Rethinking Teacher Education - a mentoring model

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Abstract

This thesis explores concerns about the quality of traditional teacher training particularly in relation to preparation of teachers for schools committed to the provision of a coherent world and life view[1].

A consideration of the **nature of the teaching task** provides an understanding of the importance placed on the development of a coherent world and life view and the concept of educator as **role model**. These understandings are seen to apply to lecturers and associate teachers in the pre-service programme as well as to the trainee teacher involved the school classroom.

The current image of teacher education programmes is shown to be negative and the clear **call to change** in areas of content, emphasis, and setting is presented. Areas of concern are identified and the conclusion is reached that this 'call for change' is not something to be ignored, but rather, to be considered and responded to with implementation of appropriate changes. It is suggested that the best way in which to respond to the call for change is through a teacher preparation programme which has a much increased component in the school.

In consideration of the literature about school-based teacher preparation it becomes very clear that one key component is the role and training of the Associate Teacher. Models of preparation which are based on concepts such as **Mentor, Lead Teacher and Coach** are compared and important characteristics are subsequently identified. Other factors deemed to be important to training are relationships, critical and reflective thinking, and experience in the classroom setting.

The thesis concludes that while a more effective teacher preparation programme would not be solely conducted or based in a school, major changes to the role of

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[1] Examples of such schools in New Zealand would include Kura Kaupapa, Fundamental Christian, Catholic, Seventh Day Adventist, Rudolph Steiner, Montessori.

The thesis concludes that while a more effective teacher preparation programme would not be solely conducted or based in a school, major changes to the role of initial training, philosophy, the importance of meaning and the provision of role models must be considered. Support is given for a training programme based on a coherent philosophical foundation with significantly increased time in schools, in which Associate Teachers are involved as key players. Such a course provides experience in the 'real world' of teaching as a base to which the trainees, with the help of teacher educators, can bring theory. Combined with critical and reflective thinking, this process will enable them to develop as skilled and perceptive teachers.

The conclusion of this thesis is that there is potential for training excellent teachers within a model of teacher training which has significant school based components with an increased role and responsibility for the associate teacher and school. Such training is seen to simultaneously enhance the existing school staff and community. This is seen to be most appropriate for special character schools where the concept of role modelling is a key to effectiveness.

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I dedicate this thesis to the memory of my loving father, **Mr Frank Steele**, who passed away during the time of its writing.

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Introduction

Though written by Adolf Diersterweg in 1865, the following statement applies as much today as it did when written.

> The school is worth precisely what the teacher is worth and for this reason an improvement in teacher education is a first step in any educational reform. (MacLaughlin and Murphy, 1982:121)

It is held that the effectiveness of a schooling system is dependent on the quality of the teachers within it. The quality of the teachers depends on the teaching expertise they have as well as the qualities of their personal character (Hansen, 1993).

This thesis concerns itself with issues related to improving the provision of teacher training[1] in order that teachers are better equipped to be effective in the roles which society expects of them. In Chapter One it is argued that teacher training requires an in depth consideration of the nature of the teaching task. Just as a foundation for a building presupposes the shape, design, purpose and use of that building, so too does understanding the nature of the teaching task provide a framework for teachers. Each teacher needs to understand and find meaning, not only in *where* s/he is going but also in *why* s/he is moving in that direction. It is presupposed that the teaching task has as its goal the development of future citizens and that teachers are role models for these. It is argued that teacher training should take cognisance of the teacher trainee's[2] epistemological framework in the developing of meaningful experiences.

The belief that teaching is more that the sum of its parts, is thought to necessitate shifting the *emphasis* of teacher training from the training institution to the school community. The classroom teacher who models the science and art of being a teacher would need to be trained to function as a mentor for trainees. This would enable an increased proportion of the training period to be undertaken within the real world of the school community.

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[1] Throughout this paper, 'training' as in teacher training, is used to embrace all aspects of teacher development in training and education and should not be interpreted as narrow and technocratic, nor seen to be concentrating only on the 'how' rather than the 'why'.

[2] Similarly, teacher trainee is used in preference to student teacher - indicating that the person is a teacher in training and the word student is used to refer to a school student.

Following consideration of the Nature of the Teaching Task, attention is given to current approaches. Consideration of the perceived weaknesses of current programmes provides further foundation for building a case for an alternative approach to teacher preparation. Chapter Two presents an overview of the 'Calls for Change' which pervade the literature on teacher training. Attention is given to common, key components such as whether training has value, course length, characteristics of training personnel, the role of pre-service training within lifelong development and the role and value of the teaching section or practicum. Responses to criticisms are offered and it is argued that one way to satisfy identified need for change is to increase the contributing role in training for the classroom teacher as s/he functions within a school community. It is also suggested that initial teacher training be viewed as part of a lifetime of learning and development rather than a stand alone preparation time.

In order to identify strengths and weaknesses of a programme with an increased role for the classroom teacher, Chapter Three provides a literature review of school-based teacher training. As a consequence, the importance of a coherent philosophy underpinning training, the pivotal role undertaken by associate teachers and their need for training are identified to be key components in effective training. Chapter Four then considers the required attributes, preparation and training for associate teachers in order that graduates of such programmes are not conservative, technocratic copies of their training personnel. Further consideration of critical factors leads to the conclusion that there is a definite, vital role for an institution which has as a focus teacher training and development. Thus it is concluded that initial training should not be based entirely in schools.

Throughout the world, particularly in Britain, Australia and America, there has been a growing trend to close the perceived gap between theory and practice through the inclusion of more school based time and tasks in teacher training. Chapter Five considers programmes that have endeavoured to do this. Clearly while advantages and disadvantages can be identified, the teacher education world is complicated, unpredictable and full of competing interests. Reported also in this chapter is information gained from an interview with Tracey, who was based entirely in a school

during her teacher training. References to her experience are made throughout the thesis and a transcript of the interview is included as Appendix Three.

Chapter Six considers key components, identified shortcomings and integrating aspects of effective programmes in order to present the basis for an alternative model of teacher training. It is postulated that such training is potentially able to lead to the development of effective, creative teachers who can provide appropriate models or examples for others to follow, while at the same time acting as a catalyst for ongoing professional development for existing staff in schools.

Finally, the conclusion highlights key points from throughout the thesis. It is acknowledged that this study has a limited function and serves as a catalyst to encourage informed and thoughtful consideration of necessary factors for further pursuit of an alternative teacher training approach. Further research is needed into the ramifications of a mentoring approach to training.

Chapter One - The Nature of the Teaching Task

> *Although many important and insightful factual discoveries have been made about teaching through research on teaching and schools, what is needed for understanding the relation of theory and practice in teacher education is an understanding at a basic level of the nature of teaching.*
>
> Pearson (1989:63).

This chapter develops an understanding of the role of education in society and considers the importance for the teacher trainee to understand the influence of philosophical perspectives on the nature of the teaching task. In any society, the nature and purpose of education is shaped by religious, cultural and political forces and consequently determines the role of the teacher. This perceived role will inevitably influence and even shape pre-service teacher training. The process of considering the nature of the teaching task draws attention to the following key understandings:

Education is an intentional attempt to influence;

Education is underpinned with a vision of an ideal society and teachers are seen to be role-models;

Philosophy informs policy and practice;

Education cannot be neutral and commitment to a world and life view should be encouraged.

It is presupposed that fundamental to effective teacher training is an acknowledgment of the nature of the teaching task. As a consequence of the discussion of the nature of the teaching task, it is suggested that provision of training from a 'consistent world view' may be an alternative to conventional provision of teacher education which tends to be eclectic in its underpinning philosophies and consequently lacks coherency (McClelland and Varma, 1989; Renwick and Vize, 1991; Kagan, 1992).

Education is intended to be influential.

Any set of ideas about education will include representations of culture and expectations for development from child to maturity (Jeffreys,1955; Lawton, 1975). Educational literature reflects a belief that systems which seek to educate are driven by a vision of a certain kind of human being (Bullivant, 1981). The kind of human being valued by a society determines and shapes the educational experiences which it provides for its young (Browne and Skilbeck, 1975:481; Harker and McConnochie, 1985:21; Middleton, Codd and Jones, 1990).

Allan Bloom (1987:26) writes:

> .....even the neutral subjects, like reading and writing and arithmetic, take their place in a vision of the educated person. In some nations the goal was the pious person, in others the warlike, in others the industrious. Always important is the political regime, which needs citizens who are in accord with its fundamental principle.

A further example of the notion of a vision of humanity driving education can be seen by this quote from Gibbs and Munro (1993:1) in the Qualification Standards for Education in Teaching:

> In particular, the requirements placed on schools through their charters has meant that they are now regarded as the agencies most suited to attend to the cultural aspirations of ethnic minorities, to further the campaign for gender equity and, indeed, to accept the role of both shaping and affirming community values.

New Zealand appears to be at a crossroads in the sphere of education. The lack of social cohesion is apparent and of concern. Cultural groups within our society find their influence on the younger members of the group reduced with the result that the development of a coherent world view which provides the basis for life's order and meaning is missing. Parents have not realised the power of education in determining the world view of its recipients. Thus at school, students receive a different interpretation of meaning from that which is represented at home and it becomes very difficult for the student to develop a coherent philosophy of life. An example of this incoherence is seen in the teaching of economics in the New Zealand syllabus and the differing values of the Maori community. Within a Maori world view, the individual is a responsible steward of resources. In contrast, the current syllabus presents resources as existing to be used

for economic advantage and the individual as a consumer. The aims of the study are stated in the Economics Syllabus for Schools, Form Three to Seven as follows:

> Economics is the study of how people as individuals and groups choose to satisfy their wants by allocating and managing scarce resources. P5

For Maori students the undertaking of study in economics becomes confusing with major implications for the way that students are taught and the model of life which is held to be desirable and meaningful. The meaning of and for life which is developed in the home is not continued in the school and the student finds that s/he is living with a fragmented value and belief system (Harker and McConnochie, 1985). This leads to instability with major consequences in society. Consequently, it could be seen to be important to find a way in which students can be taught from within the world view held by their family and community.

The following extract from Lawton's (1975) comments about curriculum emphasises the realisation that it is not different facts which are more important to one group than others, but it is the way of looking at life.

> It seems to me that the school curriculum (in the wider sense) is essentially a *selection from the culture of a society.* Certain aspects of our way of life, certain kinds of knowledge, certain attitudes and values are regarded as so important that their transmission to the next generation is not left to chance in our society but is entrusted to specially trained professions (teachers) in elaborate and expensive institutions (schools). [italics and brackets in original] (1975:6-7)

It is important to acknowledge that teaching styles are determined as much by the teacher's character, personality, knowledge and *beliefs about the world* as by the external framework (Logan, 1992:4). When education is charged with the responsibility for producing future citizens the teacher is held as an example or ongoing model of what society expects its future generation to be.

If teacher training was provided with an emphasis on the development of role models for young people within a coherent world view, perhaps the end result would be people who have a better basis for construction of meaning in their lives, with tools to manage how they respond to the differences and changes around them (The New Zealand Curriculum Framework, 1993:1, 3, 7, 16, 21, 27). A coherent world view provides a distinct

philosophy of life and therefore determines the nature and purpose of education. Such a framework influences subsequent policy and practice in education.

Teachers Need to Understand the Nature of the Teaching Task

Research conducted by Shavelson and Stern (1981) indicates that the goals which teachers bring to the teaching situation act as a powerful source of knowledge. It is important to consider the impact of this. Such goals will vary greatly according to the values and beliefs which the teacher holds.

The following comparison of two educators' goals for young children starting school is provided to clarify the influence one's beliefs have on the educational process. Firstly, a British educator reveals her philosophy:

> The child coming to school, even if he is only four or five years old, is being offered a new change; a chance to start again; and be a different person. He is no longer bound by the chains of his circumstances or his family. At school all equally have a chance to experiment and try out a new world. This is the essential function of school. (Warnock, 1988:120)

Embodied in this perspective, is a belief that one of the roles of the school is to break down the ties with family, family traditions, values and models. One can assume that there are substitute values which are to be put in the place of those provided by the family. Whose values will these be and on what basis can they be imposed on the child?

Such a position can be contrasted with an American educator who holds that:

> Teachers themselves must make every effort to show love for children, be good examples for them and be able to offer wise counsel to them. And they must be willing to co-operate smoothly with parents in the training of their children. (Adams, 1982:81)

Whether one agrees with Warnock or Adams will depend on one's own perspective and particularly what is believed about the role of the family and school in education. It is nevertheless clear that philosophy informs policy and practice. What one believes about the role of education will determine the type of training you provide for future teachers.

With these ideas in mind, a consideration of the knowledge which is of most worth in teacher training would lead to thoughtful reflection concerning the characteristics of the

desired society, and consequently the type of person required to live in such a society. The contrast between the education of Spartan youth on the one hand and that of Athenian youth on the other was a result of different philosophies about the nature of the ideal citizen in the ideal state.

Consequently, it would appear that defining the expectations and desirous results of education is important in training teachers so that they take into account the overarching purposes of education in their decision making. As Rush (1980:46) writes:

> Philosophy formulates what it conceives to be the end of life; education offers suggestions how this end is to be achieved.

Bullivant (1981) identifies the fact that education is being used to create a view of the world. The very nature of education is to reflect belief about the world, and in the light of the beliefs or assumptions held, to interpret all that happens (past, present and future) to bring meaning. What needs to be identified is the basis for the interpretation of the world and experiences. Interpretation, by definition can never be neutral. Teacher Education programmes do not critically analyse underlying assumptions reflected in curriculum statements and very few different possibilities for the development of meaning for life are explored (Marshall, 1992). Commitment to a life and world view tends to be labelled as 'narrow', 'bigoted' or 'out dated' (New Zealand Form One - Four Social Studies Syllabus, P12).

The mark of a truly pluralist society is said to be that everything, including education philosophy, is contestable (Heenan, 1992:10). If in recognition of this, and as an outworking of 'Tomorrow's Schools', parents have the responsibility and right to contest the philosophical basis of schooling, then so too, do those who seek to be trained to develop the leaders and citizens of the future. It is argued that education which openly acknowledges and is committed to a particular basis for its interpretation of the world and purpose, can provide a coherency for the development of meaning and a foundation from which other world views can be evaluated and understood. Societies and their schools may be better served if their teachers are trained from an acknowledged coherent world view.

Commitment is an aspect of education which has been neglected (Watson, 1987). On one hand people are afraid of strong commitments and on the other look to follow someone who knows both what they believe and why, as well as what they do not believe and why. The result of the apparent lack of debate is that commitment has been equated with indoctrination. True openness, a much desired characteristic for teachers (Gibbs and Munro, 1993:8), is said to be only possible on the basis of firm convictions.

> The education of commitment is not therefore a kind of optional luxury to be slipped into the curriculum if there happens to be time. It is the key which can render a nurture approach educational, give vision to a utilitarian framework and guard against indoctrination. It can free institutions from the inhibition of so-called neutral attitudes and permit positive teaching without betraying professional integrity. It will also challenge school to work out the shared set of principles which alone can make an institution into a flourishing community. (Watson, 1987:49)

It is on the basis of commitment that one can ask and answer such questions as: "What is most worth knowing?" and "What constitutes a good teacher?"

It is acknowledged that the application of the above would result in a multiplication of teacher training facilities - just as it has in the development of schools with 'special character'. Society ought not to be fearful of such resultant choice in education. The development of such communities of learning, rather than being divisive, are confirmed by literature to be efficient and socially healing. As an example of this perspective, Coons (1992:19) reports that:

> As far as anyone can tell, their graduates are at least as tolerant of racial, religious and ethnic differences as are their public school counterparts. For my part, this civic virtue seems the natural outcome of an education that is allowed to focus upon a coherent set of human and/or religious values, even where those values are strongly sectarian. The child who studies justice in a simple focused model filled with live adult exemplars may be the readiest in later life to recognise that justice is a problem involving all of us. Karl Bath put it that 'a will to unite cannot be developed by a people who have not yet taken themselves, to say nothing of the others, seriously.

The deliberate provision of *live adult exemplars,* or role models, for students as part of an educational strategy, is a notion which is not always popular. The concept of teacher as role-model embodies the notion of an ideal to be emulated. In the end, despite the

level of popularity the notion enjoys in educational literature, it appears impossible to negate the influence of a teacher on pupils (Pearson, 1989; Logan, 1992; Hansen, 1993).

The reason for the development of the argument in this chapter is to bring to the surface the tenet that education is not and cannot be value free and that recognition of a philosophical perspective brings the freedom to develop a coherent and strong educational foundation for a society or group. This has implications when teachers are considered to be role models. Dewey (1904) argued that the most important thing for a teacher to consider was the attitudes and habits which his or her 'own modes of being, saying and doing' are encouraging or discouraging (quoted in Hansen, 1993:419). It may be that the aspects of a teacher's character, life and attributes which receive little attention in teacher training programmes, are in fact those which have the most influence on students (Hansen, 1993:398).

It is important to acknowledge that teaching styles are determined as much by the teacher's character, personality, knowledge and beliefs about the world as by the external framework (Logan, 1992). When education is charged with the responsibility for producing future citizens the teacher is held as an example or ongoing model of what society expects its future generation to be.

This idea of teacher as role model will be revisited and elaborated particularly in Chapters Four and Five where the teacher educator is seen as role model for the developing teacher.

Teacher Training and Knowledge of the Teaching Task

Because of the role teachers have in shaping future citizens, one would expect to find that a study of the overarching purposes of education and the development of a coherent philosophy to guide that education would be the natural starting place for the shaping of effective teacher training. However such is not the situation. A survey of papers available to teacher trainees at one College of Education reveals scant attention given to

the philosophy of education[1]. John Goodlad (1991:5) found that teacher education programmes emphasise the technocratic aspects of teaching and avoid the moral and ethical dimensions. One possible reason for this could be due to the fact that the moral and ethical dimensions of life are determined by spiritual or religious beliefs and the dominant trend towards secularism, by definition degrades religion[2] as a basis for living and choosing. However, it is religion which governs social living and therefore, given the role education has in a society, education is a religious task. It may be a mistake to limit the role of faith of the acquisition of theological beliefs. The development of meaning in education involves knowledge fully integrated with an understanding of faith; whether it be faith in self, nature, God, money, welfare state or even faith in faith.

The impression given in teacher training is that the moral influence of the teacher and the consequential imparting of knowledge can be in some way 'neutral'. It could be argued that this concept of neutral knowledge in education is one of the biggest misconceptions of our age (Newbigin, 1991).

Zeichner (1983) argues that there is a lack of open debate about the goals and purposes of teacher education and that there is a need to focus on what may be termed the more fundamental questions. In similar vein, Carroll records that one important element of teacher training which is being neglected to the detriment of future teachers, children and society is a dialogue about the ultimate goals of education (1990:10).

Within the framework of this thesis it is deemed important to grapple with the concepts raised, in that, it is religion, as ultimate concern, which provides the framework within which education occurs. In this sense the fabric of a culture which holds a society or community together would be described as 'religious'. The set of principles which explain or provide meaning to life are seen to be understood in terms of ultimate value.

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[1] The 1994 Handbook for School of Primary Teacher Education, Auckland College of Education, reveals no papers which obviously attend to these matters. The exceptions would be papers which study Maori and Pacific Island perspectives of the syllabus.

[2] In this thesis, the word religion is used to include the *mix of ideas and beliefs which are to do with human nature and destiny.* Culture is, by this understanding, religion externalised and consequently, educational theory reflects religious belief Clements (1992:17).

As different philosophical foundations are seen to inform teaching in New Zealand, one would expect to find a variety of expressions of teacher training - each considering carefully concepts embodied in words such as 'vision', 'mission' and 'purpose' for such are the integral fibre of the world of education.

A lack of discussion about the underlying assumptions in education , results in lack of meaning and purpose both for the role of teacher and student. Consequently, an effective teacher training programme ought to be thoroughly immersed in discussion about key philosophical questions. To undertake this effectively requires the establishment of a foundational base which provides, as it were, the epistemological glasses through which life and experiences are filtered to provide meaning.

A submission presented to the New Zealand Qualification Authority on behalf of the New Zealand Education Development Foundation (1992:2) comments that:

> It is reasonable to suggest that the most important function of schools is to equip young people with knowledge and skills that will help them understand human nature and human origin and destiny. An education system which encourages this view of schooling to be sidelined is actually in the business of cultural destruction.

When the assumptions and goals which underpin a training programe are identified and declared, a coherent programme can be delivered. Then people can choose to participate in a programme according to their knowledge and beliefs. In schools, teachers are chosen not just for their skill and knowledge, but also for their acceptance of and commitment to the ethos and overall school philosophy and aims. This is one reason which will motivate parents to take their children from one school and place them in a *special character* school such as Kura Kaupapa. The type of modelling provided is a key factor in choice of school because it reflects the 'ideal' which that particular society of educators holds to be most important.

The factors which influence schooling certainly influence and impact on the training of teachers. For this reason, teacher training which reflects a coherent perspective enables the trainees' own beliefs to be strengthened, while other views can be considered from a secure base. The Maori, concerned with their 'taonga' responded to the fragmented

messages their children were receiving by starting Kohanga Reo and then the Kura Kaupapa schools. They soon found that their teachers needed to be trained from within a coherent perspective and thus commenced their own teacher training institution, Te Ranga Kura. Here they were able to provide not only an integrated programme but also one which upheld the teacher as role model (personal communication with Monty Ohia, 1995).

Current teacher education programmes seldom present a coherent perspective throughout their courses (Renwick and Vize, 1993). It is reported that there is 'very little' evidence of systematic study which attempts to unify theoretical studies and practice teaching in a way which utilises the teaching of knowledge about factors that enable human beings to learn meaningfully (Stones, 1987:681). The teacher needs to believe in what s/he is doing if her/his actions are to do more good than harm (Hogben, 1982:1).

As has been written before (Warnock, 1988:106):

> an education is no better than the teachers who implement it.

The provision of education with meaning is tied closely to the ability of the teacher to be able to live in a consistent manner with what is being espoused. For this reason, it is argued that the training of teachers for schools who wish to espouse a 'special character' should have an increased proportion of time in schools where teacher trainees can see effective teaching modelled within an identified and overarching ethos.

A coherent educational practice must always depend upon the possession of a coherent and satisfying philosophy of life. As Niblett (1947:42) wrote almost fifty years ago:

> If our own philosophy of life is muddled, inevitably the education we shall pass on to our children will be confused and self contradictory too. If we teach them all skills and all knowledge and life remains without meaning to us, our teaching will avail very little, for skills and knowledge in themselves are empty. They are not ends, but only means to an end. What we are and do matter more to the child's real education than any instruction we give, however useful it may be and however efficiently we may give it.

This thesis therefore argues that recognition and consideration of the nature of the teaching task is paramount for effective training. Teacher training may be improved by

starting from a coherent philosophy of life. Consistent examples and role models may then be developed. Future effectiveness of schools and particularly those schools which espouse to have a 'special character' will depend on the teachers of those schools being trained in and from that particular, coherent, epistemological base where the concept of teacher as role model will be embraced.

This first chapter has introduced concepts foundational for the development of a case for alternative teacher training. Chapter Two reviews research literature in order to evaluate the need for an alternative approach to teacher training and suggests that one possible response to current concerns would include increased responsibility and involvement in the design and delivery of the training programme for the schools.

Chapter Two - The Call for Change

As this thesis is concerned with suggesting an alternative approach to teacher training, the question needs to be asked, "What, if anything, is wrong with the current approach?" This chapter will provide an overview of the prolific literature which calls for a change in and to teacher training. Recurrent themes and topics will be identified and then answers to the criticisms will be suggested. This thesis argues that one way for schools and communities, particularly those committed to a 'special character', to overcome the current deficiencies in initial teacher training is through the implementation of a teacher training programme with an increased school-based component. This chapter contributes to the argument by outlining current deficiencies and criticisms in teacher education and showing a potential for improvement through an alternative approach, the characteristics of which will become clearer throughout the following chapters.

The quality, the content, and the delivery of teacher training is under scrutiny, probably in a way which is unprecedented. The reason for this is already made clear. Quality teachers are pivotal components in effective education.

> We cannot improve the quality of education in our schools without improving the quality of teachers in them. ...The entire formal and informal curriculum of the school is filtered through the minds and hearts of classroom teachers, making the quality of school learning dependent on the quality of teachers. (The Holmes Group, quoted in Beyer, 1987: 26)

It is difficult to comprehend the breadth and width of the current 'attack' on teacher training programmes. In a keynote address, Ivan Snook, at that time, Professor of Education from Massey University, had this to say about the criticisms levelled at teacher education:

> These can be documented through the nineteenth and into the twentieth centuries, were extraordinarily virulent in the 1960s and 1970s and persist unabated to this day. Those of us who have studied in the United States will recall the contempt with which Schools of Education were held and the recent literature suggests that this has not changed much despite strenuous attempts to re-model teacher education. But it isn't just the United States; strong criticisms have been constantly voiced in Canada, Britain and Australia, to name just three systems. Even West Germany

> which in the recent Newsweek poll was said to have the best form of teacher education, does not escape:
>
> 'The findings from about forty five surveys about the quality of teacher education point to massive deficiencies at every stage of education. More than 50 percent of teachers felt that their preparation for their profession was insufficient. (Tisher and Wideen, 1990:92) Snook (1992)

What are the 'deficiencies', the issues, which are being discussed in the ubiquitous debate about the quality of teacher education? Identified, in the literature reviewed, of concern to teacher trainees are issues such as:

the apparent irrelevance of training programmes;

the gap between theory and practice;

the role of the practicum[1];

the different concurrent demands which schools and Colleges of Education or Universities place upon them , and

the overall lack of coherence in programmes.

While teacher educators are aware of and concerned about the above issues, they also have ongoing concerns about:

the technocratic emphasis in training;

the reproduction of conservative clones, and

the demand for excellence in academic challenge.

In the light of so much uncertainty about the training process, it appears provident that the first issue addressed in this chapter relates to the necessity of training. Some literature would suggest that training merely reinforces what trainees already know and are committed to do (Lortie, 1973; 1975; Goodlad, 1982; Zeichner, 1986).

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[1] Practicum is the term used for the wide ranging experiences teacher trainees have in a school setting. These experiences may include observation, micro teaching, group work, resource development, class teaching for periods of time ranging from a single lesson to full control for six weeks.

Training -Does it Make a Difference?

In a consideration of 40 learning-to-teach programmes, Kagan (1992) concludes that, despite over 40 years of empirical research, still very little is known about the evolution of teaching skill. After undertaking the review of the learning-to-teach studies, Kagan (1992: 162,163) concludes with these thoughts:

> The life stories of teachers (Cohen, 1991; Louden, 1991) explain that the practice of classroom teaching remains forever rooted in personality and experience and that learning to teach requires a journey into the deepest recesses of one's self awareness, where failures, fears, and hopes are hidden.
>
> Classroom teaching appears to be a peculiar form of self-expression in which the artist, the subject, and the medium are one. Whether any academic program of study can truly prepare someone to practise it, is perhaps a question that one dares not ask.

Often, despite an intention to do otherwise, new teachers teach as they were taught (Lacey, 1977; Tabachnick and Zeichner, 1984). The power of what Lortie (1975) calls 'the apprenticeship of observation' makes it very difficult to alter teacher practices and may explain, in part, why teaching changes little through times of reform. The term 'apprenticeship of observation' refers to the fact that before entering an institution for teacher training, the teacher trainee has experienced at least 13 years of school and as a result of their observations during this time, they have built up their own ideas and beliefs about teaching[2] .

Thus teacher behaviour is seen to be rooted in experiences which predate formal training (Lortie, 1973:487). Teachers teach as they were taught during their many years as students (Goodlad, 1982). Any intervention in a time of professional training is seen to be too little and too thin to separate them from what their experience has taught them about teaching. Zeichner (1986:142) is well known for his findings on this perspective.

> ...there is much evidence that pedagogical methods and content knowledge introduced to students in campus courses has little influence on the subsequent actions of students in classrooms even during initial training. (Grant, 1981; Hodges, 1982; Katz and Raths, 1982)

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[2] Ways in which this cycle can be broken are suggested by Kagan and referred to later in this Chapter.

Certainly one begins to wonder if teacher training is an area into which one can commit energy, resources and effort, when, according to Wagner (1987) it is hard to find practising teachers who will affirm their own formal training as useful to the demands of their profession (Collins and Hughes, 1982; Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1987; Hewitson et al., 1991).

Koehler in Bayers et al (1989) observed that the experiences and information which the teacher trainees receive are 'out of context', thus trainees have little motivation to learn. However, when they are in context, (that is in the classroom), teacher trainees cannot recall, or even claim they have never covered the appropriate theory in their programme. It would appear that trainees are not equipped to recognise appropriate theory in action.

It is interesting to note that the same criticisms are made of in-service courses for experienced teachers. The explanation for this which authors such as Pelburg (1972) Borg (1975) and McGee (1980) give is that too many courses deal with generalities instead of identifying specific useful behaviours. For instance, information is given using lecture and discussion methodology without the *provision of effective models and feedback about skills and performance.* What appears to be needed are classroom teachers who not only model effective teaching but who are trained to elucidate the principles which underlie their decisions and actions, and who can provide the required feedback to teacher trainees, challenging them to identify the application of theory to, or in, practice.

