findings indicate that the wider educational context, as shaped by neoliberal reforms of the late 1980s and 1990s and played out in policy, is a critical factor in the construction and legitimation of professional disciplinary knowledges. There was significant convergence among the architecture and accounting participants around the notion of extrinsic accountability constructed through the wider context of neoliberal reform and the demands exerted on the professional identity, professionality, academy and practice. Many of the participants seemed to believe that

these requirements have led to new ways in which professionalism has been constructed and regulated, and that the requirements are deprofessionalising and disempowering professionals, which corresponds to positions taken in the literature (Evans, 2008, 2011; Locke, 2001, 2004b, 2008; Osgood, 2006; Sachs, 2001; Scanlon, 2011b).

Through the critical analysis of the documents that help to construct architecture and accounting professionals, I identified how prevalent discourses position the academy and practitioners in specific ways. Given that these documents are constructed by a number of agencies of the state, it would appear that the documents largely share a specific hegemonic purpose. The state's discursive positioning regulates and shapes new professionalism, which Locke calls a process of "discursive colonisation" (Locke, 2004b, p. 115). Participants seemed to suggest that their individual autonomy is being limited, professionality is enacted, while reified and state-constructed perceptions of what it means to be a professional are privileged and demanded via discursive means in education policy, professional association guidelines and institutional frameworks.

Academics and professionals are attempting to shape their own sense of professionalism, professional identity and personal agency within the constraints of the context. The individual's relationship and response to prescribed modes of being a professional as decreed by the state and professional associations has been examined in the literature (Evans, 2009b, 2011, 2013; Noordegraaf, 2007, 2013). Being able to use their own intrinsic sense of professional judgement and expertise, and exerting autonomy in practice and in the academy, was a salient theme across both cases, and one which strongly reflects the characteristics of classical democratic professionalism, namely expertise, autonomy and altruism, and also Evans's (2011) nuanced description of professionalism in terms of behaviour, attitude and intellect. The architecture findings in particular illustrate how the reified curriculum is mediated by academics as they

attempt to modify, subvert and enact the curriculum set by professional associations and the state as a model of compliance and means of surveillance.

The data generated understandings about the various forms of accountability which manifested itself both intrinsically and extrinsically. Intrinsic accountability is very much tied up with classical notions of professionalism, personal agency, responsibility and autonomy, discussed earlier in this thesis. Extrinsic accountability comprises the numerous constraints and expectations discursively imposed on the professions through statute. Participants were acutely aware of the rules and expectations that governed the contexts in which they operated (the institution, the professional associations, higher education and the state). The extent of the influence of these externally imposed standards on what it means to become and to act as a professional has been under scrutiny in this study.

Continuing professional development (CPD) is a clearly articulated formal, compulsory learning requirement for both architecture and accounting professionals following graduation. CPD in architecture and accounting is monitored by the professional associations. Participants seemed to be highly critical of the way in which CPD in their profession was facilitated, arranged and measured, and many used a box-ticking metaphor to describe CPD as an exercise in compliance. CPD was viewed as a device through which the professional identity and behaviour of architects and accountants was being shaped and controlled by professional associations who in turn have been given legitimacy by the state. What can be seen is an increasing pervasiveness of the state in the shaping of these professional identities through indirect means.

In the educational literature, CPD and the way in which it is constructed and monitored has come under increasing criticism. This criticism is based on the fact that it has become part of a surveillance regime (Locke, 2004c, 2008), or is a form of "self-surveillance" (Boud & Hager, 2012, p. 17) to

the extent that it can be seen as an "induction into ideological compliance" (Locke, 2004c, p. 120). The notion of compliance through CPD is supported by others (Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006) who suggest that the current neoliberal extrinsic accountability agenda has led to it becoming little more than an exercise in measuring attendance and accumulating points. The findings strongly support this view.

Being professional, as shaped by CPD, has become a response to the requirements of official definitions of what it means to be a professional, has less to do with the more traditional notions of professionalism, professionalisation and development of individual agency and autonomy. More crucially, it fails to draw on the long history of tacit knowledge and professional learning gained through practice, or the sense of commitment to develop professionally, which Evans (2013) calls developmentalism. The current CPD provision, then, appears to threaten the evolution of architecture and accounting professional identities, and may jeopardise the principles of professional disciplinary knowledge. Attempts to control practice and shape professional identities in this way seem to be driven by a risk-averse culture of quality-assuredness, and threaten the very core of architecture and accounting professional practice.

Architecture participant data presents a compelling argument that the essential creativity element for architecture is being put at risk by increasingly risk-averse and highly regulated practice contexts. The architecture findings suggest that accreditation and accountability processes which act as recontextualising devices are having an adverse effect on risk-positive architectural creativity and constrain architects' autonomy. Being creative, learning from mistakes, the provisionality of architectural knowledge and risk-positive behaviours and attributes identified by architecture participants were some of the crucial learning objectives for being and becoming architecture professionals. Any attempt to restrict or reshape learning such behaviours and ways of being in higher education or practice was construed as a threat. Architecture knowledge

and practice is again seen as being constructed by the expectations and requirements of the state. Studies by Bernstein and others (for example, Beck & Young, 2005; Codd, 2008; Evans, 2011; Locke, 2008; Olssen & Peters, 2005) have considered the increasing symbolic control of official agencies on professionals and their practice, and illuminate this proposition.

Building codes and accounting standards are seen to codify practice and are a form of symbolic control. Both accounting and architecture operate in the public domain and with published standards and codes which shape and limit practice and behaviours. This is a form of applied theory, or theorised practice, and theory that has become legislation now underpins practice. As the architecture data has shown, however, this compliance with extrinsically accountable expectations occurs at the expense of and seems to threaten professional autonomy.

Building codes do more than, in the case of architecture, keep buildings to a certain standard; such codes have a *socio-morphological* effect on the final design outcome of a building through long-term impact on the community and the immediate building environment. Regulatory knowledge, therefore, attempts to shape the nature and evolution of architecture professional disciplinary knowledge and practice.

While there are high levels of acceptance by the architecture and accounting participants of the need for legislation and codes to ensure safe and responsible practice, there is a greater sense of impingement on architecture. Accounting participants did not seem to feel the loss of responsibility or feel as threatened and there was a strong sense that standards were essential. A number of factors could explain this and this finding was not explored in more depth, although one explanation could be the number of accounting scandals that were being brought to light at the time at which the data was collected. Greater caution and adherence to standards is perhaps therefore unsurprising.

8.3 Becoming and being professional

This section explores participants' reports on how they learn to be and become architecture and accounting professionals. The findings have shown that higher education demands knowledge to be largely codifiable, clearly articulated, observable and measurable. As a result of this, other knowledges and skills, which appear to be neglected or missing from the architecture and accounting curriculum, include cultural knowledge, personal traits and dispositions that Eraut refers to (2004b), and tacit knowledge learned by working alongside and observing others in practice (Eraut, 2000). These knowledges appear to be not easily codified.

In the findings there was a sense that professional knowledge and behaviours common and critical for practice, such as reflection, judgement, collegiality, and more tacit occupation-specific behaviours and dispositions, were left to chance in the higher education classroom and were dependent on observant students picking up how to behave and what to do in practice. This may reflect how such knowledge is learned in practice, but the higher education context does not necessarily provide opportunities for students to realise that this tacit knowledge is in fact valuable, a situation aggravated by few opportunities to encounter practice during the degree.

The difficulty in articulating, modelling and teaching such invisible and tacit knowledge, perhaps not amenable to codification in higher education, is supported by Eraut's description of tacit knowledge in the workplace (Eraut, 2000, 2007). Eraut acknowledges the difficulty in eliciting tacit knowledge from practitioners, and offers a typology which can act as a framework in which tacit workplace and practice knowledge can be defined and enabled (Eraut, 2007). The higher education context, however, struggles to articulate and provide for learning outcomes, assessment and pedagogy that address tacit knowledge and professional dispositions that can shape professional identity and professional being. Other difficulties, suggests Eraut (2007), are that formal learning needs to be well-timed and

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relevant, and the workplace is neglected by state and education policy as being a source of learning.

Findings suggest that mastery is an unattainable goal in the context of practice and professional education. Other scholars have explored the notion of expertise and criticised models of mastery and systematic approaches which suggest total mastery is possible and desired (Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006). Findings across both case studies highlighted to a similar extent that it is difficult to articulate and measure the knowledge to be learned, and that knowledge development was ongoing, circular and non-finite. In this study I have called this provisionality, which can be illustrated with this excerpt "mastery is a momentary illusion because what we are attempting continually changes" (Scanlon, 2011a, p. 29). Scanlon refers to Ibarra's work (1999) on provisional professional selves, where the real self is actualised in practice. The evolutionary development of a professional identity, and the suggestion that professional knowledge is never fully learned, is learned in non-linear ways and in ways that differ according to the context, the individual and the profession, is supported elsewhere in the literature (Bromme & Tilemma, 1995; Dall'Alba, 2009; Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006; Dreyfus et al., 1986; Eraut, 2005; Freidson, 2001; Scanlon, 2011a; Schön, 1983; Shaffer, 2004a, 2004b, 2006).

