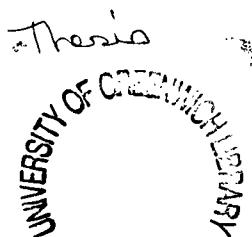# HEI-SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP IN INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING:

The balance of HEI-school responsibilities for, and the nature of, secondary PGCE courses

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Abstract

This study examines the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for secondary PGCE courses, and extends previous work in this dimension of partnership by moving beyond the perspective of HEI course managers through content analysis of HEI course documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders. The views of mentor, school ITT co-ordinator, university tutor, and student participants in these courses were also examined, through a questionnaire survey across ten HEI-school partnerships. More specifically, the aim has been to examine the balance of HEI-school responsibility for: course planning and organisation; the assessment of students' teaching; and the assessment of students' work other than teaching. Here, as in other aspects of the study, the experience of participants has been analysed at the level of the overall course, and from the perspective of each of the participant rôles. A second, more extensive, aim of the study has been to establish the nature of these courses, particularly within a framework of what may be alled 'technical', 'interpretive', and 'critical' conceptions of teaching This model has also been extended to the importance placed upon the foci of students' reflection, and other aspects of the nature of teachers', tutors' and students' work on PGCE courses. The implications of these course characteristics in terms of the forms of teacher professionalism associated with them provides a complementary theme which runs through the study. The latter part of this thesis includes a survey of four School Centred Initial Teacher Training Schemes. Differences between data from the HEI documentation, and the perspectives of HEI course leaders, and the teacher, tutor, and student participants have been examined. The association between the balance of HEI-school responsibilities and the nature of courses was also examined, with particular reference to the evident association of shared HEI-school course responsibilities with course experiences, which may support the development of extended forms of professionalism.

Acknowledgements

CONTENTS

Part 1: The Context of the Research

Part 2: Description and Analysis of the Research Results

Charts

I. The balance of responsibilities, support and accountability in HEI-school partnership

II. Conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT courses

III. The nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students in ITT courses

IV. The form of students' reflection in ITT courses

V. Relationships between course characteristics

Tables

I. The balance of responsibilities, support and accountability in HEI-school partnership

II. Conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT courses

III. The nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students in ITT courses

IV. The form of students' reflection in ITT courses

Part 1:

The Context of the Research

I. Introduction

The nature and organisation of initial teacher training (ITT) courses have been the subject of significant statutory change in recent years, as the traditional autonomy of higher education institutions (HEIs) has been replaced by increasingly centralised control of ITT. Key elements of this process have included increasing the responsibilities of schools for ITT courses (so that their relationship with HEIs is now one of 'partnership'), and the relatively detailed specification of 'competences' required of students for successful completion of an ITT course (DFE, 1992). Wilkin (1996a) has described well what clearly became an ideological struggle which generated a mixed response from those involved in ITT, with particular concern expressed about the implications for the nature of teaching as a profession. There was a long-standing trend of increased importance being placed by HEIs on practical training (Wilkin, 1996a), extended by the development of influential school-based ITT courses (Furlong *et al.*, 1988; Benton, 1990b), but teacher professionalism was perceived to be threatened by the influence of a New Right which advocated a school-based training in which HEIs were to have minimal, if any, involvement. This explicitly apprenticeship model of training, in which an understanding of educational principles is irrelevant because teaching is characterised as an essentially practical skill, was seen by many teachers in schools and HEIs to threaten the status of the profession.

This concern frames the overall purpose of this study of post-*Circular 9/92*, and pre-*Circular 4/98* courses, which seeks to explore whether relative HEI-school responsibilities for contemporary ITT courses are associated with the forms of teacher professionalism promoted through them. This in turn requires two areas of ITT to be examined. First, where the balance lies in key areas of *HEI-school responsibility for courses*. Second, the nature of ITT courses in terms of the forms of *teacher professionalism* which they promote. These broad aims may be represented as initial research questions:

1. Where does the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for courses lie?
2. What forms of teacher professionalism are promoted through ITT courses?
3. Does the form of professionalism promoted through courses vary with course characteristics, notably the relative balance of HEI-school responsibilities for ITT?

These questions will be honed and developed in response to the literature review and examination of methodological issues discussed below, but it is should be acknowledged straight away that teacher professionalism is, of course, a complex and contested concept. This will be explored below, but in setting the scene it is helpful to note that the prime concern here was with the practice rather than the status of teachers; a key element by which this has been represented in this study is that of the *conceptions of teaching* promoted through courses, a framework which is also applied to students' reflective work. Other aspects of students' work with teachers and tutors are also examined, as are a range of factors which have been identified as having the potential to influence the development of these conceptions of teaching. The nature of these key course elements will be informed by the literature review and described in the subsequent section on the methods and methodology used in this study. Other factors, such as the importance of participants' subject specialism and the integration of theory and practice, will be explored as appropriate when the data are analysed in Part 2 below.

Fuller details will be given when examining the research design of this study but, in brief, the nature of partnership and ITT courses will be examined at two levels. Course *intentions* will be established through an analysis of HEI documentation, complemented by data from HEI course leaders, while questionnaires will be used to draw a picture of respondents' *experiences* of courses. The emphasis here will be on establishing and examining these latter experiences, although the intentions are interesting in themselves, as well as providing a potentially valuable contrast to reality as perceived by those directly involved in ITT. The focus will be on secondary PGCE courses, although experience within School-Centred Initial Teacher Training schemes (SCITTs) will also be examined, not least because these have been seen by some commentators as exemplifying the purpose of undermining teacher professionalism.

As is already becoming evident, this study requires the use of a range of acronyms and specialist terms. A complicating factor is that the title given to key participant rôles varies across HEI-school partnerships. While most referred to 'tutors' and 'students'; teachers were given a host of titles. Here, 'mentor' is used to describe the teacher who generally shared the subject specialism of the student and who worked closely with the student on a regular basis with a focus on classroom practice in particular. The invariably more senior teachers who worked with students to address broader issues are here termed 'ITT co-ordinators'.

II.   A review of the literature

The literature review will focus on the key conceptual areas examined within this study. The nature of HEI-school partnership is examined first, and set briefly in an historical and socio-political context which sets the scene for the study of ITT more generally. The focus then moves on to conceptions of teaching, which provide the key analytical framework used in this study; extending this framework to the analysis of mentoring and reflection has been designed to support the coherence and continuity of this study. These should be strengthened further by references to the forms of teacher professionalism which also relate to this framework and provide a thread which connects the analysis of the key course elements. The subsequent review of mentoring includes many references to the work of tutors, whose rôle is interdependent with that of mentors and ITT co-ordinators; these rôles have therefore been examined under the generic title of 'mentoring'. The various reforms to ITT have not essentially changed the *rôle* of students, although changes in the nature of their work are referred to when appropriate. This section thus refers to various forms of teachers' and tutors' work with students. It sets the scene for the analysis of data which relate to this, as well as to the expectations and experience of these rôles, whose perspectives are applied to the various aspects of courses examined here. The literature review concludes by examining the meaning and development of reflection. Less central factors examined in this study, such as participants' subject specialism, are set in the context of the literature when the relevant data are analysed.

A.   HEI-school partnership

Reviewing the literature associated with HEI-school partnership in ITT is inherently complex because the term has been used in different ways, and has many dimensions. Some of these, such as mentoring, have literatures of their own (in so far as one can maintain such artificial distinctions) and are examined separately below. The purpose here, therefore, is to examine the changing nature of partnership during the post-war period generally, but in increasing detail as we near the contemporary scene. Finally, the development of SCITTs will be reviewed. First, however, we need to establish how 'partnership' is to be understood.

i.   Definitions

The term 'partnership' is, as Clark (1988) noted in his review of university-school relations, a slippery one. In this study, the meaning of partnership is largely determined by being set within the context of ITT courses in which HEIs and schools are now *required* to work together in a form of association framed by Government intervention (DES, 1984, 1989a, 1992; DFE, 1992), and under the aegis of the

Teacher Training Agency (TTA) and of the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED). Partnership is the term now used to describe this association and, because the intention here is to set the work of HEIs and schools in ITT courses in an historical context, it will be used to describe HEI-school relationships which might well not fulfil all aspects of an ideal model of partnership.

The meaning of partnership has changed over time. For example, in the 1970s at Queen's University, Belfast, teachers had an enhanced rôle in training students, but this was within an inquiry-based model in which teachers were *facilitators* rather than directly involved in *training* (Campbell, 1980). Since then, the meaning of partnership has at various times been oriented, as we shall see below, by interested bodies such as the former Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) and the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE), but there has been no consensus even about its components. Thus, a CNAA survey used a tutor-student scale to establish where responsibility for structuring the course lay (Smith, 1980, 1982); teachers were not mentioned. By the late 1980s, partnership in CNAA validated courses was reported to extend to teacher involvement in course design, school placements, student assessment, and course evaluation.

The development of partnership became increasingly important, but its form still varied, as reflected in the disparate nature of contributions to Booth *et al.*'s, (1990b) review of partnership in the late 1980s. Here, Alexander (1990) examined partnership in terms of *enabling* (concerned with structures, rôles and procedure) and *action* (focusing on the interactions of the participants); this is similar to Booth *et al*'s (1990a) emphasis on joint planning and styles of supervision. The focus of Wilkin's (1996a) analysis of partnership has been on the nature of courses, and the relationship between theory and practice, as well as (in this and other works) the nature of the work of the various participants. As we shall see, the extent to which theory and practice are integrated has been of continuing concern in ITT, and thus was incorporated into the foci of this study.

This personal dimension of partnership has also been drawn attention to by Alexander (1990), and been examined in terms of the extent to which responsibilities (particularly of teachers and tutors) are designed to be complementary or shared, a distinction important in many reviews of the Oxford Internship Scheme (e.g. McIntyre, 1988, 1990a, b, 1995, 1997; Benton, 1990a; Pendry, 1992; 1994; McIntyre and Hagger, 1993; Allsop, 1994; Rothwell *et al.*, 1994; Wynn, 1994; Hayward, 1997). The importance of this personal dimension is reflected in studies of how particular partnerships have developed (e.g. Inman *et al.*, 1994), but even in empirical studies the focus has continued to be more on the nature of participants' rôles than students' experiences (e.g. Robinson and Robinson, 1999)

Of course, these rôles affect experiences, and interrelate with the nature of the HEI-school partnership, a point which will be reinforced below when examining the rôles of mentors (see pp. 34*ff.* below). Particular attention has been given to the complementary model of partnership in which teachers and tutors are seen to make distinctive contributions to courses, whether derived from their knowledge and abilities (Hirst, 1990; McIntyre, 1990b, 1995) or the breadth of the HEIs' frame of reference and their commitment to independent enquiry (Edwards, 1990, 1995). This perceived wider concern of HEIs underlies Jones *et al.*'s (1997) view that HEIs complement the school contribution to classroom practice by supporting students' further professional development. Egan (1995), working in the different tradition of what was once the public sector of higher education, challenges this view; he sees the respective rôles of teachers and tutors as seamless, allowing a distinctive form of collaborative partnership to develop. It quickly became clear that examining the perspectives of the different participant rôles added a valuable dimension to the issues addressed through this study.

Much previous work has, however, been at a rather general level, focusing on issues such as responsibility for promoting students' reflective approach to teaching. This form of influence upon the nature of partnership may also be relatively specific to a particular course. Thus, Husbands (1995b) has drawn attention to the action research principles which underpin ITT at the University of East Anglia. This work, amongst others, also shows how local factors, such as the size of schools and their distance from the HEI may influence forms of partnership. In view of the subcultures within larger faculties of education at least (Hogbin *et al.*, 1996), it also seems possible that understandings and the practice of partnership may differ at this level of partnership as well, even before variation in the practice of schools takes effect. Indeed, the TTA (1996b) guidance supplementing a legislative framework for partnership can be interpreted in a variety of ways. This raises the question of how experience of partnership varies across courses; as little is known about the nature, source and extent of this variation, the case for practice to be examined through a relatively extensive survey rather than a study of a small number of cases is strengthened. First, however, it is necessary to conceptualise partnership more fully.

Various models, or dimensions, of partnership have been described. Bridges (1993) has distinguished between *corporate* and *collaborative professional* partnerships, in which relative HEI-school responsibility for the dimensions of partnership was a key factor. In the corporate model of partnership, a single school has primary responsibility for the selection, training and assessment of students; while in the collaborative professional model, responsibility for training and assessment is shared between the HEI and partner schools. At one level, HEIs seem to be the dominant partner here,

retaining more responsibility than is the case in Egan's (*ibid.*) version of collaborative partnership because they decide, for example, in which schools students are placed. However, Bridges' vision of collaboration involves the HEI extending their involvement in a school beyond ITT, and enhancing teachers' professionalism through, for example, supporting action research projects. Reynolds (1993) makes a not dissimilar distinction between 'new managers' who see the reforms of ITT as an opportunity to extend the self-managerial capacity of teachers, and 'old professionals' who are more concerned with promoting reflection in action. It may be argued that these latter two analyses derive from a deficit view of teachers' professionalism. This conclusion is supported by the fact that, for Bridges, school-based ITT is likely to constrain critical practice.