Because of the pivotal role our culture entrusts to teachers, teacher trainers cannot abandon the training of teachers but rather must study those programmes which do influence their participants and either implement these or design new programmes which utilise the effective components. Perhaps it is time for radical change.

In the light of Goodlad's (1990) belief that the necessary conditions for vigorous, coherent, self-renewing programs of teacher preparation are not in place, Dill and Stafford (1994:620) suggest that:

> A radical and effective reform is urgently needed, and we believe that one promising path to that reform can be found in school-based teacher education.

One thing is clear, better preparation is definitely required and teacher educators have a responsibility to pursue the development of more effective teacher preparation.

A Call to Better Prepare Teachers

When training is seen to be ineffectual, the answer to the problem is not in abandoning training. On the contrary it lies in a new approach. The question to ask is, "What is the nature of the training which will make a difference and equip teachers for the task expected of them?" To answer the question, consideration must be given to the reasons which make training ineffective.

Cooke and Pang (1991) report that some research suggests that beginning teachers have problems because they are 'under prepared'. In Australia where the qualifications of teachers in 1986 were recorded as the highest at any time during its history, concerns still surround the adequacy of the teacher training provided (Cohen, 1987).

One exception to teachers' evaluation of their own training as inadequate appears to be those trained in school-based programmes where training is seen as a **start**, not a **complete** programme which is meant to equip one for an entire career. Other examples of such exceptions included in this thesis are:

Tracey, [see P4], who speaks highly of her school-based training and the teachers trained in the School Based Teacher Education Course (SBTE) conducted from Deakin University. [See Chapter Five for more information.]

Kennedy (1991) in the Teacher Education Learning to Teach (TELT) study found that the type of initial programme which makes a difference was the type which required teacher trainees to reason, to argue about alternative explanations and to test hypotheses. These are the type of activities which form the basis of discussions when 'theory' is brought to practice. The asking of questions such as: "Why did you do this and not that?" or "What does the fact that you did such and such show what you believe about the children, the subject matter and the goals of education?"

Effective programmes appear to have at least three common characteristics.

- First, they recognise the importance of relationship in learning;
- Second, they train the people who are most influential in the teacher trainees' perceptions - the associate teachers, and
- Thirdly they recognise that teacher trainees bring to the course fixed, but differing ideas about teaching as well as ignorance about pupils' characteristics, aptitudes and needs.

An effective course will see teacher training as developmental and start from where the teacher trainee is, as these personal beliefs and images determine how effective the course will be (Kagan, 1992). It is in fact suggested that the teacher trainees who experience the greatest professional growth are those who are placed with co-operating teachers who facilitate the integration of new knowledge with novices' pre-existing beliefs (Hollingsworth (in press) in Kagan, 1992:146). Such a course requires a commitment to the release of time and resources for those involved in teacher training to build relationships, to develop skills required to help teacher trainees bring their strongly held ideas of teaching and the role of a teacher to the surface for observation, reflection, analysis and change. As part of this process, Kagan (1992) suggests that it may be wise to guide teacher trainees through their biographical histories, helping them examine their prior experiences in classrooms, with authority figures, and other powerful experiences they have had. Teacher trainees need to critically reflect on their concepts and ideas about teaching at the same time as they acquire knowledge of pupils - their aptitudes, interests and problems. Kagan suggests that this can only be accomplished by extended practica with research type projects which allow teacher trainees to step back from their own beliefs and images to perceive the reality of pupils and classrooms (1992:163).

Teacher training programmes in the past may have been ineffective due to a lack of role models for effective and empowering critical reflection. When Gore and Zeichner (1991) examined the amount of reflection which student teachers displayed at the completion of a programme *designed to promote inquiry and reflection*; they found, as Wodlinger (1990) had found in his case study, very little evidence of reflection and the little which was displayed was of the lowest level, technical rationality. The failure of the programme to produce change in the teacher trainees was attributed to the traditional supervisory model used and the fact that there was an *absence of role models who were themselves engaged in reflection of and in their own programmes.*

As this concept of the associate teacher as role model appears to be one of the key factors in changing teacher trainees' prior beliefs and images, more will be said about this in Chapter Four which addresses the associate or co-operating teacher and their role in teacher training, and particularly in training with increased school based component.

The outcome of any programme is said to be a function not only of the programme content and design but also of the characteristics of the teacher trainees who selected the programme. An influential component of a teacher trainee programme appears to be the conceptual orientation of that programme. In other words considerations, such as those addressed in Chapter One about the nature of the teaching task, its goals and purposes play a large part in the shaping of a teacher. Currently these factors are reflected most in what is termed the 'hidden curriculum'. Dale (1977) and Bartholomew (1976) believe that the chief impact of initial preparation comes through the hidden curriculum of teacher preparation programmes, rather than through the formal knowledge and skills imparted to teacher trainees [cited in Zeichner (1985)]. Support for this position also comes from Kennedy (1991: 17) who found that while the debates in teacher education tend to be about the structure of such programmes, the content and character[3] of the programmes had more influence.

In other words the power of influence is held by images of such notions as teacher, learner, knowledge, curriculum and professional. These are subtly communicated to prospective teachers through the covert processes in the teacher training programme. This is one reason why the concept of modelling has a key place in this thesis. No matter what is intended or said, in the end, *who* the teacher educator is , *how* s/he *relates* and what s/he *believes*, will be most influential. If this is true then the fact that these crucial areas appear not to be addressed in current training programmes (Goodlad, 1991; Renwick and Vize, 1991; Gibbs and Munro, 1993) must be of great concern to those who wish to see teacher training more effective. Smith and Alred (1993) in Mentoring Perspectives on School-Based Teacher Education, draw attention to the fact that a mentor must 'personify the kingly quality of wisdom' and that there is a difference between 'being wise and having various kinds of knowledge or skills which can be passed on to another person'. The associate teacher therefore stands as a whole person rather than someone exercising certain skills (McIntrye et al., 1993:103,104).

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[3] Teacher educators are seen to be part of what is described as 'content and character'.

Teacher training is not a simple matter however. Accompanying the role of the associate teacher there is debate in the literature as to whether some of the inadequacies of current teacher training can be addressed with the extension of the training period. The rationale behind proposing longer periods of training is to give teacher trainees the opportunity to study academic subjects in the belief that this will produce teachers who are 'educated' persons. Is there a 'perfect' time period for training?

Training - Course Length under Scrutiny

There are basically four responses to the call for longer courses.

- One response is to require courses to be extended so that teacher trainees can undertake more university papers. Programmes from four to six years long are mooted, and/or in place (Denemark and Nutter, 1984).

If we accept the assumption that developmental growth is involved in teachers learning to teach, then very interesting, and perhaps surprising information is available from a study conducted by Mary Kennedy (1991). The TELT study included pre-service, in-service, induction and alternative routes into education and followed more than 700 teachers and teacher candidates through from the beginning of their programme into their first year of teaching. In the light of questions about the validity of teacher training and the length of courses, the study has some worthwhile findings to consider. The first noteworthy point was that those who majored in an academic subject did not necessarily have the kind of subject matter they needed for teaching. In fact when teachers who majored in a subject were compared with others who did not, Kennedy (1991) found that they were often no more able to explain fundamental concepts in their discipline. Consideration of such findings point to the fact that much of the content taught in college courses is different from the content taught in school and that it is, in fact, more important to study the fundamental concepts on which a subject rests. University papers are not organised so that the first paper in a subject gives an overview of foundations and key components. Thus, when a teacher trainee chooses to undertake concurrent study at university, foundations and key components of subject areas can be missed if only one paper is taken in any specific area.

Therefore, it would seem that it cannot be persuasively argued that longer courses, developed on the basis that trainees major in an academic subject, will be beneficial in the development of excellent teachers. Because teachers are models and it is necessary for them to model being an 'educated citizen', training programmes need to ensure that trainees either already have or acquire a strong general knowledge (Pearson, 1989). Teacher trainees are viewed as 'essentially ignorant' about the everyday workings of life - such things as: what happens to their garbage, why there is electricity in the building, why it rains, functions of the community council (Haberman, 1992). For this reason it would appear more important for trainees to have the opportunity to gain general introductory educational experiences across a broad spectrum of topics rather than gaining indepth study in one or two specialist areas as in a subject based degree study programme.

Goodlad argues in support of an undergraduate teacher education course for its potential to facilitate concurrent development.

> .....the teaching profession is unique in the sense that its subject matter as a whole is the subject matter the student is studying all the time. In other words, the major subject matters of teacher education are the organised fields of knowledge that we teach at all levels. Therefore, it makes sense for the student to begin to think about teaching the subject matter while he or she is encountering it in college (1991:12).

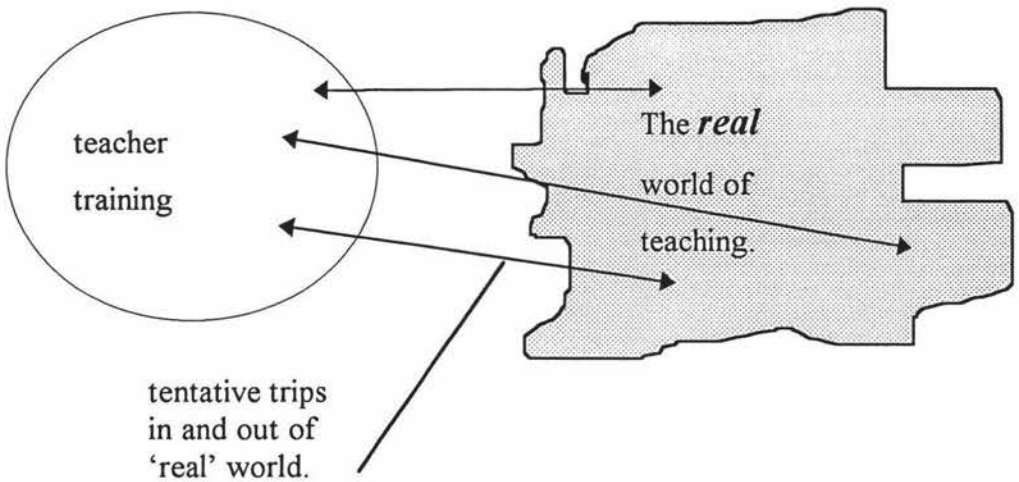
- Another response involves changing the attitude to the role of initial training rather than advocating the extension of the length of training time.

For example, Taylor (1978:209) comments that the focus of attention in teacher training needs to shift from the concept of an exclusive initial preparation. Initial teacher training needs to be viewed as the continuation of lifelong learning and development rather than a 'stand alone' course which once completed is said to have prepared a trainee adequately for a life of teaching. At the same time as countries such as America, Israel, and Australia are calling for longer courses, the movement in Europe is to shorter courses with a commitment to ongoing development.

> Contrary to expectations, the demand for an extension of the period of training has receded. This is explained by the proposition that since the educational situation is changing so rapidly it is more profitable to spend money on in-service training than on initial training. (Goodings et al., 1982: 123)

The current separation between pre-service and in-service education implies that one can be prepared to teach before entering the profession (Olson and Osborne, 1991). For example, the view which sees teacher training as separate and not appropriate for the 'real world' of teaching is represented as follows.

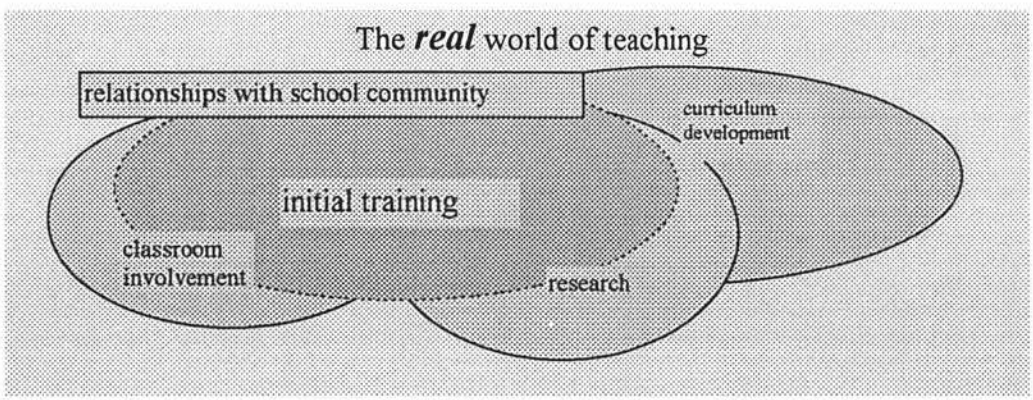
Fig. 1
A Perspective of Current Training



However, "It is generally acknowledged that the education of teachers should be seen as a career-long process in which in-service education builds upon and develops the base established during the pre-service phase." Taylor (1978) in McGee (1982).

Teacher training seen as the beginning of continued, lifelong learning can be represented in the following manner.

Fig. 2
An Alternative Perspective of Training



David Hopkins (1985:131) writes:

> Initial teacher education is only a start, and teachers need to practice their craft to become expert through long experience.....

In New Zealand a step towards recognising this fact was taken in 1984, when Beginning teachers were allocated an induction period of two years before certification, during which time they were required to receive a programme of advice and guidance.

Difficulties with an approach such as this are highlighted in readings which show a strong belief that the present pre-service base does not encourage continued professional growth.

> Professional pre-service education of teachers in Australia does not inculcate positive attitudes towards continuing education (Hogben, 1980)

Similarly, George and Ray, quoted by Koder (1982), found in their research that teachers with less than three years experience were less likely to undertake professional reading. One may well ask, " Why is this so?", and maybe the answer is related to the approach to pre-service training. If it is true that for many involved in pre-service training, the goals and aims are 'to equip the trainee teacher to survive', then it would be natural to expect teachers to have a practical, classroom based approach to their activities. In such a case, it is not surprising that beginning teachers are described as typically lacking a broad perspective on the purposes of education (Galluzo and Pankratz, 1989).

The key phrase in Taylor's (1978) quotation (op cit) is '*build upon and develop the base established during the pre-service phase'*. What the information in this and the previous chapter tells us is that currently, no coherent base is established which can be either developed or built upon. This situation needs to be corrected. The type of person who will continue to learn, develop and seek out opportunities for growth will be one who is a self-directed learner. It follows that expectations which will encourage the development of self directed learning need to be in place early in the initial training period. The school-based training which Tracey (case study in Chapter Five) experienced resulted in her holding an attitude which saw her initial training as 'a starting

point' and a perception that her training was continuing as she was aware that there was so much to learn. Continued growth came for Tracey through valued interaction and discussion about the large issues, objectives and aims of education with her colleagues, attendance at seminars and by undertaking further training to teach in the field of word processing. However in keeping with the findings of George and Ray (1982) about young teachers' professional reading, Tracey did not seek to grow through professional reading. This may, of course, be related to the pressures and time commitment already required in these early years of teaching and that relationship and interaction with others is valued above learning from reading.

Teacher educators who are designing, organising and providing the training of teachers should *model* such a view: both in the structure of the course and its expectations of teacher trainees and the model of their own lives as ongoing learners. Simply what is required is a lifestyle which shows recognition of the fact that one does not know everything and that there are many other resources and people in the wider community with expertise that can be made available to trainees. The teacher educator can model the need for ongoing learning with involvement in research and/or resource development. A requirement to have 'recent' teaching experience where recent is interpreted as 'yesterday' could be built into a contract to overcome the 'out of touch' syndrome. Similarly, recognition of the need for involvement in further research and development could be made with a built in allocation of resources in terms of time and finances. As has been said, "Teachers are our greatest resource" - this is no different for teachers of teachers.

The atmosphere of the training base and the schools in which students are involved must give a new message. Rather than the traditional "Forget what you learned in college. You are in the real world now" message, principals and teachers need to demonstrate both by example and expectation that there is much to learn. One way to attempt to deliver this necessary message would be to organise for teachers to attend a range of college lectures or workshops with a trainee.

Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985) clearly see this as an issue to be dealt with:

> If schools become places where teachers studied their own practice and were rewarded for doing so, future teachers would be inducted into a professional community where collegiality and experimentation were norms....Future teachers would get the message that learning from teaching was part of the job of teaching. (1985: 64)

It is well recorded that teacher trainees view their training on the whole as too easy. Renwick and Vize's (1991) study in New Zealand confirms this to be the current case. This stands in contrast to those who wish to enter the medical, law, or accounting spheres where they anticipate difficult access, hard work, a sense of academic value and occupational continuation. Trainees in these fields enter with the belief and expectation that they have much to learn.

For many teacher trainees and associates in the field, the teacher training programme offers little except perhaps time to mature and grow personally. Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985:543), report that some students' progress in learning to teach is complicated by the expectation that they already have sufficient understanding and that there is little more of value to be learned.

For too long teachers have perpetuated the concept that **only that** which is learned from and by experience is what is valuable. A demonstration of this would be this 'Tip for Principals' by Nancy Giberson (1989).

> Formal teacher education will have minimal effect for new teachers when applied to the classroom. They become bewildered by the realisation that although they have the pedagogical knowledge, they have not yet developed the skills necessary to actually teach day after day.

Surely a different goal from the one expressed here must be established if teacher training is to be valued. Warnock (1988) indicated that it takes a 'very long time indeed' for a way of thinking prevalent among those who train teachers to work its way through the system. For this very reason, it is of the greatest importance to change the attitudes of those engaged in the training and employment of future teachers. The provision of teacher training must be built on a foundational belief and commitment to making a difference. As already outlined in previous sections of this thesis, effectiveness and

commitment are related to considerations such as meaning, goals, vision and coherence. This point is demonstrated in Tracey's case (Chapter Five).

If the foundational assumptions of the course include that on-going development - reading and critical thinking are important, then quality time will be taken within initial training to develop the skills and attitudes which are required for this to occur. The principles of andragogy, adult learning, would be put in place. In recognition of the principles of adult learning[4], (Cross, 1981; Shaw, 1982; Krietlow, 1983; Knowles, 1984; Merriam, 1984; Mezirow, 1984; Jarvis, 1987) teacher training programmes should contain a component where trainees are able to negotiate their own learning. Kidd wrote that the purpose of adult education was:

> to make of the subject a continuing inner directed, self-operating learner. (1959: 47)

Knowles (1984:249) writes that:

> The single most important goal for educators at all levels and in all agencies of the learning society is the development of lifelong learners who possess the basic skills for learning plus the motivation to pursue a variety of learning interests throughout their lives.

Within the framework of this model, such a result would appear vital to the writer. The desired teacher is to model a love of learning and therefore will need to be committed to life long learning.

The literature of andragogy reflects an emphasis on learning and tends to be learner centred. The key reason for inclusion of such activities is to encourage and facilitate the student's growth from a *dependent* learner to a *self-directed* learner. Pre-requisites for successful self-directed learning are skills such as those used in critical thinking, research, journal writing and self evaluation.

Cohen (1987) supports such an approach when asserting that each teacher trainee should negotiate his/her own curriculum so they can work through:

> **what** they will do,

---

[4] It is not within the scope of this paper to include a study of the integral component parts of andragogy. However an overview of the aims, skills, approaches and guiding principles which are valued and presented by Jack Mezirow are included in Appendix 1.

why they are going to do it,

when and **where** it will be done,

and **how** it will be assessed.

Such an opportunity would have several benefits for trainees - particularly if placed in their third year of training. It would bring a sense of individuality to the course - provide a place where they could strengthen a weakness discovered during their previous two years of training, provide the opportunity to gain greater depth of understanding in an area in which they have developed an interest whether such an area be related to a field of subject knowledge, appropriate university papers or a pedagogical study. It also means that trainees could negotiate to work with a specialist in a field of education and/or undertake a research task. Such development has advantages for ongoing development and enrichment of education in New Zealand. The teacher would have a sense of 'expertise', 'specialness' or 'uniqueness' which s/he would take to their school communities. Relationships with key people in academia would be established and hopefully some trainees would want to continue research and development. The power of relationship to foster ongoing research and development should not be underestimated. If it is our aim to foster such, then the time to do so is while trainees are developing their outlook, interests, expertise and expectations.

The last two responses to the call for extended course length favour a different approach in which either part or the whole context of teacher education is changed.

- The third response to the apparent inadequacies of training sees the inclusion of more time for teacher trainees in schools. This may be done with the inclusion of more school - based components in the training programme or with the addition of an internship year spent entirely in a school environment Due to the undergirding proposal in this thesis that school-based teacher training may offer a positive alternative for teacher training, further consideration and information is given about these approaches in Chapter Three which looks specifically at the literature on School Based Teacher Training.

- The fourth response refutes the premise that more time is necessary and sees the answer in radical change to the context of training and trainee selection (Zeichner, 1991;

Dill and Stafford, 1994). Not only are such programmes shorter in length and relocated in the schools, but they are also developed collaboratively by master teachers who serve as the primary deliverers of instruction. Cooperating universities and regional educational service entities have a crucial role to play but the centre of teacher education for these models remains in a local district. Candidates for such programmes tend to be mature adults rather than school leavers, already have their degrees and be able to pass a basic skills test and in an interview situation demonstrate their suitability. While there are many aspects to consider in relation to the length of a course, it is very clear that more of the same is not a desired answer or improvement. The last two responses highlight the need for trainees to have successful extended experiences in schools. However in the current criticisms of training programmes even school experiences come under intense scrutiny.

Training - Is the Practicum[5] Experience Effective?

Research appears to suggest that the practicum is a time of great stress for teacher trainees (Clifton, 1979; Hopkins, 1982). Being in a classroom and expected to 'do' a teacher's job, without having the status or not being fully accepted or appreciated by staff or students in the school; having supervising teachers who may not 'care' about one's growth and development, all add to the anxiety which already exists about their own ability to be effective in the classroom.

According to some writers in this field, there is general consensus on the fact that the practicum experience has little or no effect on the most ingrained educational beliefs of student teachers (Cohen, Peters and Willis, 1976; Hopkins et al, 1985). Concerning the practice teaching component of most training courses, Stones (1987:681) states that much of the student's time on extended practice occurs without guidance and in many schools students are used as surrogate teachers who:

> .. after a brief induction into the school, operate independently and teach without the direct supervision of the co-operating teacher. The guidance

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[5] *Practicum* is the term used for the wide ranging experiences teacher trainees have in a school setting. These experiences may include observation, micro teaching, group work, resource development, class teaching for a lesson, a week, or as is often the situation in a third year, having responsibility for the class for six weeks.

> that is given is rarely related to any body of pedagogical principles and mostly consists of practical advice from a corpus of craft know-how developed over time by teachers.

The concern expressed in much of the literature is that such practice teaching is likely to perpetuate methods which are in operation without thought or reflection. Student teachers 'do' things in classrooms, to pass the course. These writers assert that the emphasis is on what the teacher does, with little consideration given to the reasons **why** something is done, or indeed if the children learned anything (Schon, 1982; Henry, 1983; Beyer, 1984; Goodlad, 1984; Gordon, 1985; Tinning, 1985; Zeichner, 1986; Stones, 1987; Price, 1989).

The call for reconsideration of the practicum, its role and development in the training of teachers is summarised by Zeichner, in Price (1989).

> There are several major obstacles to teacher learning that can be readily identified in relation to the practicum as it is currently conceived and implemented:
>
> (1) the dominant view of the practicum as an "exercise in apprenticeship",
>
> (2) the general lack of an explicit curriculum of the practicum;
>
> (3) the uneven quality of practicum supervision and the lack of formal preparation for supervisors;
>
> (4) the low status of clinical work within tertiary institutions;
>
> (5) the fact that schools are not set up to foster teacher education;
>
> (6) the discrepancy between the role of the teacher as professional decision maker embedded in the goals of many teacher education programs and the role of teacher as technician which is dominant in practice; and
>
> (7) the technocratic rationality which gives legitimacy to narrowly defined roles for teachers and which locates the source and solutions to our problems within individuals and not in the systems in which they work. (1989: 16)

The dilemma remains that while researchers appreciate the above scenario, other research, such as Hopkins (1982), shows that the extended practicum can be an

effective tool in the preparation of student teachers *provided it is combined with* other programme variables such as training and release time for the associate teachers. Zeichner (1986) argues that much change is needed and, while the practicum is probably the most researched aspect of teacher education, nevertheless, teacher educators must concentrate on making school experience more professionally challenging and applicable.

Training - What to do About the Gap Between Theory and Practice.

The number one criticism and concern for trainees appears to be the gap between theory and practice. Is the perceived gap real? Is the gap perceived because theory is either missing or perhaps not recognised? Dr Haberman presents a provocative perspective on this issue:

> Educationists are very often accused of having too much theory, too much research, and not enough practice that is one-third true. The latter part is true, the first two parts are not. Educational faculty do not offer theories. There are no unified theories of teaching or learning or development which a total faculty agrees to and then offers the student, unless you have a small college with two faculty members in education and they're married and they're getting along and they agree on what the theory is. If you have a faculty with 250 people in education, one is in love with Piaget, and one is keen on Shmidlap, and one is working on Winkleshmerz, and one is eclectic. The students get no unified theory of teaching or learning or development. What they get are pet ideas from people who haven't had much experience teaching.
>
> So there are no courses in real theory. The students refer to these courses as theory, but that is because they have never had a theory. They wouldn't know what one is. They think that because ideas are irrelevant they must be a 'theory'. It doesn't work that way. A theory is a unified, organised set of concepts, precepts, propositions that embody research and experience and predict and explain some subset of reality. Students manage to go through teacher education without learning what a theory is. (1992:6)

Working with the definition of theory offered above, one would expect that theory would be basic, foundational and compulsory in each course component. This would be especially so in order to train teachers who made informed decisions rather than reacted to situations in a technocratic style.

In New Zealand, teacher trainees surveyed by Renwick and Vize (1991), expressed the view that what is learnt in college is not relevant to the school system. They found that some associate teachers confirmed this by telling teacher trainees that what they are learning in college is a waste of time and will not fit them for the real world of the classroom' (1991: 5). In Australia the gap between what happens in the schools and the training institutions is of concern and the need for the two to work more closely together is acknowledged (See Price, 1987; Goodlad, 1991). In Britain, for example, the issue of the hiatus between theory and practice is seen to be addressed, in some part, with the establishment of school-based teacher training programmes.

This tension between theory and practice is reflected in the different approaches which lecturers and students have. For the lecturers, the central focus for their life is the lecture room or college facilities, whereas for the student, the school is the major focus and they want their training to be in the classroom with the college components of their course helping them to 'cope more effectively' with what they do in the schools (Renwick and Vize, 1991). For students the acquisition of teaching skills is high on their learning agenda and they want such learning and acquisition to be real, not simulated (Tickle, 1987; Renwick and Vize, 1991). Consequently, the best aspect of training programmes is that which involves experiences in the classroom environment in a manner which links theory and practice. Such purposeful experiences in schools are seen by some, for example, Turney (1987); Wodlinger (1988), to be the most powerful intervention in a teacher's professional preparation. Research surveyed by Wodlinger (1988), suggests that the practicum or practice teaching experience is highly influential in the growth process from a student perspective to teacher perspective. According to Whitty and Willmott (1991:309), critiques of conventional approaches to initial teacher education have led to growing demands that it be both school-based and more directly linked to the competencies required of the beginning teacher.

However attempting to close the gap between theory and practice through more involvement of students in schools, has brought a loud cry of concern that teacher training will become even more 'technocratic', 'routine' and 'recipe-oriented' with graduates of such teacher preparation programmes having utilitarian perspectives (Sockett, 1980; Price, 1987; Turner, 1990; Howey, 1990; Sykes and Troyna, 1991).

The following example of such a response comes from Hewitson, McWilliam and Burke (1991: 248) who are involved in teacher training in Australia.

> Policy developments in the United States, Britain, Australia and New Zealand in the late eighties have borne out the accuracy of such predictions. The post nation-at-risk era of political intervention in educational decision making in the United States (Shaker and Ullrich, 1987) has been parallelled by similar moves from Britain's Department of Education and Science (Tickle, 1987), from federal minister Dawkins's higher education rationalisations in Australia (Toomey, 1989) and a third wave of educational policy making in New Zealand (Peters and Marshall, 1989). According to Shaker and Kridel (1989: P3), this cult of efficiency necessarily promotes a concept of the purpose of educational endeavour which is antithetical to critical notions of relevant professional preparation in that it seeks to define professional competence in terms that serve technocratic interests rather than challenge social and economic injustices.

Once again, as in previous sections of this thesis, it becomes clear that the purposes for education differ according to one's philosophical perspective. However if teacher trainees were to spend *extra quality* time in schools, the end result could be increased quality educational thought and research. Such a result does not have to be so called technocratic, uncritical, unthinking, dispensers of unchallenging irrelevant information. The phrase 'extra quality' is used to qualify the amount of time spent by teacher trainees in school because it does not follow that being in the school environment for a greater proportion of their training will reduce the gap between theory and practice in any way. Trainees will need assistance and training to interpret and evaluate their practical experiences in light of educational theory to which they are exposed.