This study has also shown that there are gaps and deficiencies in architecture and accounting graduates. The participants, while acknowledging that they do not expect graduates to be work-ready, reported that graduates are increasingly finding it difficult to apply theoretical knowledge gained in their degrees in practice, and struggle to take decisive, appropriate courses of action. This claim supports literature which has also found that students experience difficulties becoming professionals as they attempt to resituate and use codified, theoretical academic knowledge in practice and the workplace (Bromme & Tilemma, 1995; Eraut, 2004b, 2004c; Iedema & Scheeres, 2003; Jarvis, 1983; Saunders, 2006; Schön, 1983).

8.3.1 Professional identity and belonging.

The theme of professional identity emerged from participant data in a number of ways. There was a strong sense in both cases that the academic and practitioner participants were troubled about their professional identity as individuals and as members of a profession. Some participants questioned the legitimacy of their discipline and profession, and disciplinary belonging within higher education. Participants also reported concerns about the professional identities that were being constructed in the higher education context and their part in that process.

If we accept the description of a discipline in the most traditional sense as "an intellectual map" (Christie & Maton, 2011, p. 3), which offers a framework in which like-minded scholars develop and share knowledge and processes, it must be asked why many of the participants were uncomfortable with the notion of architecture and accounting as academic disciplines. I suggest that this discomfort stems from the more recent changes the profession was experiencing in having initial learning moved into higher education and the changes this seemed to bring about on notions of academic disciplines, knowledge and knowers. This shift also requires academics to adopt and enact reified curriculum perspectives constructed outside of practice and defined normatively by standards which were seen to privilege theoretical aspects of professional knowledge, were increasingly discrete and measurable, were distant from practice, and made the replication and integration of practice into curriculum difficult.

The findings strongly suggest that recontextualisation into higher education and the development of architecture and accounting academic disciplines was shaping professional disciplinary knowledge in ways to suit the ideological and political context and not, perhaps, the nature of the knowledge itself. Knowledge from the field of practice for architecture and accounting professionals was not perceived as legitimate and did not fit easily into the higher education curriculum as shaped by education policy and mediated within the academy, and which created "a kind of intellectual

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straightjacket" (Christie & Maton, 2011, p. 3). I suggest too that the struggle for legitimacy as an academic discipline is taking place within higher education where the concept of discipline is shifting due to other implications of a neoliberal education agenda. The shift toward inter-and trans-disciplinarity, for example, may be a response to the exigencies of higher education which in turn are a response to the state's drive for employability-focused curriculum.

Both architecture and accounting academic participants discussed difficulties they experienced in navigating the dual worlds of the academy and the profession and in determining their sense of professional identity. This finding supports a number of theoretical standpoints in the literature. The multidimensional nature of professional identity (Scanlon, 2011a) is evident in how participants discuss their individual and collective identities. Descriptions of academics' struggles with identity and legitimacy, and "sense of loss . . . searching toward a revised identity that would have to balance new demands of pedagogy, curriculum design, scholarship, and research, while retaining vital practical credibility" (Gordon, 2010, p. 19) resonates with my findings. The findings are consistent too with Henkel (2010), who describes the continuous act of practitioner-academic identity deconstruction and reconstruction due to shifting relationships and priorities. Hoyle's (1975) and Evans (2008) work on extended and restricted professionality is theoretically valuable. The extent to which a practitioner calls upon and is encouraged to call upon theory that underpins practice, or is reliant on and expected to rely on day-to-day practice within a teaching context will help to construct an individual's professional identity, or professionality within a profession.

That academics who prepare graduates for practice are themselves undergoing an identity or professionality crisis was indicated by many participants. The difficulty that academic architecture participants experienced in varying degrees was not only the uncertainty as to how they are supposed to operate in the higher education context, grappling

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with multiple and conflicting teaching, research and administrative demands, it was also the uncertainty as to what to teach and when, what boundaries existed and how to navigate boundaries between practice and higher education. Uncertainty prevails in the architecture discipline, argue a number of scholars (Coleman, 2010; Paisey et al., 2000; van Raat, 2000), due to the lack of agreement across the profession as to the critical components and structure of architectural education, a prevalent theme in the findings.

A tension among many of the academic participants related to their attempts to manage the push and pull of practice and academy, both in terms of time and in terms of loyalty to a type of knowledge or way of being, and a privileging of different views of professional disciplinary knowledge and identity. Barnett (2009) suggests too there is a continuous pull between knowing the facts of how to practise, and being a practitioner in the sense that a practitioner needs the dispositions, experience and attitudes to practise effectively, and has to somehow straddle both worlds.

A sense of weakening professional identity seemed to emerge from some of the academic participants. The notion of strong internal sense-making for each discipline seems to have been under threat. The threat to professional identity and knowledge is likely effected by the way in which recontextualisation has occurred and the impact that this has had on notions of knowledge and professional identity. Saunders' term "ontological security" (2006, p. 18) evokes a powerful image of the academics' struggle for identity and negotiation of boundaries. Saunders' work complements the work of other scholars on classifications and framing (Bernstein, 2000), and boundaries that shape pedagogic identities (Muller, 2000, 2009; Young, 2008; Young & Muller, 2010). The strength of the disciplinary boundaries and pedagogic identities varies depending on the degree of insulation between the discourses and their perceived power. Boundaries are permeable and fragile, and what makes the boundaries stronger is a strong internal sense-making of the discipline. Weak sense-

making, then, encourages weak boundaries and a weakened form of professional identity.

Without a strong sense of professional self, or extended professionality, the individual, the profession and the discipline is likely to call upon, be permeable to and influenced by other values and influences which shape ways of being, such as those stipulated in state-constructed discourse and policy. Such identity insecurities are seen to prevail in the account offered by many of the participants, which in turn appears to lead to difficulties in defining the legitimate knowledge to teach new professionals. To what extent, however, professional identity is permeable and professionals play-act their enactment of official curriculum, subvert curriculum, and withstand these external pressures, deserves greater scrutiny and can form the basis of future research.

8.3.2 Isolation and distance from practice.

Findings suggest that the learning and preparation for practice within higher education is occurring in isolation from practice and, to an increasing extent, in a context that exerts a large degree of control and which does not easily enable students to gain a sense of the realities of practice. There are emerging tensions between bodies of knowledge from the field of practice, and the knowledge being legitimised, created and encapsulated in curriculum, as a result of this isolation. Participant data seems to suggest that practice-focussed professional disciplinary knowledge is not highly valued in higher education. This raises questions about the nature of knowledge being taught to new architects and accountants which this study aims to answer.

Several participants warned of increasing insularity and disconnectedness of higher education from practice. Graduate preparedness caused by the failure of academics to develop consistent and relevant professional knowledge and skills for emerging practitioners is likely to be one consequence. The fact of graduates becoming academics without practice experience appears to lead to disciplinary insularity. Other consequences

may be the sense that practice knowledge and theoretical knowledge are competing for legitimacy, and are being given new shape as stipulated by standardising frameworks within higher education. Competition for legitimacy, and difficulties in achieving a shared perspective between higher education and practice on the rich nature of professional disciplinary knowledge, helps to create gaps, weakens professional identity and makes boundaries permeable, gaps into which another agency, in this case the state, may step in and more easily begin to exert its own influences.

The findings have shown that for a range of reasons, including pragmatic difficulties in replicating practice and the wider social and education policy context, higher education curriculum appears to privilege theoretical knowledge that can be easily codified and assessed. Both theoretical knowledge and knowledge from the field of practice, it has been demonstrated, have their place in curriculum, and the attention being paid to both in the current conceptualisations of curriculum is inadequate. The knowledge that is currently valued and given legitimacy in curriculum is visible, assessable, skills-focused, easily codifiable and desituated. Curriculum appears not to have a "pragmatic orientation" (Eraut, 1985, p. 128), and does not enable graduates to critically reflect on who they are becoming as part of a professional trajectory. Such disconnect between theory and practice reinforces the isolationism, and does not acknowledge the notion that professions are and should be social constructs and that they are socially constructed, as discussed in Chapter 2.