Sikes (1992) accepts only a collaboration of equals as allowing 'genuine partnership' but elsewhere (1994) suggests that this model does not fit ITT well, because teachers and tutors work in very different contexts. On this basis, Campbell *et al.* (1996) conclude that there is a continuum of *associations* rather than partnership. Crozier *et al.* (1990) suggest that it is difficult for responsibility to be shared equally in practice due to pragmatic factors such as the differing location of teachers and tutors; rather, they continue, who holds the balance of responsibility will depend upon the facet of partnership being examined. Similarly, Taylor (1995) questions the meaning of 'shared responsibility' in a partnership involving over 50 different schools and 200 teachers; it is such practical factors, including the turnover of schools willing to work with students, which Furlong *et al.* (2000) have highlighted as explaining the scarcity of collaborative partnership. Rather, McCulloch (1994a) considers, courses may best be characterised by a *combination* of levels, varying from 'full' (with executive rights) to 'advisory' (through e.g. conferences), in different dimensions of partnership. Nevertheless, Cameron-Jones and O'Hara (1993) maintain that partnership may be 'equal' if the partners accept the authority and strength of each other's differing contribution. From Birmingham, Lock and Soares (1995) see responsibilities within a partnership as varying with its phase and organisation, equal partnership being more likely when students are on serial than on block practice or based at the HEI, and the beginning to explore the precise areas in which participants believe responsibilities should be shared (Williams and Soares, 2000). An alternative form of partnership, characterised by mutuality rather than profit seeking, has been characterised by Sikes (1994) as involving *professional exchange,* such as when schools benefit from the action research requirements of course assignments.

It is these structural aspects of partnership which the Modes of Teacher Education (MOTE) team have examined. Their extensive surveys have examined the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for ITT, as well as the nature of participants' work (e.g.

Barrett, *et al.*, 1992a, 1995; Whitty *et al.*, 1992, Miles *et al.*, 1993; Barton *et al.*, 1994; Furlong *et al.*, 1994; 1995; 1996a; 1996b; 2000), i.e. Alexander's (1990) enabling level of partnership. In examining the nature and practice of partnership across ITT courses, this work complements such studies of HEI-school relationships; but it has become clear that partnership continues to evolve as participants' experience and other contextual factors change (McIntyre *et al.*, 1996; Wilkin *et al.*, 1996a; Burton, 1998).

Our understanding of partnership may be extended by examining distinctive aspects of its nature in different countries, although it is beyond the scope of this study to examine these in any detail. The move to partnership in Australia has similarly involved teachers sharing ITT responsibilities with tutors (Field, 1994a; Long, 1995; Millwater and Yarrow, 1997; Walker *et al.*, 1997). But in the USA, tutor-teacher dialogue is said to be rare (Kagan *et al.*, 1993) and the term 'partnership' is seldom applied to ITT. From three case studies, Bullough and Kauchak (1997) found the development of HEI-school partnerships in the USA was limited by contextual factors such as teachers' 'apprenticeship' view of teaching; schools are not regarded as good places for students to become effective (Goodlad, 1988). Auger and Odell (1992) reported a long-standing ITT course in which continuing partnership was based upon an exchange of services, but Clark (1988) found the service-delivery model of partnership to be generally dominant in the USA. Instead of the organisational links now required in ITT in Britain, schools in the USA have typically been expected to benefit from being the subject of university research (Sirotnik and Goodlad, 1988), although there are reports of teachers being actively involved in this research process (Button *et al.*, 1996) and aspirations to support the process of inducting teachers into a school (Colbert and Wolff, 1992; Lawson, 1992). However, even in the 'professional development schools', it is teachers rather than students who are involved in the learning process (Kennedy, 1992; Levine, 1992; Lieberman and Miller, 1992). In Canada too, HEI-school partnerships have been promoted as a means of school improvement (Watson and Fullan, 1992; Beck and Kosnik, 2000), but the organisational and procedural links of the schools and HEI involved seem less developed than in England, even where school-based ITT courses are well-established (Duquette, 1998).

In the rest of Europe, there is a relatively high level of concern with theory in ITT courses (Judge *et al.*, 1994d; Poppleton, 1999), which may help to explain why universities' partnerships with schools there are less developed than in Britain. An attempt to introduce school-based training in France failed, not least because schools felt their responsibility was to pupils and did not see themselves as teacher trainers (Cotton, 1995). The development of partnership in England does seem distinctive, although interestingly (but again beyond the parameters of this study) the rôle of practitioners in

the education and training of other professions seems, like that of teachers, to have been expanding (Bines and Watson, 1992; Champion, 1992; Watson, 1992).

ii.   The partners in ITT

Partnership is multi-dimensional in terms of the facets which may be examined, and of the institutions involved. For reasons more fully explored when examining the research methodology adopted in this study, the focus here has been on secondary PGCE courses. This excluded the huge area of partnership in primary ITT courses (except in so far as there are generic issues), and the small number of courses training FE teachers.[1]

Partnership has in the past included Local Education Authorities (LEAs), reflecting a desire to strengthen the continuity between ITT and teachers' professional development. Thus the relatively early move to HEI-school partnership in ITT represented by *Circular 3/84* (DES, 1984) envisaged that LEAs would be involved in planning and supporting students' school experience. LEAs continued to be ascribed a rôle in developing partnerships when key players attempted to promote these in the later 1980s (DES, 1986; Baker, 1989), and Oxfordshire played an important part in promoting school-based courses at Westminster College (Boydell, 1990) and Oxford University (Benton, 1990b). Elsewhere, LEAs have made recommendations as to which primary schools should be invited to be involved in ITT (Stephenson, 1994). Generally, however, LEA involvement in ITT was relatively rare even at the limited level of selection of the schools to be involved in partnership (HMI, 1987) and before LEAs lost control of their 'empire' through the *Education Reform Act* of 1988; their involvement at anything other than a peripheral level seems increasingly unlikely. Rather, it is schools, HEIs, and the personnel in them who are the key figures in the practice of partnership. As schools and HEIs differ so greatly in their size and purpose, this returns us to the question as to what partnership means. This will be explored below by examining partnership in broadly chronological terms, with particular emphasis on the most recent developments.

iii.   The development of partnership

The nature and development of HEI-school partnership pre-*Circular 9/92* has been addressed by two forms of literature. First, there are studies which have examined aspects of partnership contemporaneously (e.g. Lynch, 1979; Alexander and Whittaker, 1980; Hellawell, 1985). Second, there are works which have reviewed developments with the benefit of hindsight (e.g. Dent, 1977; Alexander *et al.*, 1984; Tickle, 1987; Whitty *et al.*, 1987; Fish, 1989, 1995b; Gosden, 1989; Alexander, 1990; Thomas, 1990; Wilkin, 1990, 1996a; Gardner, 1993; Judge, 1990; Judge *et al.*, 1994a, b,

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[1] There is no requirement for the institutions involved in training FE teachers to be in 'partnership', although particular developments are described by Robson *et al.* (1995) and Trim (2001).

c; Griffiths and Owen, 1995a; Gilroy, 1996; Gardner and Cunningham, 1998). Here, only a brief and selective review related to the particular concerns of this study is possible.

Staying with a focus central to this study, it seems particularly significant that Government-supported efforts to develop partnership at the level of tutors' and teachers' contributions to ITT had limited success (Armytage, 1984), with partnership conceptualised in terms of the integration of theory and practice (Wilkin, 1990). While HEIs and schools worked closely together in parts of courses, pressure from HMI (1980, 1983) to extend partnership had little evident impact. This paved the way, it now seems, for increasing Government control over ITT. At first, this was largely at the level of advocacy, complemented by an emphasis on the importance of practical skills (e.g. DES, 1984) and influence over course accreditation (CATE, 1986). As the political context changed, and particularly as the New Right came to the fore, the effectiveness of the HEI contribution to ITT was increasingly challenged. Alternative school-based routes into teaching were promoted (DES, 1989b, d), but affected relatively few students. It was *Circular 9/92* which put schools at the heart of ITT, a Secretary of State for Education later claimed (DfEE, 1996). Certainly many HEI tutors felt their position was threatened, both in terms of the value and distinctiveness of their contribution, and their continuing employment. HEIs' lack of confidence is captured in UCET's (1992) response to the Government proposals (DES, 1992) which were to become *Circular 9/92* - welcoming the extension of partnership, but in a distinctly defensive tone characterised, for example, by references to the 'arbitrary' increased amount of time to be spent in school.

The definition of partnership has, as described above, been an important area of the literature. The Oxford Internship has been an influential model of complementarity, but others studies have been more cautious about the ease with what some see as different worlds may be matched with each other (e.g. Burgess and Carter, 1992). While some broad principles of partnership established in *Circular 9/92* have been developed, much of the literature reveals the variation in local conditions, as well as of aims, which have meant partnership has continued to develop in a range of distinctive ways (see e.g. Husbands, 1995a). This variation influenced the decision to *survey* a relatively wide range of courses in this study.

As the MOTE team have played such an important part in mapping the course structure, philosophy and form of participants' involvement in ITT, their findings need to be briefly described. Their initial survey of practice immediately prior to *Circular 9/92* found that over 70% of the 86 courses they examined were based upon the reflective practitioner model of teaching (Barrett *et al.*, 1992a; Whitty *et al.*, 1992), although HEIs' ability to maintain this model declined over the period of their research (Barton *et*

al., 1994; Whiting *et al.*, 1996). This (pre-*Circular 9/92*) survey also confirmed HMI's (1991) report that the closeness of HEI-school partnerships varied significantly. Case study data from 45 courses indicated that partnership was just one, largely HEI-led, means to achieve the course integration (Furlong *et al.*, 1994) which was then the dominant issue of course design and evaluation, and that teacher involvement in courses generally was limited, as discussed above. Strengths of this latter research included the fact that interviews with course leaders generated valuable insights into, for example, practical constraints upon the development of partnership, although the perspective was clearly an HEI one.

This gap was repaired somewhat in the second phase of this survey in 1995, which was supplemented by fieldwork involving interviews with a mentor and a group of students in 12 courses. From this, Furlong *et al.* (1996b) established three ideal-types of partnership: *HEI-led* (i.e. 'traditional'), *collaborative* (exemplified by the Oxford Internship Scheme), and *separatist* (in which there was no systematic procedure to integrate the differing responsibilities of schools and HEIs). Whiting *et al.* (1996) reviewed the nature of partnership in more detail and found, for example, that collaborative partnerships were more likely to be established when a small number of schools were involved; overall, most partnerships were found to be HEI-led. The level of teacher involvement was established by examining various aspects of courses, including course planning, teaching, profiling and assessing students. These findings will be examined more closely when comparing them with the data from this study. Finally, from an examination of the nature and conditions of tutors' work, it was concluded that HEIs retained a necessary rôle in ITT, albeit one which was increasingly constrained (Furlong *et al.*, 1996a).

The MOTE team's work has shaped this study's examination of partnership, but has also left room for a more detailed examination of particular aspects. Thus course aims were dealt with a broad brush exemplified in the generalised definition of 'reflection' and the lack of distinction between complementary and collaborative forms of 'shared' partnership. An important landscape view was thus presented, but relationships within it were not explored with, for example, no attempt to examine the association between forms of partnership and other course characteristics. Moreover, the perspectives of teachers and students were far less evident than those of tutors.

A number of edited books have addressed a range of issues, an approach particularly appropriate to the early uncertain stages of responding to the demands of *Circular 9/92*. Bines and Welton (1995b) brought together varied understandings, means of managing, and views of the implications of the development of partnership. Others have collated contributors' experiences of particular course rationales and structures (e.g. McCulloch and Fidler, 1994; Reid *et al.*, 1994; Williams, 1994a, 1995b; Blake *et al.*, 1995b; Griffiths

and Owen, 1995c). Individual courses have been examined in innumerable monographs (e.g. Lambert and Totterdell, 1995), as well as through contributions (e.g. Robinson, 1994) to books which have focused largely on different aspects of ITT, notably mentoring. Burton's (1998) review focuses on the changing rôle of tutors, but valuably examines many other aspects of HEI-school partnership and relates them critically to the literature.

There have also been some small-scale surveys, such as Shaw's (1992b) of 25 schools; this is distinctive in highlighting a school level perspective of partnership in the immediate post-*Circular 9/92* period. Schools were found to be enthusiastic about extending their involvement in ITT, although inconsistencies in the expertise of teachers, and in the extent to which whole school implications of involvement in ITT had been thought through were also noted. The quality of HEI communication was also criticised, which may be related to the fact that partnerships have been found to be HEI-led (Shaw, *ibid.*, Miles *et al.*, 1994; Dunne *et al.*, 1996; Furlong *et al.*, 1996b). Glover and Mardle's (1996) report that teachers were less aware than tutors of their counterparts' involvement in partnership may complement these findings, which are extended in this study. Fidler (1994) concludes that HEIs must in practice lead partnerships because ITT is a priority for them, not schools; he acknowledges that joint planning is an expectation, but suggests that partnerships evolve and require a leadership which HEIs are best placed to provide. Stiasny (1995) similarly regards a tilt towards HEI responsibility as inevitable, at least in dimensions of partnership such as course aims, but believes a mutuality of purpose is possible. Foreman-Peck (1997) disagrees, arguing that the 1980's attacks on public service interests destroyed the possibility of such shared purposes - which adds another layer of significance to this study's examination of the conceptions of teaching promoted by teachers and tutors respectively. Partnership may be threatened if teachers and tutors differ widely here. Similarly, it would be difficult to maintain partnerships if schools were unhappy with the balance of school-HEI responsibilities for ITT, but there is limited evidence of this, Even in the immediate aftermath of the introduction of *Circular 9/92*, a survey of 192 NUT members and ITT co-ordinators (Menter and Whitehead *et al.*, 1995), indicated that 44% of secondary school respondents thought the balance of HEI-school responsibilities was about right. Subsequently, Barker *et al's* (1996) survey of mentors and ITT co-ordinators found a larger proportion were content with the existing balance of responsibilities, a difference which may be due to changes in participants' views as they gained experience of working in partnerships, or by the overt NUT involvement in the former survey.