There is a body of literature which suggests that the most seasoned and expert teachers build informal, contextual, highly personal theories from their own experiences. If one accepts such a view, then one may also assume that it is not valuable use of time to try to close what is traditionally presented as a gap between theory and practice in teaching, as it may be something which is structurally and institutionally made. It may be that the concept of formal theory is irrelevant to teachers at any point in their professional development (Kagan, 1992). The relationship between the college course and experience in classrooms is obviously a crucial one, and problems in coordinating the

two underline for students the gap between theory and practice, *a problem of which they are constantly aware* (Renwick and Vize, 1991:47). In other words, perhaps the gap is constructed as part of the training process. Perhaps it exists because some training occurs in an institution committed to 'theory making' and some training or experience occurs in an institution committed to 'delivery' or 'practice'. It would be better use of time to assist teacher trainees in the development of their experience and therefore 'theory' building.

Another interesting finding from Kennedy (1991) was that although almost all programmes studied included courses designed to help teachers better understand the cultures of various groups which they might eventually teach; the teacher's ability to teach children who were members of those different groups was not enhanced. Why would this be so? Is it that material studied was not comprehended? Or was the material comprehended, but not able to be transferred? Was it all conceptual, with no reference to students own experience? In other words, did the teacher educators not bring theory to their own practice in terms of building schemata? Teachers often assume that knowledge of student diversity is mainly related to social issues and not to issues of how academic content is taught or learned. However, all of life **is** affected by our belief system and world view. If, as Kennedy (1991) points out, trainees when exposed to **knowledge about** cultures are not able to recognise the pertinence of such to their teaching, a different approach is required.

More attention to deep issues about how people's beliefs affect their lifestyle and learning would be both necessary and beneficial. Culture is not just about the way one eats, dresses or constructs a house. It relates to all of life. Even to considerations such as the role of questions. For example, in the Trackton community children were taught not to respond to inquiries about friends' or neighbours' behaviour. So when a teacher asks questions of the neighbour's dog, or what happened when they had a flat tyre on their car as story starters, they are interpreted by the children as intrusions to be ignored (Liston and Zeichner, 1985).

Ideas presented by Goodlad (1991) for redesigning teacher training are aimed at addressing the perceived, ubiquitous discrepancy between theory and practice. In an interview with Ron Brandt, Goodlad speaks of the concept of putting the analysis of practice first and bringing theory and principles to it, rather than teaching theory and hoping that teacher trainees will make the correct relationship and transfer. This approach is one which has under-pinned several innovative teacher training programmes. [See Chapter Three - School Based Teacher Training; particularly Course B, (Melbourne) and College Placement School.]

The trend to increase the proportion of time teacher trainees spend in school and to change the base of the training from training institution, be it university or college, to school has also been part of the endeavour to close the gap between theory and practice. It is claimed that teacher trainees are provided with more realistic preparation in which relevant theory can immediately be linked with in-depth experience in school (Hunter, 1990). As some of the claims made in such a situation would also be made of the traditional practicum experience, and research is not overwhelmingly positive about this; one cannot assume that more of the same is necessarily better. In fact to look entirely to structural changes to surmount this challenge is probably to look in the wrong direction. It would appear that the only way the gap between theory and practice will be narrowed is through interaction of people, working together in the school environment according to Goodlad's pattern. However where are the people who can reflect on the everyday activities of the classroom and bring the appropriate theory to bear? In the light of research on associate or co-operating teachers, the answer would appear to be that, at this point in time, they do not exist: they will need to be trained. This idea is revisited in the next chapter when the concept of School-Based training and the current related literature is the focus.

Goodlad (1991:49) identifies the time where students leave campus to engage in their student teaching experience as the most glaring disjuncture between theory and practice. This stand is adopted because the world of the school, including the personnel of the school ,and the world of the campus have very little in common. It is a time of great pressure and stress as the teacher trainee often finds him/herself in the middle of conflicting requirements. Once again, overseas findings are borne out in New Zealand

with the Renwick and Vize (1991) study. A student sums up the attitude found both overseas and in New Zealand.

> Teaching practice sections are not well coordinated with the college course. Lecturers tend to blame the teaching sections for getting in the way of their courses. They tend to say, "Well, we've only got six weeks to do this, so what we'll do is we'll give you this assignment to do on your section". Not, "You can use this section to test this. This is what we have taught you, so why not do this assignment". Sections are treated as a kind of 'tack-on' to the course, when they could be regarded as a very positive thing (1991:49).

As outlined in Chapter Five Tracey's school-based training is an exception to this. For example in the part of her training which concentrated on the development of curriculum expertise, activities were so interlinked that 'theory' and 'practice' appeared to become one.

It is vital that teacher trainees have the opportunity to develop the skills, understanding and insight needed so that they are developed as professionals, able to make the best decisions for each individual student 'in the context of the reality of an unrehearsed moment' (Cohen, 1987: 54) and that their time spent in schools does not serve to simply socialise the student teacher into the status quo (Stones, 1984; Goodman, 1985; Beyer, 1985; Boydell, 1986; Zeichner, 1986).

It will be sufficient at this point in time to reiterate the suggestion that the answer to closing the gap between theory and practice is found in a combination of attitudinal, structural, and content changes. Attitudinally there needs to be changes to the place and role of initial training. Structurally there needs to be a shift in emphasis from campus to school where practice is used as a springboard for the development of an understanding of general educational principles. The structural shift needs to be matched simultaneously with increased development of key personnel and coherence in content and methodology.

Training - Selection of and Attitude to Teacher Educators

Turney (1989: 7) draws attention to the fact that the quality and status of teacher educators needs to be improved substantially. He writes:

> The professional models that they exhibit, the principles and practices that they exemplify and the programs that they design and deliver directly affect the work of their students.

The findings of an inquiry undertaken by Goodlad in 1985 point to the fact that teacher education faculty were conscious that neither they nor their work occupied a high place in the priorities of their institutions. Probably more penetrating was the fact that students, too were aware of this low status.

> ....chronic prestige deprivation[6] oozes like molasses through and around every component of the teacher education enterprise. (1991: 6)

Goodlad comments that to be aware of this low status is one thing but to understand the pervasive consequences is quite another. From the trainees' perspective, this low opinion appears to begin very early in a teacher's training. The New Zealand study, undertaken by Renwick and Vize (1991), reports that 'about half of the students' commented that lecturers were not challenging, ill prepared and wasted time. Generally they felt that there was not enough accountability. Such a perception and response could be one reason why teacher training is said to have very little effect. The attitude toward teacher educators shown here by the trainees would inhibit their learning. Students need to 'believe in' their teacher before they will accept their teaching. Attracting capable and effective teachers to act as models for trainees and providing the working conditions for them to have time to prepare and present quality learning activities which model the learning theories being provided must be a priority for those providing teacher training. This concern will be highlighted in the next chapter and is then studied in depth in Chapter Four which looks at the involvement of classroom teachers in the training of teachers.

Training - The Question of Coherence

The lack of coherence in initial , campus based, teacher training programmes is well documented (McClelland and Varma, 1989; Johnson, 1990; Eisenhart et al., 1991; Renwick and Vize, 1991; Goodlad, 1991; Kagan, 1992).

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[6] The term, 'chronic prestige deprivation' , used by Goodlad (1991:6) was coined by Bernard Gifford.

This lack means that there is 'no framework' on which students can build a coherent understanding of the teaching task. This framework could be provided by viewing learning as a social, rather than cognitive process(Galton, (1989) in McLelland and Varma; Simon, (1981)); or with the establishment of a knowledge base to guide teacher training (Galluzo and Pankratz, 1989). The apparent absence of a sense of mission or key personnel to provide programme unity means that we should not be surprised by Goodlad's description of teacher training curriculum as incoherent (1991:6).

As teacher training has developed as a campus-wide responsibility, no united, committed core of people owns it. Modules tend to be short and self contained and not necessarily linked to the concept of developing an effective teacher. An effort to overcome this situation will require those responsible for the provision of teacher training in a specific location to plan and work together more concerning in order to define the characteristics and role of a 'a good teacher' and pay increased attention to the goals and aims of education (Pearson, 1989).

There are those who see that this problem will only be solved when the training is provided from a holistic approach, where school and college or university work together (Goodlad, 1991; Cohen, 1989). The component parts need to be seen and work as an integrated whole (Ashton, Henderson, Merritt and Mortimer, 1983; Ermans, 1983; Boydell, 1986; Irvine, 1990). Unless the two worlds of training and practice, institution and schools, come closer together there will always be conflict and competition for time and prestige and other considerations will dictate course options and delivery with the result that a sense of coherence will continue to be absent.

In considering forty teacher preparation studies Kagan (1992) found that programmes had little coherence and candidates were consistently presented with confusing and sometimes contradictory messages about the nature of teaching and learning. These findings are upheld by the longitudinal study conducted by Renwick and Vize (1991), in which the majority of teacher trainees in their second year of training thought colleges did not articulate what constituted a 'good teacher'. As would be expected (due to their developmental stage) teacher trainees themselves emphasise personal attributes and

management skills, not curriculum content. Renwick and Vize (1991:68), exhibit a level of frustration with inadequate goals underpinning teacher training programmes.

> We assumed that in an institution concerned with teacher education there must be a view of the qualities and skills needed to be an effective primary school teacher. We also assumed that these qualities and skills would be implicit or explicit in the aims of the institution and conveyed to students through the lecture programme and other experiences they had at the college.

Over half of the students involved in the Renwick and Vize study were frustrated by the 'busy work' component of their course. If we entertain the idea of teacher educator as model for teaching in the classroom, what are the implications of so much busy work? Will teacher trainees also feel pressured to fill time with such activity? A similar percentage of students commented that there was a lack of communication and co-ordination. Students from one College of Education in Renwick and Vize's study stated that there was a lack of focus within the institution as a whole. Students from another college felt that it lacked a strong corporate feeling. In fact the college was seen as a collection of departments rather than as a college.

Such a situation could be attributed to the fact that it appears that no-one in the overall programme has responsibility for communicating some of the important issues. Renwick and Vize (1991) found that the concept that a 'good teacher' is a warm caring person still pervades. Once again Haberman has an interesting view on the lack of coherence apparent in teacher training programmes. He suggests (1992:3) that the reason for this is that the programmes are not developed as a whole in response to asking and then answering the question, "What kind of people do we want to prepare? What should they know and do?" Rather, teacher preparation programmes tend to be a conglomeration of the ideas of people with expertise in specific fields.

One response to the concerns raised is a call to change the base of teacher training from the institutions to the schools.

Training - A Change of Base?

It has been said that no other call for reform in teacher training has attracted so much attention and support as that which suggests that schools become the base for initial

teacher training (Batten, 1979; in Cumming (1985). Critiques made of conventional approaches to initial teacher training have led to growing demand that initial teacher training be both school-based and more directly linked to the competence required by the beginning teacher (Whitty and Willmott, 1991).

Goodlad (1991:5) suggests that the failure to connect schooling and teacher education actually deprives teacher education of a mission. Brandt (1991:13) records Goodlad's view that teacher trainees need to be in a school which is viewed as an equal partner in their professional training.

> I'd say, in fact, that any teacher education program created or conducted without the collaboration of surrounding schools is defective.

The observation that students of teaching receive much of their instruction away from the field of experience and the life as a practising teacher, reinforces the notion of two separate worlds: the world of training and the other, 'real' world, where experienced teachers function every day (Hogben, 1982: 2). School teaching is different from university teaching and therefore Prakash (1986: 226) proposes that training for school teaching is best conducted by professionals who are school practitioners in the place where they practise. School-based teacher training is seen to contain the potential to break this dichotomy and provide role models who are primarily teachers, not researchers. (The word 'can' is used carefully as will be shown in later pages, it cannot be assumed that because the trainee is in the real world that they will indeed receive more adequate instruction and preparation.) MacLaughlin and Murphy (1982) make the claim that exposing teacher trainees in a controlled situation to the realities of their future careers enables them to eliminate a variety of weaknesses characteristic of beginning teachers.

The idea of wholeness in a teacher training programme appears to be most influential. Where there is a sense of shared responsibility and commitment to the task, it would appear that teacher trainees develop more skill and confidence. Teacher trainees experience difficulty choosing or developing a coherent set of beliefs from which to interpret conflicting ideas when a course itself is without a coherent framework. Then the diversity of educators who hold inconsistent or even contradictory beliefs becomes confusion and a source of stress.

It is important to note that what is being advocated here is not a 'head in the sand' approach which has as its ideal the development of people who do not and cannot look into and consider a variety of views. Very much the opposite! Rather it is seen to be vital that teacher trainees have the opportunity to develop a coherent philosophical base ***from which*** to securely evaluate and interpret conflicting views. Such a foundation brings freedom to try other approaches, think issues through and generally develop a 'philosophy of education' to guide decision making. In such a situation, because all component parts are committed to the same outcome, there is a more consistent, supportive atmosphere and the result is that learning in such an atmosphere:

> .....equips a teacher to internalise skills and to perform better at a subsequent assignment in a different school (Hunter, 1988: 87).

One may well ask if such a philosophical base can be established in school based programmes. This thesis suggests that such an approach is only possible when those who are providing the base for the teacher training, the schools where the teacher training is 'worked out' and the teacher trainees share the same foundational world view, coherent philosophical base or 'special character'.

Galluzo and Panktratz (1989:13) see such agreement as the highest hurdle and the first requirement of a teacher education programme.

> The commitment from the members of a programme faculty to consider their own beliefs in relation to those of their colleagues and the willingness to work toward a common vision of purpose is the highest hurdle in the development of a knowledge base and the first requirement of a teacher education programme.

The strength and freedom such coherence brings is illustrated by the commitment staff who wish to be involved in a *School For the Twenty First Century*, make to work on the development of a coherent philosophy for the school. Such a philosophy is used in the school as a screen through which everything is filtered. It gives a base from which to ask of activities and priorities in the school, such questions as, "How does it/they fit?" Snook, from the College Placement School -a Professional Development Centre in Seattle which has also gained recognition as a School for the Twenty First Century, asserts that this commitment to the development of a coherent philosophy for the school

was the 'most important and healthiest thing that had happened for their school' (private communication 1992). Tracey's experience with a school-based training programme (Chapter Five) gives an indication that such coherence can be achieved.

In concluding this chapter, it seems that the Call to Change cannot be ignored. It needs a definite response - in structure, attitude, content and preparation of personnel. It would appear that a best response would include a major change so that training is more closely linked with the school. Such a close link leads to the identification of a strong component role for associate teachers who must receive support and training for their role.

Of importance also would be the realisation that initial preparation is one component of a commitment to life long learning and development and consequently teacher training would recognise this in its attempt to equip future teachers with the skills and attitudes to fulfil such a vision. The matter of coherence of programme also needs to be addressed - both in terms of the beliefs and philosophy of teaching which will unite the whole teacher training programme, and in terms of the commitment of people and institutions involved in the development of teacher trainees. In the next chapter, the main concerns and issues raised in the literature about school based teacher training are therefore considered.

Chapter Three: School-Based Teacher Training

In previous chapters, it has been suggested that one approach to overcome the inadequacies of current campus based initial training is to place more of the training programme in the school. In order to peruse the very broad landscape which exists under this heading, this chapter presents a review of literature about school based initial teacher training, provides a definition of *school based* and proceeds to highlight the advantages and disadvantages of such an approach. The chapter's role is to provide a foundational understanding of key principles which will be developed and applied in the following chapters.

For many years teachers were trained by working alongside another and they would report that their training lineage was of such people as Jesus, Secretes, Rousseau, Nietzche. Throughout time training has changed as it has reflected the philosophy of the time (Wilkin, 1993) and been conducted under different combinations of school and institution centred training. During the last twenty five years there has been significant movement to locate whole or part of initial teacher training programmes in schools with close collaboration of school staff on both theoretical and practical aspects of courses (Turney, 1987; Lawlor, 1990; Furlong, 1994).

Even with the noted difficulties, almost any component of a teacher training programme which occurs in schools will attract positive comments. There is comprehensive agreement that time in schools is potentially the most beneficial for teacher trainees (Spillane, 1982; Cohen, 1989; Renwick and Vize, 1991; 1993). Spillane (1982) argues that the best introduction to the teaching profession is for the trainee to be involved in classroom experiences with tutelage from 'a master teacher'. He argues strongly that pedagogical training ought to be in the hands of administrators and master teachers in the schools. Warnock (1988) sees that increased involvement of schools in the training of teachers is required to bring about the desired improvement in both primary and secondary training.

> There seems little doubt that the mismatch between teacher training and the school system must be met by more school based courses which bring the two together and help to invigorate both. (Dow, 1979: 244)

A Definition of School Based Training.

One of the difficulties in reviewing literature on this subject is the varied definitions of 'school-based'. 'School-based' may refer to a teacher training programme where students have increased time in schools - even though the increase may be as little as two hours a week.. The term is also applied to programmes where trainees spend up to twenty weeks a year in school. Trainee teachers in the University of British Columbia now have a 'developmental practicum' sequence culminating in a 13 week extended practicum. Another example of increased time in schools is found in College Placement School[1], Seattle, where teacher trainees spend a year in the school.

There is a variety of approaches to school-based teacher training in Britain: some follow a four year undergraduate programme which includes 20 weeks direct school experience or a one year course for graduates which includes a 15 week direct school experience and more radical approaches which see teacher trainees spend a whole year in one school (McNamara, 1990). Currently in Britain there is much debate about a suggested move to have trainees based in schools for the whole training duration (Furlong, 1994; Bennett, Jones and Maude, 1994; Berrill, 1994). In Australia there has been an increased tendency in some states to extended periods of time in schools under the nomenclature of internship. In the final year of a four year Bachelor of Education programme at the Australian Catholic University secondary trainees have a ten week period in school under the supervision of an experienced teacher in collaboration with personnel from the University.

The label 'school-based' means different things to different people. However in this chapter, the description will come to refer to programmes where the teacher trainee spends extended periods of time in school and where the school staff have an increased, significant and active role in the trainee's development.

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[1] Some aspects of this programme are described briefly in Chapter Four.

Perceived Advantages of School -Based Initial Teacher Training

Those involved with school based initial teacher training claim a variety of benefits, particularly in terms of preparedness to teach. Ver Velde, Horn and Steinshouer (1991) report that teachers trained in the Program for Learning Competent Teaching in Arizona experience no *Mickey Mouse* assignments - because they are involved in *real life* assignments. Such trainees are seen to be motivated by *professional pride.* A principal involved in the programme writes:

> Our teachers will accept only student teachers who have been through the Block Program because they are so professionally prepared, and,
>
> Student teachers who have come from this program are the ones that I keep my eye on for future hiring. These former Block students shine in the classroom; they are requested by parents and have been recognised nationally for their excellence in teaching."[2]

It is claimed that where teacher trainees are based in one school for an extended length of time, teacher educators have more sustained contact with teacher trainees, pupils and teachers; the teacher trainees gain instant feedback on their ideas about teaching and curriculum; the teacher trainees can observe results of programmes which they have implemented or observed, and opportunities are generated for research and development (Turney, 1987:192).

Proponents of school based teacher training claim that teacher trainees are provided with more realistic preparation in which relevant theory is immediately linked with in-depth experience in a school rather than superficial experience in a number of schools (Hunter, 1988; Cohen, 1989; Dill, 1989). The Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education in Australia concluded that students who experience continuous teaching practice feel better prepared as beginning teachers than those whose teaching practice was arranged in blocks (cited in McIntyre et al., 1993:56).

The benefits of an 'alternative' school-based teacher training programme are described by Dill (1990:199):

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[2] In 1987 the National Council of Teachers of English named the programme a "Centre of Excellence in Teaching Language Arts".

> ....alternative teacher certification offers..... a vigorous, coherent and self-renewing program of teacher education.

With guided and effective extended practica, teacher trainees are better able to recognise problems, to think in a way which is more concrete and context specific, and have repertoires for solving problems which are larger, more complex and more coherent (Kagan, 1992:155).

The idea of a developmental practicum can be thought of in terms of gradual immersion - 'the shock being less if one wades into the adult classroom role step by step - first as a spectator, then as a helper, then as an apprentice teacher, then as a new teacher on one's own.' (Cronin (1983), cited in Waxman and Walberg (1986: 167)). Other states such as Illinois, New York, Oklahoma and Ohio have mandated additional field-based experiences.

The Classroom - the Best Place to Learn?

The common belief in the value of firsthand experience is reflected in comments such as: "*Experience is the best teacher.*", and "*The classroom is the place to learn - you will have a 'real learning experience' there*". As long ago as 1932, Waller was advancing this viewpoint.

> It is not to disparage teacher training that we remark upon the fact that teachers still learn to teach by teaching. The teacher gets something from experience which is not included in his 'professional ' courses, an elusive something which it is difficult to put between the covers of a book or to work up into a lecture. ...What the teacher gets from experiences is an understanding of the social situation of the classroom, and an adaptation of his/her personality to the needs of that milieu....That is why we must try to include it in the regimen of those who aspire to be teachers.
> (In Waxman and Walberg, 1986: 165).

This implicit trust in firsthand experience is particularly evident when teachers claim that most of what they know about teaching came from their experience. They learned to teach by teaching. We have already noted that teachers and teacher trainees view their student teaching as the most valuable aspect of their formal training (Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann, 1985; Renwick and Vize, 1991; 1992).

Is being in a classroom necessary or helpful in the development of teacher trainees? This thesis has already identified the existence of literature which identifies those who believe it would be better to conduct all training at University (Johnson, 1990). However, comparisons made by Kagan (1992) show that graduates from such courses have to work through many issues in their first year of teaching, which trainees who have had practica as an essential component of their training, have previously worked through in their classroom experiences.

Exposing teachers in training to the realities of their future careers is a key reason for placing more initial teacher training in schools. In fact, McLaughlin and Murphy (1982) comment that where this happened[3]; not only were graduates better prepared to teach but they also possessed a high level of confidence in their own abilities.

From a common sense perspective, it would appear to be rational and sensible for teacher trainees to spend as much time as possible in the area of their work place. However the concept of school-based teacher training has its critics, as the following samples show:

> School-Based schemes are being proposed as a means of dealing with teacher shortages. . . . although it is not made explicit, the school-based proposals are seen by the government as the cheaper route to combating teacher shortages. (Jones, 1989: 90).

(An interesting statement as experience and studies do not support the 'cheaper route' claim. (Price, 1987a; MacLennan and Seadon, 1988; Booth, Furlong and Wilkin, 1990; Dill and Stafford, 1994)).

> Teacher education institutions are facing several crises today. ...they are now being told to eliminate some of their pedagogy courses and expand their field experiences and apprenticeship training. Furthermore they should be concerned about proposals to transfer teacher education programs from higher education institutions to public schools (Lyons, 1979; Schlechty and Vance, 1983).

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[3] For example in the Secondary Internship Programme (in British Columbia), a programme which sees student teachers with a degree, based in schools and teaching up to 50 % of the day with the remaining time spent in preparation, marking, discussion with associate teachers and observation of other teachers.

> Surely the obvious danger (*of an apprentice/school-based mode of training)* is that such a procedure might ultimately lead to an inward and stagnating profession. (Jones, 1989: 91)

This concern, highlighted by Jones, that training which occurs in schools will produce teachers who know what to do but not why to do it, requires consideration.

School-Based Training - Narrow, Technocratic and Non Professional?

One of the concerns with teacher education which grows out of extensive school-based teaching practice is the possible outcome that those students who undergo such training will see teaching as a conservative and non-reflective activity, and teaching will consequently be viewed as a trade rather than a profession (Mertens and Yarger, 1988). As Pearson (1989: 133) states:

> The concern, here, is that if prospective teachers are taught to do what teachers in the field do, they will learn set behaviours that can be employed without having to think about whether they are appropriate or desirable .

For some educators, school-based teacher training has become associated with a narrow interpretation of the term 'apprenticeship'. As the notion of an apprentice is best understood in the realms of activities deemed to be crafts, then the use of 'apprentice' for teaching training suggests that teaching is perceived as a 'craft'. Such a perception is of concern to those who are endeavouring to strengthen the professional image of teaching (Lacey et al., 1973). However, not everyone is concerned with the possible negative influence of the image which apprenticeship invokes. In fact, some educators see it is a most appropriate model to follow.

> The approach to practice teaching based on apprenticeship training is justified on several grounds. Since the best way of learning to teach is to go and teach, then the more time of a training course devoted to practice teaching the better (Stones, 1987: 82).

Professor R.S. Peters, in Dow (1973: 199), suggests that if teacher educators desire to bring some 'fairly solid influence on practice during teacher training', then they would do well to experiment with the systematic apprenticeship of teacher trainees with experienced teachers whose practices had been shown to be effective. Such radical experimentation would need to address the attributes of an apprenticeship system which expects the trainee to assume the teaching style modelled by the associate teacher (Housego, 1994:368). Teachers are very individualistic (Guillaume and Rudney, 1993;

Powell, 1992) and need the opportunity to develop their own teaching style while progressing toward full teaching responsibility.

The following comments made, not about school-based programmes, but about practical experience in traditional programmes illustrates the mistake it is to suggest that a technocratic approach is only found in apprenticeship type programmes.

> Studies (Gibson, 1976; Tabachnick et al., 1980; Turney et al., 1982) of practicum programs conducted in the U.K., the U.S.A., and Australia produce a consistent image of pre-service teacher education programs which, in the main, graduate teachers with utilitarian perspectives.

The same writers continue,

> Teaching studies courses have become dominated by technique-initiation procedures aided by the ubiquitous micro-teaching technology. Components of effective instruction are presented to student teachers in isolation from real life educational ends and without any questioning of why one would teach in this way or that. A technocratic rationality entraps us and our students when we engage uncritically in these procedures (P 55).

In the final analysis it would appear that linking the notion of apprenticeship with school-based training initially attracted an inordinate amount of criticism, suggesting that it is partly political and related to the need to strengthen the professional image of teaching. In the search to improve teacher training, consideration of the role of the school and practising teachers in the development of future teachers needs to be conducted in a manner which recognises the strengths **and** limitations of such an approach and which does not become sidetracked by political agendas.

In fact the feature for which school-based teacher training has been criticised the most may in fact hold the greatest potential. The fact that trainees have continued access to observation and application of practical classroom management skills can be viewed as an asset for the very reason that practical classroom management skill is the prior trainee requirement.

The Need for Practical Management and Classroom Skills

The question then needs to be asked: "Is the level of concern about school-based emphasis on the practical, a problem, or is it actually a 'goldmine' in disguise?"

As stated earlier in this chapter, research shows clearly that the most important aspect of teacher training in the minds of teacher trainees is practical experience. Research reviewed by Tisher (1990) confirms school experience to be an extremely important, practical and satisfying component of pre-service education. Trainees view it as the most realistic aspect of their courses. It helps reduce their anxiety about teaching and fosters their practical teaching skills while helping them to develop realistic perspectives about pupils and their own curriculum knowledge. It also highlights their inability to adequately implement inquiring teaching and allows them to explore their own capabilities. It is when they are in schools that they learn to manage student behaviour and do many tasks at once. Trainees feel that the time in school should be increased, particularly because of its potential to affect management and other classroom skills (Tisher, 1990; Renwick and Vize, 1993; Housego, 1994). Perhaps the 'goldmine' contained in effective school-based teacher training is this potential to affect management and other classroom skills. A common criticism from beginning teachers is that their preparation did not give them enough management skills on the day to day level (Lortie, 1975; Ryan et al., 1980; Miklos and Greene, 1987; Odell, 1988; Renwick and Vize, 1993).

> Novice teachers are not prepared for the extent of the demands of teaching. They find their tasks harder and more taxing to carry out than anticipated. (Olson and Osborne, 1991: 331)

Such day to day experience can only occur in the real milieu. There is an interesting, and apparently growing amount of writing which advocates that teacher training should unreservedly aim to provide teacher trainees with more classroom management skills. Kagan (1992:162) states that the 'primary goal of pre-service programs should be providing procedural knowledge to novices and promoting acquisition of standard-routines that integrate management and instruction'. Certainly beginning teachers interviewed by Housego (1994) identified classroom management as needing more attention; listing survival tips as a key component of a course they would design for pre-service teacher training. When a beginning teacher does not have competency in these areas, the pressure that 'not coping' brings has the potential to underdo all that was learned in terms of the wider issues of teaching as they set out to 'survive' (Green and Miklos, 1987; Housego, 1990). In fact, Goodson (1994) reports that theory not based

in practicality is, for the teacher trainee, 'knowledge decontextualised'. Research conducted in New Zealand by Renwick and Vize (1993) confirms international findings and highlights the need for more practical instruction and skill. The final stage of this research involved interviewing teacher trainees at the end of their first year of teaching. When asked about areas in which they felt the College programme had not adequately prepared them, the beginning teachers commented that:

- that the course was not sufficiently practical;
- not enough time was spent in schools;
- not enough experience was gained in coping with a whole class;
- trainees tended to be prepared for ideal situations rather than the reality of the classroom;
- more courses on classroom management and administration , including time management in the classroom and handling of registers were desired;
- more emphasis on the skills of teaching were sought, and how to:
    - get started in the classroom;
    - establish classroom groupings;
    - set up and maintain a total classroom programme as compared with individual lessons;

and the very practical skill of handwriting instruction. A beginning teacher records:

> Writing on the blackboard. It sounds ridiculous, but it's not something a lot of people can just walk in and do, especially handwriting, in the lower school. They should provide blackboards all over the place for practising and get somebody in to teach us (in Renwick and Vize, 1993:60).