8.3.3 Learning from others and through reflection.

Many participant responses suggest that architecture and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge is refined and enhanced through working alongside others. This is particularly the case for professional knowledge that is tacit, relational, and comprises behaviours and dispositions specific to professional practice. Participants also suggest the modelling of professional disciplinary knowledge and learning related to

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practice is inadequately attended to in the current higher education context as opportunities to replicate or integrate practice are not adequately provided.

Eraut's (2007) theory on epistemology of practice is useful in the interpretation of findings and accounts for not only codified knowledge, but also uncodified, "taken for granted" (p. 406) cultural knowledge, and professional capabilities and performance. In particular, Eraut's theory accounts for the sense that professional cultural knowledge is tacit, acquired informally though participation in social and work-based interactions, observations, and by trying something out. As participants have reported, however, there are difficulties in trying out in the current educational risk-averse contexts.

Many participants elaborated on the importance of learning from others, although architects and accountants framed notions of collaboration and observation somewhat differently. The practice of architecture, in particular, and as described by participants, requires that individuals work together to attain successful building outcomes. While the idea of collegiality was prevalent in both cases, the accounting participants described collegiality as an altruistic responsibility to help the next generation learn. Many accounting participants spoke in-depth about the professional mentoring system they readily participated in, and some regarded their role of mentor as a professional duty.

The findings suggest that learning professional practice occurs through being a member of a community, through acquisition of knowledge, and through some blend of workplace, practice context and formal, theoretical learning (Billett, 2010; Cairns, 2011; Eraut, 2007; Higgs, Barnett, Billett, Hutchings, & Trede, 2012; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Shaffer, 2005). Shaffer's model of pedagogical praxis (2004b), which extends Lave and Wenger's work on communities of practice by suggesting that layers of context can help create authentic, complex learning opportunities, resonates with the findings and helps inform the recommendations I have developed from my

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research. Shaffer's argument is that professional practices each reflect distinct epistemologies which overlap and intersect with traditional academic disciplines (Shaffer, 2004b).

Practice provides the social learning opportunity and the chance to learn to work in the context of community. The concept of legitimate peripheral participation is useful in this regard, describing how new professionals gradually become members of a community in naturalistic ways as dictated by the community, and with acknowledgement of the individual and their interaction with the community.

Reflection was a process shared by most participants and it was valuable because they could come to understand what they knew and what they did not know. The findings support Eraut's (2004a) work on reflection. Participants talked at length of the need to reflect during and after taking action, and to develop a strong sense of critical reflection or professional judgement in doing so, which participants in this study seemed to frame as a skill. How participants learn from their mistakes and through reflecting on practice was a prevalent theme of personal agency across both cases. Participants described reflective practice in a number of ways, some in less articulate ways, and others more explicitly.

The sense of knowing what you do not know was a common theme that emerged from participant data. Opportunities to develop and demonstrate reflective practice, including learning from mistakes, will enable the development of practitioners capable of exerting autonomous professional judgement in practice. A culture that is amenable to mistake-making and risk-taking is necessary to achieve this, as is a learning context in which the demands of practice can be appreciated. Such an environment is not provided within the current higher education context.

8.3.4 Being professional and being good: Developing professional judgement and personal agency.

The findings show that notions of intrinsic accountability are closely linked to the behaviours typically associated with classical definitions of professionalism, namely expertise, altruism and autonomy. Autonomy in terms of extrinsic accountability and surveillance mechanisms was discussed in section 8.3.1. This section, however, will focus on the sense of altruism identified by the participants, and how altruism is linked with notions of professionality, professional judgement and personal agency. Literature suggests that professional autonomy is perhaps somewhat obsolete and is being replaced by an alternative notion of "informed agency . . . a capacity to make knowledgeable decisions, alone or with others" (Burn & Edwards, 2007, p. 400).

In the findings, notions of professional autonomy manifest themselves in terms of intrinsic accountability and acting in the interests of society or the profession as a whole, and the ability to exercise professional judgement. The ability to exert autonomy is mediated, however, by mechanisms that control behaviours and dictate expectations, and such control appears to exist in the higher education context as described by participants. The notion of expertise is discussed later in this chapter.

The findings in both cases suggest that many participants are concerned with doing what is right or good for society, peers and others, and the data particularly reflects the strong sense of altruism as described in Chapter 2. Doing what is right or good is interpreted and explained by the various participants quite distinctly.

There is strong convergence among the accountants that practising ethically, with sound business morals, is an altruistic hallmark of professionalism. Acting professionally and legally, however, are not necessarily one and the same. The accounting professional associations encourage their members to contribute to the community and to mentor emerging professionals, which stems from altruistic notions of goodness

with a particular focus on the profession and those linked to the profession. These two activities are, participants suggest, what differentiates professionals from, for example, book-keepers.

The architects' altruistic sense of good, however, is bound up with notions of social responsibility, what is good for society, the landscape, the client, and there is a strong feeling of personal, intrinsic responsibility. Such responsibility is toward future generations and to a lesser extent future professionals who are left with the buildings they design. Architectural notions of goodness varied across the participants. They variously described good architecture as that which produces a building which is safe and demonstrates technical competence and awareness of building legislation. Another interpretation of good is that a building is more creative, less predictable, challenges the norms, and is an outcome of good design and sound professional judgement.

This notion of professional judgement, or critical professional decision-making, emerged in a number of ways from participants. A number of participants described professional judgement as the decisions made in practice having considered the range of contextual factors, constraints, objectives, and having reflected on previous experience, mistakes and successes. Decision-making happens almost intuitively, and as more experience and confidence is acquired. This description mirrors what has been suggested in the literature. Professional judgement has been described as "practical wisdom, a sense of purpose, appropriateness and feasibility; and its acquisition depends, among other things, on a wealth of professional experience" (Eraut, 1995, p. 125). Experience, particularly practice experience, is critical in the development of professional judgement and professional identity, and is what was identified as lacking in the current higher education learning opportunities for architecture and accounting.

8.4 The nature of professional disciplinary knowledge

How professional disciplinary knowledge was described by participants varied. Findings in both cases saw somewhat binary distinctions being drawn between different types of knowledge, that of theoretical and applied, but the distinction between the two types is difficult to uphold on all counts and this section will demonstrate how.

Earlier research has emphasised applied/theory binary distinctions of knowledge and a number of iterations of this have emerged over time (Bernstein, 1999, 2000; Eraut, 1985; Gibbons et al., 1994; Muller, 2009). Eraut distinguishes between technical and practical knowledges as "[technical knowledge is] capable of written codification; but practical knowledge is expressed only in practice and learned only through experience with practice" (1985, p. 119). Gibbons and others (1994) also provide a popular distinction between what they describe as mode 1 and mode 2 knowledges as described earlier in the thesis.

The findings cannot support a simple binary distinction between types of professional knowledges. The shift from such binary notions is noted in the literature. Horizontal and vertical discourse theory, offered by Bernstein (2000), and later extensions suggested by Muller (2009), Young and Muller (2010), Maton and other advocates of Maton's Legitimation Code Theory (Carvalho et al., 2009; Maton, 2009, 2011b; Maton & Moore, 2010; McNamara, 2010; Moore & Maton, 2001; Shay, 2012) have led me to explain my findings in ways that do not position themselves in opposition, as I elaborate below.

There was a substantial divergence between the two cases with regard to findings that highlighted the nature of overt technical, applied and factual knowledge. This is to be expected given the very distinct characteristics and nature of the two professions. There were more commonalities, however, around the principles from the field of practice that underpin how professionals work. The fact that there was a largely unquestioned acceptance by the participants of professional disciplinary knowledge as

knowledge that continuously evolves and is added to, speaks of integration and the amalgamation of old knowledge with new. Participants did not question either how professional disciplinary knowledge ends up as standards, codes or shapes current practice. This resonates with educational literature which considers the development of professionals and the codification of professional knowledge (Bromme & Tilemma, 1995; Carvalho et al., 2009; Evans, 2011; Scanlon, 2011a).

Participant data suggests that professional curriculum should recognise that learning professional disciplinary knowledge is not linear and cannot be totally mastered, and that there is necessary staging. By recontextualising knowledge from practice into higher education curriculum, which is shaped by standardisation frameworks and other stipulated regulatory requirements, knowledge and learning is constructed in other ways. To what extent this reshaping occurs is at the crux of this study and remains a question for other scholars working in this field.

Scholars have investigated whether current curriculum enables an adequate representation of professional disciplinary knowledge in curricular form and that is true to the nature of the knowledge (Maton & Muller, 2007; Muller, 2007; Young & Muller, 2010). Their results are, by their own accounts, somewhat inconclusive, although they each highlight critical elements and features of curriculum in the process of recontextualisation. The contribution made by this study, therefore, is to support the conclusions of other scholars and to highlight the perceived effects of recontextualisation on the discipline, knowers, practitioners, and knowledge of architecture and accounting.