One reason why schools may be willing to be involved in ITT is that they have been allowed to construct course programmes to suit their own needs (McCulloch, 1994b). This freedom to interpret the meaning of partnership in differing ways may have provided a widely welcomed flexibility, but was found to threaten course coherence and

consistency when 5 HEIs established a consortium to co-ordinate their provision of ITT (Watson, 1995). This problem has been compounded by many schools having multiple partnerships with HEIs (Brooks, 1997) and being able to choose to be involved in differing levels of partnership (Maloney and Powell, 1995b), a problem which has not been systematically studied. Such difficulties in managing ITT courses have been exacerbated by the fact that school-based ITT is a relatively expensive form of organisation, which has limited the amount of HEI contact with schools (Wiliam, 1994). Participants' differing commitment, in terms of interest in mentoring and the amount of time spent with students, is also widely recognised. This, and other variations between and within schools in how partnership is understood and practised, mean students' experiences differ with the department and school in which they are placed (e.g. Brooks, 1997; Carney and Hagger, 1997; Dunne and Bennett, 1997).

The complexity and practical difficulties of partnership have become evident. Even seemingly minor issues, such as the shortage of space for students in staffrooms (Kellett, 1994) may have a critical effect on school decisions about involvement in ITT. School staff turnover has certainly caused continuing problems for both schools and HEIs (Haggarty, 1995a) although, from the HEI perspective, the major problem has often been finding sufficient appropriate school placements (e.g. UCET, 1994; Whitehead and Menter, 1996; OFSTED, 1995a; Furlong *et al.*, 1996b; Batteson, 1998). Even once partnerships have been established, concern about the extent to which ITT participants are clear about their rôle, able to adapt to these, and to communicate effectively with each other has been evident in numerous studies, which typically have been small-scale and limited to one course but collectively indicative (e.g. Burn, 1992; Dart and Drake, 1993; Inman *et al.*, 1994; Robinson, 1994; Edwards and Collison, 1995; Glover and Hudson, 1995; Howard, 1995; Kerr, 1995; Brooks, 1997). The lack of the extended dialogue necessary to establish the purpose of partnership has, suggests Martin, T. (1996), been a factor here, although Husbands (1995a) has a more positive view of the possibility of adapting legislative requirements to local needs.

HEIs have also been subject to accountability procedures which have been seen as deprofessionalising (see p. 422 below). ITT courses have been critically analysed in terms of their increasingly regulated and instrumental nature (e.g. Powell *et al.*, 1993), their limited HEI input (e.g. Davies, 1997), decreased teacher autonomy (e.g. Moore, 1994), and the intensification of managerialist processes (Ozga, 1995). Senior HEI managers and politicians have even agreed that HEIs might pull out of involvement in ITT (Gilroy *et al.*, 1994). Nevertheless, experience within particular courses has shown partnership may bring benefits, including honing and supporting School Development Plans (Husbands, 1995b) and whole school development generally (e.g. Robinson,

1994; Windsor, 1995; Shaw, 1996). Even in these resource-straitened times, Arrowsmith (1995) has suggested that the school dimension of partnership is a more important issue than the precise level of finances to be transferred from HEIs to schools, although Relf (1995) suggests that the potential benefits of involvement in ITT are rarely realised.

At the level of individual teachers, a beneficial stimulus for increased reflection has been widely emphasised (e.g. Frost, 1993; Field, T. 1994), as has the potential for teachers' professional development generally (e.g. Harrison and Gaunt, 1994; Shaw, 1994c, 1995; Shilling *et al.*, 1995; Bush *et al.*, 1996; Brooks and Sikes, 1997). Similarly, students have been found to enjoy an increased number of 'professional encounters' (Constable and Norton, 1994). In practical terms, school involvement in ITT has been reported to improve schemes of work and pupils' educational experiences (e.g. Burn, 1992; Inman *et al.*, 1994; Kellett, 1994; Butt, 1995; Gray and Hurman, 1995; Lock and Soares, 1995; Watts, 1995). Building on such assumptions, it is not surprising that some (e.g. Brooks, 1996b; Burton, 1998) have seen involvement in ITT promoting teachers' careers, while others have described partnership schemes which benefit each participant rôle (e.g. Bennett *et al.*, 1994; Reid 1994; Blake *et al.*, 1995a; Carney and Hagger, 1996; Benson *et al.*, 1997).

While the development of partnership has been seen as helping tutors through, for example, increased access to 'recent and relevant' experience (Butt, 1995), it has been at best a double-edged sword which has left some feeling marginalised (Blake *et al.*, 1995d, 1996, 1997; John, 1995) or literally redundant. More recently, however, there are signs that tutors feel more confident that they have a specific and continuing rôle (McIntyre *et al.*, 1996), although some confusion as to the rôle of tutors remains even within particular courses, and there is a tension between monitoring quality while paying a less central rôle in the course than previously (Comiskey and Cotson, 1997). The intention to create new routes into teaching (TTA, 1996a; DfEE, 1998b) does not, however, now seem to seriously threaten continued HEI involvement in ITT.

iv.   School-centred ITT schemes

In September 1993 an alternative route to qualified teacher status was introduced, through school-centred ITT schemes (SCITTs). Here, schools get their course validated by, but need not be in a continuing association with, an HEI. Nevertheless, SCITTs were examined in this research because HEIs have made a formal contribution to all but one of the SCITTs, which have been described as constituting a *separatist* form of partnership (Furlong *et al.*, 1996b).

The literature here is largely of four types. That written by participants (e.g. Ballam, 1993; Berrill, 1993a, b; 1994; 1993b; McKay *et al.*, 1994); small-scale research enquiries (e.g. Abbott, *et al.*, 1993; Abbott and Evans, 1994; Anderson, 1994, 1995; Goodyear *et al.*, 1995; Evans *et al.*, 1996; Evans, 1997; Evans and Abbott, 1997); critical reviews (e.g. Darley, 1993; Furlong, 1994a; Hughes, 1995), and official reports (e.g. OFSTED, 1995b, 1996, 1997a-u, 1998a). The development of SCITTs is commonly set in the context of the preceding alternatives to traditional ITT courses, the Articled Teacher and Licensed Teacher Schemes (e.g. Anderson, 1995). Despite the fact that this experience led OFSTED (1993a) to emphasise the importance of partnership with HEIs in school-based training, and to quality control concerns in Britain (OFSTED, 1993b) as in the USA (Jelmberg, 1996), SCITTs may buy-in contributions rather than establish partnerships with an HEI contributor to the course.

SCITTs have been criticised by HEI-based commentators in particular. Barber (1993) felt that this opening up of the market for ITT was unlikely to serve the long-term interests of the teaching profession. The fear that SCITTs provide an atheoretical deprofessionalised route into teaching; is shared by, for example, the NUT (Ring, 1995) and HEI Vice Chancellors and Principals (Ambrose, 1996). OFSTED reports (e.g. 1996) suggest, however, that this is not *necessarily* the case, and there is some evidence that SCITTs are increasingly likely to involve HEIs in their courses (Goodyear *et al.*, 1995). Possibly one should not assume that SCITTs want to provide a more 'straightforward' route into teaching. Berrill (1993a, 1994) has argued strongly that involvement in SCITTs is a means for schools to promote the professional development of their staff, though Fenstermacher (1990), on the basis of data from the USA, typifies the HEI view in Britain by questioning whether such alternative courses support the critical and reflective approach necessary for *continuing* professional development.

Currently, quality of provision seems to be the critical issue. It seems notable that SCITTs continue to be allocated an increasing number of student places, despite reports of significant weaknesses in many courses (e.g. Hughes, 1995; OFSTED 1997, a-i, k-n, r-u; 1998a); this has continued (OFSTED 1999b; 2000a, b, c) despite the success of some which rank among the best courses inspected (OFSTED, 1999a; Baty, 2000). Yet the growth of SCITTs is a gradual one, and OFSTED (1998b) has noted that SCITTs find it more difficult than HEIs to meet their recruitment targets, and some have withdrawn. Evans (1997) suggests that many schools have limited knowledge of this form of ITT, and the possibility of SCITTs becoming major ITT providers seems less than it was, despite continuing efforts to promote school-led ITT (DfEE, 1998a). This

conclusion is supported by the difficulty many HEIs have in finding a sufficient number of partner schools.

B. Conceptions of teaching

The conceptions of teaching which teachers have are central to the purpose of education. Thompson (1984) concluded from her case study that these are organising structures which play an important rôle in determining the nature of teachers' practice, as well as their beliefs. Establishing the conceptions which are promoted through ITT courses is, therefore, valuable for what it says, amongst other things, the nature of teacher professionalism. As Bolton (1994) notes, this question is at the core of the debate over the effect of government involvement in ITT.

This is a complex issue to examine. Teaching has been conceptualised in innumerable ways. While acknowledging the importance of chronology evident in the changing *focus* of such writing about teaching, it has been found helpful to provide a categorisation of conceptions of teaching which distinguishes between works that are relatively specific (to particular teachers, for example), and those which may be applied at a more general level (such as philosophical debate). These categories will be set within the analytical framework of *technical, interpretive and critical* conceptions of teaching central to this study. This model is explored in some detail below when analysing the data; for now, a brief definition of the conceptions of teaching used in this study will suffice:

- *technical*, associated with pre-set objectives, effectiveness, didacticism
- *interpretive*, associated with teachers' interpretations of and responses to contexts, a focus on how pupils learn
- *critical*, associated with examining from a variety of perspectives the values and the social, cultural and political interests embedded in education

To set the scene for the approach used in this section, the pattern guiding the analysis of the literature here is represented in outline by Figure A below. The focus will first be relatively *specific*, on teachers, before becoming progressively broader so that conceptions of teaching are examined at the more *general* level of, for example, perspectives. At each level of analysis, these conceptions will be related to the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching.

Figure A: Categories of conceptions of teaching: a framework

Level of Focus	Technical	Interpretive	Critical
specific ↑ ↓ *general*		*examples of categories used at each level of focus will be related to the model of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching*	

This indication of how the analysis of conceptions of teaching will be structured will be expanded upon below. To put this in context, it is worth noting that the critical conception of teaching may not have been as firmly established in ITT as some have supposed.

i.   How conceptions of teaching may be categorised

The somewhat schematic categorisation of conceptions of teaching used to structure this review (outlined in the framework of categories set out in Figure A above) risks exaggerating the distinctions between works written within different areas of the literature. It does, however, provide a route through what would otherwise seem an impenetrable jungle of diverse forms of work.

It is now necessary to build upon the overview set out in Figure A by characterising the conceptions of teaching in terms of the levels of foci. The relatively specific focus upon the *rôle* of teachers will be examined first, before moving on to the broader categorisations based upon *forms of knowledge* and the *teacher thinking* explored in relatively recent work. Finally, philosophical *perspectives* and e*pistemological* typologies will be examined. Figure B below describes this approach, and provides some exemplification of the terms and analysis which will then be explored in more detail.

Figure B: Examples of categories of conceptions of teaching

Level of Focus	Technical	Interpretive	Critical
rôle of teacher	transmitter applied scientist fount of knowledge	responsive to children artist guide, facilitator	strategic change agent critic
forms of knowledge	subject-based learnt, reproduced	intuitive, constructed experienced, explored	social examined, resisted
teacher thinking	effective action	involving pupils	challenging pupils
perspectives, epistemologies	social efficiency rationalist technological	developmentalist hermeneutic personalistic	social reconstructionist emancipatory perspective transformation.

Figure B above is designed to provide no more than a *sense* of the variety of terms used, and how these relate in a general sense to the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. The elements will be explored in more detail below. First, the literature associated with each of the foci represented in Figure B will be examined in turn.

a)   The rôle of teachers

The rôle of a teacher may be examined in terms of dimensions represented as more or less extended conceptions of teaching. Teachers have been identified as subject-based experts (Russell, 1963) repositories of information (Sedlak, 1987), and technicians passing on knowledge, skills (Hartnett and Naish, 1980, 1986b), or conceptions which may be associated with a relatively limited technical conception of teaching. Other rôles are more clearly related to the interpretive conception. Thus, teachers may be guides facilitating the natural process of learning (Whitehead, 1932), adaptable innovators (Taylor, 1978), and co-enquirers (Schwab, 1983). More likely to be associated with the critical conception of teaching, is the view of a teacher as intellectual (Giroux, 1985, 1989, 1994; Giroux and McLaren, 1986).

The rôle of teachers has often been discussed in terms of dichotomies which relate to their view of knowledge and how pupils learn, as can be seen in Figure C below.

Figure C: Dichotomies relating to the rôle of teachers

Dichotomies of Teaching	References
open-closed	Kohl, 1970
traditional-progressive	Bennett, 1976
paternalist-liberal	Carr, 1993
teacher-pupil centred work	Plowden Report, 1967
resource-teacher based learning	Taylor, 1971
meaning-receiving-meaning-making	Postman and Weingartner, 1971
transmission-interpretation	Barnes and Shemilt, 1974
self-evident-problematic	Broadfoot and Osborn, 1988
authoritative-not distinct	
content-teaching methods	
product-process	} Hammersley, 1977
narrow-wide aims	
universalistic-particularistic approaches	

Hammersley (1977) helpfully covers a range of dimensions, but the lasting relevance of his, and the other categories above, may be limited by their dependence upon a context specific to previous decades. Although a dichotomous model was rejected for this study for reasons discussed below, the literature played an important part in developing the research instruments, as did the works referred to below (see Appendix 3, p. 338 below).