The value of learning on the job had been brought home to beginning teachers because of the amount they have learnt since they have had their own class (Renwick and Vize, 1993:56).

Research which Chandler et al. (1991) reviewed suggests that any liberalising effect gained from pre-service training was soon 'washed out' by the realities of the classroom. The implication of this is that training should contain more teaching practice and aim to be less idealistic and more carefully matched to classroom realities. The debate that follows such a suggestion is concerned with the long term effect. Would such an emphasis lead students to lose sight of the fact that the 'existing reality' is only one of the many possible alternatives that could exist? (Zeichner, 1983:6). However, the fact that trainees are concerned about day to day management does mean that practical

experiences, the 'realities of teaching', provide motivation to learn anything that will help them become more effective with their work with children.

These conclusions are supported by the study conducted by Kagan. After surveying over 40 teacher training programmes, Kagan (1992) presents the following two considerations as crucial for an effective pre-service programme.

- Firstly, the design and content should deal with the genuine developmental needs of novices. In other words a teacher training programme should recognise the stage of development teacher trainees have attained and plan to take them on a developmental path from that point to the stage where they are confident as classroom teachers.
- Secondly, and as part of this overall commitment, a primary goal of the programme should be the provision of procedural knowledge to teacher trainees, promoting the acquisition of standardised routines that integrate management and instruction.

> Procedural routines appear to be the 'sine qua non' of classroom teaching; novices sense this and continue to express their frustrations with the abstract content of most education courses (1992: 162).

Instead of decrying teacher trainees' interests in quick fixes and tricks of the trade, perhaps teacher educators should acknowledge that this is a genuine, mostly unmet need. As Kagan (1992: 160) writes:

> Novices may engage in technical rationality rather than other levels of reflection, because that is where their developmental needs lie: in understanding what works and why it works.

If teachers can be confident in the day to day management of a classroom, then they will have energy and effort left to put into reflection. However if the day to day management causes continuous and increasing stress, then teachers will be less likely to engage in indepth reflection, or in fact to stay in the teaching profession. Dill and Stafford (1994) find this conclusion to be true for their school-based teacher training experiences. They record that by featuring systematic instruction in practical skills followed by the consideration of theoretical questions, novice teachers are provided with the necessary tools. This then frees the trainee teacher to ponder theoretical questions that are nonetheless rooted in the context of a teaching and learning environment that they know well. Consequently, they argue, trainees 'learn more theory and more concepts and acquire a greater capacity to reflect on their teaching' (1994:622).

Schools Need to View Themselves Differently

One other area which research identifies as needing change before school-based teacher training can be effective, is in the schools themselves. Schools do not really see themselves as part of the teacher training process, but rather as being 'there' to have students in the classroom.

The challenge is loud and clear. As Meade (1991:669) states, it may be time for schools to become responsible for *producing* as well as employing teachers. However meeting the challenge is not straightforward. Schools would need extra expertise, time and resources.

The case for change so that school experiences are more professionally challenging is put by Zeichner (1986:64) as he quotes Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985):

> If schools become places where teachers studied their own practice and were rewarded for doing so, future teachers would be inducted into a professional community where collegiality and experimentation were norms.... future teachers would get the message that learning from teaching was part of the job of teaching.

In light of the above, it is interesting to note that one of the apparent advantages of school-based teacher education programmes is the benefit to the host school (MacLennan and Seadon, 1988; Turney, 1989; Meade, 1991).

While some may wish to question if the development of the host school is a concern for those involved in teacher training, it would appear that studies, such as the four "Ministerial Papers" released in 1983 in Victoria, reinforce the principle that the most effective method of improving educational practice is by focusing on the whole school (Cumming, 1985:2). Similarly, in 1984 the National Invitational Conference in Texas, resulted in three propositions for which there was unanimous agreement. All of the propositions strengthen the need for development in education to be seen as a whole and that teacher education should be viewed as occurring across the professional continuum (Beeson, 1991).

More recent literature indicates that the most significant changes and developments are occurring in relationships between training institutions and schools. The previously referred to change of perspective from supervision to mentoring is indicative of such change. Where once university or training institutions and schools worked independently of each other, now the call is for cooperation - working together for one common goal with the result that all groups benefit from an increased understanding of one another's visions, roles and constraints (D'Arbon, 1993; Dill and Stafford, 1994).

As Hargreaves (1989) asserts, such a combined approach is an attractive alternative to conventional forms of training, because under such an arrangement the profession is taking responsibility for its own new entrants. As such they can make the investment for the long term while, at the same time, providing much needed continuity between initial training and induction into the profession. It is not possible to avoid the importance and consequences of having clearly established goals- both for the teacher trainee course as a whole and for each section of the course as it relates to the whole. This requires comprehensive long term planning which involves all the participating institutions. This may be a challenge which existing institutions find too difficult. It may only be possible through new educational resource facilities who begin with the commitment to cooperation and collaboration or, better still, commence as a joint venture.
Initially, due to its perceived 'technocratic rationality' (Schon, 1982) or 'pedagogy of necessity' (Tinning, 1985) school-based training was not seen to enhance the concept of teaching as a profession. This criticism continues, despite the literature indicating that a training programme for teachers which contains a much larger than usual school-based component, provides increased opportunity to develop unique growth in professionalism both at the school and individual levels (Dill and Stafford, 1994; Furlong, 1994).

School Based Teacher Education and Professionalism.

Given the concern that school-based teacher training may be technocratic, the relationship between professionalism and school-based teacher training needs to be addressed. To argue that school based teacher training does not produce true professionals and is in fact, harmful to the 'profession', appears inappropriate as this next section will demonstrate.

The low status accorded to teachers was mentioned at the beginning of Chapter Two.

> Educationists are morbidly self-conscious about the standing of their profession. They exhort one another to be 'professional-minded', and each one feels his pulse from time to time to make sure it has the right professional beat (Bestor, 1964, in De Jong, 1967).

When recording insights into potential advantages and disadvantages of greater school involvement in initial teacher education in England, Bennett, Jones and Maude (1994:69) found that :

> Schools felt that collaborative ventures between HEI (higher educational institution) and school, joint ownership of the training programme, increased professionalism and expertise would all be seen to raise the standing of teachers in the eyes of the public in general and parent in particular. Many teachers and heads felt that schools which had been 'selected' to train students would benefit from their enhanced image.
>
> Closer teacher involvement in the training of future professionals was seen as personally beneficial for continuing career development, research opportunities, and could also help to create a more united profession.

Those who have been involved in school-based teacher training do not appear to have the same concerns about the effect of such training on teaching as a profession. For example in writing a challenge to Goodlad's criticism of school-based 'alternative' routes into teaching, Dill (1990:199) sees that professionalism is related to the quality of one's teaching - not the source of the preparation. This same idea was suggested in an address given by the then Director-General of Education in 1979. His concern was that the public interest was served by 'ensuring that those who have the responsibility of teaching the nation's children are properly qualified to do so' (Renwick, 1979). In his address he equates unqualified with unsuitable and by so doing suggests that it is the quality and skill of the person which is paramount in determining whether or not one is qualified. This is not dependent on one type of training programme and certainly not dependent on University or College based programmes. The following attributes which he identifies as characteristic of a profession would be very well developed in a school-based programme. (These same attributes have been described by Hoyle (1980), Jarvis (1983) and others.):

- the ideal of service to others. This can be established as teacher trainees observe and work beside another teacher. With this ideal in mind, they can develop an understanding of how to serve in the community, school and classroom.
- the possession of expert knowledge . A clear enunciation of the knowledge and expertise that must be mastered in order to fulfil the role of teacher effectively can be gained from an associate teacher. In school based training, the role of teacher is observed and experienced, and then, in discussion and reflection appropriate and key knowledge, skill and insight are accumulated.
- the expectation of autonomy. As the teacher trainees work from beginner toward expert they will experience increasing autonomy as they take responsibility for making the right decision for particular situations.
- Finally, the matter of self-regulation. This can be put into operation when classroom teachers and school staff are involved in the training of their colleagues; a sense of ownership and responsibility for the future generations of teachers will develop.

The 'new' professionalism interprets the ideal of service to others to mean that the special qualities of the group being served need to be articulated so that they can be accurately served (Smith, 1987). Thus 'professionalism' is not so much a matter related to the style or approach of teacher training as it is to the philosophical beliefs which underpin the nature of the teaching task. Professionalism can be seen to be politically motivated, concerned with working conditions and freeing its adherents from social and economic injustice, or its main concerns can emphasise any one of the characteristics listed above: service, knowledge, autonomy or regulation. If the key to understanding teaching as a profession is to understand the overarching goals and purposes which motivate those involved, there is no reason why effective school-based training will have a negative influence on the public's perception of teaching as a profession. The information available suggests that it will certainly encourage those in the teaching profession to take more responsibility for their younger colleagues and therefore to act more professionally (Bennet et al., 1994).

> As I have discovered repeatedly in the last twelve years, individual teachers and schools as a whole can, by becoming more involved in initial teacher education, begin to transform their practice and culture so as to take greater responsibility for their own professional development. (Furlong, 1994:119)

One reason why this can be said is that a school-based approach to teacher training encourages development of relationships which continue past the initial teacher training stage. This is particularly so when the training is based in a specific district or locality (Dill and Stafford, 1994). In Course B [see Chapter Four] once the teacher trainees were teachers in the field, they offered to be involved with the next intake of teacher trainees. Is this, indeed, a sign of a healthy profession? Similarly the result of Tracey's school-based training left her with a desire to do for others what had been done for her - to become more involved with the training of other teachers. (see P152)

The advantages of school based teacher training to the school are numerous. There are more people to work in the classrooms. Teacher trainees bring new and fresh ideas with them and so pupils and staff benefit in their classes. The staff have a heightened awareness of their responsibility as role models and so tend to give of their best; they have the opportunity and need to think through their practice - bringing their knowledge and philosophy to the surface and they have the opportunity to develop as ongoing learners as they endeavour to teach others, providing a form of in-service education for associate teachers (Tisher, 1990: 73).

So far, the advantages and a few criticisms of school-based initial teacher training have been outlined. However, other concerns expressed in relation to school-based teacher training are: (1) The personal cost to those involved; (2) Incongruence in school and institution expectations; (3) The optimal time in schools, and (4) Finance. Each of these factors is considered below.

The Personal Cost

In the school-based programmes surveyed, there has been a definite 'cost' to those involved, particularly to the associate teachers. One of the pressures which is discussed in the literature is referred to as the 'goldfish bowl' effect. Associate teachers feel the pressure of their vulnerability. When teacher trainees are in the classroom all day for an extended length of time, this brings extra pressure. While this pressure is real, and not to be underestimated, associate teachers in successful school-based programmes still see

that the advantages of a programme outweigh this cost. [see Chapter Five - SBTE from Deakin University].

In order to ensure the continuation of school-based programmes, those who are involved, particularly associate teachers, need to have the following:

i) A commitment to the concept, a vision for teacher training in the school.

In one school where I spoke to teachers involved in school based teacher training, this 'vision' was encapsulated in the following discussion.

Teacher:	"It is such a positive influence, having the students (teacher trainees) in the school. It is so good. "
Visitor:	"In what way is it good?"
Teacher:	"It gives you such a *sense of hope* for the future - knowing that they can *build* on what we have learned."

Teacher trainees could, as has been said before, "Stand on the shoulders of those who have gone before." They do not need to experience all of the mistakes that have been made. This is not to say that they will not make mistakes from which to learn. In fact, it is probably vital that they do make mistakes - otherwise it could be viewed that they are not thinking through and trying new approaches. If they learn well from their associate teachers they will start, in one sense ahead of where the previous generation started.

ii) The supportive environment, which includes people committed to the model, must also include <u>structures</u> which facilitate the success of the programme.

Associate teachers cannot be expected to 'add' their associate teacher role to an already overloaded classroom teacher's role. There must be time allowed when they can be released from their classroom for three types of activities:

a) training in strategies which make their wisdom and knowledge accessible to trainees.

b) attending pivotal lectures or tutorials with the students for which they are responsible.

c) planning, evaluating and reflecting with the teacher trainees.

In his work on Phases of Innovation, Nisbet (1975) points out, that when innovation occurs, there is necessarily, an increased workload; a loss of confidence; increase in

anxiety and an inevitable time of confusion. He makes the comment that if a programme survives this far, it will then attract a rapid backlash coming from far more 'widely organised hostile groups in society'. Any radically different teacher training programme will attract these same pressures and therefore those involved need to be both committed to the approach and to have been given the opportunity to evaluate the likely cost.

Incongruence Between Expectations of Training Institution and School

Comments in the Renwick and Vize study (1991), which resulted from teacher trainees being asked if they thought their teaching experience was co-ordinated with the rest of the college programme, are reflective of the literature. More than half the students interviewed could not give a definitive "yes". The most common concern was the lack of congruence between the types of activities which the College wanted and concurrent school activities.

> What they want us to do here in college and what we actually end up doing in schools is quite different. You have to fit into the teaching programme out there. ...It's hard for the college. We're going into teaching programmes they've had running all year. They can't co-ordinate. Every school is doing different things. They're probably doing the best they can. (Renwick and Vize, 1991:41,42)

Beginning teachers reflecting back on their training wanted,

> Clear links between college courses and teaching practice so that students have relevant practical experience in schools to demonstrate and practise topics covered in college courses at the time of each course, not six months later. (Renwick and Vize, 1993:57)

Some of the activities which were seen, by teacher trainees, to be irrelevant (i.e., copying down a plan of the classroom) were probably viewed in this manner as they were 'just a task to be done' and did not provide a basis for bringing theory to practice. If questions such as "How does the way this classroom is organised reveal the teacher's belief about student participation? teaching methodology?" had been asked then the teacher trainee would be required to think through issues, as would the associate teacher in giving his/her response in answering and discussing such situations with the teacher trainee. Interestingly beginning teachers wished that more courses on setting up a classroom and keeping it running had been included in their training. This incongruence

has in fact been the catalyst to site the whole teacher training course in schools (PGCE Method Course; Dow, 1979: 244).

The third concern identified in this section relates to an optimum length of time which trainees may spend in schools. It is important to remember that the time in schools has an ongoing effect for all participants; the associate teacher, the college personnel and the trainee.

Is there an optimum time in schools?

The literature does not appear to consider the amount of time which would be optimal for teacher trainees to spend in school. However, some conclusions can be drawn. It would appear from the experience with the PGCE Method Course, that it has not been appropriate or workable for them to be there all the time, otherwise school staff suffer what is called 'the goldfish bowl effect' and students become over sensitive to 'using' the school's materials and resources.

When students are in the classroom all the time, it appears that associate teachers become super sensitive to being 'looked at' and their role and relationships become out of focus. It could be perceived as strange that a strength and potential weakness of such a course are described as the same activity - the fact that associate teachers are forced to look at, and explain why they are doing what they are doing is a key, foundational strength of such an approach. And yet, associate teachers do place themselves in a vulnerable position in that their every move is open to scrutiny.

Related readings give the impression that it is important for teacher trainees to have a physical place to which they can 'withdraw' or 'escape'. This place can be a room in the school complex as in College Placement School; on the school grounds in a caravan or other relocatable building as in the programme already referred to in Arizona; or another location such as a university facility as in Course B. It would seem that the physical separation helps the reflection process. In the schools where teacher trainees from Murdoch University undertake their practicum this place of retreat has been provided with the placement of a caravan on the school property. This caravan is seen to be the

Murdoch campus on the school campus and teacher trainees are provided with a place to retreat, equipment to use (i.e., photocopier, computer), and an area with inbuilt video camera to use for activities such as micro-teaching. (from conversation with Brian Hill, Professor of Education at Murdoch University, Perth.)

Such separation, though much smaller than in a traditional programme, probably also helps with identity. Sometimes in the school environment the teacher trainee is required to act as a teacher without the status and position which goes with the title. Teacher trainees list this as one of the things which they find stressful.

The time which teacher trainees spend in school needs to be long enough for them to begin to see some consequences of their own actions - both favourable and unfavourable. Kagan (1992:176) reports that associate teachers dislike the highly segmented nature of the present programme, as it does not allow them to really get to know the teacher trainees who visit their classroom and also because it does not allow the teacher trainee to see the fruits of long term planning. It would appear important for the trainees to have extended periods of time, rather than short 'blocks' so that they experience the rhythms of the school and gain access to and experience of the wider school community. Meade (1991: 662) is one who commits himself to an 'optimal time' for this reason.

> This phase must last for a sustained period of time. In my judgment, an entire school year would be optimal so that the interns could come to understand the full context - the ebb and flow of schooling over the months.

For example, it would appear to be crucial that teacher trainees have the opportunity to observe the commencement of the school year at least once throughout their training. The educators involved in the programme at Australian Catholic University chose a term for school based components of the course so that trainees would experience the 'opening and closing rituals for a school term, to become aware of the way in which classroom situations could be handled long-term, to develop interpersonal relationships with mentors, and closer bonding with the school and its community' (d'Arbon, 1993:62; in McIntyre et al., 1993). Another important factor in these programmes and one which can bring them to a halt, is lack of funds.

It is interesting to note that the criticism which is often levelled at alternative teacher training programmes, including school-based, is that they are put in place to save money, because they are the cheapest option (Jones, 1989). Experience and research do not actually reflect this criticism. MacLennan and Seadon (1988) researched the question, "What Price School Based Work?". Their report listed the need for appropriate and adequate funding as a high priority. Innovative programmes are usually more expensive and the temptation is to trade on the commitment of those people who are 'giving of themselves'. MacLennan and Seadon (1988) warn that this cannot be taken for granted and that the cost of school-based teacher training must be considered carefully[4] . They certainly do not give the impression that school-based provides a cheaper route but suggest that anyone embarking on a school-based programme will need extra finance - particularly in order to provide the necessary support and resources for the associate teachers. For example in Australia, supervising teachers are eligible for a payment in the vicinity of $20 per day. This rate of payment would make long term placements for students exorbitant. Some teachers, committed to the concept of the profession being responsible for the training of the next generation, have regarded their involvement as part of their professional responsibility and declined to apply for the payment.

In summary then, school based teacher education is seen to envelope the following advantages and disadvantages, some of which, though included are not peculiar to school - based teacher training.

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[4] In terms of support and provision, the teacher training at College Placement School appears to have covered the criticisms and concerns expressed about the personal and financial costs of school-based training which MacLennan and Seadon raise - see Chapter Five.

Table One

Advantages and Disadvantages of School-Based Teacher Training

Advantages	**Disadvantages**
*demanding of personnel involved - gives true reflection of the demands of teaching.	* demanding of personnel involved.
*brings challenge and growth to all staff involved - not just to teacher trainee.	* costly
* can encourage critical reflection on the status quo.	* can develop a 'goldfish bowl effect'
* enables students to see some effects and consequences of their choices and involvement.	* can perpetuate a conservative approach to teaching
* due to the development of ongoing relationships, can provide for growth of teacher trainee as an individual.	* can involve conflict between school based goals and those of the 'other' institution.
* gives experience in 'real' context	
Other considerations include:	
* Associate teachers need training if they are to be effective;	
* Teacher Trainees need both experience and training in observation skills if they are to gain maximum advantage from their experience in the school;	
* Support systems need to be put in place for associate teachers and teacher trainees;	
* All those involved need to be committed to a coherent philosophy of life and understanding of the teaching task.	

While there appears to be more acceptance of the notion and principles of school-based teacher training and even acknowledgement of the benefits of school-based training (Maynard and Furlong, 1993, in McIntyre et al. 1993) there are challenges to be faced before the inherent potential will be realised. However, there is also growing confidence, as shown by Dill and Stafford's claim, that school based teacher education 'has the potential to meet all these challenges and in many cases is already doing so' (1994:623).

In fact, Maynard and Furlong (1993) in McIntyre et al. 1993, record that many writers addressing initial teacher training agree that trainees need systematic preparation in

practical classroom knowledge and that this aspect of their training can only be provided by teachers working in their own classrooms and schools. The primary consequence of this statement is that it requires a movement on behalf of the school from a supervisory role to a mentoring[5] role where teachers see themselves as 'practitioners with an active role in the training process' (1993:71).

Consideration of school-based teacher training indicates that while both advantages and disadvantages exist it appears possible to provide effective teacher training through application of the advantageous features. The associate teacher has a vital role, as he/she shoulders much of the responsibility in its implementation. Carefully designed support and training are required to enable personnel to undertake the roles required of them so that weaknesses do not undermine the strengths of a school-based approach. The next chapter focuses on the associate teacher and the need for careful training and provision of support and resources.

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[5] The topic of mentoring is studied in Chapter Four which considers the role of the associate teacher in a school based period of training.

Chapter Four - The Involvement of Classroom Teachers in Initial Teacher Training

In the preceding chapters it has become apparent that a powerful influence in the shaping of teacher trainee's attitudes, expectations, understanding and skill is the associate teacher[1]. This is particularly so in the teacher trainee's perspective and with the move toward more school-based teacher training - will be even more so (Zimpher, 1987; Devaney, 1990; Turney, 1990). In her study considering the purpose of schools, Su reports that the most influential forces in the lives of becoming teachers is their student teaching experience and the associate teachers (1992:152).

This chapter contains a survey of related literature in order to build an understanding of:

the essential personal characteristics for an associate teacher;

the associate teacher's role and function, and

the training which will equip the associate teacher to use his/her influence most effectively.

Mentors, lead teachers, and coaches have been chosen for consideration in an attempt to identify a model associate teacher. *Mentoring* is currently prominent in teacher training literature and is chosen for consideration because of its inherent commitment to relationship, role modelling and visionary influence. The concept of the *lead teacher* is included for its recognition of the classroom teacher who already demonstrates a high level of skill and serves as a catalyst for change. *Coaching* is chosen for its essential attribute of fading, that is equipping the trainees so that they are less and less dependent on the coach. The analogy which is not chosen for consideration is that of the apprentice. This concept has been rejected particularly for the hierarchical and technical images it depicts. The apprenticeship model lacks the reciprocity which is characteristic of school-based teacher training.

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[1] Associate teacher refers to the classroom teacher who has the responsibility of tutoring and leading the teacher trainee in the school. In the literature this role is sometimes referred to as Supervising Teacher or Co-operating Teacher.

Features from the role of mentor, lead teacher and coach are seen to contribute to a description of an effective associate teacher for school-based teacher training and consequently each will be considered in the next section.

Mentoring

Mentoring is a concept which has recently been applied in the business field where a more senior partner takes responsibility for fostering the development of a junior partner. More recently the concept has been applied to education. Mentoring beginning teachers was recorded as one of the two most critical issues for improving teacher education in the First Annual Survey of Critical Issues in Teacher Education of 1990 (Stewart, 1992:222).

The concept of mentoring is said to be based on the attributes of Mentor, the wise friend of King Odysseus in Dante's Divine Comedy. Mentor's job was not merely to raise Telechamus, but to develop him for the responsibilities he was to assume in his lifetime (Shea, 1992). In Mentor's character we find - wisdom, care, trust and commitment to training the next generation (Davis, 1991: 15).

One may think that such ideas are foreign to the education scene. However, in an increased 'market driven' environment where relationships can be one of the first casualties, the application of mentoring to education may bring stability to the teaching force. Certainly Jacobi (1991), who undertook to survey the literature in this field came to the conclusion that, while mentoring had been viewed as 'professional socialisation', it was particularly concerned with enrichment and retention. A commitment to the development of the next generation of professional is a mentoring role and is seen to be one of the characteristics of a profession which teaching currently lacks. Mentors tend to be people with a long 'time' reference plan. They are not so interested in the immediate reward but are prepared to work for the future .

The training of future teachers, is by and large undertaken by staff who are not concurrently teaching in the milieu where school teachers teach and this has already been noted by some to be to the detriment of the profession (Warnock, 1988; Berry and

Ginsberg, 1990). Many references have been made to the importance of developing ongoing relationships with teacher trainees. Since a mentor relationship is likely to continue as the teacher trainee embarks upon his/her classroom teaching career, the transition from trainee to teacher appears to be easier (Dinham and Strutter, 1986). This is seen in Chapter Five with Tracey who was surrounded by the key people from her training as she began teaching. It is worth noting that teacher trainees who are mentored rather than supervised, look to provide the same level of support and relationship they experienced for future intakes of trainees. In other words, they become like their mentors and are committed to training the next generation of professionals.
Two thirds of the published references to mentoring in the 1980s concentrate on mentoring as a principal component of induction programmes (Little, 1991:321). For teacher training, the implementation of mentoring can take different forms, depending on the goals of a programme. For example in California's Mentor Teacher Program, the emphasis is on career incentives for individual teachers in terms of monetary reward for those who become involved. In Connecticut, mentor roles were introduced as an essential feature of the state's new procedures for teacher certification and induction. Here teacher mentors were expected to help prepare beginning teachers to satisfy the state's criteria for certification in 15 competency areas (Little, 1991:301).

What then is a mentor? While there appears to be a wide range of components in definitions and no consensus over fields of inquiry, five of the eight definitions which Jacobi (1991) surveys mention the concept of role model as a function of mentoring. Other common strands are those of acceptance, support and encouragement; guidance and advice, and training and instruction. The following two definitions are included as representative.

> Mentoring as a function of education institutions can be defined as a one-to-one learning relationship between an older person and a younger person that is based on modelling behaviour and extended dialogue between them. (Lester and Johnson (1981), in Jacobi, 1991:119)

> By our definition, mentoring is a form of professional socialisation whereby a more experienced (usually older) individual acts as a guide, role model, teacher and patron of a less experienced (usually younger) protegé.

> The aim of the relationship is the further development and refinement of the protegé's skills, abilities and understanding. (Moore and Amey (1988), in Jacobi, 1991:45)

Role modelling is not a new idea. The method of learning used in times past was based on the concept of role modelling (Stones, 1987). Each person would be trained by another who was more skilled, more knowledgeable and further along the developmental path. It is only relatively recently that the concept of role modelling has been out of favour. Recent writing would claim that it is a key to effective teacher training (d'Arbor, 1993; Dill and Stafford, 1994). The Department of Education clearly instigated the need for more thought on this matter in 1979 when it recorded:

> The efficacy of in-school training varies considerably and success depends on the skill and personality of the associate teacher. (In Battersby and Ramsay, 1990:32)

The examples of school-based teacher training included in Chapter Five reflect the importance of having the opportunity to observe and interact with a master teacher model. Denemark and Rutter (1984) see this to be more influential than any other component in the teacher training process.

> Beyond the demands of knowledge and skill is the ultimate expectation that teachers become models or mentors for those they instruct. They must exemplify in their behaviour the qualities they seek to engender in others. This expectation is nowhere more legitimate than in the process of teacher preparation (1984: 238).

Similarly, Dill and Stafford (1994) note that the trainee teacher

> sees in the master teacher model a form of training that is itself an example of empowered teaching and professional responsibility (1994:623).

Mentoring includes role modelling, but also has a sense of commitment and investment within a reciprocal relationship in which the mentor, as well as the protegé, derives benefits (Erkut and Mokros, 1984; Daloz, 1986; Jacobi, 1991). The mentor is vulnerable as s/he makes available to the mentored her/his skill, knowledge, character, dreams and expertise.

Having responsibility for the training of others brings an increased sense of accountability. Talking about 'The Program for Learning Competent Teaching', an

innovative programme where Flagstaff School District and Northern Arizona University share the responsibility for preparing the best teachers possible, a principal said:

> Our teachers realise their importance as role models. As a result, they conduct themselves professionally - even in the lounge (VerVelde, Horn and Steinshouer , 1991).

A mentor is committed to influencing others by the example of his/her life. This involves more than skills, though skills are important. It involves character, enthusiasm and vision. The distinguishing characteristic of 'good' mentors appears to be *their willingness to care - about what they teach and whom* (Daloz, 1986:18). Consequently they engender trust in those for whom they model. The mentor is a source of encouragement and support who is able to give constructive criticism in a manner which produces vision and commitment.

One of the criticisms of teacher training programmes is often that they are not demanding enough - either in content or contact time. When a teacher trainee is with a teacher/mentor for an extended length of time, one aspect that they will see modelled is that teaching is hard work. Students will not collect this impression if they dabble in what Wilson (1990) calls "Kamikaze data-collection visits". These do not develop a realistic picture of what the teaching task is about. It would appear that this can only be achieved with time and relationship in the classroom. The role-model aspect of the associate teacher and mentor is a key to not producing conservative, non-reflective, non-thinking teachers.