There were tensions in the data between what counts as legitimate knowledge in practice and in higher education. One such tension was between creativity and fact, or legislation, among the architecture participants. Architects expressed difficulty in how to balance creativity with legislation in practice, and how this blend of skills, or knowledge, could be taught or learned in higher education. This finding was similar to

what Carvalho, Dong and Maton (2009) identified in their work with design disciplines. Their architecture data highlighted the importance of blending "creativity with scientific knowledge" (Carvalho et al., 2009, p. 493). By using Maton's Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) (Maton, 2000), the researchers were able to shift from a superficial, dichotomous differentiation between creativity and fact, to a position which enabled practitioners to understand the conceptual, social and epistemological principles underpinning architecture knowledge.

Architecture and accounting shared views on the nature of applied skills. The importance of communication and relational skills featured strongly in both cases. Both highlighted the significance of the nature and contexts in which learning was to occur. A shared focus was noted on issues of collegiality and working with others, either in groups or with individuals, and working alongside others in an apprenticeship or mentoring mode.

If we accept a social realist perspective to knowledge and curriculum, it becomes necessary to consider the constructed and the constructing nature of knowledge. We need to consider the characteristics and features of knowledge and gain a deeper appreciation of what the knowledge is about. While professional disciplinary knowledge may be socially constructed by its communities of users and knowers, as I have advocated in Chapters 2, how knowledge constructs knowers and communities of knowers also plays a critical role in how knowers engage with the knowledge itself.

The professional disciplinary body of knowledge is not easily or consistently defined by the knowers, who uneasily straddle, as we have seen, the worlds of the academy and the profession. The architecture findings suggest that architecture in particular contains "the seeds of [its] own destruction" (McNamara, 2010, p. 773). The participant architecture school employs many of its own graduates who do not have practice experience, which leads to a level of insularity as described in section

8.3.2, and approaches to knowledge that have low professional autonomy and significant internal disciplinary fragmentation (McNamara, 2010).

What also seems apparent is that the knowledge within architecture and accounting higher education contexts has become context-dependent, but from a position of practice recontextualised into the academy. Knowledge from the field of practice has been desituated and segmented by the frameworks that operate within the academy. What is legitimised, valued and made possible in the academy goes through a process of cumulative self-perpetuation and genericisation, which may, and as has been demonstrated in the data, lead to the construction of another new body of pedagogical professional knowledge that is neither one thing or another. This new body of knowledge lacks the principles and tacit knowledge of practice, a situation compounded by the context in which it is situated.

The role and influence of context has been theorised in extensions of Maton's Code Theory (2011b, 2013, 2014) in his attempt to explain the external and internal relations of recontextualised knowledge and the degree to which knowledge depends on context for meaning. Other scholars (Shay, 2012, for example) have drawn on Maton's theory of semantic gravity - the extent to which knowledge is context-dependent, and semantic density - the condensation of meaning within social practice, to map practical and theoretical knowledge in a higher education context. When knowledges are learned in contexts which segment learning rather than encourage cumulative learning, learners, as the findings have shown, will struggle to transfer knowledge between contexts and be discouraged from drawing upon previous and other experiential knowledge (Maton, 2014).

What Maton's theory provides, suggests Shay, is a rationale and space for professional knowledge that is strong in semantic density and gravity where "principles are derived from theory but strongly embedded in practice" (Shay, 2012, p. 9). The relevance of Maton's and Shay's work is

that it supports the study's findings and interpretations, and validates the recommendations.

Notions of semantic density and gravity provide a theoretical framework to examine the nature of knowledge within context and provide a spectrum in which architecture and accounting knowledge can not only be positioned, but be shown a way in which knowledge from one context can become more amenable to the other context. What the study argues is that the theory/practice distinction for architecture and accounting can be articulated and should be maintained. Principles of knowledge from practice and theoretical knowledge should be decoupled and acknowledged. What is also being theorised in the study is the relationship between the contexts of higher education and practice and how this relationship can evolve to serve the demands of the contexts, the nature of practice and the nature of knowledges.

The preceding discussion has considered a number of prevalent themes relating to the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge and the construction of architecture and accounting professionals. Using a number of theoretical positions, the relationships between practice, the profession, professional associations, and higher education have been examined. The role and intent of such agencies in the construction of professionals has been interrogated indicating that the future of architecture and accounting professionals as we have known them may be at risk if some change to how learning to become a professional is not taken.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

9.0 Introduction

This study sought to explore the nature of architectural and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge within a polytechnic in New Zealand. The intent of the study was to investigate how knowledge is constructed in this context, and to examine the multiple layers of relationship between the academics, the professions and higher education.

This final chapter is divided into a number of sections. The limitations of this study are presented alongside the methodological implications, and this is followed by a discussion of theoretical implications. A number of directions for future research are offered, and this chapter concludes with a summary of the contributions that this study makes to a number of professional and research domains.

9.1 Limitations and methodological implications

A number of limitations have emerged as a result of methodological choices and the focus on architecture and accounting knowledges in broad conceptual terms. I have not considered in detail the actual skills, knowledge and dispositions associated with each of the bodies of knowledge, nor the pedagogical approaches that have been used in the academy or practice. Curriculum has not been subject to detailed scrutiny due to the scope of this doctoral work, although at various points in the data and the thesis I have alluded to what knowledges are valued and the pedagogical choices used to facilitate learning.

What this conceptual approach has provided, however, is a framework for future scholars to unpack in more detail the nature of knowledge, skills and notions of discipline for architecture and accounting, and, I would argue, other professions new to higher education, such as dance, tourism, human resources and real estate.

The present study has also not provided specific solutions to address what appears to be occurring currently in the architecture and accounting contexts and in higher education in New Zealand, which appears to be inadequate learning of how to be a professional and learning that is strongly influenced by the state's perceptions of the professions. Given my background and lack of expertise in architecture or accounting, I would not, for reasons of credibility, want to suggest that I can provide specific solutions to the issues the architecture and accounting professions and academy are facing. My role as an educational researcher has been to document, first of all, what is happening, and provide some explanation as to why. This account of architecture and accounting curriculum and practice provides those closer to the profession with an advanced starting point and a rationale for change.

A number of limitations have arisen from this study in relation to the sampling strategy. One limitation is the chosen context for this study. Data was obtained from academics working in one polytechnic in New Zealand, and as explained in the introduction, this polytechnic is not necessarily representative of all New Zealand polytechnics. I did not consult with academics in similar schools across the polytechnic sector nor within the university sector. The implications of this are that I may have data that reflects a specific institutional ethos toward the relationship between the academy and practice, and one that is reflected, for example, in the institution's specific commitment to *real world learning* in its by-line. Collecting data from the university sector, either solely or alongside data from the polytechnic sector, may have altered the findings and discussion in a number of ways. Participants from the university sector may have placed greater emphasis on research performativity and theorisations of practice. There may have been fewer participants with closer, explicit links to practice and who no longer complement their teaching with engagement in practice.

A further possible limitation in this study is my decision to collect data from within the institution where I was working at the time. In section 4.3 I discuss at some length how I approached and evaluated the issue of insiderness, and the dilemmas as to whether my insiderness would produce unbiased perspectives, to what extent I was a trusted insider and what this insiderness might do to shape the data for this study. I have defended this methodological choice and argue that my positionality as researcher within the institution, and the nature of the research undertaken in the institution is of value. I have also argued that the ease of access to institutional documents, given the scope of the study, was such that these methodological choices are justified. Working with other institutions is an opportunity for future research.

In section 4.3 I also examined the potential for participants within my institution to feel coerced into participating. I explored whether such coercion could have been felt by participants due to my position as academic developer and potential gate-keeper to NZQA approvals, which could have also influenced what they reported to me in the focus group. Reasonable steps were taken, however, to assure participants of the voluntary nature of their participation, and that the research was distinct and unrelated to my work within the institution.

The snowball sampling approach I used in identifying practitioner and focus group participants willing to be interviewed for the study may also be a limitation in this study Focus group participants, academics in the schools whose names had been given to me by heads of school, may have also felt coerced to participate due to the fact that their line manager had given her/his approval for me to contact them. . As outlined in Chapter 4, I asked the heads of school for names of practitioners who might be interested in participating in this study. I was reliant on the heads of school to provide me with advice and direction and am grateful for their support in this. An implication of this methodological choice has been that these practitioner participants were all closely associated with the academy and

or the professional associations. The benefit of this proximity is that the practitioner participants were informed, aware, passionate about education in their field, and provided me with a wealth of rich, thoughtful data. The downside is that they perhaps did not provide me with the perspectives of typical, average practitioners who do not necessarily engage with thinking about practice and education once they are practising. Although I did consider ways in which I could have identified and spoken with perhaps *typical* practitioners, the scope and breadth of such an exercise would have been far greater than this work allowed.