Non-dichotomous models of a teacher have also been developed. Ashley *et al.*, (1970) classified teachers as concerned with their conditions of work, tasks, satisfaction of personal needs, and the value of education to society. A model of nine dimensions of stages of teaching has been developed more recently by Harvard and Dunne (1992), ranging from establishing the ethos to evaluation. Other studies have focused on broader levels of education in ways that could be durably related to teacher rôles. For example, Bernstein (1967) differentiated between schools as open and closed. Other writers have used models which use three or more categories or, like Morrison and McIntyre (1973), referred to a range of rôles in differing educational contexts, without collating these to establish an overall model. More complex frameworks are typically broader in the categories they employ and in their ambition to represent *typologies* of education, and they will therefore be examined separately below.

There is a continuing interest in the rôle of teachers with Lawton (1987), for example, arguing that it has been narrowed by disillusion with the expectation that education would improve society, and by increased teacher accountability to external agencies. Hartnett and Naish (1993) acknowledge the impact of managerialism upon the teacher as a *worker*, but maintain that teachers retain influence over the form of education in other dimensions of the teaching rôle. Thus, as a *person* they may influence the form of their professional as well as their personal life, and as a *citizen* they have the right to decide what sort of society they want and influence the curriculum accordingly. While the teacher as worker may be characterised by a technical conception of teaching[2], the latter rôles allow for an interpretive and even a critical conception of teaching to be promoted. Examining the conceptions of teaching at this level in this study therefore seemed valid.

b)   Forms of knowledge

Teaching may also be analysed in terms of the *forms of knowledge* with which it is associated. Such work is typically theoretical rather than empirical, but reviewing it has been important in establishing the focus and form by which courses were examined in this study, as well in establishing its influence over the nature of ITT itself. Thus, closer HEI-school partnership was encouraged by an increased emphasis on the *craft*-based knowledge of teachers exemplified in Brown and McIntyre (1992). At its crudest, this perspective may relate to students' formative experience as pupils, an "apprenticeship of observation" as Lortie (1975) termed it.

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[2] In their review of this model, Furlong and Maynard (1995) define a teacher's work as educating pupils, but this does not seem to acknowledge sufficiently Hartnett and Naish's view here of the teacher as an agent of others.

The personal and *intuitive* dimensions of knowledge have been highlighted by, in the USA, Elbaz (1983) and Connelly and Clandinin (1985; 1988), while Russell (1993) has emphasised the complexity and value of the knowledge teachers learn through classroom experience. Such knowledge includes, but is not limited to, a technical conception. It can be extended to include that embedded knowledge valued by Schon (1983) in his work on reflection-in-action, which may promote the interpretive as well as the technical conception of teaching. Here, theory is not handed down to teachers, but continually *constructed* according to how they interpret their experiences (see Argyris and Schon, 1974, 1978; Britzman, 1986; Handal and Lauvas, 1987; Grimmett *et al.*, 1990; Eraut, 1994; Salmon, 1995; Kettle and Sellars, 1996; Noel, 2000).

A contrasting view was developed by Reynolds (1998) when invited to make a presentation to the TTA. He argued that knowledge about teaching should be developed externally, and given to teachers, who should be technologists able to apply the *science* of teaching. This conception of teaching has previously had few advocates in Britain, unlike the USA (e.g. Gage, 1978). There, it has been complemented by courses based on behaviourist assumptions, and influenced the development of the popular 'clinician' model of training (Apple, 1972), in which 'expert' observers identify weaknesses in student practice, which can then be revised accordingly, often in simulation laboratories designed to be less complex than classrooms (Joyce, 1972)[3]

Conversely, Eisner (1985, p. 364) has emphasised that 'the best teaching is an *artistic* act ... the basis for much of our actions rest on inexpressible forms of consciousness' (italics added). Here, teaching is about process rather than propositional knowledge (Eraut, 1994), about breaking rather than making rules, characterised by creativity and multiple forms of understanding (Woods, 1997) - and is, therefore, characteristic of the interpretive conception of teaching. Floden and Buchmann (1990) have criticised those who see teaching as an applied science for confusing 'effective' and 'good' teaching, but this seems a minority view at present, as indicated by the specificity of the 'standards' students are required to meet (DfEE, 1998b), and a perception that the artistic nature of teaching is under-appreciated by the inspectorate (Bambridge, 1996).

Others have focused on teachers' *subject*-specific knowledge. O'Hear (1988) and Lawlor (1990) have done this from within a technical conception of teaching in which

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[3] Others have seen this approach as exemplifying a collegiality of student and supervisor designed to support students' appreciation of the complexity of teaching (e.g. Goldhammer, 1969; Cogan, 1973; Henry and Charles, 1985; Little, 1987), but Hargreaves, A (1994) and Smyth (1989) have made a convincing case that the collegiality here is 'contrived' and acts as a means of surveillance rather than collaboration.

knowledge should be transmitted to pupils. While participants in ITT have typically set their concern with subject content within the relatively open interpretive conception of teaching and focused on, for example, teacher thinking (e.g. Buchmann, 1982; Doyle, 1986; Shulman 1987; Wilson *et al.*, 1987; Roehler *et al.*, 1988; McNamara, 1990a; Arthur *et al.*, 1997; Banks *et al.*, 1999), the D*f*EE's (1997) move to specify subject knowledge requirements in ITT seems a more restrictive approach (Burgess, 2000).

Conceptions of teaching and associated forms of knowledge may also be examined through analysis of the relevant *curriculum*. This has been applied to ITT courses in varying levels of detail. Richardson's (1968) survey found elements associated with the technical conception were prioritised over those supporting the interpretive or critical conceptions. The absence of more recent work focusing on the ITT curriculum encouraged a concern in this study with HEI intentions as well as experience.

At a philosophical rather than empirical level, Hirst and Peters have been criticised for representing knowledge promoted through *curriculum content* as something to be 'mastered' rather than explored to make sense of the world (Salter and Crompton, 1980), and this view has been extended by others, particularly in the USA (e.g. Popkewitz, 1987). Lynch and Plunkett (1973) have also focused on types of knowledge in distinguishing between curricula which are *subject-centred* (inducting learners into a particular craft or style of life), *encyclopaedic* (emphasising traditional values), *learning-centred* (typically inter-disciplinary and enquiry-based) and *community-centred* (experiential learning of a 'relevant' curriculum). The technical emphasis of the first two categories may be balanced by the interpretive nature of the letter two, but an emphasis on plurality, rather than challenging views, means that even the community-centred category offers little support for the critical conception of teaching. The apolitical nature of typical curricula similarly reinforces the technical conception of teaching by *reproducing* rather than challenging existing values, argues Beyer (1988). While there are valuable reviews of the diverse perspectives applied to professional knowledge and practice (e.g. Meighan, 1978, 1986; Hoyle and John, 1995), empirical work has been rare in Britain.

There is also a well-established tradition of examining curricula at the level of *curriculum planning*. Tyler's (1949) emphasis on behavioural objectives clearly fits within the technical conception of teaching, as does even Taba's (1962) more broadly-focused work on aims. In this and associated literature, there is an emphasis on the precision with which objectives are stated (e.g. Bloom, 1956; Mager, 1962; Popham and Baker, 1970). While objectives come in innumerable forms, an emphasis on them is associated with a means-end rationality. This has been criticised by those who view

teaching and learning as a more open, interactive, uncertain process characteristic of the interpretive conception of teaching, (e.g. Bruner, 1966; Eisner, 1985; Schwab, 1983). Values and ideologies have also been examined in work on the curriculum, as will be seen when examining the more general level of educational *perspectives*, including those associated with the critical conception. But a focus on political ideologies at the national level predominates (e.g. Hartnett and Naish, 1986a, b; White, 1988; Bash and Coulby 1989; Chitty, 1989; Quicke, 1989; Ball, 1990; Avis, 1991a; Green, 1991; Ashford, 1993; Bowe and Ball, 1996). This reaffirms the worth of examining ITT at this level of practice.

Others emphasise the opportunities to *resist* a given curriculum, especially when people act as a group (Kanpol, 1991). This interpretation may be applied to the tendency for students to reject theory which they do not recognise as relevant to their situation (McWilliam, 1992), but may equally indicate the continuing possibility of promoting the extended forms of professionalism which some see threatened by recent reforms of ITT.

The *curriculum as experienced by pupils* provides another insight into conceptions of teaching. Just as there was an effort to make the theory-practice relationship closer, and the rôle of teachers became more complex as the 1970s progressed, so the nature of pupils' work changed. Thus, science became more investigatory (Millar, 1985) and English more open to self-expression (Ball, 1982), with consequent effects on the knowledge which teachers needed. However, Doyle's (1986) work with teachers showed that they enacted the same curriculum differently, even when they had received similar training. An obvious conclusion, pertinent to this study, is that analysis of a course should include the perspective of participants as well as the course documentation.

c) Teacher thinking

Conceptions of teaching may also be examined in terms of the underlying teacher *thinking* involved, a term applied to processes which are diverse but share a focus on how knowledge is used in teaching, and a portrayal of teaching as relatively complex (Calderhead, 1987, 1988a, b, c; Clark and Yinger, 1987). As the distinction between teacher knowledge and thinking is not an absolute one, it is not surprising that some of the dimensions identified here overlap with those already examined. Thus, in the 1970s teacher thinking was often examined in terms of *decision-making* in the context of a technical-craft perspective. Later, interest turned to the importance of teachers' *meaning-making* and the context in which they work. These studies tended to be more closely associated with the interpretive conception of teaching, including examinations

of teachers' sense of the subject which they are teaching (Elbaz, 1983; Shulman, 1986, 1987), and the intuitive nature of their perceptions (Schon, 1983; Tickle, 1987; Beattie, 1995). Similarly, the nature of relationships with pupils and colleagues were found to be especially important in the development of newly qualified teachers (Ford et al., 1996). Furlong and Maynard's (1995) review of this area recognises the contemporary importance of this perspective while, more specifically, the personal, autobiographical, dimension has also been drawn out with a particular emphasis on images of the 'self' through Langford's (1989) work at the level of theory, the primary school-based work of Nias (1985, 1987a; 1987b), the secondary school research of Ball and Goodson (1985) and, in the USA, by Aitken and Mildon (1992).

Staying with a focus on the individual, many have found personal construct theory (PCT) (Kelly, 1955) a useful means to reveal personal representations of issues within education. Although PCT can be used to support a quantitative approach, its application in qualitative forms encouraged a recognition of the complexity and variation in teacher thinking from the late 1970s, paralleling the popularisation of work within the ethnographic perspective (e.g. Hammersley, 1977, 1985; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). PCT has therefore been used to explore the thinking of mathematics students (McQualter, 1985), teachers' interpretation of the curriculum (Olson, 1980; Ben-Peretz, 1984; Ben-Peretz and Rumney, 1991), classroom practice (Diamond, 1982; Lampert, 1985), views of how children learn (Parsons et al, 1983; Larsson, 1984), professional cultures, and the work of mentors (Haggarty, 1995b; Jones et al., 1997). Work with a broader focus includes examinations of teachers' views of teachers, learning and assessment (Yaxley, 1991) and of the principles underlying teachers' professional development (Oberg, 1986; Ingvarson and Greenway, 1984). Diversity is inherent in the nature of such research, but Yorke (1987) provides a useful review of the literature, and makes suggestions for the form of future work.

Still within this constructivist paradigm, conceptions of teaching have also been examined through life histories (e.g. Sikes et al., 1985; Goodson, 1987c, 1994; Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996). Empirical work has also provided open approaches to teacher effectiveness and the ecology of classrooms (Doyle, 1977a, b), and room for a feminist perspective to be applied (Freedman, 1987). Again, research here is typically associated with the interpretive conception of teaching, emphasising relationships, empathetic understanding, and responsiveness to complex situations. While Voiels (1996) argues that reflection upon the self may be at the level of values, and Salmon (1995) refers to the transformative potential of learning in PCT, this seems to be limited to the individual level, despite an acknowledgement of the need to understand the culture within which an individual is based (e.g. Olson, 1988). Indeed,

the lack of reference to broader contexts has been acknowledged by researchers into teacher-thinking (e.g. Carlgren *et al.*, 1994), and the consequently constrained place for the critical conception is evidenced in the discussion of ethics by Tippins *et al.* (1993), which focuses on their subjective rather than their contested nature. The contribution of such work is framed by the level of its focus, often on just one person. Even Diamond's (1991) study involved just fifteen teachers. While drawing attention to particular representations of teaching, the results provide an inherently weak basis for generalisations – at least until the conceptions revealed have been used as a basis for the larger scale research represented by studies such as this.

Teacher thinking may also be analysed in terms of its *focus*, such as lesson planning (e.g. Taylor, 1970; Clark and Yinger, 1987), which typically reinforces the importance of context in teachers' thinking. Contingent factors here include teachers' knowledge of children, subject content, educational aims, available resources, and teaching strategies, amongst others. The inter-connections evident here are characteristic of the interpretive conception of teaching.