> If I am the type of teacher I want them to become, I can't tell them these things about teaching and learning and knowing - I have to *teach* them these things. My students learn as much from how I act as they do from the content I provide. If I want them to understand the nature of pedagogical reasoning, for example, I can describe it, but I also need to construct settings in which they can engage in such reasoning and begin to develop the necessary skills. Moreover, I have to consider my own beliefs about teaching and learning to teach, in addition to my students' beliefs about teaching and learning to teach. I have to look in my own mirror- a difficult task in itself. I have to model that mirror-gazing for my students, letting them watch me watch myself (Wilson, 1990: 208).

The point of a mentoring relationship is to challenge one with new ways of thinking and doing things, so that the result is change and growth (Davis, 1991:29).

The concept of mentor is a far cry from the classroom teacher whose task it is to provide 'students with classes on which to practise their teaching skills' (Booth, 1993:186). The mentor is required to provide more than supervision. Leadership by example and committed involvement are seen to be pivotal to effective teacher training. For this reason we consider the characteristics of Lead Teachers.

Lead Teachers

The concept of 'lead teacher' appears to have been motivated by the report *'A Nation at Risk'* and has been developed further in consequent reports (Berry and Ginsberg, 1990:616). A lead teacher is to 'guide and influence the activities of other teachers and serve as a catalyst for the decisions other teachers make that affect student performance directly' (Berry and Ginsberg, 1990:618). As with the concept of mentor, the concern with the development of lead teachers was to attract and retain talented teachers who the schools of the future would need. The title, lead teacher, recognises the staff member who when working with others demonstrates more skill, knowledge, energy, adaptability and helpfulness to others (Bird and Little, 1985:22). Berry and Ginsberg argued that the notion of lead teachers could be used to overcome the technical and political problems involved in the implementation of 1980s style, merit pay and career ladder systems which had as their focus, 'attracting, rewarding and retaining talented teachers' (1990:616). According to Berry and Ginsberg (1990:617), research consistently shows that :

> ..teachers value more highly the intrinsic rewards associated with helping students succeed, than the extrinsic rewards associated with a pay-check.

While characteristics of lead teachers are common with those listed for mentors, specifically they are those who have vision or a sense of mission. Lead teachers are identified because they are prepared to explore ideas and new ways of approaching situations (Devaney, 1987).

While involved in the leadership of a school mentoring and coaching other teachers, lead teachers participate in regular classroom teaching so that they do not 'lose contact with the experiences that shape the work of their colleagues' (Berry and Ginsberg, 1990: 618).

As with mentoring, being in a position of leadership does not ensure successful leadership (Bird and Little, 1985; Kennedy, 1991). Training is vital and the importance and nature of such training will be discussed later in this chapter.

It is important for the teacher trainee to move from a relationship of dependence to interdependence and in this regard the notion of coaching has valuable insight to contribute.

Coaching:

Coaching is seen by Collins et al. (1991) to have a contribution to make to teaching. When applied to teacher training, the accomplished teacher would coach the novice through a wide range of activities such as choosing tasks, providing hints and support, evaluating the novice's activities and diagnosing the problems encountered, challenging and offering encouragement and feedback, structuring the ways to do things and working on particular weaknesses which are revealed.

Coaching involves what is termed 'fading' (Collins et al., 1991). This term is used to refer to the notion of slowly removing support and giving the trainee more and more responsibility. The coach is trained to make his/her knowledge available to the trainee. It has already been noted that ensuring that personal knowledge is available to others is not automatic and just as for mentors and lead teachers, training is needed to ensure successful coaching occurs.

It is suggested that the qualities and roles identified for the mentor, lead teacher and coach correspond to the desirable qualities for an associate teacher. The following chart is an attempt by the writer to draw together the desirable characteristics from the various models.

Table Two
KEY CHARACTERISTICS FOR MENTORS, COACHES
AND LEAD TEACHERS

Mentoring	Coaching	Leading
engenders trust	supportive, provides 'scaffolding'	respected and accepted by peers
can model	demonstrates, models	proven teacher - model
issues a challenge can train others	challenges, evaluates and diagnoses.	skilled at communication
provides encouragement and support	provides encouragement, feedback.	strong interpersonal skills
offers vision provides guidance	offers hints, evaluation and tuition/training.	highly skilled in teaching and knowledgeable in subject areas.

It can be noted, on the basis of the above comparison of mentor, lead teacher and coach, that the ability to gain a trainee's trust and respect and to model effectively the management, philosophy or skills under discussion, are important attributes for the associate teacher. Similarly the chart indicates that it is important that the associate teacher is a skilled communicator, particularly in the provision of feedback, encouragement and guidance with the ability to challenge one's thinking and assumptions.

Research in Australia by Price and Stellars (1985) which focuses on supervision, indicates that excellent supervisors use basic principles of clinical supervision in that they are 'collegial, non-directive and supportive and seek to foster professional autonomy in students under their care'. Teacher educator commentators[2] and teacher trainees[3] identify common crucial characteristics for effective associate teachers. They are seen to need a capacity to nurture the novice, to be professionally and personally capable of

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[2] For example see Edward J. Meade, Junior (1990:668); Switzer (1976), Frank, Long Keithley and Hoffman (1982).

[3] Stevens and Smith (1978); Renwick and Vize (1990) are examples of those who report on teacher trainees' views.

having their own classroom performance observed, questioned and criticised. They need to be constantly trying different instructional strategies in an effort to meet the changing learning needs of their students, and all of this needs to happen in a manner which orients the teacher trainee to the school as a whole. In his summary of the role of associate teachers, Price suggests that they need to be involved in each practicum period in all aspects of the trainee's teaching, from initial planning to post-lesson analysis and evaluation (1989:20).

In summary, the role of an associate teacher could be described as providing assistance to the pre-service teacher in working through the processes of analysing and clarifying individual and cultural experiences, meanings, perceptions, assumptions, prejudgments, and presuppositions in an environment which allows the craft of an effective teacher to be modelled and developed.

It is accepted that the scope and quality of school experiences has a major impact on the development of teaching skills and attitudes, and yet until recently very little attention in educational research has been given to consideration of exactly what it is that happens in the practicum and especially to the role of the associate teacher.

In Phase Two of Renwick and Vize's (1991: 6, 43) Windows on Teacher Education, they report:

> Many students consider their associate teachers to be the most important influence on their teaching style.

and

> The value of teaching experience is largely dependent on the particular associate.

And yet:

> In most cases, the supervising teacher has had little or no training in how to 'supervise', to mentor, or to be a clinician (Meade, 1991).

Waxman and Walberg (1986) found that as many as 41% of the teacher education institutions that responded to a survey indicated that they neither required nor provided any preparation or training for supervising teachers who worked with pre-service

teachers in early field experiences. The same result was found in New Zealand by Battersby (1989) who, when conducting an evaluation of the requirements for certification, found that the majority of associate teachers in his study received no formal or in-service training and yet were expected to provide effective programmes of advice and guidance for beginning teachers. As a result, a recommendation was made that 'urgent provision' be made for the training of associate teachers.

An investigation into the school-based experience which teachers training as secondary specialists received found that associate teachers, who were responsible for up to one third of the course, varied greatly in their perception of their role (Booth, 1987). Out of experiences such as this has come a strong recommendation supporting training for associate teachers in order that they understand the role and responsibility they have in initial teacher education. The next section considers the type of training which is required for the potential to be realised.

Training for Associate Teachers

It may be surprising to find that training for such teachers is not always welcomed. For example, Newman (1985) reporting on the co-operation between schools and training institutions found that when attempts to provide structured in-service courses focussed on supervision procedures, they were unsuccessful. This was either due to industrial problems concerning teacher release or because of time, travel and cost involved. Newman (1985:76) makes the following crucial claim:

> ..it does demonstrate the point that co-operation between training institutions and schools does not simply happen. It must proceed from some clearly conceived model and from genuine respect for the professional opinions of all those involved.

Also closed to further training are those who see an appointment to a position such as associate, co-operating, lead or mentor teacher to be a signal that a high level of professional capacity has already been attained.

However, as is already recorded, the need for such training is almost universally accepted. (Applegate and Lasley, 1982; Newman, 1985; Thies-Sprinthall, 1986; Waxman and Walberg, 1986; Solomon, 1987; Zimpher, 1989; 1990). As is indicated

many argue that this role requires the employment of specialist and often, unfamiliar skills in order to enable others to benefit from the associate teacher's skill, insight and knowledge. Also associate teachers need to be skilled in order to help teacher trainees observe and analyse practice.

The claim is made that programmes produce teachers with better characteristics where training and support is provided for associate teachers in a school-based training model (Peck and Tucker, 1973:9).

Once teachers with the desired personal traits and attributes are chosen to function as associate teachers, the particular areas for which they need training include :

- understanding their role in the teacher trainee's development;
- making their personal professional knowledge and insight available to trainees;
- developing the ability to encourage reflection on the process of the teacher trainee's socialisation (Price, 1987) , and,
- analysing school and classroom life to identify principles which can be applied in other situations (Stones, 1984; Boydell, 1986).

Based on a study of school-based programmes described as 'highly successful', Kennedy (1991:16) has constructed a list of domains for associate teacher training. The resultant list provides the framework for the next section.

Kennedy suggests the following domains for associate teacher training:

- the art and task of mentoring;
- the goals and purposes of teaching;
- academic content of the teacher trainee course, and
- how to reason pedagogically.

Each of these will now be considered.

The art and task of mentoring in initial teacher training

This means taking responsibility for the growth and development from teacher trainee to beginning teacher through to experienced teacher. The provision of feedback is a crucial

strategy in mentoring and Joyce (1967) found that associate teachers need extensive training if they are to give effective, constructive feedback.

One way of approaching mentoring is through the discussion of a job description. In his material on mentoring, Davis (1991) presents a job description[4] of a mentor which identifies key themes from previous material in this thesis: themes such as the importance and role of vision, commitment, reflection, the provision of appropriate role models and feedback. Hopkins (1982) also wrote a job description for a co-operating (associate) teacher in which he highlighted the need to:

1. Accept the student as a colleague;
2. Plan with the student;
3. Observe the student conducting instruction;
4. Provide feedback for the student;
5. Evaluate the student;
6. Acquaint the student with instructional materials.

One receives the impression that while there are many common ideas, the above outline for the co-operating teacher is less based on ongoing relationship and more on the necessity of a task to be done.

One skill a mentor needs is the ability to model critical reflection and teach its component attributes to the teacher trainee. This thesis has already highlighted the fact that there is not a lot of critical reflection occurring in teacher trainees' lives - even after courses instructing them in the associated skills. The lack of 'live adult exemplars' is given as the reason for this undesirable result. Consequently, it is seen that another important area to be included in the training of associate teachers is this vital area of reflection. As Solomon (1987:272, 273) indicates, critical reflection must be part of the associate teacher's lifestyle.

> On the contrary they[5] suggest that it is the real practitioners, the teachers themselves, who should be helped to become reflective about their work

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[4] The job description is included as Appendix V. for the potential it appears to have for further development in the area of teacher training

[5] they = recommendations from research.

> so that they can take over the vital early phase in the professionalisation of student teachers. This may require a brief challenging phase of in-service training for some 'mentor' teachers, in which they attempt to make their own craft knowledge accessible.
>
> Their craft knowledge is needed to help students cope in the classroom and their enthusiasm for continual reflection, bordering on teacher action research, will be the summit of practitioner good practice for the training of new teachers.

One tool which is helpful for critical reflection and in the skills of which associate teachers need to be trained is the keeping of a journal (Holly, 1984). Journals provide a tool for ongoing reflection and development of theoretical thought and cohesiveness. The use of such a tool is illustrated clearly in Course B (Melbourne), SBTE (Deakin) as well as the PGCE course from Britain (Chapter Five). If teacher training is going to change the focus so that practice identifies the issues which theory addresses, then training in the use of such a tool appears to be most necessary.

The importance of reflective activity has received much attention. In a document outlining the educational premises of the Diploma of Education at the University of Queensland, one reads:

> Students should develop the ability to reflect on their practice and on learning and pedagogical theory. Reflection here entails the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or practice in the light of the grounds that support it and the further consequences to which it leads (Hansford, 1990: 134).

To be effective in this activity certainly requires deliberation and understanding the goals and purposes which underpin the teaching task.

The Goals and Purposes of Teaching

It would normally be assumed that teacher training programmes are based upon a set of stated principles. It is of concern that the literature read in the preparation for this thesis reflects an absence of such.

The reader's attention is drawn to the importance placed on the development of a coherent statement of philosophy in the College Placement School, Seattle[6]. For those involved in the provision and receipt of teacher training there needs to be two such statements:

> One statement would address the overarching purposes of education and the role that teaching holds in such provision.
>
> The second statement would identify principles which relate to the teacher training programme itself.

Overarching Purposes of Education

A statement concerning the overarching purposes of education will reflect philosophical perspectives about the nature of the teaching task as discussed in Chapter One, and within the framework of this thesis, would outline the 'special character' of a school or group of schools.

The following statements concerning the purpose of school from a special character school in Texas and a special character school from Australia, are examples of a statement of this first dimension.

> Our main purpose as a school is to be a positive influence on Christian families. To make this goal a reality, the school requires the families to be involved in the educational process. The desire to be of service to the family is at the heart of many of our policies. Real education is the process of learning God's truth. As the goal of education is to bring glory to God, the academics are not an end in themselves, but a means to an end; the goal being Christ-likeness in character. The academics are used as the tool through which the student can obtain this goal and are used to teach the student how to live, not just how to make a living. *Agape Prep School Prospectus.*

and,

> I believe that the great aim of education is the raising of individual lives and of society as a whole to freer, nobler, and happier forms of living. This implies that the central objective of a school is to cultivate the growth of each individual child so that he may attain full self realisation within an evolving community. *Philosophy of ERA School, Melbourne.*

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[6] See Chapter Five for further information.

In the above quotes, different positions are chosen to highlight the differences philosophy makes to the delivery of an educational programme. It is clear that selection of staff, type and regularity of communication with parents, types of teaching activities and resources used, will vary greatly based on one of the above philosophical statements. A similar statement from a Teacher Training Institution would have the same effect.

Principles related to the Teacher Training Programme

A second statement of principles would be those which relate to the teacher training programme itself. They are important because of their implications for course design, implementation and delivery. For example, the following five propositions outline the principles underlying the teacher training at Monash University. They provided the basis for negotiating curriculum for a ten week school based experience which saw trainees incorporated into the total life of the school.

1. The prospective teacher has needs which must be considered in planning and implementing the program. The nature and intensity of these needs shift during the pre-service program.

2. The transition from learner to teacher is a fundamental perspective and difficult to achieve. It is greatly facilitated by having intending teachers work closely with their colleagues.

3. The student is a learner who is actively constructing views of teaching and learning based on personal experiences and strongly shaped by perceptions held before entering the program.

4. The program should model the teaching/learning approaches being advocated.

5. Student teachers should see the pre-service program as worthwhile educational experience but by definition it is only the first stage in a career which requires continual professional development.

Hansford (1990: 136)

As a result of working from such a statement, a curriculum for the teacher trainees' ten week school experience was negotiated in such a way as to build the trainees into the total life of a school .

A much shorter statement guided the SBTE course at Deakin University.

> The program aimed to develop inquiring, questioning individuals who gained not just the knowledge and skills aspects of learning/teaching, but were prepared to challenge and question what was to be taught and the generally accepted teaching procedures. (Dobson et al.,1983: 36)

When developing these types of statements, it would appear to be important for a training institution to include associate teachers as vital contributors and participators. In this way they will be more likely to *own* the resultant programme and consequently be thoroughly committed to its implementation. With the expectation of an expanded role, as well as critical reflection skill and an indepth knowledge and understanding of the goals and puposes of teaching, associate teachers need to have knowledge of and input into the academic content of the course.

Academic Content of the Course

The reason associate teachers need to have access to the expectations and content of the course is so that the incongruence between college and school can be overcome. The involvement of the teachers at College Placement School both as lecturers in the university programme and attending key lectures with students is a start but does not go far enough. Teachers need to have access to summarised documentation containing prescriptors for the course content. One course currently offered in New Zealand gives each associate teacher (and trainee) a copy of the course document as registered with New Zealand Qualifications Authority (Private communication, 1994). At the very least associate teachers need to have an overview document which includes the attributes that Galluzo and Pankratz (1989) write about under the title, FIVE ATTRIBUTES OF A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM KNOWLEDGE BASE. The attributes described provide the associate teacher with further understanding of the programme with which they are electing to be involved. The first attribute to be identified relates to the *beliefs that guide programme development.* According to Galluzo and Pankratz (1989:13), "The most important of these beliefs is the faculty's belief about the purpose of the schools where their graduates will teach and the role(s) these graduates should be prepared to fulfil in these schools." Throughout this thesis it has been noted that very little attention is given in traditional teacher education programmes to the nature of the teaching task and the expectations that society has for the teacher. Providing a statement

about the overarching purpose of education will provide, as it were a map for those involved in the course - identifying the beginning and destination for the journey.

The second desired attribute is *the statement of an organising theme* which reflects the ultimate purpose of the programme. This organising theme should communicate the thread that holds the courses and experiences together. It will fill the need for a philosophical base from which to critique and reflect all aspects of the course.

Thirdly, Galluzo and Pankratz suggest that *programme outcomes and evaluation processes need to be identified.* Here one needs to answer the question " What knowledge, skills and dispositions should the beginning teacher possess?" A review of the literature in this field (such as Reynolds[7], 1992), supports the position that a clear identification of what trainees should enter the first year of teaching with is paramount in order to provide direction, clarification and a basis for evaluation in teacher training.

Given evidence that practising teachers do not read extensively, Galluzo and Pankratz suggest that the fourth desirable attribute is the provision of a *Professional Bibliography.* This would be a set of source documents that the faculty agree contains the essential knowledge which a graduate needs to make informed decisions. To claim that a programme has a knowledge base, it must have references that systematically undergird it. In short, there can be no knowledge base without source documents. Providing the associate teacher with such documents within a supportive framework which ensures that they are read and understood, will go a long way to providing the desired sense of coherence throughout the course.

How to Reason Pedagogically

The final area identified by Kennedy (op cit) for associate teacher training is how to reason pedagogically. This requires the associate teacher to be able to bring theory to the specific experience of the classroom. This is identified by those involved in school based teacher training as the area in which their main insecurities exist. They feel uncertain of their ability to offer sufficient understanding of the theories which underpin

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[7] See Reynolds 1992:12 for a list of reasonable expectations of beginning teachers.

practice. Teacher trainees find it difficult to gain access to the associate teacher's experiential knowledge base (Maynard and Furlong, 1993, in Mcintyre et al., 1993). Consequently, strengthening the associate teacher in this field, may have the potential to strengthen the whole teaching profession. Regular meetings and input from college and university persons as well as ongoing personal study and reading could provide opportunity to reason pedagogically. The associate teacher needs to possess the skill of bringing generalisations or theory both out from, and to experiences. Theory is seen to encompass the beliefs, including the philosophical basis, pedagogical assumptions, conceptual understanding and rationale related to such questions as what should be taught, why teach it and how to teach it effectively (Fullan, 1985).

In this component, associate teachers would deepen their understanding and awareness of topics such as the pedagogical implications of cultural differences among children and teaching strategies for a range of situations. Much has been written recently of the need to teach more effectively, to develop students with higher order thinking skills, to solve problems and use technology. Associate teachers could attend with the trainee teacher key lectures/seminars which address topics such as the above and experience a variety of approaches, discuss the implications of their application in their classroom and then evaluate those they endeavour to use. All of this can occur as the associate teachers work alongside teacher trainees so that the pedagogical thinking and assessment which is a continual part of the teacher's life, is available to the teacher trainee for critical reflection and modelling. Working this way provides:

> valuable in-service for teachers - they get new ideas and their involvement is a valuable professional boost to self esteem. At the same time it's challenging; teachers need to keep their own practice under review and they need to 'stay on the ball'. (Associate teacher's comment in Bennett et al., 1994:68)

The advantages appear many, as a requirement to tell others about classroom management provides an opportunity for personal critical reflection and evaluation of the same.

Throughout this thesis it has become clear that the associate teacher holds a very important place and role in the training of teachers, particularly if that training is going to take place in the schools. Arguments in this and previous chapters show that it is vital that such people receive training and support for this role and that both institutions

(training institution and school) recognise the need to be involved in long term co-operative planning.

In summary, we find that in order to be an effective teacher educator based in a school, one needs to be secure and confident about one's own teaching; have the ability to explain it in terms which are meaningful to very inexperienced teacher trainees; and be able to cope with aspects of one's teaching being continually observed, questioned and investigated. The previous chapters have identified concerns and inadequacies in current campus based initial teacher training and suggested an alternative programme which is suited particularly for schools with special character. In this chapter, the role of the associate teacher is confirmed as pivotal and in order to be implemented successfully, supportive conditions and training need to be in place.

It is valuable to consider the experience of some who have endeavoured to implement school-based teacher training programmes, as well as the programmes themselves. Consequently, the next chapter is dedicated to looking at two such programmes in Australia, teacher trainees' perceptions of courses in Britain; the already referred to course at College Placement School, Seattle and a New Zealand registered teacher's reflections on her school-based training in the outer Wellington area.

Chapter Five - School Based Programmes in Operation

It has been claimed that school based teacher training programmes provide beginning teachers with a better understanding of the complex school environment. They also gain a greater awareness of the relationship between theory and practice as well as an increased level of confidence and a network of relationships which continue from training to teaching. One advantage identified in the literature has been the enrichment of the total school community which chooses to be involved in this alternative method of training teachers.

In order to provide a measure of understanding concerning the workability of school-based teacher training, this chapter presents insight into school based programmes in Australia, Britain, USA and New Zealand. Two programmes are considered from the educators' viewpoint (SBTE, Australia and College Placement School, USA); another programme presents the student's viewpoint (Course B- Dow, 1979, Australia) and the other two ((PGCE, Furlong) Britain and A Teacher Reflects. . . , New Zealand) reflect the teacher trainee's perspective.

1. The School Based Teacher Education (SBTE) programme from Deakin University, Geelong, Australia.

The first programme to be considered developed from concerns and considerations within the School of Education Faculty at Deakin University, Australia. One underpinning belief in the programme was that teacher trainees ought to become more autonomous in the process of their own professional development. Thus, the foundational concept was that of the ***inquiring trainee teacher - inquiring into personally meaningful teaching problems and issues.*** Teaching was to be presented as a problematic endeavour, and the primary source of teaching problems would be each teacher trainee's interactions in his/her associate teacher's classroom. Problems and issues were to be identified and defined in a supportive process of data collection, discussion and reflection involving teacher trainees, classroom, tutors and children.

The programme began in 1982 and was based around four interrelated themes.

A). Teacher trainees developing as professional teachers.

The felt need was expressed in a report by Henry:

> We need to move towards a situation in which the professional development of student teachers via the practicum becomes more of a collaborative enterprise between the training teacher (and the coordinator), the supervisor and the student. Teachers and supervisors need to establish a more equitable relationship with each being aware of the skills and knowledge the other brings into that relationship. Student teachers should be encouraged to adopt a learning, problematic orientation towards their teaching methods. (1985: 4)

B). The development of tutor and associate teacher roles.

Tutors and teachers were expected to act as facilitators or guides in the process of problem clarification and subsequent resolution. This meant that they were expected to bring their knowledge to bear, not as experts providing ready-made solutions, but as experienced advisers and critical friends intent on nurturing the teacher trainee's autonomy in the process of professional development. The expectation that this would cause difficulties for all concerned proved to be right. Henry et al (1984:12) explain that the students' expectation was for a passive learning mode within a lecture centred context; while the methodological expectations of the associate teachers and tutors required a shift toward a less hierarchical and more collaborative learning situation. Obviously it is impossible to match the two expectations and difficulties arose. .

C). The school as a training/development base.

Contact with the university had aroused intensive professional development within the school, with the opportunity for everyone in the school community to be involved. The school was not to be seen in the same way as a laboratory, experimental or model school. Rather, at the very heart of the matter was the notion of a school functioning as an ordinary school. Teachers were viewed as professionals and interaction between school and university a two-way process of development, not a one way process where the university prescribed ideas to be tried or applied.

D). Research into the theory and practice of research based teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels.

The Deakin University was interested in pursuing the School Based Teacher Education (SBTE) programme as a significant teacher education innovation. It was the belief that SBTE would bridge the gap between the school and the university.

In the first year of SBTE selection was not available to first year students. A representative selection of ten teacher trainees was made from 19 volunteers. The associate teachers were from one school and they negotiated guide-lines for their involvement in the programme - basically protecting the school's policy, course and programme from pressure to change from 'the outsider'. Discussion was held with the associate teachers about the rationale of the pilot programme, organisational arrangements and the anticipated roles for each individual involved - i.e., associate teacher, tutor, teacher trainee.

Very early in the first year those involved felt encouraged. Positive feedback related to such topics as: trainees being more child-oriented in their approach to teaching; more aware of the complexities and uncertainty of teaching and Deakin supervisors more aware of what happens in schools. Negative feedback identified the fact that some associate teachers began the programme with unrealistically high expectations of trainees and some Deakin tutors were dissatisfied with the amount of time they had been able to spend at the school due to work loads in their normal programme. A need for a period of intensive involvement at the outset of the school-based phase of the programme became pivotal. These perceptions remained constant throughout the programme.

Negotiation of course components and approach was driven by a commitment to not impose a preconceived programme on trainees. This required a different approach:

> Involving students in a consideration of the meaning and purpose of specific changes directly addresses the knowledge, skills and behaviours that relate to the educational objectives in question. It is not so much that teachers and students should spend time away from the curriculum in order to do this. It is more that this can be part of the curriculum. (Fullan, 1982: 21)

Despite difficulties, the 'integrated, problem-oriented, negotiated base of the program' remained non-negotiable. This approach created challenges in the evaluation of trainees.

Trainees were organised to have two ten week blocks in school - each of which was followed by a two week 'debriefing' period back at the university. The teacher trainees were introduced to the concept of Action Research and Journal Keeping and as part of the preparation for the school-based component, the teacher trainee undertook a task to define their terminology of teaching. This exercise was an attempt to surface trainees' beliefs about teaching. They were constantly asked to think about what they were doing and why.

Programme design saw teacher trainees allocated in pairs to an associate teacher. For the first ten week period the teacher trainees spent the equivalent of two full days over Tuesday to Thursday in the school. The teacher trainees negotiated the most appropriate times with the associate teachers so that they had ample opportunities for observing and teaching. The notions of clinical supervision and action research influenced component activities. Teacher trainees took turns to act as observers of their peer in the classroom. They also kept reflective notes about their teaching. Two tutorials a week were organised where teacher trainees were expected to set the agenda and focus on their inquiries in the classroom; thus providing a practice-related forum for sharing data, analysing and discussing events contained in the data and proposing further action steps. Trainees were also involved in seminars on the other lunchtimes; the agenda for which was to reflect teaching, curriculum interests, concerns out of their teaching practice, and experiences in the classroom and school. In the main, these seminars were taken by the students themselves and proved extremely demanding in terms of time and thought. They had to draw on the relevant literature to their topic and thus the seminars acted as a conduit to a wider world of theory for the students in the SBTE programme. This seminar time also became a time of growth for associate teachers and school staff who were made welcome.

At the end of the first year, the associate teachers wrote an article[1] in which they identified the main objectives of the programme:

I. to promote a reflective view of teaching.

II. to implement action steps as a follow up to the development of this reflective view.

III. to develop strategies of teaching to enhance process learning as opposed to attaining an end product.

IV. to develop inquiry learning within the classroom structure give an overall view of school structure, routine and general environment

In their evaluation they concluded that the concept of learning was based on the idea of developing process learning rather than achieving an end product and consequently trainees were not so prone to 'perform' for the visiting tutor or associate teacher.

As would be expected, the role of an associate teacher was pivotal. It was the associate teacher's responsibility to provide trainees with experience in classroom organisation, a variety of curriculum areas, teaching methods and techniques, and an insight into the general organisation of the school. The fact that this was a 'school based program' was seen to enable the associate teachers to provide a more realistic picture of school life for students in comparison with the traditional school experience. It was also the responsibility of the associate teachers to justify what they taught in terms of their own educational ideas and philosophies. As the programme progressed it became obvious that the more 'open' about teaching the associate teacher was, the more it benefited their own professional development.

The programme continued in 1983 with another intake of trainees and another associate school. However, what emerged clearly from the 1982 pilot programme was the fact that it was difficult to be innovative and maintain the research impetus. 'Forces at work' tended to turn the thrust of the programme away from a critical, reflective research orientation towards a more practice-based, group 'apprenticeship'.

> Critical analysis of teaching behaviours and curriculum events is not an accustomed activity for student teachers, teachers and even education tutors. The motivation to adopt teaching techniques that 'work' in an

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[1] The article, Evaluative Comment on a School-Based Teacher Education Program, was published in the Australian Journal of Teaching Practice, Volume 3 Number 2, 1983. The article's evaluative summary is included in this thesis as Appendix Four.