Using a snowball sampling strategy to identify both academics within the institution and practising professionals, raises potential issues of anonymity and confidentiality as the individual suggesting the names of others will know who has been put forward. This was, I suggest, of particular concern for the academics recommended by their head of school. I have protected participant identity to the highest degree possible as described in section 4.3. I have also acknowledged that in focus groups there are difficulties in assuring anonymity and confidentiality and the excerpts used reveal no identifying features. The fact remains, however, that focus group participants may recall who participated and said what, and this remains a limitation of this study that is common with the use of focus groups in collecting data.

In the collection of my data I spoke with two focus groups of academics (architects and accountants), and interviewed individual practitioners from each profession. This methodological choice has implications for my data and its analysis. If I had spoken with combined groups of academics and practitioners the outcome may have been different in providing a richer, more critical and collective account of the situation as they saw it. A combined group of academics and practitioners, with the task to reach consensus on responses to my questions, would have enabled critical conversation and introspection and participants may have attempted to unpack their own and their peers' words to make meaning. My job in

analysing such text would then have been altered in that I would have been analysing within each discipline to a greater extent, rather than attempting to analyse across different participants within each discipline.

No current or recent students were consulted during this inquiry and therefore no student perspectives were obtained on the perceived relevance and value of their studies. I feel justified in not talking to current students as due to the scope of this doctoral work. The perspectives that they could have brought to the inquiry would perhaps have focused on individual experiences of curriculum and pedagogy, and this is worthy of later investigation.

I found that using thematic analysis as a tool was not without difficulties. Ensuring consistency and coherence in how data was analysed and interpreted was difficult given my solo efforts. In Chapter 4, I explained the steps taken to ensure the dependability, plausibility and credibility of my data and analysis. I justify my methodological and analytical choice on the basis that the themes presented in the findings chapters are supported by excerpts of interviews and focus groups. My interpretive rigour has been achieved by demonstrating how interpretation has occurred, illustrated by raw data. I have described the transparent, systematic and replicable processes employed during the analysis, and how coding occurred over time and in multiple stages. In the appendices I have included the coding scheme and definitions I inductively developed.

The implications of not seeking others' or peers' perspectives during data coding and analysis are that this thesis is inevitably skewed toward the perspective of one person, the researcher. I took an iterative, reductive approach to the interview and focus group data to cross-check and double-check coding, codes, divergence and convergence. This grounded approach was valuable and allowed for cycle upon cycle checking of interpretations and coding and provided me with a system of checks through which my data has been made more credible. I considered using grounded theory methodology in the early stages of conceptualising my

study, and considered the work of a number of scholars (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1997).

The critical discourse analysis frameworks that I employed enabled me to deconstruct and analyse text with consistency and coherence, and in ways that fitted the theoretical underpinnings of my study. A critical discursive approach enabled me too to examine how some documents, such as curriculum and institutional documents, reflected power relations, and how others, such as statutes and Acts, afforded power and hegemony over practice and the academy. I was able to identify and consider how social practices construed in the documents inculcated professional ways of being and how the documents themselves were products and agents of a social and education reform agenda. I was also able to explore the discursive and symbolic power of the documents as they were mediated into practice and used within the academy.

A further limitation of my methodological choice has been that I did not consult with participants during the later stages of thesis writing. Such consultation may have resulted in further perspectives for the application of my research, and could have enhanced the credibility of the findings with affirmation from participants. Such consultation too may have added to the participants' understanding of their profession. I was concerned, however, about imposing on participants' busy schedules, and member checking is not always reliable and the imposition on time may not justify the outcome. This position is supported in the literature (Sandelowski, 2002). Sandelowski explains that "members may, for example, forget what they have said, regret what they have said, feel compelled to agree with researchers, or, as we all do, have the need to present themselves in different ways at different times" (2002, p. 108).

I argue the case for the methodological choices of thematic analysis and critical discourse analysis in Chapter 4. The rich data, broad analysis, implications for practice and curriculum, and recommendations that have resulted from the study affirm the methodological choices. Participant

sampling and contextual choice were other critical decisions that I made as a researcher.

9.2 Implications for theory

This thesis contributes to contemporary discussions on the nature of knowledge, and has particular value for informing notions of professional disciplinary knowledge and how professional education should be constructed. This study has highlighted the way in which professional education within higher education has moved in the direction it was warned not to do (Consultative Committee on Architectural Education, 1951), and reinforces emerging ideas as to the importance of professional identity and ontological perspectives in professional curriculum.

This study sheds light on the epistemological, ontological and provisional development of professionals and professional identities. As the findings suggest, it is both the ontological development and provisionality of becoming a professional that is problematic for higher education and a wider social, political and economic context preoccupied with accountability and measurable outcomes.

The findings have suggested that even a well-articulated epistemological curriculum and pedagogy in higher education is likely to be inadequate for the learning to become a professional. The findings suggest that what is needed is a process of learning and ontological becoming which achieves a cognitive, contextually-informed, epistemologically-grounded and informed being capable of working with others in collaborative and unpredictable practice contexts.

I have alluded to a number of possibilities as to future research directions, and I elaborate on this later below. Such anticipated research would extend my study and enrich the literature on professional knowledge, curriculum and identity

9.3 Future directions for curriculum, pedagogy and research

The findings suggest that higher education curriculum should articulate and provide learning opportunities that recognise and value the nature of the professional disciplinary knowledge in ways that reflect and legitimise knowledge as conceptualised and as shaped by the contexts of both practice and higher education. Knowledge constructed and legitimised in curriculum and pedagogical tasks should reflect, as far as is possible, how knowledge is perceived and used in practice. Students need to be given access to tacit practical know-how, and professional theoretical know-that professional disciplinary knowledge if they are to be successful practitioners. Admittedly, there are wider contextual factors surrounding and influencing curriculum in ways not conducive to replicating practical, tacit professional knowledge in curriculum. That said, this study articulates these influences and provides evidence which can be used to pursue better articulation between curriculum and practice.

One key implication for pedagogy and curriculum is the current neglect of opportunities to develop architecture and accounting professional identity in higher education curriculum and pedagogy. It is difficult to develop tacit behaviours and dispositions, and develop the skill of reflective practice in higher education, and to acknowledge in the widest sense what it means to be a practising professional. It seems to be difficult for professional degrees to replicate the realities of practice within the higher education context. Working with contextual constraints and accountability and surveillance mechanisms makes it difficult to incorporate learning opportunities and assessment tasks that articulate and enhance professional dispositions, and that acknowledge and encourage notions of professional identity in the students.

Students in higher education are denied access to adequate practice, relational and experiential knowledge and the ability to experience and learn from practice. What access is made available is insufficient because

these experiences are mediated through curriculum and assessment practices which demand that learning needs to be transparent, and learners need to demonstrate being able to do something. It is difficult, however, to articulate, observe and demonstrate relational and experiential knowledge, and opportunities for doing this tend to be neglected in curriculum.

Greater emphasis on experiential learning would enable students to appreciate the importance of the knowledge and experience needed to develop their own professional judgement capabilities, which would be gained through a personal memory bank of problems, and likely solutions and consequences. Practitioners continuously reflect and take action on individual situations in context, using professional judgement to determine the most appropriate course of action which might or might not be successful. Students are missing out on such crucial learning moments given the regulated and risk-averse nature of higher education, and the difficulties in replicating practice-focused learning in curriculum and pedagogy.

In order to more clearly define boundaries between practice and higher education, and to strengthen their respective positions and bodies of knowledge, higher education and practice could be more distinctly de-coupled and each granted their own space. This would mean that clear parameters could develop which articulate when, how and where the boundaries between the spaces of knowledge could be navigated. This would inform where and how curriculum and pedagogy could more explicitly reflect elements of the different knowledges to produce specific, tangible and more tacit, relational outcomes. Through such an approach, we may see greater overall and discipline-specific consistencies and coherence in what and how professional knowledge is identified and legitimised.

Students need to be given opportunities in curriculum and in practice to position themselves as individuals in the world and in practice. Students

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need to be given opportunities to develop strategies to critically reflect on their own practice. Learning opportunities that enable the development of relational and experiential knowledge and tools for reflective practice should be better provided for in higher education curriculum. Students need to be gradually and purposefully introduced to practice, and be encouraged to develop collegial ways of being and to question established practice The inclusion of learning opportunities to develop relational knowledge and skills would give students an understanding and practice in how to work together with colleagues and others in the professional context.