Alternatively, in work also relevant to the issue of competence, Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) and Berliner (1994) distinguish between the novice and expert in terms of how they use knowledge, with the key to becoming an expert being the ability to reflect and learn from experience to develop *schema*. Wood and Thomas (1996) derive another developmental model of conceptions of teaching from qualitative work within a PGCE course. Here, the focus is on levels of understanding of the rôle of a teacher, as the *agent of learning* (transmitting knowledge), moving on to the *act of teaching* (involving interaction with pupils), and finally a concern with the *object of teaching* (changing pupils' understanding) - a model relating closely to the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching.

Adding another layer of complexity, the extent to which students' *beliefs* may alter during an ITT course is contested, a debate continued in e.g. Dunne's (1993a) and Bennett *et al.*'s (1993) surveys of students, as well as in the USA through a longitudinal survey across 11 courses (McDiarmid, 1993) and qualitative research into the beliefs of eight practitioners (Nespor, 1987). Changes in *thinking* have also been examined. Zeichner *et al.*'s (1987) work with students in a range of schools has suggested that their thinking changes little during an ITT course, a conclusion reinforced by Bramald *et al.*'s (1985) cross-subject survey of 162 students in England. This latter study provides, however, some evidence that students whose focus goes beyond classroom management issues give increasing attention to experiential learning. Similar associations with the interpretive conception of teaching are characterised in

an increasingly pupil-centred approach (revealed in Sinkinson's (1997) study of 18 mathematics students), and views of the certainty of knowledge (in White's (2000) analysis of 20 students in the USA). Although research on thinking tends to emphasise the importance of this interpretive conception of teaching, it is also important in terms of the *elements* of teaching to which it draws attention; Bennett's (1976) work here on primary school teacher beliefs made an early and influential contribution. These elements will be discussed further in the context of the development of the research instruments used in this study.

As we can see, writing on teacher thinking interrelates with that on teacher *beliefs*, as well as with the knowledge they use. The works cited immediately above typify two approaches to research, that which seeks to establish the extent to which given beliefs are maintained (Bennett, 1976) or change over time (Dunne, 1993a) and, second, exploratory studies of the structure and rôle of such beliefs (Nespor, 1987). These works therefore clarified an issue central to determining the focus of this study, which is explored further in the following Section on Research Methodology.

d)   A competence-based approach

A *competence-based* conception of teaching is more straightforward, although this too is open to differing interpretations. The longest established approach has focused on objective assessment of *performance* (e.g. Ashworth and Saxton, 1990), influenced by work within the behaviourist paradigm in the USA. While such work has influenced the development of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs), Beardon *et al.* (1992) have been atypical in advocating the extension of this form of competence to teaching. Even those favouring relatively detailed observation schedules have acknowledged the risk of spurious precision (Stones, 1975), and the use of outcome competences has often been associated with a limiting, technical, depoliticised form of teaching (e.g. Elliott, 1991b; Ecclestone, 1994; Weir, 1997).

The importance of *context* in assessing teaching performance has long been emphasised (e.g. Elliott and Labett, 1974), and served as a basis to criticise even the relatively broad-based competence criteria and standards developed in *Circulars 3/84, 9/92* and *4/98* (e.g. Busher and Simmons, 1992; Furlong, 1995; Reynolds and Salters, 1995). Indeed, a national project in Australia sought to address this issue by providing short stories to exemplify broad 'competence elements' (Field, 1994c). Empirical work by McSharry and Reid (1997) with 39 mentors in Manchester suggests that contextual variation reduces the reliability with which the relatively detailed competence criteria of *Circular 9/92* were interpreted, which may indicate that the competence framework does not fit easily with the interpretive conception of teaching. The competence-based

approach has also been criticised as creating a 'fantasy of expertise... [and] of experience' (Smith and Alred, 1993, p. 12) which assumes that there is a bundle of skills which can be handed over to students, and that any experienced teacher can do this. This ignores the importance of human qualities, such as warmth and wisdom, and of personal interaction (Hodkinson and Issitt, 1996b).

The limited place of a *cognitive* model of competency in the regulatory framework has also been criticised. Dugoid (1989) sees theoretical knowledge as part of the context of teaching, and Elliott (1991b) fears that the lack of reference to this in competence criteria encourages a deprofessionalising technical conception of teaching. While Wolf (1989) argues that knowledge can be inferred from performance, Hyland (1996a) sees this definition of knowledge in terms of bureaucratic needs as a technicist approach. Similarly, while Issitt (1996) has concluded on the basis of her analysis of NVQ criteria that they can be used to promote values supporting equal opportunities, these values are not *examined*, so the use of competence criteria here may still represent a technical conception of teaching. Indeed, the outcome model of competency training may be seen as functionalist (Marshall, 1991) assuming, through apparently neutral language, that values are shared rather than contested (e.g. Popkewitz, 1987; Elliott, 1989c; Hyland, 1996b). This is congruent with a view that a competence-based approach is associated with a managerial form of professionalism in which quality is controlled through external inspections, rather than built into the process of becoming a teacher (Graham and Barnett, 1996; Hodkinson and Issit, 1996a). From a political perspective, it is interesting to note that in Northern Ireland (DENI, 1993) there has been a more broadly-based approach to developing a competence framework.

Despite the emphasis on outcomes, potentially unsympathetic writers have continued to believe a technical conception of teaching may be transcended, because a competence framework need not *exclude* particular approaches (Elliott, 1989a; Whitty and Wilmott, 1991; Barton *et al.*, 1994; Voiels, 1996; Wilkin, 1996a, b). Leat (1993) has developed a competence model at Newcastle University which added affective criteria to the cognitive and behavioural ones used in *Circular 9/92*, as have other HEIs (e.g. Barton and Elliott, 1996). Moreover, the nature of a competence-based approach may depend more upon how it is used than its structure, suggest Hodkinson and Issitt (1996a). A lack of clarity and consensus about the criteria of competence (McCulloch, 1994c) may have enabled participants in ITT to interpret them in distinctive ways.

While a competence-based approach may, therefore, be developed so as to promote the interpretive as well as a technical conception of teaching, the impact of the DfEE

(1998) standards is not yet clear. Experience at Goldsmiths College suggests that even the less detailed criteria of *Circular 9/92* encouraged students to focus on implementing rather than examining these aspects of teaching (Moore, 1996). Moreover, the disaggregation of competence criteria implied in this process may not provide a valid assessment of a teacher (Husbands, 1993; Hyland, 1993). A similar criticism may be applied to the incorporation of 'levels' of proficiency in competence-based student profiles developed by Leeds and Sussex, for example, to extend students' professional development (Tomlinson, 1995a; Willson and Adamczyk, 1995). Although such processes seek to avoid a simplistic technical-rationalist approach, competence-based approaches in ITT may still be associated primarily with a technical conception of teaching through their individualist perspective (Ashworth, 1992; Hyland, 1996b)[4].

There is not yet much empirical work on the use of competences in ITT, but findings across a three year study of 204 students on a PGCE course in Scotland (Tuson, 1996) suggest that students showed the highest levels of competence in relatively technical areas of teaching. They were weakest in areas associated with the interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, such as encouraging pupil independent learning and taking cultural differences into account. This may, however, say more about the nature of student development than of competence-based courses. The data in this study indicate that the use of competence frameworks may be associated with the technical rather than the interpretive or critical conceptions of teaching (see pp. 170*ff.* below), but this is an area which deserves closer study.

As with teacher thinking, examining competence criteria has helped sharpen the focus in this study on particular *elements* of teaching, such as planning, direct instruction, management of materials, and others identified by Harvard and Dunne (1996), as well as those established in *Circulars 3/84, 9/92* and *4/98*. Whether the use of such competence frameworks is necessarily associated with the technical conception of teaching remains an unresolved question, which this study seeks to help to address.

e) Perspectives and epistemologies

Conceptions of teaching may also be set in frameworks of *perspectives* or *epistemologies.* Many of these may be related closely to the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching referred to above. Thus, Bernstein (1986) has referred to, in his term, fields which are *regulative* (concerned with transmission, i.e. a technical conception), *evaluative* (producing as well as reproducing knowledge, i.e. associated

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[4] This is less true of a cognitive model of competence developed in Northern Ireland (DENI, 1993).

with the interpretive conception), and *distributive* (concerned with power relations, i.e. an aspect of the critical conception), although these are developed in somewhat abstract terms. More easily related to work in ITT, Hartnett and Naish (1980) identify *technological, craft* and *critical* perspectives, although these are not perfectly congruent with the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching used in this study. Although the craft dimension is experiential, it seems to sit astride the technical and interpretive conceptions because it is related to an unquestioning epistemology. A closer fit is Skilbeck's (1984) representation of three teacher ideologies - *classical humanism* (with a purpose of transmission characteristic of the technical conception), *progressivism* (associated with the interpretive conception through its child centred nature) and *reconstructionism* (aiming to improve society and thus congruent with the critical conception of teaching).

Other models abound. Both Joyce (1975) and Davis and Roper (1982) have categorised teacher education in terms of a *competency* orientation, an *academic* emphasis, *progressivism,* and *personalistic* reformers. Competence is conceptualised here unambiguously in technical terms, as is the academic orientation: concepts are to be received. The focus on the uniqueness of individuals in the personalistic perspective sets it firmly within the interpretive conception. Progressivism also fits into this conception in that knowledge is treated as tentative, emerging from a culture with, as Tula (1986) explains, the teacher as a facilitator responding to pupils' interests and needs, and concerned with social and emotional as well as academic learning. The potential to promote the critical conception of teaching is limited by the separation of societal issues from child-centred and progressive education (Epstein, 1993) of pupils who are 'experience-bound (Sarup, 1993). In Freire's words: 'I don't believe in self-liberation. Liberation is a social act'. (Freire and Shor, 1987, p. 4). Stenhouse (1975) used a similar distinction between *behaviouristic, progressive,* and *process-*based approaches to curriculum development, but made a distinctive reference to a *research* model in which teachers were empowered through their research to make key decisions about the curriculum. Olson (1992), in work characteristic of the contemporary interest in exploring relatively open forms of teaching, contrasted *systems* (concerned with effectiveness of inputs), *cognitive* (valuing expert knowledge) and *non-cognitive* (rule following) models with more complex perspectives such as the *ecological* (acknowledging the importance of the contexts in which teachers work), and *virtuous practice* (derived from thinking about the meaning of classroom events). This reflects the division between the technical and interpretive conceptions, but none of the categories is clearly associated with the critical conception. Through interviews

with students in the early stages of their courses, Gow (1993) similarly found two dichotomous conceptions, of *knowledge transmission* and *learning facilitation*.

The critical conception seems absent or under-developed in other analytical frameworks as Figure D below shows.

Figure D: The limited presence of the critical conception of teaching in frameworks used to analyse teaching

Conceptions of teaching			Focus of Reference
Technical	**Interpretive**	**Critical**	**Reference**
subject-centred, transmitting a social and cultural heritage. *system-centred,* inculcating societal values.	*child-centred,* active learning, a wider responsibility for pupils' development. *community-centred,* people outside schools influence the curriculum.		*Lynch & Plunkett (1973)* - analysis of teachers as cultural products
competency *academic*	*personalistic* *progressive*		*Joyce (1975); Davis & Roper (1982)* - orientation of teacher education
traditional, subject-centred	*progressive,* child-centred. *radical,* notions of responsibility, responsiveness	*radical,* autonomy of teachers and learners may support the critical conception.	*Langford, - (1985)* foci of teachers' concerns
systems input, effectiveness *non-cognitive,* rule following *cognitive,* derived from expert knowledge	*ecological,* importance of context		*Olson (1992)* - individual teacher
craft	*art*	*reflective practice*	*Elliott (1989a)* - a developmental continuum
rationalist views; *academic* cultures - experts passing on knowledge	*practical inquiry,* concerned with 'wisdom'.		*Elliott (1989b)* contribution of theory
advanced beginner; *competent* *proficient*	*expert,* dependent upon wisdom gained through experience and reflection.		*Elliott's (1993b),* phases of experiential learning

In other frameworks, the critical conception is nearer the surface, but still under-developed. Although Elliott (1989c) refers to moral values in his work, he does not explicitly refer to *examining* these as central to a critical conception of teaching. In a later work, Elliott (1993d) again refers to *rationalist* and *practical* (or hermeneutic) views and acknowledges the impact of contextual developments in a *social-market* view concerned with quantifiable outcomes and a behaviourist approach to teaching and learning. Values are referred to, but there is an underlying assumption of consensus (rather than contestation) evident in the aspiration to achieve wise and

discerning responses based upon logical analysis of what is desirable. Similarly, Tom (1987) suggests that there are conceptions of *craft* and *applied science* (both involving a 'how-to' approach which associates them with the technical conception), of *fine art* (typical of the interpretive conception in its focus on process) and of *moral endeavour*. Here too, references to the moral dimension do not explicitly support the critical conception of teaching, although they may do so implicitly by acknowledging that the selection of content is not arbitrary and, hence, does involve an examination of the values involved. Bridges (1995) similarly refers to a *moral* discourse and a critical dimension which he contrasts with *pragmatic* concerns with the process of teaching, but the nature of the critical component remains uncertain in his work. Hartnett and Naish (1993) do argue that teachers should examine moral issues in relation to the nature of the society they want, but feel this is not encouraged by the managerialism prevalent in schools and suggest no means by which their ideals may be met. Where moral issues are referred to in the British literature, they are most often set in the context of personal development or a moral disposition (e.g. Wilson, 1969, 1975; White, 1982), an emphasis which may derive in part from the emphasis on personal education in ITT during the 1940s-60s (see p.415 below).