> authoritarian management and control sense is strong in schools, and is felt acutely by most student teachers. Tutors and teachers are also influenced by this management conception of schooling when faced with the immediacy of what can be volatile classroom events. Advice and emphasis on teaching techniques and activities that 'work' can at times dominate. (Henry et al., 1984: 70)

The general overview was that while the 1983 SBTE program provided the student-participants with excellent opportunities for development as teachers, and the students were not disadvantaged, the promise of the productive beginnings in 1982 were not realised (Henry et al., 1984:70).

The new roles required contained challenges for the tutors. For some, the key role of facilitator was not one with which they were comfortable. Other tutors interpreted it to mean a 'passive' non involved role and thus found it unrewarding and for some, the time tension between on campus activities and school based activities was too demanding. Some associate teachers reported that it took the full first semester in the program to understand how SBTE was different from the conventional practicum.

> An extended induction process for interested associate teachers involving students and tutors seems to be an appropriate strategy. (Henry et al., 1984: 78)

Organisational issues were a source of stress. For example, the equivalent of two full days spread over three days was fragmented and may have been better if arranged so that students had two complete days in school and the third day for seminars and tutorials. Previously the tutorials and seminars were held in lunch times and this meant for the teacher involved either a conflict of interest due to a previous commitment during the lunchtime or a non lunch break for three days in a row. Teachers found it unsettling not knowing when tutors were visiting.

In response to my inquiry as to the legacy of this programme ten years later, Dr Henry wrote on 24th July, 1992:

> The School-Based Teacher Education Project was a significant development in the thinking about curriculum and pedagogical issues in pre-service teacher education at Deakin University. The program did not continue as a separate program beyond 1985. However, its influence has been profound in the continuing on-campus pre-service program. The experience of the SBTE program also had a marked influence on the subsequent work I, with others, did

> in developing community-based teacher education programs for Aboriginal teachers and student teachers from 1986 to the present time. . . . .
>
> The notion of 'task' as the generative force for the student teacher's study experience and curriculum development originated with the SBTE, as did the notion of the 'generalist tutor'. Both concepts have been important in those programs developed since the SBTE program. Currently, the on-campus pre-service program engages its students through research tasks. As you see the SBTE lives on in various guises. (Private correspondence, 1992)

The unique aspect of this approach relates to the requirement for teacher trainees to identify a challenge, problem or situation which arose in their practical work and use it as a springboard for research. At the conclusion of their research, they presented their findings at a lunch time seminar which was open to all staff. While this approach meant that topics studied were relevant to each individual, it was challenging, for in effect each teacher trainee experienced his/her own programme.

This experience highlights the following and already identified advantages of school based initial teacher training.

- Teacher trainees were exposed to the reality of the work place and could relate the classroom and its activities to the wider scenario.
- The school benefited from the different ways in which teacher trainees 'gave back' into the programme. The students experienced enriched programmes due to varied expertise of teacher trainees.
- Teacher trainees were directed to think about what they were doing and why, thus bridging the gap between theory and practice.
- An ongoing network of people was established.

Descriptions of the programme identify the main difficulties as organisational and able to be rectified. However, in light of the fact that the course did not continue it is worth noting the need for intensive preparation for training personnel and the very real pressure that the *status quo* exerts on attempts to change an established approach.

2. Course B, University of Melbourne, in 1973.

Course B was conducted for postgraduate students who were undertaking their Melbourne Diploma of Education to qualify as secondary teachers. The belief which underpins Course B is that, ***students in learning to teach, also learn to learn in both a personal and academic sense*** and thus the Course becomes a tool to breach the destructive division between theory and practice (Dow, 1979: 2). Experience was seen to initiate academic endeavour and lead to better innovative practices. The traditional time which students spent in schools was seen to give too little responsibility and lacked the opportunity to analyse the consequences of their teaching.

The reason Course B was chosen for inclusion in this thesis is that it was seen to be a 'total reconstruction' of teacher education based on integrating theory and relating it to action, on working towards a closer partnership with schools, and on experimenting with teacher trainee autonomy - the same goals for which we aim twenty years later.

The following three postulates guided thinking and planning.

A). For each teacher trainee the problem of becoming a teacher was an intensely personal matter. To the extent that teaching was considered an art, 'an imaginative, empathetic engagement between teacher and learner' it was seen as inappropriate to prescribe mass methods of instruction by precept. Each teacher trainee had to discover an appropriate teaching style, commencing by asking questions such as, 'Who am I?' The course planners knew that such a position put teacher trainees at risk, but no greater risk than they would face in their first teaching appointment when they would have less support.

B. To become an effective teacher required that the teacher trainee be scholarly both in their teaching subject and in their approach to education.

This meant that it was not good enough to be knowledgeable in one's teaching subjects but teachers needed to be informed, thoughtful and have understanding about such things as: the role of education in a particular society, the social pressures which affect various students and their responses in and to education; the way in which children learn; the moral basis for a teacher's authority. The reality of this task meant that teacher trainees

were to help each other. Growth in preparation for classroom teaching was supported with a Methods Course in which the teacher trainees were challenged to think about the nature and teachability of their specialist subjects.

C. During the year the teacher trainees should have as much experience as possible in thinking and acting autonomously .

Teacher trainees were to be responsible for their own evaluation. At this point in educational circles, many schools were trying out co-operative methods of assessing pupils, as well as involving students in school management and decision making. It was therefore seen as pivotal that teacher trainees had experience in these practices.
In response to this, Course B claims to have disproved the belief that : 'competition is necessary as an incentive to endeavour, and students will not work except for marks'.

The year was organised so that the teacher trainees spent two days in their 'base' school and three days in 'Methods' seminars and discussions during which the theory would be applied to the week's practice. As the year progressed teacher trainees were encouraged to work with fellow-trainees in other schools. However, the actual application of the ideas proved anything but smooth as conflicting pressures on students' times forced them to work out their own priorities in organising their time.

A compulsory aspect of the course was the commitment to keep a journal. Teacher trainees could choose to hand in a censored, edited version or their spontaneous outpourings. These journals would consistently show that while they had 'read' theory such as presented by Freire and given mental assent to his criticism of the 'banking' model of education, it was not until they started teaching and faced challenges in their own practice that his message had significance.

An important aspect of Course B for the teacher educators was that their commitment to blend theory and practice meant that they had to be 'living examples' of their beliefs (Dow, 1979: 17). The same 'goldfish bowl' effect was felt by teacher educators and associate teachers, leading, in the second year, to a time when they 'lost their balance' (ibid, P92).

Much thought was given by the schools to inducting the teacher trainees gradually and purposefully into teaching. Often the progression was: work with one student; observe a few lessons; teach a small-group; teach part of a lesson; teach a full lesson and finally teach a unit with one class until gaining experience with all age ranges.

In summarising the lessons learned from Course B, Dow confirmed the belief that trainees in learning to teach, can learn to learn and are forced to be more self-conscious and less self-centred about their own learning (1973: 241). The fact that the trainees have to teach is seen to require that they ask increasingly searching questions and set about trying to answer them. Motivation is no longer to meet someone else's demands but to meet their own. (1973:P242). Dow writes:

> There seems little doubt that the mis-match between teacher training and the school system must be met by more school-based courses which bring the two together and help to invigorate both. (1973:244)

Throughout this thesis the reader's attention is drawn to the importance of establishing relationships and networks which will continue through training into practice. With regard to this it is significant that Course B ex-students, with the help of University staff, set up their own in-service programmes in their first year out. The distinction between pre-service and in-service education tended to become blurred.

The distinctive feature of this course is its foundational belief that as one learns to teach one is actually also learning to learn. As with the SBTE programme, practical experience is seen as the springboard to research which is expected to lead to better practice. While such a course has the advantage that each teacher trainee has his/her needs met, it is a very difficult course to implement. The commitment from each person involved is very high. A most positive outcome for this course is the commitment of the participants to their own ongoing professional in-service programme once out in the teaching field. It is obvious from the comments that the networking which operated as trainees continued on into their teaching service.

The experience of Course B led Dow (1973:246) to assert that strengthening and extending school-based approaches to pre-service and in-service teacher education would lead to a rejuvenation of both teacher education, and education in general.

3. Teacher training at College Placement School, Lynwood, Seattle, Washington[2] .

College Placement School is a middle school for 12 and 13 year olds, recognised as a Professional Development Centre. This means that it is involved in the development of teacher trainees as well as ongoing staff development in partnership with the University of Washington, and that some of the teachers at the school teach part-time at the University. The school receives a grant from the University and a university staff member who works as a school-based supervisor. The school staff members who work with the teacher trainees receive some remuneration, time for planning and release time to spend with teacher trainees.

The teacher trainees spend a year of their training in the same school. Initially they spend two weeks at a time in different subject/class areas before settling into a 'niche' in their specialist area.

The teachers who work with the teacher trainees meet with them for 'fire side chats' most days after school. These discussion times are informal, (termed colloquial). They focus on educational issues which arise out of the teacher trainees' practical work in the school/classroom. Sometimes the teacher trainees meet with the whole staff to discuss educational issues such as integration of curriculum, or a particular organisational focus for the school.

The school-based associate teachers do not receive any formal training for their work with the trainees but if they have questions then there are a multitude of avenues open to them to gain support and appropriate resources. They have ½ days in which they are released from classroom teaching to interact with students and for planning. They also attend some sessions at the university with teacher trainees - mainly sessions which focus on issues in education.

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[2] (based on notes taken during a visit to Seattle, 1992)

To the question: "Do you think this approach is working?", the reply was, "Can't imagine that we would ever go back. We don't have it perfect. The difficulties are in maintaining clear communication and the enemy - time enough to do everything." One advantage of this approach is that co-operating staff from the university are part of the school's decision making process. They have input to areas such as budget, policy and discipline.

Another key influence in the school and on the teacher training is recognition as a School For the Twenty-first Century. This recognition brings with it responsibilities and reward. The reward included ten release days per teacher per year for a period of seven years, paid for with the express purpose of working on the development of a coherent philosophy. To qualify for and receive this grant and recognition the school staff had to be committed to this cohesive philosophy development. Another benefit for the school is greater flexibility in meeting state requirements. A Deputy Principal said that this working together on the development of a coherent philosophy for the school was the most important and healthiest thing that had happened in the school. Everything is screened in relation to this since it provides a base from which to ask questions such as "How does it fit?" As in the preceding examples, case issues which arose out of classroom work were the basis for the pursuit and application of theoretical principles.

A distinctive feature in this setting is the allocation of resources. It appears that this is one situation where the money, time and personnel are available. Even the traditional gap between training institution and school is closed with two way interaction of staff. One of the key disadvantages noted in the reviewed literature was that the role of associate teacher was usually added on to the already demanding role of classroom teacher. In College Placement School one can discover what appears to be ideal in operation. The associate teachers have extra finance, time, opportunity to be part of the lecture programme and resources to enable them to be effective in the work they do with the teacher trainees.

4. Student Views of School-Based Training in PGCE courses.

The Post Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) course is a one year school sited course undertaken by potential teachers who already have a Bachelor degree in an academic subject, which they plan to teach at secondary level. Concerned that participants may not be trained to be critically reflective, Sykes and Troyna (1991:3) describe the distinctive base of this course as emphasising the 'how to' rather than the 'why' of teaching. This may be the very reason why the students in the programme valued the fact that their training was 'school-based'. The end-of-course questionnaire identified 100% of respondents who would still select a school-based course. Involvement with a school was most highly valued. It led to:

- familiarity with school;
- relationships established in school;
- realistic experience;
- regular contact with school' and most of all;
- the extent of practical experience.

The PGCE programme is organised in two main strands: subject work and the professional course. Subject courses are organised separately for each curriculum area and are concerned with matters relevant to the teaching and learning of particular subject areas. The professional course is concerned with whole school issues of relevance to all teachers. It is intended that trainees should experience the two strands as parts of an integral course and 80% of the teacher trainees described the balance between school and college work as correct (Everton & White, 1992).

It is interesting to note, that even within a glowing report, critical comments were made at the end of their first year teaching. They related to weaknesses of their course in preparing them to teach and identified practical areas such as:

- lack of work on special needs;
- poor preparation for the variety of teaching situations experienced;
- specific areas of curriculum weaknesses such as the diagnosis of reading difficulties, and
- poor preparation for mixed ability teaching.

Considering that the teacher trainees were graduates who received one year of training these weaknesses could probably be reduced with a greater proportion of their four year preparation time in schools. Such comments may indicate a group of teacher trainees who were not interested in theory and reflection. However Furlong (1987), assures us that this was not the case. The practical business of teaching is an overwhelming and demanding experience and research shows that a practical perspective dominates teacher trainees' thinking (Kagan, 1992).

According to Furlong (1987), one of the interesting factors to emerge was that despite the appreciation of their close involvement with the school, trainees still saw lecturers as having a major role in their practical training. Lecturers as well as teachers were seen as being extremely significant in preparation. This factor contrasts with the findings from the traditional preparation programmes where the associate teacher is seen to be the most important influence.

At the end of their course, the teacher trainees were asked to comment on the ability of the associate teachers in four areas. In the first three:

- able to articulate the basis of their own practice;
- able to provide critical, constructive comment;
- able to be helpful without being over-prescriptive;

the majority of teachers were rated 'able' or 'very able'. The exception to this was the associate teacher's ability to relate practice to wider educational principles. On this ability the majority of students rated their teachers as 'able' or 'unable'.

While Furlong (1987) does not comment on why this may have been, (for example it may be that the trainee teachers did not recognise the links being made), he does point out that it is strange that when asked to identify key areas of in-service training that teachers who supervise students might need, not one mention was made of the need for training in theory or principles. Rather, over three quarters of the suggestions related to the style of supervision offered and in particular to teachers' interpersonal skills; reflected in such comments as 'awareness of students needs', 'empathy', 'training how to criticise positively' (Booth et al., 1990:91). What teacher trainees were looking for was someone who was

a highly competent and reflective practitioner with interpersonal skills to work supportively:

> ..it is vital that they should have a self-appraising attitude and be in the habit of analysing their own teaching methods so that their teaching is good and they can pick out specific areas. This will also enable them to look objectively at students' teaching and suggest improvements. (Booth et al. op cit)

Again the importance of training for associate teachers is noted. Effective school based teacher training depends on associate teachers making their decision making process available to trainees, their ability to nurture and mentor.

As found in the study conducted by Renwick and Vize (1991; 1993), teacher trainees perceive that the heart of their training is the practice of teaching. The teacher trainees were keen to have practical suggestions from the lecturers, and detailed, supportive criticisms from their associate teachers while being helped to understand 'why things are as they are'. Interestingly enough, in this study, such responsibility was seen to belong to the college as 'It's the college that provides the thinking behind the teaching.' (Booth et al., 1990:92).

Reflection and discussion were seen to be essential for their own professional development but it is in this area that compromises were made when there was either a conflict of interest or shortage of time. This lack of time for discussion and reflection was also commented on in their first year appointment. A third of the sample reported that they had no formal induction in school and over half rated their school induction as seriously inadequate. Where first year teachers were happy with the level of induction into the school, the most valuable part of it was the informal contact and discussion with colleagues (Booth et al., 1990:93).

The Place of Theory

A highlight for 20% of the teacher trainees was the help they received relating theory to practice. The fact that training was concurrent and that trainees moved back and forth between institution and schools in a manner which allowed them to use what happened at school as a basis for discussion and theory development was also seen to be a strength.

However, the traditional conflict of time and interest was also reported. Many teacher trainees had regular teaching commitments in school and as a consequence they had to prioritise their work and make decisions about where they would be when they were supposed to be in two places at once. Often the commitment to the school would gain priority. At the end of the course, teacher trainees were asked to assess the preparation they had received in understanding basic professional issues. Most of these were addressed in courses which were affected by the trainees' increased time in schools. Teacher trainees felt particularly poorly prepared in areas such as:

- the principles of motivation;
- the nature of intelligence;
- language development (85% felt inadequately prepared); and
- the principles that should underline the curriculum.

While little information is available with which to compare results from a traditional course, the lack of preparation in what would appear crucial areas must be a concern. This concern could be addressed by restructuring the course from a separate three year degree course plus a one year training course to a four year combined course.

It is interesting to note that the two courses which retained some formal teaching of theoretical issues as a strategy to raise the fundamental issues were the very courses which attracted the most negative comment. The other two courses follow Goodlad's (1991) preferred model, theory brought to practice. In these courses a series of school-based seminars in which teachers and lecturers participated was held. The topics were entirely professionally oriented. Teachers contributed by describing practice and the lecturers used these examples of practice as a basis for raising more theoretically informed questions. Furlong (1987) reports that, contrary to popular belief, the majority of students wanted formal training in educational theory but they wanted it in a way that related to their own professional concerns and interests. They want it because it helps them ask the question "Why?" (Booth et al., 1990:96).

Conclusions from the Evaluation Team

One of the purposes of the research conducted in this evaluation was to clarify the essential nature of school-based training. To this end, those involved had suggested that

it was possible to distinguish a number of different dimensions or 'levels' of professional preparation.

These were:

Level (a) Direct Practice - practical training through direct experience in schools and classrooms;

Level (b) Indirect Practice - 'detached' training in practical matters usually conducted in classes or workshops within training institutions;

Level (c) Practical Principles - critical study of the principles of practice and their use;

Level (d) Disciplinary theory - critical study of practice and its principles in the light of fundamental theory and research.

(Furlong, 1988 in Booth et al., 1990: 97).

It was argued that while these different levels of training appear in almost any course, the way in which they are *integrated and linked* would be what was distinctive about school-based teacher training.

In school-based teacher training level (a) - the students' direct practical experience is placed at the heart of the programme and then the course is organised so that teacher trainees integrate their practical work in schools with other levels of training. The evaluation team found that the views which the teacher trainees reflected about their course closely corresponded to the 'ideal' aims of school-based training'.

From the research conducted by Furlong, it is clearly evident that what trainees want is training that is strongly practical in its orientation. Practical work is at the heart of their professional development. Trainees appreciate the opportunity to understand their teaching experience by reflecting on it and discussing it with those around them. It appears to be common to all training that the process of shared discussion and reflection is the commencement point for understanding practical experiences so that general principles are established.

While none of the four PGCE courses studied lived up to expectations, the overall evaluation made by the students was overwhelmingly positive. At the end of the course, they recognised that they still had much to learn. As in other innovative and school based teacher training programmes, staff were very conscious of the 'personal' costs required of those involved (MacLennan and Seadon, 1988).

From this study we can observe that while teacher trainees want a practical approach to their training, that desire is matched with an equal aspiration to explore personal and professional issues with reference to educational research and theory.
Experiences with the PGCE courses reiterate the importance of training for the associate teacher as outlined in Chapter Four of this thesis. Of particular need in the development of associate teachers is discussion of the overarching principles involved in education so that they develop the ability to satisfy the trainees' desire to have practice related to wider educational principles.

While associate teachers are very much appreciated, these courses indicate that it is desirable for personnel from a training institution other than the school to have a significant role to play in the development of teachers. The influence and implementation of this implication for training can be seen in Chapter Six.

5. A Teacher Reflects on School Based Training

This description is based on an interview[3] with a young lady (called Tracey in this thesis) who was trained as a teacher solely in a school setting. Since completing her initial training, she has gained registration and was employed as a teacher for two years in one of the schools where she trained.

The school is a registered, private, special character co-educational school. It is part of a two school system, led by one principal. A total staff of 12, with about 140 students between the two schools plan co-operatively for each integrated unit. The school is committed to a coherent educational philosophy. Teachers have continued to be trained in the schools. In 1994, there were thirteen students training, two extra staff employed specifically to be involved in this training and a three year training course accredited by the New Zealand Qualifications Authority.

The approach to Tracey's training sees a unique synthesis between the school and the learning institute, because they are one institution. Tracey's training was not one in which it was supposed that perfect methods are exhibited by perfect teachers but rather a programme where she could be part of the team , practise teaching - and learn from that practice.

A unique attribute of Tracey's training saw her treated as a staff member with her own job description for which she was responsible to fulfil. One of the requirements on Tracey's job description was that she demonstrated an 'open attitude towards learning'. In other words it was expected of her that she would always be learning, asking questions, following up ideas and trying new approaches.
As has been noted with other school based training, the relationships which are established tend to be ongoing and enabling. Tracey commented that she spent a 'lot of time just talking'. The emphasis here is on the development of a supportive[4] environment where one feels secure to ask a myriad of questions and to pursue issues

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[3] The transcript of the interview is included as Appendix Three.
[4] supportive particularly in terms of availability of personnel and time.

more deeply. The opportunity to stand outside the day-to day world of schools and share experiences with others; to examine practice in other contexts and face up to difficult questions about current practice, including moral and social dimensions, is seen to be a crucial component in a non-technocratic model for teacher training (Hirst, 1990; Wilkin, 1993; Furlong, 1994). Not to give trainees opportunities to engage in such forms of reflection is 'to side step the difficult tasks of helping them develop principles by which they might judge good practice' (Furlong, 1994:120).

When asked about the best teacher involved in her training, Tracey indicated different teachers for different aspects of the teaching role; one she modelled her classroom management on; one for teaching methodology and so on.

As in the majority of school based teacher training programmes, Tracey's required a tremendous amount of dedication and self motivation. The increased responsibility required her to search out material and resources related to questions which arose during practical teaching times.

Another advantage identified with school based teacher training is the benefit to the host school. This was certainly so for the schools hosting Tracey. A large component of her course required her to develop curriculum material and resources. Due to the fact that Tracey had the time to search out new resources, develop creative ideas and design innovative programmes, this increased input to curriculum development was an advantage for most teachers at the school.

When Bennett et al. (1994:70) record the perceptions of head teachers and teachers concerning the benefits and disadvantages to the school of taking an increased role in initial teacher education, they found that several of those interviewed

> saw that effective trainee-teachers could become future members of staff in their own schools. The experience of already having worked alongside staff during training was seen as a great advantage, with teachers being able to be much more aware of the students' professional strengths and weaknesses, but often more importantly, how they would 'fit in' to the ethos of the school and staffroom.

This was certainly Tracey's experience. She knew early in the last year of her training that there was a position available for her. She commented that she.."had a feel for the way the school ran."

Tracey viewed her training as influential and highly effective. Although, as a beginning teacher, she was conscious that she still had a lot to learn, she was confident when she stood before her own class for the first time. Based in a school meant that she had been exposed to many experiences with setting up classrooms, establishing groups and the many activities related to the beginning of a school year. The continual, apparently informal talk that happened with her associate teacher provided her with a wealth of understanding which underpinned what the teacher was doing. Tracey was surrounded by people she knew and trusted. Consequently she felt confident that she could ask for help without losing face or dignity.

In Conclusion .....

The examples of school based teacher training considered in this chapter concur in the following ways with the reviewed research literature.

Potential or Real Disadvantages

The personal cost to those involved as associate teachers in the schools is high in terms of effort, a sense of vulnerability and work load. The programme at College Placement School was the best situated in that they had extra money, resources and time allocations to release the associate teachers to fulfil their role without unrealistic extra pressure. Without this extra finance, school based programmes require those who work as associate teachers to be extraordinary people. Overall it appears that associate teachers are not prepared adequately for the role required of them. Part of the reason for increased pressure for associate teachers in school-based teacher training is the need to work against the status quo as seen in the SBTE programme from Deakin. This presents a major challenge for those who wish to be involved in effective school based teacher training. It will require finance, time, thoughtful preparation and patience. Increased consideration of the overarching principles of education and ways in which associate teachers can make their experiential knowledge available to the trainees appear to be the two inadequate areas of associate teacher preparation.

Potential or Real Advantages

The programmes considered in this chapter resulted in beginning teachers who appreciated their training. School based programmes appear to require a higher sense of responsibility, personal accountability and research skills of the teacher trainees. Where information about graduates of the courses exists it appears that the graduates chose to be involved in ongoing training for the next generation of trainees.

The schools in which these trainees were placed benefited from being involved in the programme and having the trainee teachers in the classrooms and school. It appears that the benefits were not limited to the associate teachers, but that the morale of the whole school was improved.

In each case the amount of time spent with associate teachers meant that it was possible to develop relationships which carried over from training to entry into the teacher workforce.

Trainees appreciated the opportunity to be familiar with the broader school context for their training, as this gave them a deeper understanding of the complexity of the school. Gaps between theory and practice appeared to be reduced, depending on the way the school based programme was operated and organised.

The training of associate teachers to take an increased role and responsibility in the pre-service training programme is seen to be critical. However, the attainment of the desired level of support, resources and training is tied to the availability of increased finances and it would appear that the provision of appropriate levels of funding is limited.

School based programmes considered in this chapter indicate that the concept of basing teacher development in a school is viewed favourably by trainees and staff. The opportunity to build professional relationships and develop a supportive network appears to have an advantage for the beginning teacher. It also is clear that there is a continuing and important role for the teacher educator who is outside the classroom.

In the next and final chapter consideration is given to the possible form for an alternative model of teacher training which incorporates the positive attributes derived from courses and the literature review.

Chapter Six - Teacher Training - an alternative model

Throughout this thesis current issues in teacher training have been considered. This chapter draws together concepts from throughout the thesis and an alternative programme for teacher training is presented. Guide-lines are given for the development of a meaningful teacher training programme which sees the associate teacher function as mentor within a coherent world and life view.

Throughout the pages of this thesis it has been shown that: 'Much teacher education lacks personal meaning and is thus only superficially understood.' (Olson and Osborne, 1991:340). Reference to such writers as Galluzo and Pankratz (1989), Su (1992) and others indicates a growing concern that more attention needs to be given to the consideration of the overarching purposes of education. A key for teacher educators concerned about future classroom delivery, citizen development and consequently the future state of our nation, is to provide a pre-service course which 'makes sense' and in which adequate and appropriate role modelling is provided by teacher educators who will, in turn, challenge teacher trainees to provide the same level of meaning and modelling for their students.

Education in New Zealand's pluralistic nation is informed by diverse philosophies (Gibbs and Munro, 1994:3). Young people educated within a coherent philosophy of life will be in a much stronger position to think through differences and issues and therefore manage change within their cultural or belief group. Some of the division and aimlessness that can be observed in regions of this nation can be attributed to a lack of meaning, coherence and appropriate role models.

This same diversity can be acknowledged in teacher training. A clear philosophy should be stated and become an integral component of all aspects of the course. From this clarity of philosophy flows three outcomes:

1. Those who wish to become teachers can claim a sense of 'meaning' and 'call'. Instead of aiming for a way to 'collect the pay at the end of the day', a sense of meaning and making a contribution to society, the professional concept of service can be rediscovered. With a clear stated philosophy, whether it be Tikanga Maori,

Idealism, Christianity, Conservatism or Humanism, a teacher in training can have a sense of 'destiny' in the development of people who are living lives from a coherent belief base and with a purpose for living.

2. Those choosing teaching as a profession need to think through their motivation for doing so. If a choice of philosophical bases for training exists then the potential also exists for course content and methodology to be delivered in a more cogent manner. A possible outcome would be that teacher trainees would continue to think deeply about the role and purposes of education. Such thought is seen to be empowering.

3. The course can deliberately aim to develop role models within a coherent world view. For example, as Maori teachers are trained from a coherent Maori world view, because of who they are, their confidence and understanding, Maori youth. will be inspired. They will be provided with models of the way in which to gain meaning from life, living and learning. This is illustrated by the following:[1] .

> The key to improving the performance of Maori students in the formal education system rests with the performance of Maori teachers. In order for Maori teachers to become effective they must first become politicised as a group. Only when they are politicised will it become possible for them to make a real and lasting difference with Maori students in schools and in the education system.

By politicised, Penetito means 'grow to think and behave like a Maori'. In other words to work and live from a Maori world view. It would be natural to respond to ideas such as these with concern that what is being spoken of is indoctrination and that the end result may be clones who are bigoted and non-thinking. The reality is far from this. To develop fully as humans we need to have meaning and a sense of purpose and these are gained when the world and what happens in it makes sense. This needs a coherent worldview and a commitment to live by that view. From a secure epistemological base of knowing what one believes and why, the question, Why do I believe a certain alternative? can be asked and answered. Such a position appears to be a much healthier one, than as at present when, under a guise of the necessity for neutrality, very little

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[1] Wally Penetito's keynote address, He Koingo Mo Te Pumahara: Memory and Scholarship for a Liberating Pedagogy. NZCTE's Second National Conference October 1994

coherency appears to exist, and little philosophical thinking is encouraged or practised. When faced with an issue or disagreement, many people respond at the emotional level without being able to participate in an informed and logical manner. Brighouse, Chief Education Officer for Oxfordshire, proposes that education offered from a shared-value system enables young people to be comfortable in handling a variety of ideas and teasing out prejudices and that without this base people succumb to a mental form of slavery (in Watson, 1987:1). A commitment to a coherent worldview can be:

> the key which can render a nurture approach educational, give vision to a utilitarian framework and guard against indoctrination. It can free institutions from the inhibition of so-called neutral attitudes and permit positive teaching without betraying professional integrity. (Watson, 1987:49)

This argument also has application to closing the theory/practice gap. It is seen to be pivotal to understand that all aspects of the course: academic content; relationships; teaching and learning practice, are affected by the participants' worldview. Consistency in these facets apparently helps to narrow the gap. This thesis has suggested that another way to close the theory/practice gap is with the provision of courses beginning with classroom practice, and using theory in the process of developing in-depth understanding of the practice (Solomon, 1987; Armaline and Hoover, 1989; Stalling and Quinn, 1991; Bennett et al., 1994; Su, 1992; Booth, 1993).