It has been established that professional curriculum and the higher education context should develop a process of learning and becoming which achieves in students an embodied and tacit understanding of practice, and a cognitive, reflective, theoretically- and practice-grounded sense of being a professional. There are a number of ways to achieve this. By incorporating an epistemologically-informed ontological perspective in curriculum, an integration of knowledge, knowing and becoming, and by adopting pedagogy that enables the construction of a professional identity, educators would provide students with tools to develop a sense of critical reflection on their current and future practice context and their position therein. Curriculum could incorporate distinct learning opportunities to expose students to practice and that enhance practicum models that are currently used.

By addressing and incorporating learning opportunities in curriculum and pedagogy that equip students for the uncertainties and realities of practice, that acknowledge learner agency and the individual trajectory of professional becoming, and that enable students to learn through a mix of intentional learning and more creative, authentic, social, less directed, observational, collaborative, contextual learning, professional curriculum will begin to construct notions of being professional and professionalism that appear to be sought. Such a curriculum that intersects practice

epistemology with academic disciplines would help students develop ways to constructively interact with those around them, develop critical awareness of their own ongoing development as professionals. Students would be able to synthesise their learning and begin to develop a sense of professional identity, expertise, altruism and judgement and fulfil the classical democratic definitions of professionalism.

There are a number of possible future research directions that can be taken following the analysis provided in this study. The first suggestion is that analysis can now be undertaken of other professions new to higher education, such as dance and tourism, with a better understanding of the influences on professional disciplinary knowledge when it is being recontextualised into higher education curriculum. Such analysis may well assist new disciplines to consider how they work through the recontextualisation process, consider notions of semantic density and gravity, and determine notions of legitimate professional disciplinary knowledge. Such analysis would enable stakeholders to think carefully about curriculum, pedagogy and students' exposure to practice. Stakeholders too would be able to reflect on their own role and influences that they bring to bear during the shift of professional learning to higher education, and consider the impact that this may be having on the learning and teaching of their profession and discipline, and on the nature of professional disciplinary knowledge.

A further research direction is to examine the extent to which current professional curriculum and pedagogy is adequate for not only architecture and accounting, but also for other professions. Students and recent graduates could be surveyed, for example, to gain their post-study and in-work perspectives on their experiences of curriculum and how adequately they felt prepared for practice.

In section 9.1, I outlined a number of potential limitations of this study due to methodological choices particularly in terms of the sampling strategies employed. These possible limitations can in the future be shaped as

opportunities for further research to gain other and comparable perspectives on architecture, accounting and other professions. Further research could compare how professional disciplinary knowledges are treated across the polytechnic and university sectors, and between institutions in the same sector. To do so would be a valuable exercise to enhance, support or add valuable perspectives to the data already collected and presented in this thesis.

Research into notions of professional identity, and the extent to which professional identity is robust, impermeable and remains secure in response to other influences and external, mandated requirements would be valuable and would build on the data provided in this study. Such a study would have relevance for other professions, and would both articulate how professionals and professional identity comes under pressure, and how resilience manifests itself. Related to this too is possible research into how and why academics enact and subvert curriculum as stipulated by external agencies.

9.4 Concluding remarks

Although the case studies of architecture and accounting are distinct from each other in many ways, the areas in which the data from the two cases converge have been similar, surprising and unanticipated in their commonalities. This suggests that this study could be replicated in other professions to examine the extent to which recontextualisation influences professional disciplinary knowledge.

A number of recommendations relate specifically to curriculum and pedagogy. A greater more distinct focus on professional ontological becoming, which achieves in students a sense of being a professional, is critical for the professions of architecture and accounting, their future and for the future of how their education and training is constructed. A process for making knowledge and identity principles and tacit knowledge embedded in learning practices visible, and developing mechanisms which enable students to begin to participate in activities that are relevant to and

reflect practice is critical. A pedagogy that provides students with the skills to do more than co-construct, demonstrate and reflect back the knowledge that they have learned is important. Such pedagogy will enable students to develop as critical practitioners guided by reflection on their own experience and on their profession and to imagine the unimagined in an informed way. This ability will contribute to the ongoing success of the professions and practice. Pedagogy too that enables the development and practice of these skills, and the development of relational and experiential knowledge and tools for professional practice is invaluable.

The present research has indicated that there needs to be greater synergies and debate between the academy and the profession to give shape to professional disciplinary knowledge, professional identity and the practices and learning of architecture and accounting academics. A recommendation is to clearly define boundaries between practice and higher education, and to strengthen their respective positions and bodies of knowledge. By firstly de-coupling higher education and practice, each can claim their own space and place. By then articulating and theorising how, when and where the boundaries between the two spaces can be traversed, the profession, the professionals and the educators may see greater overall and individual consistencies and coherence in how professional knowledge is constructed and legitimised. Distinctive curriculum and pedagogy can then follow.

The findings highlighted the reported tensions between the demands of practice and higher education. Such tensions are reported to be leading to inauthentic and contrived learning scenarios, difficulties in the sequence and pace of curriculum and how to organise curriculum knowledge, highlight fundamental differences in how professional disciplinary knowledge is constituted and legitimised, and how learning occurs and is valued in either context.

Other tensions that resulted from this disconnect were to do with the construction of professional identity in higher education, and including

opportunities within curriculum for students to develop as authentic, critical, responsible practitioners. These reported difficulties were to do with currency and experience of academics, and the lack of opportunities in which students could engage with and observe practice and practitioners at work. Straddling the two worlds of the academy and practice seemed to be difficult for many participants and for a range of reasons.

This study has illuminated how both architecture and accounting have an almost tenuous position within higher education and as a profession, despite clear and strong discursive direction to the contrary. This suggests a mismatch between the profession and as it is imagined by the state. There is a strong indication that the tacit knowledge not amenable to codification, and implicit dispositions and practice-based skills and experience of architectural and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge do not articulate easily into curriculum which segments, measures and makes learning accountable to agencies other than the profession itself.

This study has suggested that the neoliberal reform agenda and education policy of the 1980s have led to a number of new, and not always positive, ways in which professional identity and professionalism is constructed. Mediated through the discursive power of policy and reified documents, professional disciplinary knowledge and identity is being constructed in higher education and in practice in ways that suit the hegemonic discourse of employability, quality and the market, and it is this discourse that is setting the standards of professional learning in ways that do not suit the nature of the knowledge itself. The extrinsic pull for accountability has created contexts in which professional judgement, expertise and autonomy is subservient to compliance and surveillance.

This thesis has added to the literature on mastery and expertise, and supports the position that professional disciplinary knowledge is provisional. Notions of mastery require clear milestones, trajectories, and

parameters, and the findings have shown that the process of becoming a professional is not linear, nor is the process for becoming an expert a clearly articulated process, and nor should it be.

The long-standing practice/theory distinction is maintained and extended in this study. What is emerging is a sense of a contextual/conceptual continuum in which nuances of applied theory, tacit professional knowledge and codified practice are affirmed, and a space is being created for a form of knowledge which is shaped by elements of each. What this thesis succeeds in doing is theorising the relationship between practice and theory and positions practice and professional disciplinary knowledge in the current higher education domain. What remains to be seen, then, is how professional curriculum and pedagogy in New Zealand might be shaped in response to these perspectives. Responses to these perspectives will determine the constitution and legitimation of architectural and accounting professional disciplinary knowledge and the construction of architecture and accounting professional practitioners and identities, and may, if done thoughtfully, critically, and responsibly, give rise to a number of outcomes. Such an approach may result in knowledge and practitioners that successfully traverse the contexts of practice and higher education, in graduates who are well-positioned for practice and who meet the expectations of the professions. Such graduates may not, however, meet the expectations of state-constructed definitions of being a professional. What is contingent upon the profession, then, is to wrestle back control of their knowledge and education, and to put in place mechanisms to safeguard and perpetuate the profession and influence the state-constructed notions of what it means to be a professional. Given that we live in an age of globalisation, neoliberalism, and with increasing state control of education, this will not be an easy task.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Participant information and consent form (Lecturer)

This research is being undertaken by Chelsea Blickem, Academic Advisor, CTLI, Participant institution, as part of doctoral study at the University of Waikato, under the chief supervision of Dr Margaret Franken, School of Education, University of Waikato (franken@waikato.ac.nz) , telephone: 07 838 4466 ext. 6360. The researcher's contact details are: 07 853 6532/021 525 560 (cblickem@xxxxx.ac.nz). Although the researcher is a participant institution staff member and a researcher she does not foresee any conflict of interest in her dual role and has both her manger's written approval and the written approval of the Dean of Teaching & Learning to proceed. I plan to undertake qualitative research within the Schools of Architecture and Landscape Architecture, and Business (Accountancy), at the participant institution.