In Britain, the importance of ideology in defining how teachers understand their work has been recognised (e.g. Hartley, 1985), but even here the interpretive and, especially, technical conceptions of teaching have been more visible than the critical. Davies (1969) classified ideologies as *conservative* (maintaining the status quo), *revisionist* (producing qualifications appropriate for new jobs), *romantic* (cf. progressivism, individual development) and, in a challenging approach characteristic of the critical conception of teaching, *democratic* (eliminating elitism); but this level of challenge is not reflected in the extended work of other writers (e.g. Cosin, 1972; Raynor, 1972). Even Williams' (1961) identification of a *democratic* intention does not involve the explicit challenge or examination of values necessary to set it clearly within this critical conception.

The most explicit references to a critical conception of teaching in British writing are at the epistemological level. Carr and Kemmis (1986), Carr (1995) and Hoyle and John (1995) refer to *technical* (or positivist), *practical* (or interpretive), and *critical* conceptions, with the development of this latter conception heavily influenced by the work of (the non-British) Habermas (1972, 1979, 1987; Young 1989), who developed an analytical framework of *technical, practical* (or communicative) and *emancipatory* domains of learning. This framework has been explored by Fien (1991) in relation to teacher education, but more extended work has been done in Australia. There, Kemmis (1990) has worked at the level of theory, Grundy (1987) has provided a thoughtful and wide-ranging analysis of the school curriculum, while Grundy and

Hatton's (1995) qualitative research into teacher education found teachers' concern for social transformation was limited. In Britain, this framework has been used in reviews of the Oxford Internship scheme through McIntyre's (1993) focus on types of reflective work, and Pendry and McIntyre's (1996) explanation of the benefits of student profiles. Such work has therefore been limited in quantity and breadth of concern, reaffirming the value of gaining empirical data through this study.

Other frameworks which refer to the critical conception of teaching similarly depend largely upon non-British writers. The best known such work has been done in the USA. Popkewitz *et al.* (1979) reported that the *empirical-analytical* paradigm was dominant in the USA, but advocated *critical research*, extending Stenhouse's (*op. cit.*) focus by setting this in the context of a concern with the quality of life. The American authors of this study have each maintained their interest in critical education. In his review of educational ideologies, Popkewitz (1987) discussed the inherent uncertainty of knowledge developed within a critical conception of teaching, while Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982) derived from the work of nine tutors a similar model of belief systems - *technical* (instrumental, concerned with techniques, classroom events), *personal* (growth centred, focusing on student developments, understanding their frames of reference), and *critical* (about personal goals, relating action to the institutional context), although the use of 'critical' here may not meet all the characteristics of a critical conception of teaching as defined in this study. Moving on to a perspective more closely associated with this conception, Zeichner (1983) developed an *inquiry-oriented* approach in which the teacher is an 'active agent' concerned with 'liberation'. He contrasted this with the *behaviouristic* perspective (with a focus on effectiveness characteristic of the technical conception) and two paradigms associated with the interpretive conception, *traditional-craft* (characterised by the wisdom of experience) and *personalistic* (concerned with psychological maturity rather than skills). In subsequent work (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1991), these paradigms were reviewed to represent the following interests: *academic* (emphasis on subject knowledge), *social efficiency* (research on teaching), *developmentalist* (pupils' development as learner), and *social reconstructionist* (focus on social conditions and issues of values). A particular concern with students developing their own rationales for their moral positions was highlighted by Liston and Zeichner (1987), but its contribution to the critical conception of teaching is limited by the personal focus of the reflection involved here.

Alternative views takes the definition of a critical conception of teaching somewhat further. Giroux (1989) is unexceptional in discussing discourses which are *conservative* (legitimising reproduction), and *liberal* (based upon expertise), but

expresses a distinctive commitment to examine social and political struggle beyond schools through *social reconstructionism* in an explicitly political project in which the teacher is a transformative intellectual (Giroux, 1985, 1994; Giroux and McLaren, 1987). A critical conception of teaching here requires particular conclusions to be drawn from an examination of values. This has something in common with Diamond's (1991) *perspective transformation*, which he places at the highest level on a continuum of teacher education; i.e. above the technicist *competence*-based, and the interpretive *personalistic* and *language and learning* conceptions of teaching. From Australia, Smyth (1987b) arguably extends this perspective by emphasising the need for teachers to actively resist the constraints of their social and political context, while it is further suggested that transformation is supported by feminists acting as the agents of social change (Phelan and Lalik, 1993), by learning through collaboration (Bullough and Gitlin, 1985; Grimmett, 1994), and action research (Jennings, 1993). The work of Freire (1972; Freire and Shor, 1987) is also important here. While acknowledging the artistic and intuitive nature of teaching, Freire is distinctive in setting *action* to transform learning at a societal level, and it may be interesting that Robinson (1999) has recently critiqued the work of Liston and Zeichner (1991), for example, on the grounds that their category of social reconstructionism allows insufficient room for the necessary personal development. The work of Lindsay and Ginsburg (1995) is, however, typical in concluding that experience of such transformative education is limited.

Others work associated with the critical conception lies between these two prolific camps. Eisner (1985) has contrasted technical approaches with the purpose of social reconstruction, but is less deterministic than Giroux and his associates as to the outcomes of this process. Similarly, Beyer (1988) describes the critical perspective as involving socially engaged practitioners committed to social justice, but encourages divergent practices. In Britain, Clough and Holden's (1996) concern to raise alternative viewpoints about the moral dimension of societal factors probably fits into this perspective. The relatively open process of problematising issues favoured here is typically evidenced in advocacy of reflective approaches such as the analysis of life histories (Berlak and Berlak, 1987; Woods, 1987).

While the work of writers such as Habermas is a useful basis for empirical research, our understanding of the term *critical* can be extended. The term is often used in the sense of developing logical reasoning (Hallet, 1984), as an application of reflective judgement (Kitchener, 1986), or a test of meaning (Hullfish and Smith, 1961), uses which seem somewhat bland. More challenging, is Peck's (1981) emphasis on a sceptical outlook (a work which is also interesting in regarding critical thinking as a skill

as well as a propensity). More helpful to those who associate a critical approach with challenge and change are Brookfield's (1988) references to imagining and exploring alternatives. This is an area in which philosophical and theoretical works have been more extensive than empirical research, in which the meaning of critical is too often unclear or not easily distinguished from 'ordinary' analysis.

This part of the literature review has shown conceptions of teaching may be identified and examined using many methods and methodologies, with the decision as to which is most appropriate for this study being influenced by the (limited) levels of knowledge and resources available, a point which is picked up when discussing methodological issues below. Once this decision was made, the innumerable ways in which the teacher rôle, thinking, and forms of knowledge may be represented informed the choice of a conceptual framework able to support analysis at different levels and of different forms of practice. More specifically, extensive development and testing of research instruments (see e.g. Appendices 2 and 3, pp. 330ff. and p. 334 below respectively) relied heavily on the works referred to above.

In concluding this review of the literature relating to conceptions of teaching, it must be remembered that a teacher cannot easily be characterised by just one of these conceptions. And teachers may, of course, be 'inconsistent' in their conceptions across different areas of teaching, being characterised by, for example, a largely interpretive conception in their classroom-based work, and a critical one in their planning. This is evident in Petty and Hogben's (1980) work with, primarily, BEd. students in Australia, and Bennett's (1976) study of primary teachers' beliefs about educational issues. More recently, this disjunction has been found at the level of the subject taught (Elbaz, 1983; Drake, and Dart, 1995a, b; Dart and Drake; 1996), while Busher *et al.* (1988) found conflict between a science teacher's conception of their subject and their view of the process of teaching. This informed the decision to include subject specialism amongst the variables included in the questionnaires. As Calderhead (1987) notes, teaching is a diverse form of activity covering many areas and forms of knowledge; it is, therefore, not surprising to find some 'inconsistency' as teachers respond to a myriad of particular circumstances. Examining whether such variation may be associated with, for example, forms of partnership in ITT is therefore a challenging as well as a fascinating concern, particularly as it relates so powerfully to the topical and contested question as to the nature of teacher professionalism.

Indeed, the relationship between conceptions of teaching and teacher professionalism is a key stimulus for the contemporary debate about ITT generally. Indeed, a concern with the form of teacher professionalism promoted through ITT courses underpins the rationale for this study. Here, it will suffice to highlight Hoyle's (1980) distinction

between professionalism as *restricted* (intuitive, with a relatively narrow classroom-based focus) and *extended* (evaluative, characterised by a broader concerns and an interest in theory) - terms which will be referred to later in this study. Professionalism will also be shown to be a complex concept, reinforcing a multidimensionality which is evident also in the nature of nature of students' work in ITT, which will be examined next.

C.   The nature of students' work with tutors and teachers: mentoring

This review will briefly set mentoring in the context of its place in education generally, before establishing a focus on its development and nature in ITT in particular. The term is widely applied to the work of teachers involved in ITT, especially since the implementation of *Circular 9/92*. There has, however, been relatively little examination of *tutors'* rôles and responsibilities, although this literature will be referred to here both because their work with students has itself been defined as mentoring (e.g. by Dunne and Harvard, 1993), and because the nature of tutors' and of mentors' rôles and responsibilities are interdependent. For clarity, the term 'mentor' itself will, however, be used in relation to teachers.

One important strand in the literature on mentoring focuses on the nature of mentors' responsibilities, and the implications this has for the contribution of tutors to ITT. An examination of this will be followed by a review which draws out the changing nature of mentoring. The move from 'how to...' guides to more analytic studies of mentoring practice will be outlined before examining the conceptions of mentoring developed in the literature. These will be discussed in terms of mentors' rôles and of their work with students. The nature of students' development will also be referred to because it interacts with the form of mentors' work with them. The ways in which mentors support students' ability to 'move on' to higher levels of practice, and the extent of their success in this, has been a continuing concern in writing on mentoring. This will establish a basis to examine the nature of reflection, which has been so widely discussed in work on ITT generally as well as on mentoring.

i.   Definitions

The concept of mentoring may be applied to many forms of activity, but is a relatively new area of literature which has focused most often, perhaps, on business career development (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1995; Clutterbuck, 1999). The term has been criticised for its association through Greek mythology with a dependent relationship (Husbands, 1994), which could be conceptualised as concerned with staff

development rather than education[5] But, within teaching, it is the educative form of mentoring that has most often been emphasised, involving an experienced practitioner guiding, organising and stimulating the development of a mentee, as well as providing a model of practice. This includes the work of teachers with students, although mentors have also been ascribed rôles to support NQTs, (e.g. Kinder and Earley, 1993; Tickle, 1993; Wall and Smith, 1993; Bleach, 1997, 1999; Field, 1997); Articled Teachers (Kirkham, 1992); those with managerial rôles (West-Burnham, 1993), including headteachers (Kirkham, 1993), and teachers generally (Berrill, 1992; Featherstone and Smith, 1992; Kelly *et al.*, 1992; Shaw, 1992a; Smith and West-Burnham, 1993; West-Burnham and Smith, 1993; Perry, 2000).

In Britain, mentoring in ITT developed in response to the move to school-based ITT, which extended the responsibilities of teachers who had previously 'supervised' rather than 'educated' or 'trained' students. The history of its development, therefore, parallels that of the HEI-school partnership of which it is a dimension (see Furlong, 1994b; Husbands, 1997, and pp. 400*ff*. below). It will not, therefore, be reviewed in detail here. Although virtually all HEI-school partnership and SCITT schemes have a more senior teacher (here entitled an ITT co-ordinator) responsible for working with students on whole school issues and for co-ordinating ITT within the school, the literature, where it is specific, tends to focus on the *subject mentors* who work most closely with students. Where a distinction is made, it is rare for the work of ITT co-ordinators to be examined, although there are exceptions (e.g. Hickman, 1993; Rothwell *et al.*, 1994; Johnson, 1995; Lees and Wilkes, 1995; Windsor, 1995; Brooks, 1996a; Pell, 1997).

ii. The development of mentoring

In the USA, a literature developed around mentoring from the 1980s (e.g. Zimpher and Rieger, 1988; Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann, 1987). In Britain, teachers were typically limited to the clinical supervision model (e.g. Goldhammer, 1969; Cogan, 1973).[6] Suggestions that teacher responsibilities should be extended (Roach, 1969; Tibble, 1971; DES, 1972), generated a limited response and mixed success. A typical

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[5] This is true of most generic models of mentoring, a range of which are reviewed in Anderson and Shannon, 1995. Although mentoring in many areas of education has been examined, comparisons with mentoring in other work areas are rare, (exceptions include Caldwell and Carter, 1993; Barnes and Stiasny,1995; Standing, 1999).
[6] This was typical of practice outside the USA, where teachers still often had limited involvement in ITT. In Australia, the development of mentoring in ITT has broadly followed the British pattern with, possibly, a slight time-lag (see e.g. d'Arbon, 1993; Cameron and Wilson, 1993; Field, 1994a; Long, 1995). In some parts of Europe mentors may have a rôle in training students but, paralleling the typically lesser emphasis on school-based ITT, mentors have a less significant rôle than they do in Britain (for a case study in Norway, see Nilssen and Gudmondottir (1998); for a comparison with the German system, see Jones (2000)).

problem was the difficulty teacher supervisors were reported to find in *critically* examining students' practice because of the emotional tension involved (Mansfield, 1986). Furlong *et al.*'s (1988) review of four school-based courses may, however, have strengthened the case for extending teachers' involvement in ITT by emphasising that they had a distinctive and necessary knowledge at the level of direct practice, even though McIntyre (1990) criticised this model for implying a hierarchy of knowledge which undervalued teachers' contribution to ITT. Certainly pilot schemes to *extend* the responsibilities of supervisory teachers received positive evaluations (Booth and Kinloch, 1990; Lucas, 1990; Terrell, 1990), complementing the positive reviews of the IT-INSET courses in which teachers played a significant part.