This thesis suggests that a significant section of teacher training could be school-based, with the particular commitment to support the trainees' need to bring theory to practical experience. The school already has its agenda. It exists primarily to teach children. A teacher training institution however can be more flexible and facilitate critical reflection on the teaching process in the school milieu, rather than the school applying theory from the college.

Comments generated by those who have been involved in the implementation of school based teacher training are positive about almost all its components. In general it is claimed that such training is more realistic and the theory component more relevant (Turney, 1987; Hunter, 1988; Dill, 1989; Cohen, 1989). Graduates are described as better prepared and more confident in their ability to teach (Stones, 1987; Ver Velde,

Horn and Steinshouer, 1991; Kagan, 1992). The concern that school based training makes teaching a conservative, non-reflective activity and consequently that teaching could be perceived as technocratic (with apprentices) rather than a profession, has been shown to be ill founded. However, for those who have not personally been involved with it, school based teacher training continues to be viewed as an apprenticeship model and associate teachers as 'amateur instructors' (H. McQueen, Christchurch Press, October 3, 1994).

The model - apprenticed or mentored ?

The apprenticeship model is inadequate for the type of programme envisioned in this thesis. When the word *apprenticeship* is used it conjures up images of non thinking, coping strategies which mean that the novice can do what the master trades person does because of continual and extended observation. No doubt a true master craftsman would explain why certain things are done in certain ways and be able to pass on insights and understandings which he or she has accumulated. As Van Brummelen (1990:9) suggests a model which views teaching just as a craft is inadequate.

> Craftsman teachers are diligent, skilful, and perceptive. They reflect constantly on how their classroom presence affects learning. They hone tried-and-true approaches and develop others as the need arises. Craftsman teachers, even when experienced, deliberately and consistently evaluate their teaching, keeping abreast of new methods that fit their philosophical framework, personal characteristics, and needs of their students. No two craftsman teachers will teach in the same way. But all have a keen perception of their students' pedagogical needs , effective interpersonal group skills, and dispositions to try something new and creative from time to time.
>
> But calling teaching a *craft* is not enough. Teaching involves not just moulding or making objects. Rather, it leads students in certain directions, enabling them to take on their life's calling according to their abilities and insights. Teaching is a *religious* activity in that it guides on the basis of our deepest convictions of the cause, nature, and purpose of life.

Another reason why the apprenticeship model is inappropriate for school-based teacher training is that the learning which occurs in the type of programme suggested here is two-way: both teacher and trainee learn. The apprenticeship model does not reflect the reciprocal learning and benefit which research shows is part of effective school-based

teacher training (Warnock, 1988; Cohen, 1989; Turney, 1989; Dill, 1990; Mead, 1991). Also involved in the apprenticeship model is the sense of an authoritarian hierarchy which does not appear helpful in the teacher trainee gaining collegial acceptance (Jackson, 1968). Field studies must throw off an apprenticeship image by changing the types of activities required of teacher trainees so that it is obvious to all that challenging and critical thought is involved in developing the skill, insight and understanding required to make those thousands of decisions each day, which teaching requires. Effective school-based teacher training occurs when people get alongside each other, communicate and share. One positive attribute which school-based teacher training appears to have is its potential to significantly affect school management and the skill and performance of existing teachers (Dow, 1979; Tisher, 1990; Bennett, Jones and Maude, 1994). The element of ongoing relationship and support cannot be underestimated. Mentors make their own practice and thinking available to others to scrutinise in order to learn. This is one reason why a mentor model is preferred.

The research which has been reviewed in this thesis suggests that training should not be totally school-based. One reason for this is that schools have other priorities and consequently just do not have the resources or personnel to undertake such a demanding task. This thesis has already established that for a variety of reasons, trainees should not spend all of their time in a school. Another reason why training should not be totally in schools relates to a concern expressed by trainees involved in school based training. While they want training that is strongly practical, they also want time to consider the broader issues (Booth, 1993). Nevertheless Furlong (1994:120)argues that, where schools take an increased and even major responsibility but work in close cooperation with others (such as a University, Polytech or College of Education), 'the chances of achieving consistently high standards are significantly greater'.

The remainder of this chapter applies the findings in this thesis and presents an alternative model for teacher training. Consideration is given to the following:

- personnel involved in leadership;
- the institutional facilities required;
- the school's role;

- school personnel, particularly the associate teacher;
- teacher trainee selection;
- course parameters;
- course content.

Personnel in Leadership

Throughout this thesis much attention has been drawn to the importance of working from a particular world and life view if trainees are to develop within a meaningful framework. Also the importance of the development of ongoing relationships has been indicated. For these reasons it is expected that the teacher training model suggested in this thesis would see a course or programme offered in local communities, in groups with limited numbers at multiple sites rather than in a large institution as at present. This suggestion challenges the assumption that big is best while realizing that it raises real challenges concerning the provision of the multitudinous resources required for the task. This challenge will be addressed later in this chapter.

A programme not based solely in a school needs a locally based group of people who will own the provision of teacher training as a *service* to schools. This group may include some personnel who have been in leadership in schools in the community. They would work closely with a group of schools to provide a coherent programme encouraging critical reflection, bringing to the conscious level a teacher trainee's belief system and allowing development to occur within a meaningful environment. In other words a Teachers' Development Base, Resource Centre or College would be established and developed. The personnel would require to have or earn the trust of the staff in the participating schools, be committed to the concept of partnership and able to inspire and train associate teachers to fulfil their crucial role as full and effective partners in the training process (Booth, 1993).

A College Base

It is possible to postulate that teacher trainees need a physical place to which they can go, to withdraw from the school, its pressures and challenges, to undertake critical reflection and thinking. This is not to say that such activity will not also occur in school.

The model of an effective school-based programme is built on the need for such activity occurring throughout the course. However the research has shown a need exists for a place where trainees can be trainees :- be it a caravan, a special room or an off site facility (Dow, 1979; Ver Velde et al., 1991; Hill[2], 1992).

In the model being suggested here, the training base would develop as a resource centre with a library, access to educational and related journals; facilities, including computers, for making teaching resources, lecture and tutorial rooms. The centre would also be available for teachers from the participating schools to use. As a way of having access to expertise and resources, it may or may not be linked to a university or larger development centre such as a College of Education.

Schools and their role

This model recognises the link between the calibre of teachers, teaching and the resultant characteristics of a community, economy and society. In order to support the development of strong communities, the teacher training programme will be set up to serve schools committed to a common special character by aiming to train teachers for their schools, and will therefore reflect their educational aims and purposes. A course would need to be compiled which would prepare teachers who can implement the schools' mission statement effectively, skilfully and with commitment, thus providing a role model for the pupils within them. Then, schools in order to participate will need to change their attitude toward teacher training and see it as an integral part of their responsibility. They need to be involved, not just as by-standers or as a place where trainees 'practise', but as partners and co-workers who jointly own the responsibility for developing teachers of and for the next generation. This will naturally affect the way that the schools set their resource priorities, employ staff and organise in-service training. It is most probable that some staff would be employed jointly by the training base and a school or schools. Such relationship and recognition needs to exist so that the typical mis-match between course, college and school expectations can be overcome.
Schools will welcome trainees, as Tracey (Chapter Five) was welcomed and made part of the staff with her own job description and responsibilities. (See Appendix Two for a

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[2] personal communication in 1992 with Brian Hill, Professor of Education, Murdoch University, Perth.

sample trainee job description based on the role characteristics identified by Hopkins and Reid (1985:43).) Research demonstrates (e.g. Renwick and Vize, 1991; Kagan, 1992) and examples of school-based training courses have given support to the notion that the *law of expectation* is powerful. The way a teacher trainee is expected to behave, and is treated by colleagues has a major influence on the development of the trainee's image as a teacher.

School Personnel - the Associate Teacher

A key participant in this teacher training model is the associate teacher. Each school would need to make a commitment to the development and training of the teachers who would fill this vital role. A programme with an increased school-based component brings to those who are associate teachers a certain amount of anxiety and while the programme is innovative, research reviewed has indicated that there is likely to be backlash pressures. It would be important to have access to sufficient funding to ensure that associate teachers receive the crucial training outlined in Chapter Four. The effectiveness of the training model is dependent on associate teachers fulfilling the role outlined for them. Research shows that associate teachers should undertake a period of initial training as well as having opportunities throughout their involvement for further development. For the initial training, studies (such as Feiman-Nemser, Parker and Zeichner, 1993) suggest a minimum of 30 hours. In the initial training they would be given a copy of the course documentation with information about the course model. The Five Attributes of a Teacher Education Program Knowledge Base as described by Galluzo and Pankratz (see pages 94-96 this thesis) would be implemented. For example, in-depth discussion should occur on the beliefs that guide programme development and the organising theme which reflects the ultimate purpose of the programme. The course's professional bibliography should be available for them with notes about the availability and source of related resources.

Those chosen for the vital role of associate teachers need to comprehend the importance of this role in the teacher training process. The school must be committed to support the associate teachers in this function so that it is not just added to their other duties.

Perhaps it would be possible for one school staff member to be partially employed by the training base in order to facilitate communication, expectations and associate teacher training. This role with trainees would need to be included in job descriptions and contracts would allow for release time for planning, evaluation, attendance at key lectures, resource and curriculum development as well as the time necessary for building a mentor relationship. One of the pivotal roles such a person has is the development of the teacher trainees' ability to reflect on their prior experiences and think about the 'what' and 'why' of the classroom experience. The associate teacher should have these skills and ongoing training and support be provided. As previously outlined, one tool which is available to help this process of reflection is the keeping of a professional journal. Journalling has many advantages for both mentor and trainee. One of the advantages is the tracking of the development of the teacher trainee's thinking and belief about the educator's role and his/her participation within this. Through the journal associate teachers can record their development as a mentor.

Other areas outlined by Kennedy (1991) as appropriate and necessary for associate teacher training should also be addressed. (See P 76 this thesis.) In particular, associate teachers should be trained in the art and task of mentoring, especially in specific skills such as the giving of feedback to trainees concerning their performance in the classroom.

The provision of funding for personnel, their training and the provision of adequate resources is a challenge. It appears to the writer that this challenge would require a major commitment from those who believed in the proposed model to seek new and currently untapped sources. Some funding is currently available from the Ministry of Education and trainees would be charged fees. However other financial sources would need to be found.

Teacher Trainee Selection

Naturally a key participant for any teacher training programme is the trainee. A successful teacher training programme will be developmental. It will recognise the teacher trainee as one who is developing a teacher's expertise and outlook and who will seek to continue to develop as an expert teacher. The analogy of gaining one's driving

licence is appropriate. At the point of being licensed, one can be said to be 'fully qualified' and yet the newly qualified driver will continue to gain more expertise as s/he become more experienced in driving. Recognition of this results in initial training being viewed as part of a whole, not self-sufficient or isolated. Strategies need to be developed so that pre-service and in-service training are seen as a continuous process[3] and therefore a necessary component of pre-service training should be the development of attitudes and skills required for effective continual growth and training. One of the main factors which can help this is the development of collegial and mentor relationships which bridge the initial training and beginning teacher phase. This too would be expected to work best in schools with a special character and where the trainee is, in the first instance (as was Tracey), being prepared for teaching within them. Teacher trainee selection should take into account suitability as a role model for future school students. As has been indicated throughout this thesis, who the teacher is has the most impact on others' lives. Also it is preferable that those who come into a course such as this do not come straight from school (Dill and Stafford, 1994). When teacher trainees have been involved in some other work experience, if for no other reason than to accumulate some finance to support them in their journey, it means that the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) has been interrupted. Though careful work will still need to be done to overcome the influence of previous school experiences, the time gap is seen to be an advantage.

Recognition of the teacher trainee's learning will also be reflected in the application of the principles of andragogy and the provision of choice in research topics, some opportunity to negotiate their own methods of assessment and the development of specific skill and insight. Teacher trainees will need to prove themselves proficient at self directed learning (Lewis, 1992), for at least two reasons. The first is that the process of self directed learning contains many components of teacher planning, (e.g., initiative, needs assessment, planning objectives, facilitator roles and skills, identifying and choosing appropriate learning strategies and resources, and evaluation) and the second

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[3] The importance of this approach is emphasised by the fact that NZCTE recently used the theme Teacher Education - A Career Long Process for its Second National Conference 25 - 27 October 1994.

consideration relates to the nature of such a course and its high research and reflective component.

Finally, in this section, there is research which shows that a pro-active person makes a better teacher. The research conducted by Chandler et al. (1991) indicates that the teacher trainees judged to be the most successful on their final teaching practice largely share the characteristics of a pro-active teacher as outlined by Goodlad (1987). The most successful students are committed to doing well, are innovative and are willing to 'try things out' rather than play safe. It is believed that this too will most likely occur within a coherent philosophy. For example, it is possible that Maori students who have not succeeded in the predominantly pakeha school system, may not have the above qualities. However, fired by a desire and vision to make an impact on the future generations of Maori young people combined with the opportunity to develop as a whole person, the prospective trainee's latent potential may be realised.

Course Parameters

A flexible course length would allow for the observed different rates of development. This is one advantage of the new courses written under the New Zealand Qualifications Authority's Framework. Teacher trainees can proceed to master and/or complete the listed elements[4] and if they need more time, or less time, then some provision can be made for this. Should a teacher trainee complete the initial course in less time, s/he could enter into an internship type phase in their base school until the appropriate time to graduate.

It is a challenge to construct a course designed, not to fill three years, but to prepare a beginning teacher. In other words to answer the question:

What does a beginning teacher need to know, to be, and to do?

It would appear appropriate that the course could develop through the four different dimensions or levels of professional development identified by Furlong (1988). The student's direct practical experience is placed at the centre of the programme and the course is organised so that all components can easily be integrated. The comments about

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[4] An element is described by New Zealand Qualifications Authority as that part of a unit standard which defines one of its outcomes i.e. what must be mastered, learned or achieved .

the inter relationship and linking of course components recorded on page 101, 102 need to be re-read in relationship to the parameters of the course. The very best aspects of school-based programmes in Chapter Five would be brought together. For example:

the trainee inquiring into personally meaningful teaching problems and issues;
associate teachers adequately resourced and trained;
schools owning a role in the training process;
school-based placement times being at least four to six weeks, preferably longer;
trainees trained in self evaluation of course and professional development;
use of reflective journals;
trainees train within the larger school context, rather than an ideal and isolated classroom;
time identified for informal 'chatting' between associate teachers and trainees;
a coherent philosophy which guides all aspects of the course development, delivery and evaluation;
qualified and available tutors to facilitate the linking between theory and practice;
a course which applied the levels suggested by Furlong (1988) and the Attributes of a Knowledge Base as suggested by Galluzo and Pankratz (1989).
recognition of the trainee as a staff member with a job description.

Course Content

The focus for the consideration of the next critical factor in an 'effective' school-based teacher training programme is the course itself. Obviously the scope of this thesis does not allow a specific and in depth presentation of the content of a model course. The assumption is made that the initial phase of the teacher training programme is, for most trainees, three years. The following factors then need to be given thorough and careful consideration.

i) Teacher trainees could begin with an orientation course of about four weeks at the college base. During this phase they would be made familiar with the course's undergirding philosophy, the impact of their beliefs about teaching, the skills of observation and the art of journal keeping. They would be given a copy of the course outline, particular emphases would be identified and discussed.

ii) Next they ought to have practical experience in a classroom, working as an assistant to the teacher, while undertaking daily observation tasks which act as a basis for discussion with the associate teacher. Record of these tasks and discussions will, over time, build up a file which helps develop insight and a basis for generalisation and theory application or query throughout the course. The initial phase in the schools ought to be at least six weeks, possibly longer.

iii) For the rest of the first year, teacher trainees should have the opportunity to visit a variety of schools in association with the theme or topic being studied. For example when they are studying classroom management it would be beneficial for them to spend time in a range of classrooms with a variety of styles including extremes of styles as these provoke the most thought. Also it would be beneficial to be posted in a classroom for an extended time, where they can observe the consequences of a particular style over time. In order to bring 'meaning' to such experience it is important that observation and experiential tasks are designed to provide a platform of experience to which theoretical and philosophical considerations are brought.

iv) The training programme should enable the teacher training to experience as much of the 'ebb and flow' of a school as possible. In the second year the course should be planned so that teacher trainees experience the first term of a school year. It should be organised that they start with teachers before school pupils arrive so they can be part of such activities as long term planning, setting up of a classroom and establishment of routines, groups and programmes. Once again activities should be designed to facilitate critical thought about why those routines are developed, and why the classroom is organised in that manner.

Teacher trainees prefer periods in schools to be longer rather than shorter. A study conducted by MacDonald found that redistributing practicum time so that each period in schools was lengthened to say, four weeks rather than two weeks, made the year less stressful and more meaningful' (MacDonald, 1993:417). However, this model suggests that four weeks would be the minimal time spent in any school and that periods of seven, ten, or a term are more desirable.

v) Throughout the second year, teacher trainees could spend time with fewer teachers. These teachers may be in different schools. What happens at 'College base' and in the schools at any one time should be in accord. One way this could be achieved is by changing from the traditional structure of multiple units being addressed daily to addressing topics or themes, one or two at a time. Thus at any time during the course, there would be two basic foci rather than the traditional flight from lecture to lecture and topic to topic. An example would be as follows:

If the two themes for a particular time were the *Teaching of Reading* and the *Development of Questioning Strategies and Skills*, then the activities in the school-based component and the college component would be centred on these two topics. The application of theory in the development of an understanding of the components, skill and implications of both as well as appropriate curriculum and resource development. As Olson and Osborne (1991:342) remark, such an approach gives 'teacher education more personal relevance'. Throughout the course theory should be brought to practice as Goodlad (1991) suggests. So, for example, when discipline is a key issue, then teacher trainees can study such topics as: 'Consideration of the nature of children' - i.e. Are they autonomous, accountable, machine like? Is behaviour modification a suitable technique, given the philosophy of the schools?; What is the place, influence of reward and punishment, motivation? Designing assignments which are to be completed during a time of practicum to fit into the growth and development of the trainee in terms of the school-based work, with apparently less emphasis in terms of marking, could help to reduce activity which sees the teacher trainee take on the status quo in order to gain a good report from his/her associate teacher.

During this thesis, reference has been made to criticism of programmes which give much emphasis to technical aspects of the managerial component of teaching. However, it has also been noted that the greatest need teacher trainees have <u>at this point</u> in their development is for strength and understanding in the area of what and why something works in the classroom. An effective teacher training programme will recognise that teacher trainees come to the course with prior beliefs and images which potentially are

powerful determinants of how much knowledge is acquired and the content interpreted. The vast body of literature recognises that teacher preparation is, in the first instance, a period of growth from the perspective of student toward the perspective of teacher. This requires that instead of decrying teacher trainees' interests in matters of management and procedural knowledge, that such be accepted as appropriate needs to be met at this point in their development. In other words initial preparation ought to provide procedural knowledge and promote the acquisition of standardised routines that integrate management and instruction. Only once these are established are the trainees, and beginning teachers able to move on to pedagogy, content knowledge and an awareness of students as learners (Hollingsworth, 1989; Eisenhart et al. , 1991; Kagan, 1992).

vi) In the third year of the course the same principles should apply but the school base would usually be limited to one school and one teacher in that school. In this phase the emphasis should be on the development of confidence in planning, teaching and evaluating within a perspective which requires the critical, reflective thinking so often referred to in this thesis. This is the time for bringing all the component parts together into the whole. Some school-based placements throughout the year may be of four to six weeks. Toward the end of this third year, in order to prepare the trainee for the next year as a beginning teacher, a period of 13 weeks, culminating with at least six weeks full control and responsibility, should be experienced. It is only when the trainee is confronted with the entirety of the task that the true complexity of teaching can be understood.

vii) Graduating as a teacher will be the goal for each trainee and consequently it is important to give brief consideration to the role and place of assessment. Assessment tasks should be seen as an integral component of the course and be designed to faciliate further growth as well as measure current skill and understanding. As a teacher's main mode of communication is oral, assessment tasks should reflect this. It is suggested that throughout the course assessment tasks should have three basic designs:

i) the critical examination and discussion of some theory or theories. Research can be presented to the rest of the class as a teaching assignment.

ii) the development of resource files and folders, teaching aids and curriculum ideas.

iii) the demonstation of the multi-skilled attributes required by a teacher.

The importance of a coherent worldview

This thesis has upheld the belief that education affects and influences society. It has been suggested that we need to possess a clear goal or vision of an educated person. A coherent worldview may well be the most effective tool to facilitate the development of teachers who can reflect clearly about their practice and the nature of their task.

Education nurtured in a meaningful framework and teachers trained in special character schools, specifically for those schools, may serve New Zealand well.

Consequently, there appears to be much potential within an alternative model for the provision of teacher training which has as its goal the development of effective and skilled teachers who are committed to critical reflection and ongoing development. All this can occur within a programme which, because it:

is offered from the basis of a coherent world and life view has the potential for increased meaning and sense of purpose;

has increased time in schools (over half the course) the opportunity exists to observe role models at work in the real (rather than ideal) and unpredictable world of teaching;

is committed to the concept of mentoring the potential exists for the development of supportive relationships which can continue throughout training and career, and both trainee and associate teacher will benefit;

considers the nature and purpose of education, it will have the potential to equip teachers with the potential to be more effective in fulfilling the roles that their particular communities have for them;

enables school staff to have significant input into the design and delivery of the course, and associate teachers will be trained for their role the perceived gap between theory and practice will be reduced if not deleted.

This teacher training model can be seen as a service to schools committed to an integrated world and life view. Training would be provided with school and institutional base working without a 'them' and 'us' mentality. The staff at the training base would

have intimate knowledge of the schools' programmes and be able to link the theoretical work back to practical experiences gained within the classroom and forward to in-school application. Similarly, staff based in schools who are involved with the training programme would be kept informed about what is happening in the college and the expectations which are held for the trainees. The manner in which expectations are fulfilled could be decided jointly by training base and school staff so that the programme is jointly owned. The sense of community which results from the shared vision and work provides a framework within which staff and trainees find much satisfaction. The result of such satisfaction cannot be under estimated in empowering people to perform to their best ability. Training based on this model would be more likely to prepare teachers for the real world of teaching rather than the ideal.

Conclusion

Just as any old road will not get you to your destination and any old school give the education needed in today's world, neither will just any teacher education programme develop teachers for all teaching situations.

This thesis has argued that there is a need to develop teachers as role models for schools committed to a special character. One way to do this is with a programme which identifies an increased role for schools, a mentoring role for the associate teacher, increased school-based placements for the trainee and a course which is underpinned with a coherent world and life view.

An increased role for schools

For a mentoring model to be effective it requires commitment to the vision and task. Currently schools are not perceived to be places of training for future teachers. They have the task of educating children and young adults. They choose their staff from those trained predominantly by state Colleges of Education. If the school has a particular emphasis in its charter or constitution, then teachers who are empathetic will be chosen for that school and further training and development will occur. However it is argued that schools are the real world of teaching and consequently provide the best place for training.

The belief that teaching is more than the sum of its parts requires the emphasis of teacher training to shift to the school community. The teacher's character, personality, knowledge and beliefs about the world are important elements in the teacher's function. Currently minimal attention is given to these factors. When education is charged with the responsibility for producing future citizens the teacher is held as a role model for future generations. It is argued that in this same way, teachers in schools are, and should be able to function in an increasing manner as role models for teachers in training.

It has been said that what one believes about the role of education will determine the type of training chosen for teachers. This is difficult if no real choice of training exists. Schools know what types of teachers they want and therefore need to have the opportunity to influence the design and delivery of training programmes.

Another reason for the increased role for schools is related to ownership. If it is determined that increased school-based placement is necessary for effective teacher training then it is vital that the schools have ownership of the role they are expected to play. This is more likely to occur if they contribute to the programme from design, through delivery and into evaluation procedures.

A mentoring role for the associate teacher

The teacher's ability to live in a consistent manner with what is being espoused regulates the quality and delivery of meaningful education. Teaching is described as an individual matter. Teachers have their own personalities, characteristics, strengths and weaknesses and these are reflected in their teaching style and classroom mangagement. A mentor relationship allows the course to be delivered in an effective manner for the individual person. When the attribute of a coach called fading, is present in a mentor relationship the trainee can be eased into more and more responsibility as the mentor sees that they are confident. The mentor can gradually change the emphasis and style of the support s/he provides. According to Davis (1991:29) the goal of a mentoring relationship is to challenge one with new ways of thinking and doing things, so that the result is change and growth. A mentor is motivated to influence others by the example of his/her life, rather than to provide opportunities for practice and the necessity to get a job done. The following quote from Wilson (1990:208) reinforces this point:

> If I am the type of teacher I want them to become, I can't tell them these things about teaching and learning and knowing - I have to *teach* them these things. My students learn as much from how I act as they do from the content I provide. If I want to understand the nature of pedagogical reasoning, for example, I can describe it, but I also need to construct settings in which they can engage in such reasoning and begin to develop the necessary skills. Moreover, I have to consider my own beliefs about teaching and learning to teach, in addition to my student's beliefs about teaching and learning to teach. I have to look in my own mirror - a difficult task in itself. I have to model that mirror-gazing for my students, letting them watch me watch myself.

The fact that the person with the responsibility of delivering the main or at least a large proportion of a course, is still active in the classroom situation has many advantages and counteracts many criticisms directed at current teacher training. However, this thesis has continually stressed the importance of training for this person. Initial training must be conducted and ongoing support and training provided. It is felt by the writer that this is a key point at which this model is at risk. Because the concept of teachers being responsible for delivery of training courses is not common, the temptation is to add the task to the already demanding classroom teacher role.

The thesis has already argued that a mentor relationship is more likely to continue as the teacher trainee embarks upon his/her classroom teaching career, making the transition from trainee to teacher easier.

Increased school based placements for trainees.

The word increased in this heading applies to both the number of occasions a trainee can expect to be placed in a school for experience as well as to the length of time for each placement. It has been shown that trainees prefer either to be totally in a school or college phase of their programme and when in school extended periods are appreciated. This is seen to be crucial so that trainees can experience the ebb and flow of the school cycle. Similarly they need to be able to observe consequences of actions, programmes, decisions and communication. This is often not possible when they are placed in a school for a period of two to three weeks. School-based placements need to be a minimum of four weeks and preferably a term at a time. This also facilitates development of quality professional relationships with staff in the school. The time in schools gives experience for the trainee in the 'real' context. Programmes need to do everything possible to ensure that experience aids development of effective teachers and that trainees are encouraged to develop their own style and not just take on the approach and style of the associate teacher. The longer placements in school are one way to facilitate this. When a trainee is placed in a school for a short period of time, it is not appropriate to change established routines, class layout, expectations and procedures. However when placed for an extended length of time, such changes can be made and consequences of those changes observed. With extended placements and

mentor/mentoree relationships, the associate teacher can encourage the trainee to reflect on the development of a personal style, rather than view placement as a time when they 'interrupt' the associate teacher's programme. Linked to the development of personal style is the role of evaluation during school based placement, the associate teacher's part in the allocation of grades, and the trainee's attitude to this phase of assessment. Traditionally trainees see that the best way to achieve a high mark is to do as the associate teacher does. However, with extended placements the trainee has time to develop good communication with, trust and respect for, the associate teacher. Part of the associate teacher's training would include an appreciation of the personal nature of teaching and how to encourage trainees to find styles of management and teaching with which they are comfortable.

A Course underpinned with a Coherent World and Life View

This factor is crucial for every aspect of an effective course. The mentoring can be more authentic if world and life views of mentor and mentored are shared. Literature in the field of teacher training (e.g.Zeichner (1983), Carroll (1990)) notes minimal material available which addresses the goals and purposes of teaching. It is believed to be a vital component for any teacher preparation course, but within the context of this model, it is vital. Identification of a coherent world and life view enables trainees to consider other perspectives with clarity and discernment. A teacher does not remain in teaching for a long time if s/he is not committed to and motivated by a non-materialistic goal. Understanding the goal and purposes of education provides motivation for the task. After a while, daily classroom demands tend to cause creativity and inspiration to disappear, unless there is continued motivation. This motivation comes from one's goal and purpose for teaching. As has already been noted in this thesis, the kind of human being valued by a society determines and shapes the educational experiences it provides. If teachers do not know and understand the goals and purposes of the educational programme in which they are involved, then society will indeed be the poorer. Examples of incoherence between family and school, and, culture and school have been given to illustrate this point.