The working title of my research is:

Knowledge for and of the profession: case studies of accounting and architecture education

You are invited to participate in this study. The research questions guiding this study are:

1. How is professional disciplinary knowledge (architecture/accountancy) constituted and legitimised in the academy setting?
2. How is apprenticeship and mentoring constructed and structured in the academy (architecture/accountancy)?
3. To what extent is the professional disciplinary knowledge identified in Q1 subscribed to by the profession at large?
4. What evidence is there of dialogue/partnership between the academy and the profession at large in respect of issues related to the construction and legitimation of, and possible challenges to, professional disciplinary knowledge?

If you decide to participate, I would like to:

- invite you to join a focus group of lecturers from your school and your discipline
- ask that you annotate, add to or challenge an annotated transcript of the focus group discussion, and provide some background information about yourself. I will offer to stay with you individually or as a group to go through the transcripts.
- invite you to join a second focus group where I will report back on what professionals in current practice have to say.

While I am recording these focus groups you may ask me to stop recording at any time. Each focus group will last a maximum of one hour.

Any information or personal details collected during this study are confidential. Your name will not be recorded and nor will it be used in transcripts, in the PhD text, or in subsequent publications. All data will be stored securely either in my office at home or in my office at the University of Waikato. My supervisors and I will have access to the information I collect as well as the person I employ to transcribe data, who will be asked to sign a confidentiality agreement.

The research findings will be published in my thesis and may be used for any publications that result from the research. At the end of my data analysis I will offer to return to explain to you what I have learned so far. At that time and if you wish I can take your contact details and advise you when the study is complete.

If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from this study at any time up to the point of the transcripts being returned and without giving reason.

If you wish to participate, please complete the consent form below and return to me. If you have any questions, please contact me using the information above.

Thank you for your assistance.

Chelsea Blickem

I, _____, have been given and have understood the explanation of the study. I have had opportunities to ask questions and they have been answered satisfactorily. I understand I can withdraw myself from the study at any time up to the point of the transcripts being returned.

I agree to take part in this study, which means I will participate in two focus groups, and add to transcripts and provide some background information. I have been given a copy of this consent form to keep.

Participant's name: _____

Participant's signature: _____Date: _____

Researcher's name: Chelsea Blickem

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the University of Waikato School of Education Ethics Committee.

Appendix B: Participant information and consent form (Professional)

This research is being undertaken by Chelsea Blickem, Academic Advisor, CTLI, Participant institution, as part of doctoral study at the University of Waikato, under the chief supervision of Dr Margaret Franken, School of Education, University of Waikato (franken@waikato.ac.nz) , telephone: 07 838 4466 ext. 6360. The researcher's contact details are: 07 853 6532 / 021 525 560 (cblickem@xxxxx.ac.nz). Although the researcher is a participant institution staff member and a researcher she does not foresee any conflict of interest in her dual role and has both her manger's written approval and the written approval of the Dean of Teaching & Learning to proceed.

I plan to undertake qualitative research within the Schools of Architecture and Landscape Architecture, and Business (Accountancy), at the participant institution.

The working title of my research is:

Knowledge for and of the profession: case studies of accounting and architecture education

You are invited to participate in this study. The research questions guiding this study are:

1. How is professional disciplinary knowledge (architecture/accountancy) constituted and legitimised in the academy setting?
2. How is apprenticeship and mentoring constructed and structured in the academy (architecture/accountancy)?
3. To what extent is the professional disciplinary knowledge identified in Q1 subscribed to by the profession at large?
4. What evidence is there of dialogue/partnership between the academy and the profession at large in respect of issues related to the construction and legitimation of, and possible challenges to, professional disciplinary knowledge?

If you decide to participate, I would like to:

* invite you to join a focus group of, or interview with, professionals from your discipline

While I am recording the focus group or interview you may ask me to stop recording at any time. Each interview or focus group will last a maximum of one hour.

Any information or personal details collected during this study are confidential. Your name will not be recorded and nor will it be used in transcripts, in the PhD text, or in subsequent publications. All data will be stored securely either in my office at home or in

my office at the University of Waikato. My supervisors and I will have access to the information I collect as well as the person I employ to transcribe data, who will be asked to sign a confidentiality agreement.

The research findings will be published in my thesis and may be used for any publications that result from the research. At the end of my data analysis I will offer to return to explain to you what I have learned so far. At that time and if you wish I can take your contact details and advise you when the study is complete.

If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from this study at any time up to the point of the focus groups/interviews being transcribed and without giving reason. If you wish to participate, please complete the consent form below and return to me. If you have any questions, please contact me using the information above.

Thank you for your assistance.

Chelsea Blickem

I, _____, have been given and have understood the explanation of the study. I have had opportunities to ask questions and they have been answered satisfactorily. I understand I can withdraw myself from the study at any time up to the point of the focus groups/interviews being transcribed and without giving reason.

I agree to take part in this study, which means I will participate in a focus group or interview. I have been given a copy of this consent form to keep.

Participant's name: _____

Participant's signature: _____Date: _____

Researcher's name: Chelsea Blickem

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the University of Waikato School of Education Ethics Committee.

Appendix C: Participant information and consent form

(Heads of School)

This research is being undertaken by Chelsea Blickem, Academic Advisor, CTLI, Participant institution, as part of doctoral study at the University of Waikato, under the chief supervision of Dr Margaret Franken, School of Education, University of Waikato (franken@waikato.ac.nz) , telephone: 07 838 4466 ext. 6360. The researcher's contact details are: 07 853 6532 / 021 525 560 (cblickem@xxxxxx.ac.nz). Although the researcher is a participant institution staff member and a researcher she does not foresee any conflict of interest in her dual role and has both her manger's written approval and the written approval of the Dean of Teaching & Learning to proceed.

I plan to undertake qualitative research within the Schools of Architecture and Landscape Architecture, and Business (Accountancy), at the participant institution.

The working title of my research is:

Knowledge for and of the profession: case studies of accounting and architecture education

You are invited to participate in this study. The research questions guiding this study are:

1. How is professional disciplinary knowledge (architecture/accountancy) constituted and legitimised in the academy setting?
2. How is apprenticeship and mentoring constructed and structured in the academy (architecture/accountancy)?
3. To what extent is the professional disciplinary knowledge identified in Q1 subscribed to by the profession at large?
4. What evidence is there of dialogue/partnership between the academy and the profession at large in respect of issues related to the construction and legitimation of, and possible challenges to, professional disciplinary knowledge?

If you decide to participate, I would like to invite you to be interviewed by the researcher on two occasions:

1. An initial general interview (1 hour maximum)
2. A second interview to re-present data gathered since the first interview, and to add to, check or challenge data from the first interview (30 mins)

While I am recording the interviews you may ask me to stop recording at any time.Any information or personal details collected during this study are confidential. Your name will not be recorded and nor will it be used in transcripts, in the PhD text, or in subsequent

publications. Complete anonymity cannot be guaranteed however as the schools participating in the research are identified (the Schools of Architecture and Landscape Architecture, and Business (Accountancy)) although the institution will not be named, and a reader of the research may be able to later identify the participants.

All data will be stored securely either in my office at home or in my office at the University of Waikato. My supervisors (3) and I will have access to the information I collect as well as the person I employ to transcribe data, who will be asked to sign a confidentiality agreement.

The research findings will be published in my thesis and may be used for any publications that result from the research. At the end of my data analysis I will offer to return to explain to you what I have learned so far. At that time and if you wish I can take your contact details and advise you when the study is complete.

If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from this study at any time up to the point of the interviews being transcribed and without giving reason.

If you wish to participate, please complete the consent form below and return to me. If you have any questions, please contact me using the information above.

Thank you for your assistance.

Chelsea Blickem

I, _____, have been given and have understood the explanation of the study. I have had opportunities to ask questions and they have been answered satisfactorily. I understand I can withdraw myself from the study up to the point where the interviews are being transcribed.

I agree to take part in this study, which means I will participate in two interviews. I have been given a copy of this consent form to keep.

Participant's name: _____

Participant's signature: _____Date: _____

Researcher's name: Chelsea Blickem

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the University of Waikato School of Education Ethics Committee.

Appendix D: Examples of focus group and individual interview questions

1. Can you define what it means to be a professional in your field, in your discipline?
2. Can you explain what it means to be an academic in your discipline?
3. Are there any issues, tensions or overlap in being either or both. What does it mean to be a professional and an academic ?