Nevertheless, such school-based courses were rare, and Brooks *et al.* (1997) concluded that there was little empirical data to support the extension of teachers' involvement in ITT. A few teachers gained experience through involvement in Articled Teacher and Licensed Teacher Schemes, although the development of teacher appraisal may have had a wider impact. While the hierarchical process by which this was implemented threatened one dimension of teacher professionalism (Winter, 1989), the criteria used in appraisal may have provided a framework for reflection and professionalisation (Holly, 1989; House and Lapan, 1989). In particular, the extension of teachers' supervisory responsibilities in ITT was surely supported by developing the lesson observation skills required by the appraisal process (Kroath, 1989; Smith, 1989).

However, when *Circular 9/92* was introduced, critics doubted teachers' ability to carry out their mentoring responsibilities. Burgess and Carter (1992) were typical in believing that teachers' knowledge derived from intuition, representing a 'common sense' approach less likely than tutor-led work to bring out the best in students. Others believed teachers lacked the time, commitment and expertise in the wider elements of their rôle to be able to work effectively with students (e.g. Mountford, 1993; Kellett, 1994). Knowledge of theory and a critical examination of ideas have continued to be associated with tutors (Kelly, 1993; Furlong, 1996; McNamara, 1996; Pring, 1996; Kerry, 1997; Williams and Soares, 2000) while, even closer to classroom practice, Phillips' (1992) study of over 100 history students found they perceived tutors to be more useful than teachers in understanding the National Curriculum. Indeed, many mentors shared this fear that their knowledge was inadequate in some areas (Jacques, 1992; Reid, 2000). For some, even the stimulus and challenge which promote students' reflection is associated with tutors, on the basis that teachers find it difficult to analyse practice in sufficient depth (e.g. Pring, 1995; John, 1996; Blake, 1997). Alternatively, the distinctiveness of tutors' work has been seen to rest less in the level than the *breadth* of their knowledge and experience across a range of contexts and issues (Butt, 1994;

Downes, 1996). This relatively sharp distinction between the nature of the knowledge and experience of teachers and of tutors may be associated with *complementary* rôles and partners. It also implies that teachers and tutors may well have differing conceptions of teaching - reaffirming the importance of examining this issue.

On the other hand, Bridges, D (1996) questions whether HEIs have a clear monopoly of expertise in educational theory, and others maintain teachers can support students' reflection (e.g. Frost, 1993; Lucas and True, 1993). Here, the distinction between the knowledge (and hence rôles) of mentors and tutors is more subtle, and is supportive of the cross-fertilisation characteristic of a *collaborative* partnership. The issue of teachers' and tutors' respective conceptions of teaching has been problematised and shown to deserve the exploration begun in this study.

The rôles and responsibilities of mentors may, therefore, be variously defined, but some generalisations are still evident. While Martin and Sheehan (1982) had already found that the contribution of tutors to students' learning was limited during teaching practice, *Circular 9/92* reduced tutors' direct involvement with students' work still further. Mentors took increasing responsibility for this, while tutors retained prime responsibility for planning, co-ordinating, reviewing and promoting the development of courses (Burton, 1995; John, 1995; Furlong *et al.*, 1996). Although recent reforms of ITT have been examined in terms of the extra pressure on HEI staff (Blunden, 1996), there has been far less research into the changing rôle of tutors than of mentors. This informed the decision to examine the students' work with tutors as well as mentors.

The literature on mentoring has developed in many ways, paralleling changes in the expectations and nature of mentoring itself. This is represented in Figure E below which, while it cannot attempt a comprehensive summary of such an extensive literature, is indicative. Although it should not be inferred that each contribution to the literature fits neatly into the foci listed, there is a development from guides, in which the depth of analysis was limited by the purpose of *providing* rather than exploring a map of mentoring, to works based upon more extensive experience and research, and which are more sophisticated in the breadth, depth and focus of their *analysis.*

Figure E: over the page

Figure E: Some changes in the nature of the literature on mentoring

Focus	Derived From	Selected References
guide to mentoring	response to Circular 9/92	McIntyre et al., 1992; Shaw, 1992c; Wilkin, 1992a; Smith, 1993b; Watkins & Whalley, 1993b
skills, tasks, processes, rôles and responsibilities	experience: Licensed Teacher, Articled Teacher & IT-INSET schemes introduction of Circular 9/92	Bailey and Brankin, 1992; Hill et al., 1992; Holmes, 1992; Watkins, 1992; Corbett and Wright, 1993; Stephenson, 1994; Back & Booth, 1992; Hurst & Wilkin, 1992; Shaw, 1992a; Acton et al., 1993; Mountford, 1993; Smith & West-Burnham, 1993; Watkins & Whalley, 1993a; Kellett, 1994; Proctor, 1994; Reid et al., 1994
analysis of nature of mentors' work	practice of Circular 9/92	Hagger et al., 1993; McIntyre et al., 1993b, 1994; McCulloch & Fidler, 1994; McIntyre & Hagger, 1994, 1996b; Wilkin & Sankey, 1994; Williams, 1995b; Fish, 1995b; Tomlinson, 1995b; Stephens, 1995, 1996
contextualised: • advice, reports of helpful practice	practice of Circular 9/92	Aspinwall et al., 1994; Field, 1994b; Sampson & Yeomans, 1994a, b; Mardle, 1995b; Glover & Mardle, 1996; Evans & Abbott, 1997; Fletcher, 2000
• analysis,: ◊ general	within one partnership	Williams, 1994e; Blake, 1995b
◊ students		Booth, 1993; Williams, 1994c; Fish, 1995a; Jubeh, 1997
◊ departmental		Evans, 1995; McPartland, 1995; Benson et al., 1997
◊ school		Evans, 1994; Martin, 1994; Parkinson, 1994; Rhodes, 1994; Stephens, 1995; Davies, 1997.
	different schools	Campbell, 1995; McIntyre & Hagger, 1996
◊ specific subject	subject-specific experience	Jaworski & Watson, 1994; Haggarty, 1995b, Drake & Dart, 1995a, b; Dart & Drake, 1996; Mawer, 1996; Allsop & Benson, 1997; Wilkin et al., 1997; Pendry & Husbands et al., 1998
cost-benefit analyses	teacher union sponsored survey	Menter & Whitehead et al., 1995; Barker et al., 1996
change process	one partnership	Pendry, 1990; McCulloch, 1994b; Bines & Welton, 1995a; Husbands, 1995a
structural aspects of mentoring, e.g. selection, training: • generalised	surveys across partnership	Whiting et al., 1996; Pomeroy, 1993; Brooks, 1996b
• individualised	one partnership	Turner 1993b; Reid, 1994a, b; Buchanan & Jackson, 1995
students' responses to: course integration	six students	Yau, 1995
	one partnership	Rothwell, 1994; Wright & Moore, 1994; Hayward, 1997; Drever & Cope, 1999; Smith and Reid, 2000
	four partnerships	Mardle, 1995b
analysis of mentoring over time, related to: • analytical frameworks	experience in one partnership & the literature	Brooks & Sikes, 1997
• mentor-student relationship	small research projects within a partnership	Cameron & Wilson, 1993; Blake et al., 1996; Cranmer et al., 1997
• student profiles		Pendry & McIntyre, 1996; Brand & Holland, 1999; Winsor et al., 1999; Darling, 2001
• mentoring sessions		Hagger, 1995, 1997; Dunne & Bennett, 1997; Hawkey, 1998; Burgess & Butcher, 1999; Orland, 2001.
	larger project	Hagger, 1997; Lathlean et al., 1997

Various dimensions of mentors' work have been identified (an issue which will be discussed further when examining the development of the study's research methods and instruments), and there is widespread agreement that mentors should provide regular time, immediate feedback of lesson observations, and be available to students (e.g. Jones *et al.*, 1997). The literature has, however, generally sought to map participants' work on ITT courses rather than explore responses to it - the relationship between forms of partnership and conceptions of teaching central to this study have, therefore, not been explored. The literature does, however draw attention to some potentially significant factors such as the nature of mentor training. Most notable here, perhaps, is the amount of time for which mentors were able to work with students (e.g. Glover, 1995a, b; Jones, 1995; Benson, 1997; Brooks *et al.*, 1997; Stidder and Hayes, 1998), and the continuing variation in practice evident in so many aspects of students' work. This includes the quantity as well as the type of mentors' work with students (e.g. Monaghan and Lunt, 1992; Dunne and Dunne, 1993a; Fitch, 1994; Haggarty, 1995a, b; Carney and Hagger, 1996), in how mentors are resourced in school, and in the level of experience and responsibilities they hold (Devlin, 1995; Evans, 1995; Lee and Wilkes, 1995; Brooks, 1996b; Glover and Mardle, 1996). This encouraged attention be given to the quantity as well as the nature of mentors' support for students, and informed the decision to survey practice rather than explore it in fewer institutions. It is also clear that the work of tutors has not been opened up to the same level of critical analysis as has mentors', despite the fact that their rôles and responsibilities are interdependent. The consequent value of examining the practice of tutors as well as of mentors informed the research design process. Of course, the nature of mentors' work will vary with their conceptions of mentoring. These underpin practice, and are examined below

iii.   Conceptions of mentoring: the early stages of practice following Circular 9/92

There is little evidence that the Government had carefully considered the implications which *Circular 9/92* had for the nature of teachers' work with students. A belief in the primacy of skills and positive reports of teachers' contributions to the Oxford Internship Scheme seem to have been sufficient. Explorations of the difficulties and possibilities of mentoring in various forms of HEI-school partnership have shown practice varies not just due to pragmatic considerations such as the amount of time available for mentors to meet students, but because of varying conceptions of mentoring, which may in turn be related to perceived rôles and responsibilities, and to beliefs about the nature of teaching.

A range of analytic reviews have defined the distinctive contribution of mentors to ITT as deriving from the form of *practical knowledge* in which they have particular expertise. Other, often empirical, studies have examined the *process* of mentoring. Those which have examined practice across a number of schools within one or more HEI-school partnerships have contributed to theory at a more general level than smaller-scale work. Thus, Dormer (1994, 1995) developed a model of *challenge* and *support* to examine the work of mentors across 15 schools, a model which others (e.g. Martin, 1996b; McIntyre and Hagger, 1996a) have found useful. A key point here is that, broadly speaking, the supportive rôle may promote the technical and quite possibly the interpretive conceptions of teaching, while the critical conception is likely to require the stimulus of external challenge. This raises the question whether shared (or collaborative) partnerships are more likely to promote the critical conception of teaching.

Another interesting typology of mentors has been developed by Saunders *et al.* (1995) from their analysis of interviews with 29 mentors. These are the:

- *hands-off facilitator,* emphasising discussion, praise, and challenge
- *collaborative mentor,* actively working alongside students in a more continuous way
- *professional friend,* providing access to the full range of school experience
- *classical mentor,* emphasising counselling and feedback, a relatively reactive process

A more complex structure of mentors' rôles has been drawn from empirical data by Yeomans and Sampson (1994a, b). They identify three rôle dimensions. The:

- *structural,* planning, organising, providing information about the school and negotiating with other staff
- *supportive,* encouraging the student as a friend and counsellor
- *professional,* which is sub-divided into three elements of:
  - ◊ training, coaching and telling the student what to do
  - ◊ educating, discussing and questioning
  - ◊ assessing. by observing and recording.

Roberts (2000) has derived a somewhat similar categorisation from a literature review, but paid particular attention to the processes involved. Although such categories may be ideal types, they provide a valuable means and stimulus to examine and broaden existing mentoring strategies. Again, these approaches seem to support the interpretive and, especially, the technical rather than the critical conception of teaching, which seems most closely associated with the collaborative and educative forms of mentors' professional work. Other mentoring strategies may also be related to conceptions of mentoring and of teaching. Thus, an emphasis on students' learning in a *range* of contexts implies it is the rôle of a mentor to help students to understand

and be able to respond with sensitivity to complex events, a clear example of work within the interpretive conception. This implies that the operationalisation of skills is not enough, in mentoring or in teaching itself.

Conceptions of mentoring may also be placed in *developmental* frameworks. Possibly the most straightforward model is that of *apprenticeship*. Here, a teacher provides practical guidance as they work alongside a student, an approach promoted by the ideological right (e.g. the Hillgate Group, 1989)[7]. Maynard and Furlong (1993) contrast this with the *competency* model (in which mentors systematically train students using pre-specified criteria and procedures), and with an implicitly more advanced *reflective* model (in which mentors help students to focus on pupils' learning). Greater analytic precision has been supported by a range of observers who have focused on particular aspects of mentoring, as described in Figure F below. Less developed forms of mentoring practice are here seen to avoid the challenge to change practice, a challenge which, in advanced conceptions, extends to the mentor's thinking through a genuine mentor-student dialogue.