Communities committed to a particular world and life view could be served with an alternative approach to teacher education in which schools have an increased role,

associate teachers are mentors and models and trainees spend the major proportion of their training in schools. Given these conditions, a will to persevere and increased funding, an innovative programme could indeed result.

One follow up to this thesis could be to trial such a programme. If this was not possible in the near future a case study of a programme (ie Te Ranga Kura, Bethlehem Teachers' College, Christian Teachers' College of Aotearoa) which implements some of the key aspects of this model could be undertaken.

As with any innovative programme there are limitations which need to be considered. An alternative teacher training programme such as is suggested in this thesis is most likely to be provided by the private sector. Consequently access to financial and personnel resources will be a challenge. However one of the characteristics of innovative programmes is the accompanying will to succeed which is fuelled by a belief in the need for the programme. Many institutions which today are large, well resourced and respected began as a small and even faltering attempt to do something different.

The question of who will train the trainers needs to be addressed further. It would be a great advantage if those responsible for the face to face delivery of such a course could be involved with its design and development. This would enable them to have an understanding of the whole course and their place and role within it. Naturally this would only be possible initially. However it would be important to ensure that future staff had the opportunity to become familiar with all aspects of the course. An orientation phase could be included in job descriptions and contracts. A decision to do this has financial implications. In order to maintain the integrity of the course it would be crucial to resist the tendency to revert to the status quo, a recognised pressure on innovative programmes. Due to the nature of the course and its relationship with a community of schools, it is likely that trainers will be invited to participate because their proven abilities are known to that community. It is also seen to be crucial that the employment conditions include the opportunity for further study and research. The trainers need to be models of life long learners.

Some may be concerned that training delivered in/by such a course may restrict a teacher's career options. It is believed that any career restriction would be either self imposed or the result of misunderstanding of the nature of the training. The integrity of any teacher training course requires that trainees be equipped with the characteristics and skills of effective teachers - these are applicable in all situations. It would be argued that the attention given to understanding the nature of the teaching task and the goals and purposes of education would result in a teacher who could adapt to other philosophical frameworks. For example they ought to be sensitive to the role philosophy plays in education and consequently would be able to teach with understanding and clarity. Also within any one philosophical strand there is great diversity. However it is recognised that some graduates may choose to remain within a philosophical system as happens currently with state training.

Recognising that there would be identified challenges and difficulties, the findings of this thesis provide sufficient support for a trial implementation of a teacher training programme which :

is offered from the security and enabling base of a coherent world and life view;

results from increased school staff participation at all course levels from design to delivery;

views all educators as role models;

facilitates mentor/mentoree relationships

provides training in the mentoring role for associate teachers and college tutors;

provides for extended and extensive school based placements for trainees;

implements a programme with the factors identified in the thesis;

and sees schools and instiitution working together to fulfil an overall vision.

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Appendix I

From: **A Charter For Andragogy**
by: Jack Mezirow (1984).
in, Selected Writings on Philosophy and Adult Education.
Merriam, Sharan B.
Florida: Robert E. Kreiger Publishing Company.

"Andragogy, as a professional perspective of adult educators, must be defined as an organized and sustained effort to assist adults to learn in a way that enhances their capability to function as self-directed learners."

To do this it must:

1. progressively decrease the learner's dependency on the educator.

2. help the learner understand how to use learning resources - especially their experience of others, including the educator, and how to engage others in reciprocal learning relationships.

3. assist the learner to definde his/her learning needs - both in terms of immediate awareness and of understanding the cultural and psychological assumptions influencing his/her perceptions of needs.

4. assist learners to assume increasing responsibility for defining their learning objectives, planning their own learning programme and evaluating their progress.

5. organize what is learned in relationship to his/her current personal problems, concerns and levels of understanding.

6. foster learner decision making - select learner-relevant learning experiences which require choosing, expand the learner's range of options, facilitate taking the perspectives of others who have alternative ways of understanding.

7. encourage the use of criteria for judging which are increasingly inclusive and differentiating in awareness, self-reflexive and integrative of experience.

8. foster a self-corrective reflexive approach to learning - to typifying and labelling, to perspective taking and choosing and to habits of learning and learning relationships.

9. faciliate problem posing and problem solving, including problems associated with the implementation of individual and collective action, recognition of relationship between personal problems and public issues.

10. reinforce the self-concept of the learner as a learner and doer by providing for progressive mastery; a supportive climate with feedback to encourage provisional efforts to change and to take risks; avoidance of competitive judgement of performance; appropriate use of mutual support groups.

11. emphasize experiential, participative and projective instructional methods approptiate use of modelling and learning contracts.

12. make the moral distinction between helping the learning understand his/her full range of choices and how to improve the quality of choosing vs encouraging the learner to make a specific choice.

Appendix II.

A Possible Teacher Trainee Job Description

from, Hopkins, David & Reid, Ken (editors) (1985)
Rethinking Teacher Education

The teacher trainee will:

- review and adhere to the stated objectives.
- maintain the keeping of a professional journal in the manner set out in the course handbook.
- make his/herself available for regular planning and feedback sessions with the associate teacher and supervisor.
- meet with the associate teacher and supervisors for conferences concerning his/her progress.
- attend staff meetings, parent/teacher functions and other school-related activities in order to become acquainted with the total school programme.
- maintain ethical and professional relations with the school staff, parents and community.
- arrive at school and be prepared with the instructional materials and plans necessary for the day's activities.
- call the school, and , if possible, the associate teacher, in the event of an absence due to illness or emergency.
- attend all trainee sessions, including seminars and team meetings.

Appendix III

A Teacher Reflects on School Based Training

Interviewer: How did you come to choose this type of training or this way to become a teacher?

Tracey: Well, um, quite by accident really. I had wanted to teach, to teach primary school level and I applied for teachers; college, at this stage I didn't realize that there was this training at Hills - um and I wasn't accepted at teachers' college. I wasn't sure what I wanted to do, um, and through a friend of a friend, really they put me on to the school. I met with Michael and Melanie, the principal and his wife and they outlined what they wanted to do in teacher training and asked if I was interested. At that stage I still wasn't sure because I know a lot about it. But I decided to go along and spend some time with the school.

Interviewer: When you say that they outlined what they wanted to do with teacher training - could you tell me briefly - what was their outline of what they wanted to do in teacher training?

Tracey: Well it was very vague as they didn't have a course, a structured course at that stage. It was , they had a vision to start training teachers.

Interviewer: Why did they want to do that?

Tracey: To, can't remember exactly what they said, but to have teachers trained, suitable to teach in the school, with the special character of the school - to teach effectively.

Interviewer: Mm that's interesting. Do you have any idea why you were not accepted for teacher training (at the traditional course in Wellington?)

Tracey: Well I don't know the facts, but I was given quite a good indication. For one thing I didn't have any Maori language or culture, Maori language. I didn't hide the fact that I was a Christian. Apart from that I'm not sure because on my report -that you get back- there were no negative comments at all. But there was also a lot of people applying for teachers' college; - many didn't get accepted.

Interviewer: Right. And what were your grades like?
For example, what academic qualifications did you take with you in your application?

Tracey: From High School?

Interviewer: Yes

Tracey: I had Fifth and Sixth Form. I had average level of grades.

Interviewer: Right. Okay. You said before that you wanted to be a teacher. Why was this?

Tracey: um I just enjoy working with children. I had had a lot to do with children through fostering. At that stage I was specifically interested in working with children with special needs; we had some children like this we had been looking after at home - it gave me a taste of working with children, especially with children with special needs.

Interviewer: What were the reactions of your peers, those friends you had, who , say you had applied for teachers' college with -when they heard of what you were going to do?

Tracey: um, different reactions from different people. A lot of people, well a few of my friends, a couple in the church particularly, were a bit sceptical about it because it was something new; I wasn't guaranteed a qualification at the end; and I was going into it not really knowing- I wasn't guaranteed a qualification at the end of it. I wasn't really getting paid, so they were a bit sceptical because of those factors.

Um but my family were all for it. They supported me. And as I went on through the course and I began to understand a lot more about Christian Education, and I could share it with friends and family, then they could also see, its purposes and where it was going.

It was a developing thing for me.

Interviewer: As you went through the course, perhaps - Did you keep contact with some of the people who did go to teachers' college?

Tracey: Not really, no. I didn't have any close friends who went to teachers' college.

Interviewer: I was wondering how they would feel about the fact that you had so much contact in the classroom, in the school. Alright. Umm.

Tracey:

Interviewer: Could you please describe your feelings and anticipations, sort of as you approached the course.

Tracey: Before?

Interviewer: Before you started. In the time between, committing yourself to doing this training and actually starting.

Tracey: Um, well I got more and more excited as I spent more time with Michael- just talking with him, beginning to see what he was on about and the school's vision. I got really excited. I just knew that that's really what I wanted to do.

Interviewer: What about during the course itself?

Tracey: Um

Interviewer: Did you have a sense at any time that " Wow this is great. I've made the right choice" or Did you have misgivings or...?

Tracey: No. No. I really felt that umm, I suppose I really caught the vision of the school and I enjoyed the training. I loved the time in the classroom. I learnt a lot personally. I grew a lot in my understanding. Yes. I, I enjoyed it- very much.

Interviewer: As you approached the end of your course, did you have any indication that you would be able to get a job anywhere?

Tracey: I was pretty well guaranteed a job at the school, so that was . . .

Interviewer: Do you think that influenced you at all during your training the fact that you knew that you had a position to go to?

Tracey: Oh yes. I was preparing to teach in the school so umm.. Its not like I was training and didn't know what would be at the end. I was training for something, for a job.

Interviewer: Right, Okay. On the first day that you stood in front of your own class, did you feel ready?

Tracey: Yes I did.

Interviewer: You did?

Tracey: Oh yeah. It was a funny feeling - I had all these children in front of me - they were mine - for the next months, the year. Um. No I loved it. It was good. I still remember the first day.

Interviewer: Oh right!
What were the best aspects of your preparation?

Tracey: Umm.. I think, well definitely the time with the teacher in the classroom. I was very, when I first started teaching in my own class I was so familiar with the class and the way it ran; familiar with the children. I knew the children which was great. So that, that was a great benefit. I also had a feel for the way the school ran.....

Interviewer: How important do you think that was?

Tracey: I know it was important, because I think, I knew them, I had their support. Its not all that easy going into a new role, a new class - it a big responsibility. But I had people around me who I knew. I can imagine going into a new school, new children, new class, new staff to work with, - we had already worked together as a team so....

Interviewer: Right, can you remember any of the questions you had in that, in those early weeks when you first started in your own class?

Tracey: Not specifically. Not specific questions that I had but I know that, I always had someone to go to if I had a problem or a query. The rest of the staff were always there to answer questions.

Interviewer: Did you tend to go to one person?

Tracey: Umm... Not particularly. There was only four of us anyway.

Interviewer: Were there any parts of your preparation that you look back at with negative memories?

Tracey: Umm..... The only thing, that I regret,. . in the end, it got rushed, I had to rush to fit everything in.
So I had a lot of study to do, to get finished by the end of the year. Umm that made it a bit difficult.

Interviewer: Umm, When you were in the classroom, in observing, that was an integral part of your learning process - were you given any help as to how to observe - training into what to look for?

Tracey: Initially I wasn't, I was just in the class to absorb the, just absorb the classroom atmosphere and what went on in the class. I wasn't doing specific observations, or specific things with children. um.. But later on, I had the more formal type observations to do, I was given sheets to guide these what to look out for.

Interviewer: Having been in the classroom for two years, isn't it now?, when you look back do you think you could have been given more help or was the help you were given enough - did you, do you think now that you actually got hold of what was going on - the multitude of things that do go on in a classroom?

Tracey: Sorry? Did I get enough. . . .?

Interviewer: help. Like, now that you are teaching in a classroom you know the multitude of things that are happening at one time. When you were observing the formal part of your observation do you think you got enough

help and support, or even instruction, into looking and actually seeing what was going on?

Tracey: Yeah, Yeah, I did. You definitely needed those guide-lines - to have it pointed out particularly what you were looking for. because you do (do need it), when you are in the classroom you don't, there are so many things to be looking out for, that you need that help. Yeah I did get that.

Interviewer: Who had the most influence on your thinking, um, during your training? Thinking in terms of the big picture - like the vision of the school, the whole role of teaching and those sorts of things?

Tracey: Umm. The principal and his wife. I spent a lot of time just talking with the principal, quite informally. I gained a lot, and also from his wife, as I with her at the same time as I was in the classroom - for the first three quarters of the year. They both thought very much on the same wavelength and so it was really good.

Interviewer: So you always got the same message?

Tracey: Yes.

Interviewer: What about on your actual practice? - in terms of classroom management? perhaps teaching style?

Tracey: Umm one teacher in particular. I spent, not very long with - just a term with her. She's just a very good teacher. She manages her class very well. I learned a lot in a short time.

Interviewer: What attracted you to her style?

Tracey: She had a very orderly class. She was quiet; she would discipline them quietly; very rarely raised her voice - she had discipline and order in her classroom.

Interviewer: What about teaching style?

Tracey: . . . I learned a lot from her - watching her - I only spent a week, a term in her class. Um..it was more the classroom management and the atmosphere in the classroom.

Interviewer: And so who would have had the most influence on you in teaching style?

Tracey: Probably, the teacher I spent the most time with.

Interviewer: Why would that be?

Tracey: Umm... It would be, well because I spent the longest time with her, I had a lot to do with her, she was the first teacher I spent time with. Also she was teaching the level that I am now teaching.

Interviewer: Did you sort of have 'fireside chats' or, I mean how was that influence, did you have time to talk through issues with her or were you just in her classroom and observe.

Tracey: Oh no, I did have time to chat with her during the end of the day. Wasn't always easy to - but lunch time, play time. If I had questions she would spend time with me, discussing things, explaining things - what she had done; what she was going to do.....

Interviewer: Okay, Well who has the most influence on your thinking about these different areas now - say classroom management?

Tracey: Who has the..?

Interviewer: Who has the most influence on you **now,** now after your training and after two years in the classroom?

Tracey: Who has the most influence?

Interviewer: Yes who influences you. Is it still the same or is there someone else that has influenced you?

Tracey: Umm.. I suppose, I mean I remember back to those times together.

Interviewer: Have you consciously aimed at modelling or imitating your self or modelling yourself, or imitating or copying any one teacher? or teachers?

Tracey: Um I tend to, I think I tend to model, different things from different people. You know..

Interviewer: Oh yes?

Tracey: You see something you like, and you try to work it out. so, several teachers really. Like say, this girl that I spent a term with. I modelled a lot on her classroom management skills, but when it comes to teaching, then, I model on the teacher I spent my first year with.

Interviewer: Right, um...
What was the structure of the course in terms of theory and practice?
Did you have times out of the classroom where you looked at theory and then you went back in? or

Tracey: For the first two terms that I was in the school I spent most of my time in the classroom, then the last part of the first year I spent the morning in the classroom and the afternoon studying. what we would do.. well I had a lot -

to start with I had a lot of books to read and discussion time with the principal - just about how to develop curriculum Christianly; and once I had done that, then I started training in the different curriculum areas. I would read up a lot of it, discuss it with the lady that was training me at that time. Then after we had discussed I would go and observe lessons- say if it was reading- I would go and observe reading lessons, then I would write up lessons, a lesson plan, and then I would go and teach it.

Interviewer: Did you go and look at other schools?

Tracey: Umm Yes I did. I visited two or three.
I didn't spend much time in other schools.

Interviewer: When you were studying a curriculum area did you look at only one way of presenting the material, or, like, did you look at perhaps what was the 'in vogue' way of presenting something as well as perhaps the school's policy?

Tracey: I did in some subject areas. In reading I read a lot of different books..... so yes I did get to look at other ways of teaching reading.
I did quite a wide range of reading..

Interviewer: When it came to putting these things into practice in your training time, how were you able to cope when you failed or when you felt you failed or made a mistake?

Tracey: Um, Well I just had to realize I had made a mistake and try and learn from what I had done wrong. And to do it better next time.

Interviewer: What was the response from the people working with you?

Tracey: Well, basically they would just evaluate how I did, honestly and if there was an area - I would work on it.

Interviewer: Did you feel that you had room to try things that were very different to the supervising teachers' ways?

Tracey: I felt I had (the room), but I didn't really.

Interviewer: But you felt you had the freedom to?

Tracey: Um, yeah, I probably could have. I don't know if I would have had the confidence to...when you are just learning you do it the way you see someone else do it.

Interviewer: So when, the things you were doing in the afternoon, you've already talked about that,- the structure was very much, the link very much was between what you were studying and what you were doing in the classroom....

What would you change about your training?

Tracey: I didn't.. because it was a little bit different from the course that's running now- its more structured. When I did it, it wasn't structured, so I didn't really know before hand. I wasn't working from a framework, so I didn't always know before hand what I would be doing or where I was going - it was just, well, one step at a time. It was good, I got through all I needed to, and was confident.

So you think, that because it wasn't fairly structured, you .....

Interviewer: So do you think what has happened since then is good?

Tracey: Oh yeah

Interviewer: An improvement in the sense of development?

Tracey: Yes

Interviewer: Do you have student teachers in your class? (now..)

Tracey: Yes I have.

Interviewer: So what way do you participate in the training of teachers?

Tracey: I've just had them in my class observing, working like teacher's aide...I haven't had part in the formal training, anything like that.

Interviewer: Tell me about the registration process - when you applied for registration.

Tracey: Um, well I just applied, it was the time of year when the teachers were applying for registration and I filled out a form and I, well the principal just verified that I was a competent teacher and sent it off - and I got it.

Interviewer: No questions asked?

Tracey: No

Interviewer: So in terms of what, you know where you had to fill in qualifications and that sort of thing - what did you put there?

Tracey: I didn't. I don't remember putting very much at all. - just the date that you started at the school.

[I later asked the principal about this procedure. He confirmed that he and the school's board and written the support material for Tracey's application for registration.
This was at the beginning of the registration process where schools could nominate the people already working in their schools for registration.

The principal also said that subsequent to this procedure, an inspector came and undertook a review of the teacher. He (the inspector) apparently made very positive comments both about the teacher and the training she had received].

Interviewer: Was the student job description in place when you were training? Did you have a job description to follow?

Tracey: Yes there was one.

Interviewer: What role did that play? Did you find it helpful? or..

Tracey: It just outlined what my responsibilities were, in the school really. All the teachers had a form which outlined their responsibilities in the school, and I was just included as part of the staff so I was given a few responsibilities in the school. Monitoring buses, but also being, acting as a teacher's aide, in the classroom. and the times, and having an open attitude towards learning.

Interviewer: This may seem a strange question to ask, but when you look back, what role did the teacher training have in preparing you to be a teacher? Or another way to ask that question is "Do you think you could be the teacher you are today, without that training?"

Tracey: laugh...., if I had walked into a class four years ago before I had been trained, I wouldn't know what to do....

Interviewer: So it's been important

Tracey: Oh yes.

Interviewer: And, um, how did you find the course in terms of academic demand.

Tracey: Um, it was okay.

Interviewer: Did you think you could have taken more?, had more demand made of you?

Tracey: yeah, probably, probably could have. At the time I was also doing a university paper. Looking back I wasted my time doing that. But at the time I thought it would have been beneficial.

Interviewer: Why do you consider that to be a waste of time?

Tracey: I didn't get a lot from it. It didn't help my training.

Interviewer: What subjects did you take the paper in?

Tracey: Educational Psychology, ... and Education in Society. They were just Year One.

Interviewer: And did you finish them?

Tracey: Yes.

Interviewer: And what kind of grades did you get for those?

Tracey: Bs, Bs I think.

Interviewer: Have you ever thought, " Mm I'd like to do a bit more training?"

Tracey: Yes, I would. I would like to go on learning.

Interviewer: How do you think your training has influenced that attitude particularly?

Tracey: Umm I'm just keen to learn more. Just to keep my education ....

Interviewer: Do you think that's because of who you are, or partly its a by-product of the type of, either the programme or the people you are with? How would you account for that?

Tracey: During my training, a lot of it was independent type study, guided independent study. - which was good - because you learned to motivate yourself; and you had to, you had to, hunt out resources for myself and that sort of thing. I don't know, maybe that's had an influence.
You learn to ....., and just being in the environment, just being here at school, everyone's like that. You know there's so much to learn and take in.
- We go to conferences and hear other people's perspectives.

Interviewer: Tell me some of the extra areas that you have developed or learned, conferences or inservice things you have been to since you have finished your training.

Tracey: What I've, since I have finished?

Interviewer: Yes, what have you been to? conferences or inservice days, or....

Tracey: I've been to the conferences, the annual NZACS; I attended the Bill Gothard seminar; that was good, that was great;

Interviewer: Did you participate in the computer workshop.

Tracey:I've just completed a polytech course, myself at a local polytech. It's an assistant diploma of teaching word processing..... It's an extra qualification.

Interviewer: So what does that give you, - the ability to teach word-processing?

Tracey: Yes, so I can teach it to high school and adults...

Interviewer: And that was building on other qualifications you had, was it?

Tracey: I had, had done lots of typing and secretarial work before I started the training course. It's another area in which I am interested.

Interviewer: So where too from here in terms of career?

Tracey: I really don't know. If I wasn't marrying at the end of this year and moving away I would be carrying on at the school.

Interviewer: Well let's say that in five years time you were still teaching, what would you like to be teaching?
What age level? Would you like to have pursued some more development in a particular area or? would you like to continue teaching the age group you are teaching?

Tracey: No. I don't think, I enjoy the age group that I am teaching but I would also like to extend my teaching ability by moving up the school into different areas of the school. I'd be quite keen to get involved in the teacher training in the future. I don't feel qualified now or competent enough to do that now, but I'd like to do that, I'd be interested in that.

Interviewer: Tell me more about that - what role you think you can play in that?

Tracey: I'm not too sure really. .... I'm very excited about what has been going on over the last few years - the teacher training course and I would just be keen to be involved in some way, whether it be by having teacher trainees in my class or...? I'm not sure.

Interviewer: So what has happened to the people who trained you? Do you relate to them in any way?

Tracey: Oh yes. I'm working alongside most of them so, umm we still share ideas, I'm still learning from them. Umm... we just work together as a team, supporting and helping each other. There's still change, though supposedly finished, it's an ongoing, ongoing training.

Interviewer: Do you think that the fact your training happened with those people and you've still been able to relate to them, has been a factor in perhaps your confidence, or smooth transition?

Tracey: Oh, very much so. It made it, umm, well like I said earlier, just having them, their support, just knowing the people that I was working along side.
Yes, I had it very much easier.

Interviewer: Do you think it was, umm, what were the advantages of being employed by and in the school where you trained?

Tracey: I was trained to teach in the school so the school has its own special character.

Interviewer: Would you feel confident teaching anywhere else?

Tracey: Umm.... I don't know. It would be quite different. I know it would be different. Quite an adjustment. But I think I could probably cope.

Interviewer: What makes the difference? Why do you think um. that you feel confident in this place. Obviously you have been trained to it, but is there any other, um reason why that, this is more attractive to you, than say, another school that had a different character?

Tracey: Um, well in this school I can be myself. I can, can , well just be myself, really. Just my personality and the way I think, and live, is in line with what is happening in the school, so, I am not putting on a face at all. When I come to school I am just being myself, teaching the way I think, its all in line with the way I live and think; in line with what is being taught, and put across to the children in the school.

Interviewer: Were there any disadvantages in teaching in the school where you have been trained? Like you talked before about that you knew the students - was it difficult for them to make the transition from, say, trainee teacher to full time teacher?

Tracey: No, not really. They didn't .. no. I think, they, although I didn't have my own classroom - to them I was always a teacher so....

Interviewer: How was that achieved?

Tracey: They treated me the same way as, um, any of the other teachers in the school; with the same respect and, yeah ,was expected of them towards me as to the teachers.
I was often in the classroom teaching them so.....

Interviewer: And just finally, what do you think is the key.....if you were to design a teacher training programme, what would be its key component? What's the most important thing to you, that you value, in teacher training?

Tracey: One thing?

Interviewer: Well it doesn't matter if its a couple, but key areas that you think are important.

Tracey: Well I was, I felt very well prepared, and..reasonably confident when I was faced with my own class. I just felt confident within the school environment. It was where I had been trained and I knew the staff that I was working with. Does that answer your question?

Interviewer: Probably, what if you could say one aspect of the training. Obviously you've mentioned the fact that you were in the class, that seems to me, or in the school environment - it seems to me that that was a key - anything else that was a key. Umm.....

What link do you see between ongoing learning and training and feeling competent now?

Tracey: What link?

Interviewer: What link, or don't worry about it as you've answered it. How do you think you will feel in five years about the training you undertook?

Tracey: It was a starting point really. I feel that I trained for two years but I, my training is continuing. Very much so in terms of being in the classroom.....

Interviewer: Can you elaborate on what you mean?

Tracey: You continue to learn so much just working in the classroom, working with the children, putting things into practice that you've learned and finding out better ways of doing things, or different ways of doing things.

Interviewer: How do you find those different ways?

Tracey: Umm... better usually. You find, you find just ways of doing things that suit you better; that you find that work better, in the classroom and with the children you've got.

Interviewer: So is that by trial and error?

Tracey: Yes, well it is really. You learn as you go. If something doesn't work, you find a different way next time.

Interviewer: And the environment you are in, I understand that this afternoon, you've been released from your class to observe in another school. Is that a regular thing that happens for you.

Tracey: Not really, not now that I'm in my own classroom.

Interviewer: During or since your training have you wished that you had gone to teachers college?

Tracey: laugh... the further on I've gone in my training, the more... as I've gone through my training, I just felt more and more relieved that I didn't go through training college.

Interviewer: Why would that be?

Tracey: Well, because teaching here is so much more in line with my beliefs.

Interviewer: And you don't think you would have been teaching here if you went to teachers college?

Tracey: No

Interviewer: Why would that be?

Tracey: I don't think they would take on state trained teachers. I think I would have been quite taken up with what was going on. I would be in the state, because I would have trained in the state system, teaching in a state school would be the next step I suppose.

Interviewer: So in that way, you see that whatever training programme a person goes into prepares them for a, a particular delivery in education?

Tracey: Oh yes.

Interviewer: Do you do anything to keep yourself up to date with modern trends in education at all?

Tracey: No I haven't personally. I haven't over the last couple of years. Well I have from time to time , but not in a consistent way. Its just a matter of picking up magazines that are sent to the school, from the education department. That sort of thing.

Interviewer: Thank-you very much for your time.

Appendix IV

EVALUATIVE SUMMARY from SBTE programme.
from: Dobson et al (1983:42).

The program was successful in achieving its objectives despite organisational problems, personal idiosyncrasies and timetabling difficulties.

The overall outcomes were positive in relation to the students as most of them were able to develop some degree of reflectiveness, some ability to put into practice the action research approach to professional development.

The students were more able to accept comments on their teaching in a non judgemental environment both from their peers, associate teachers and tutors.

The program provided support systems for students who needed it. There was always a network of people to assist the student who had any problems in any area of the curriculum.

The tutorials provided a wealth of theoretical and practical information and was supplemented by guest speakers in language and special education.

The program gave the students a chance to actively take part and contribute in a school environment and to observe the day to day (mundane) running of the school program.

The program provided a number of benefits for the school in general. The students' and tutors' enthusiasms to contribute to activities around the school was a very positive outcome of the program. The resources and ideas of lecturers and students provided the children with a variety of educational activities which they would not normally experience.

The program provided continuous in-service education for the associate teachers. Most teachers modified their teaching to encompass new ideas in certain curricula areas.

It also provided teachers with an opportunity to plan for several teaching activities taken at the same time. For instance, many classes ran teaching groups concurrently to the benefit of the children. As a result a comprehensive program could be followed using the extra manpower available.

On the whole the associate teachers regarded the program successful for the reasons outlined above. Its success outweighed organisational difficulties that occurred through the program. Having gained from the experience it is hoped that the program will continue in 1983 with some minor modifications."

Appendix V:

Job Description of a Mentor

from Mentoring - the Strategy of the Master Davis (1991:50,51)

The calling of a mentor is high and noble. The role of a mentor is crucial. The life of a mentor is risky. The rewards of a mentor's work are profound, but intangible.
The job description of a mentor is demanding.

1. I am willing to spend the time it takes to build an intensely bonded relationship with the learner.

2. I commit myself to believing in the potential and future of the learner; to telling the learner what kind of exciting future I see ahead for him or her; to visualising and verbalising the possibilities for his or her life.

3. I am willing to be vulnerable and transparent before the learner, willing to share not only my strengths and successes, but also my weaknesses, failures, brokenness, and sins.

4. I am willing to be honest yet affirming in confronting the learner's errors, faults and areas of immaturity.

5. I am committed to standing by the learner through trials - even trials that are self-inflicted as a result of ignorance or error.

6. I am committed to helping the learner set goals for his or her spiritual life, career or ministry and to helping the learner dream his or her dream.

7. I am willing to objectively evaluate the learner's progress toward his or her goal.

8. Above all, I am committed to faithfully living out everything I teach.