(prompts: identity, beliefs, values, practices, boundaries, communities, subjectivity)

4. What sort of knowledge or knowing is needed to be an effective architect/accountant in the workplace. How does your discipline define knowledge, or knowing?

(knowledge = facts, mode 1 unidisciplinary etc; skills/knowing = learning to learn, mode 2 knowledge – explore as needed)

5. Where, in your experience and opinion, is that knowledge acquired?
6. Is being an architect/accountant about 'knowing', or is it also about 'being', 'becoming' and 'acting'. Please explain. Does the curriculum cater for these aspects? How could it?
7. What does tertiary undergraduate education in the discipline bring to being a working professional?
8. What are the synergies and sources of dissonance between knowledge and knowing in the degree and the profession?
9. Does the undergraduate experience apprentice students into becoming a professional. How much should undergraduate study prepare students to be work-ready, or is becoming work-ready best done in the workplace?
10. What could be added/changed to the curriculum, teaching and learning. Are there any barriers that prevent curriculum change in this way?
11. Who creates the curriculum and who leads curriculum development and on what basis? Do you feel as if you have ownership of the knowledge you are teaching?

Appendix E: Details of participants

Architecture

Individual interviews (II)

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Status
Architect, II, 201	Male	Practitioner
Architect, II, 202	Male	Practitioner
Architect, II, 203	Male	Practitioner
Architect, II 204	Male	Practitioner

Focus Group (FG)

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Status
Academic, Architecture FG, 206	All male	Academics

Senior Academic

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Status
Senior Academic, Architecture 205	Male	Academic

Accounting

Individual interviews (II)

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Status
Accountant, II, 301	Male	Practitioner
Accountant, II, 302	Female	Practitioner
Accountant, II, 303	Female	Practitioner
Accounting, II 304	Male	Practitioner

Focus Group (FG)

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Status
Academic, Accounting FG, 306	Male and Female	Academics

Senior Academic

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Status
Senior Academic, Accounting 305	Female	Academic

Appendix F: Thematic analysis codes (sample)

Professions

P-Voc	*Employed as a professional but is a vocation*
P-Job	*emloyed as a professional but is a job*
P	*professional, being, standards, characteristics*
P-R	*professional registration, processes, whether or not*
Crit P-R	*Criticism of professional registration process*
P-Ins	*professional insularity*
Issue P-R	*issues for prof reg process*
P-Accred	*professional accreditation processes, influence on curriculum, prof assoc influence on curriculum*
PHERel	*professionals relationship with HE & learning thru it*
PHERelMut	*mutual professional-HE relationship*
PHERel-L	*professionals relationship with HE & learning thru it*
P-Ac	*professional & academic role, context, distinctions and differences*
P-Buy	*buying' into a profession, $ and agreeing to*
P-Ethics	*professional code pf ethics*
P-G	*professional-graduate relationship, perception of, what the profession thinks of graduates and expectations of grads*
P-Evol	*evolution of the profession, adding value*
Psn	*profession, purpose of, becoming, work of, evolving*
P-Nec	*being professional and doing what is necessary, right*
ProfResp	*professional responsibility*
ProfDec	*professional decisions and judgements, no right answer*

Knowledge

K-Prof	*professionals knowledge, demonstrate what they know*
K-Conseq	*knowing and knowledge and understanding there are consequences to knowing and decisions*
K-Prac	*knowledge in practice, what knowledge bext learnt/taught in practice*
SsK-lack	*students' lack of (fundamental?) knowledge*
K-Being	*knowledge as a way of being*
K-Phil	*knowledge as philosophy and principles*
K-Reg	*regulatory knowledge*
K-Tech	*technical knowledge (skills)*
K-Facts	*knowledge as facts*
K-CBro	*knowledge in curriculum is broad/ the base*
K-ing	*knowing*
K-Myst	*Mysteriousness of knowledge*
K-PAss	*Knowledge from the professional assoc*
Kincid	*incidental knowledge, picked up*
ImmRelK	*immediate relevancy of knowledge*
Und	*understanding*
NewKTech	*new technical knowledge*
NewKResults	*New knowledge demonstrated in real results & outcomes*
NewKDes	*new knowledge design*
NewKPhil	*new philosophy knowledge*
KDK	*know what you don't know*
K-Transf	*transferable skills, interpreting, transferring/using knowledge between contexts*

Higher Education/Students/Graduates

Eval	*evaluation*
Spec	*specialisation, specialist kowledge, seniority*
SchPhil	*Philosophy and vision of the school*
HE-Think	*purpose and function of HE is to think, liberal ed*
BalDemQual	*balance demand for grads with quality of grads*
Cred	*credentialisation, necessary*
HE-SS	*HE and secondary schools, issues*
Spec-HE	*having specialists teaching in HE, issues*
EdTDis	*distinction between education and training*
EdSys	*entire education system, bureaucracy, NZQA*
ValQual	*value of qualification*
HEK-Dang	*danger of lack of knowledge in HE (close to ethics)*

Academic

IndivPed	*Individual pedagogy and differences and how taught, teach indiv preferences, interpret LOs differently*
Ac-Curr	*academics' currency*
Ac P-R	*academic and professional registration, maintaining reg, difficulty in retaining currency*
Ac-Ins	*Academics insularity, sense of privilege, isolation of learning being only in HE not in practice, hard to discipline, difficult to manage*
CPD-Ac	*CPD for academics, contractual*
AcEq	*academics as equals*
AcPrac	*academics in practice, interested in practice*

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Ac-Perc	*perception of academia by others*
Ac	*academics, being, research, freedom, behaviours, management of*
AcTheor	*academics and theorising*
Ttraining	*teacher training, have not, issues*
Feed	*feedback to students*
AssL	*impact of assessment on learning*
L-Disc	*discussions help learning*

Curriculum

C-Prof	*teaching how to be professionals*
C-Tension	*tension what to teach, too much to teachm to 'get through'*
C-Buy	*buying curriculum*
C-Prac	*curriculum and practice, real practice/experience as a requirement and component of curriculum, link between curriculum and practice, replication of*
C-PracPrag	*pragmatics and issues wrt practice in curriculum*
C-PracConf	*confidence having experienced practice in curriculum*
C-PracAccult	*practice in curriculum and learning thru copying*
C-PracDis	*disadvantages of practice in curriculum*
C-PracSeq	*timing of practice in curriculum*
C-ChPrac	*Curriculum change wrt practice demands*
C-PracEmp	*Practice in curriculum and employment options as a result*
C-ChNeg	*negative curriculum changes*
C-ArchProc	*curriculum and teaching architecture process*
HC	*hidden curriculum*
C	*curriculum*

Professional association

MMPAssPrac	*mismatch between practice and professional association*
PAssQual	*quality of students doing prof assoc tests*
PAssHERel	*relationship between prof assoc and HE, preparedness for prof assoc tests and processes*
MMHEPAss	*mismatch HE and prof assoc*
PAss	*professional association, notions of, actions, responsibility of*
PAssPracRel	*relationship between prof assoc and practice*
PAssAss	*assessment in and by prof assoc*
PressurePAss	*pressure to pass students in/by prof assoc*
PAssPRacHERel	*relationship between all 3*
PAssInvolv	*involvement in prof assoc, who, being involved*
RecipRecog	*reciprocal recognition/international standards equivalent*

Appendix G: Research notes (sample)

These excerpts help to make transparent my thinking about the study at a number of points during the research process.

The first excerpts exemplify my wrestling with coding at the initial stages of data analysis.

27 August 2010

Professionalism

This is about

- *Being*
- *Action*
- *Training*
- *Skills*
- *Behaviour/dispositions*

6 Sept 2010

High level codes

Professional P

- *Architect PAr*
- *Accountant PAc*
- *Accreditiation PAccr*
- *Understandings of being PU*

Knowledge K

process/design/creativity/problem solving/management skills/tech skills

- *Architect KAr*
- *Accountant KAc*
- *Interpretation/kinds of KK*

The following excerpts demonstrate my thinking about research design and methods, particularly as I beginning to develop my voice in the text and am dealing with possible subjectivity. I also spend time understanding cultural concepts of postmodernism, how these trends sit alongside economic trends such as capitalism, and structural theories of human existence such as poststructuralism:

22 March 2010

Feeling disruptive – autoethnographic case study?

I'm perpetuating the very system that is under review in my study. "to learn participants' meanings we need to be reflexive about our own" (Charmaz, 2005)

Neoliberalism and postmodernism are at odds yet engaged at the same time?

*poststructuralism – a form of postmodernity

24 March 2010

Lit review – I am writing my own subjectivity / writing into being.

Thesis is not an agony column!

It is my voice that the reader is engaging with.