Figure F: Developmental conceptions of mentoring

Analytic categories ——————▸ more developed			Focus	Reference
conforming	*critical*		*mentoring rôle*	*Elliott & Calderhead, 1993*
supportive maintenance	*challenging pressure*		*students' work*	*Fish, 1995b*
no challenge	*challenge*		*students' ideas & practice*	*Maynard, 1996*
adverse	*supportive (advanced when range of people, values involved)*		*practice of individual*	*Glover et al, 1994*
authoritarian (didactic)	*educative (accept & challenge)*		*students' ideas*	*Millwater & Yarrow, 1997*
neglectful directive	*consultative collegial*		*supervision of student*	*Cameron & Wilson, 1993*
zero (generic observation & feedback strategies)	*minimal (focus on practice, e.g. support planning)*	*collaborative (shared responsibility for all aspects of lessons)*	*levels of mentoring*	*McIntyre & Hagger, 1993*
taken-for-granted	*reflective, (knowledge is complex, contextualised)*		*teachers' knowledge*	*} Franke & Dahlgren, 1997*
a model of practice to be emulated	*practice is problematised*		*content of teaching*	
episodes	*principles*		*focus of thinking*	

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[7] The term 'apprenticeship' is used in an increasingly widely referenced work by Lave and Wenger (1991) to denote a rather different process involving subtle forms of situated learning, but in ITT it is associated with the more straightforwardly practical meaning intended here.

The less advanced forms of mentoring are characterised by students accepting knowledge and/or a model of practice, which is associated with a technical conception. Even in developmentally advanced forms of mentoring, the critical conception has a low profile, as it has in conceptions of teaching generally (see pp. 27-30 above). Of the four categories Cameron and Wilson (1993) derived from their study of 28 students, only the collegial supervision can be associated with a critical stance. The developmentally advanced version of Franke and Dahlgren's (1997) model, involving an examination of principles, reflection and problematising knowledge, certainly promotes an interpretive and, potentially, a critical conception of mentoring. Yet despite their empirical data from a phenomenographic study of mentors in Sweden, they give no information as to which was practised most extensively.

Work on the developmental nature of *students'* learning can also be inverted to form a valuable means to analyse mentoring. Harvard and Dunne's (1992) model distinguishes between the dimensions of teaching examined by students, and they have related this to the mentoring work of tutors as well as teachers (Harvard and Dunne, 1993). They see three 'models' of mentoring. First, the *methodological*, in which the focus on a range of classroom-based dimensions is extended to examine the planning for, and evaluation of, this work; here, students' development is characterised by working with increasing autonomy to establish *intelligent* rather than habitual practice. The *pedagogical* model requires mentors to use their practical knowledge of teaching to examine as well as to model teaching while, in the *psychological* model, mentors help students avoid routinisation by problematising teaching situations. Links with the technical and interpretive conceptions of teaching are clear, while the critical conception may, but need not, be developed in this latter model.

A model built on the changing focus of concern was developed by Fuller (1969, 1970), and it is surprising that the greater use has not been made of this early, stimulating, work. The conceptualisation of a focus on the self (in terms of personal adequacy), moving on to a concern with relationships with pupils, with pupils' learning and what they are taught, and then what they 'need', culminating in a focus on the teacher's contribution to this learning seems relevant to ITT. This has similarities with the framework derived from Tann's (1993, 1994) study of 60 students. Here, the developmental nature of student learning is characterised by moving from a concern with *survival*, to *procedural* issues such as generalisable teaching strategies, and then to a critical examination of *children's needs*, and the long-term effects of their education. This complements Booth's (1993) conclusion from his study of 45 students,

that they move from needing unthreatening practical and pastoral support to requiring work which focuses on extending their understanding of broader issues.

A somewhat similar but particularly influential model has been developed by Maynard and Furlong (1993) in their extensive study of secondary and, particularly, primary students. They distinguish between *early idealism* (students with an idealised view of the type of teacher they want to be, identifying with pupils); *survival* (students looking for 'tips', or copying the style of their mentor, to help them cope in a classroom which they find it difficult to make sense of); *recognising difficulties* (students increasingly aware of, and concerned about, the complexities of teaching); *hitting the plateau* (students have established particular management and control procedures which work for them); and *moving on* (students showing concern for pupil learning). Although this model has been widely accepted through references to the notion of a 'plateau'[8], it is notable that it does not explicitly refer to a critical conception of teaching. In subsequent work which related stages of student development more fully to a model of mentoring, Maynard and Furlong (1995) do characterise the highest stage of student learning as 'critical reflection' upon the grounds for practice, although the meaning of 'critical' is not developed. Having reviewed some conceptions of mentoring, it is time to focus more closely on recent practice.

iv.   Moving on?

The practice of mentors after *Circular 9/92* came in for some critical comment (see pp. 35*ff* above). While, as we have just seen, developmental conceptions of mentoring have become well established in the literature, it has been suggested that mentors have typically done little to extend students' development beyond a basic 'coping' level of competence (Elliott and Calderhead, 1993; Haggarty 1995b; Cameron-Jones and O'Hara, 1995, 1997). This conclusion is also supported by experience of working with NQTs (Bleach's (1997) study across five schools) and in the USA (Abell *et al.*, 1995; Borko and Mayfield, 1995; Feiman-Nemser, 1998). Some suggest that critical enquiry may even be unwelcome in schools (Drever and Cope, 1999), while Hayward (1997) extends the view of mentors' practice as somewhat limited by suggesting that their assessment of students focuses on short-term effectiveness, though this conclusion seems based on generalised experience rather than specific data.

Others take a more positive view of mentors' practice as complementing that of tutors, a principle upon which the Oxford Internship Scheme is based (e.g. Benton, 1990b). Here, students' practice may be challenged from differing, but equally valid and important,

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[8] Of course, this is not an entirely new idea. Two decades earlier Millins (1974, p. 55) referred to the risk that 'a basic survival level of classroom competence ... can become a plateau of endeavour'.

perspectives (McNamara, 1993). Others have also reconceptualised course frameworks to problematise students' experiences (e.g. Totterdell and Lambert, 1998), while recent studies (e.g. Burgess and Butcher, 1999) have found many examples of mentors systematically challenging students' *perspectives* as well as their specific knowledge.

Students' ability to 'move on' is, of course, heavily influenced by how participants work with each other (McNally *et al.*, 1994, 1997). Whether such development is associated with the work of teachers or tutors, or a particular form of HEI-school partnership, are clearly important and unresolved questions. In terms of partnership, one significant issue may be the extent to which mentors can maximise students' development without having that broader understanding of the course which depends upon extended involvement in it (Martin, 1994). Social, cultural and political factors will also have an impact, but have rarely been explored, although Wang's (2001) comparison of mentoring in Britain, the USA and China is an interesting exception. Thus there has been little examination into issues relating to participants' race and ethnicity (with some exceptions, e.g. Mathieson, 1995; Jones *et al.*, 1996, Jones, 1997; Osler, 1997), probably in part because there are so few ethnic minority students, teachers and tutors. A focus on gender in mentoring is equally rare, although it has been set in the context of traditionalist/masculine and intuitive/feminine management styles (Woodd, 1997), personality traits (Roberts, 1998) and behaviour (Roberts, 1999), while Freedman (1987) has criticised the application of universalistic standards (represented by competence criteria and a technical conception of teaching) as a masculine construct of professionalism which underplays the importance of intuition and emotional involvement. While the nature of partnership has been identified as an important issue, it seems that examining the nature of mentors' work (notably the extent to which it is educationally challenging), has more significance than establishing the organisational features of mentoring. One important dimension of mentoring, reflection, will now be reviewed separately because of its centrality to course rationales.

D. Reflection

Like mentoring, the term reflection is used in many different occupational contexts, and has become something of an indicator of claims to professionalism.[9] But it is in teacher education that it has become a dominant metaphor (Chiarelott and Klein, 1996) characterising a developmentally advanced form of mentoring (see pp. 40*ff*.). It

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[9] In nursing, for instance, albeit with doubts about it practicability in clinical practice (Long, 1996; Marrow, 1996; Fowler and Chevannes, 1998).

is therefore, a practice which is distinctive, while paralleling conceptions of teaching in being well-suited to increase our understanding of the form of professionalism promoted through ITT. Its significance here is indicated by the extensive literature it has attracted, which means that its nature and rise to prominence in ITT can only be referred to in outline here. As in previous Sections, the effect of recent reforms in ITT will be discussed briefly, and the forms of reflection will be examined in increasingly broad frameworks, including the conceptions of teaching outlined in Figure B above.

First, however, the meaning of 'reflection' will be explored. Much of the literature here is from the USA, but this is perhaps less problematic than when examining empirical data. Important books include those edited by Boud *et al.* (1985), Grimmett and Erickson (1988), Clift, *et al.* (1990), Tabachnick and Zeichner (1991a), and LaBoskey (1994). These are typical of a literature rich in reviews and studies of experiences in particular courses, although Louden's (1991) study of a single teacher is also a valuable source of interpretation. Works which provide a British perspective include reviews by Fish (1989) and Furlong and Maynard (1995), and the collection of relatively small-scale studies from the USA and Britain by Calderhead and Gates (1993a).

i.   Definitions

The term 'reflection' has become ubiquitous when discussing ITT, but continues to be interpreted in varied ways (Calderhead, 1989; Shaughnessy, 1996). Two figures have, however, been particularly influential in the conceptualisation of the term, Dewey and Schon.

Dewey's (1933) emphasis on reflection as a staged process of *problem solving* has attracted many followers. It has been stimulated by a mismatch between teacher expectation and pupil response (Britzman, 1986), a 'dissonance' obstructing action or understanding (Cinnamond and Zimpher, 1990), problematising that which is usually taken for granted (Field, 1994d), while Reiman (1999) focuses on the value of new experiences. This cognitive approach has also generated a host of works which identify particular types of teaching, such as the critical conception (discussed below) which may be promoted through reflection.

Schon (1983, 1987) extended reflection to the *intuitive* process of teaching itself, and is an even more visible figure in debates about the nature of reflection. His analysis has chimed with Kolb's (1984) similarly influential advocacy of learning as an experiential process, an approach related more specifically to teaching by, for example, Copeland *et al.* (1993). Schon (*ibid.*) shares Dewey's view of teaching

situations as typically problematic, but is distinctive in identifying a process of reflection-*in*-action as well as reflection-*on*-action. As Schon's work has been so influential, and was referred to in many examples of the HEI documentation examined in this study, his ideas deserve a critical analysis - one which played an important part in determining the place of reflection in this study

The notion of reflecting *while* teaching may be associated with an intuitive, interpretive, approach. This contrasts with the systematic process of establishing and testing hypotheses described by Dewey (1950), while sharing the purpose of challenging a technical-rational approach to teaching. Schon's conceptualisation of reflection may be questioned in two fundamental areas. First, the very possibility of reflection-*in*-action may be challenged. Thus, Court (1988) argues reflection involves moving away from action, even if only momentarily, while Kemmis (1985) agrees it requires a time and space not available in classrooms. Reflection, as Bengtsson (1995) notes, must involve more than interaction with a situation. Interestingly, the examples of reflection-*in*-action Schon (1983) provides cover periods of time far longer than a lesson, and when developing his views in relation to teaching (Schon, 1987), the examples usually relate to 1:1 interaction. Eraut (1994, 1995) and Van Manen (1995) have effectively criticised the limited consideration which Schon gives to the dimension of time in reflection-in-action, while Gilroy (1993) and Newman (1999) have criticised the logic of Schon's analysis from which his account of reflection-in-action is derived (i.e. the need to move away from reflection-in-action to avoid paralysis). Reflection while in the midst of classroom activity may just not be possible[10].

Second, the focus of reflection as described by Schon is *personal*. However, while it has been suggested that self-reflectiveness can establish a basis for critical questioning (Greene, 1978) or systemic change (Osterman and Kottkamp, 1993), such reflection need not examine broader ethical issues. Indeed, a personal focus may be insufficient to extend understanding and professionalism (Furlong, 1997; Reynolds and Salters, 1998) and risks encouraging an idiosyncratic approach (Gilliss, 1988). At the very least, Selman (1988) suggests, Schon's reflection is not helpful for all aspects of teaching. Yaxley (1993) goes further, and suggests that relying on Schon's form of reflection when there is a focus on school effectiveness may limit the opportunities to develop a critical approach. This is, however, a continuing debate. For example, Quicke (1996) takes a more positive view of reflection at the personal level, suggesting that this need not be limited to everyday experience. Schon's distinction between reflection-*in* and *on*-action has also been extended by, for example, Van

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[10] This is not to say that teachers act unthinkingly in the classroom - the intuitive knowing-in-action to which Schon (1983) also refers certainly is possible even if, it is suggested here, reflection-in-action is not.

Manen (1995). Thus, he refers to *reflection on the past*, to *contemporaneous reflection* (a 'stop and think' form differing from a reflective awareness shown in discussion, for example), and to *anticipatory reflection* on future experiences. Van Manen seems, however, more cautious than Schon about the frequency and breadth of concern of this contemporaneous reflection. He also sees it as too complex to be practised by students.

Reflection has also been associated with particular *states of mind* and *types of people*. Dewey (1932) emphasised the importance of an openness of mind, a sense of responsibility to look beyond immediate issues, and a whole-hearted willingness to risk trying something new. Such reflection has been seen as a prerequisite for teachers who aspire to develop pupils' thinking skills (e.g. Hullfish and Smith, 1961; LaBoskey, 1994; Beyer, 1996), their ability to develop positive interpersonal relationships, structure situations and problems (Korthagen and Wubbels, 1995), and reflect without needing external guidance (Korthagen, 1999). Writers working within this perspective often see reflection as contemplative, distanced from action, possibly used as a means to develop practical theory (e.g. Handal and Lauvas, 1987). The importance of analytic competence is emphasised by Hills and Gibson (1988), but their multi-dimensional model representing this seems too complex to guide practice. Alternatively, Russ (1995) has emphasised the importance of values, in the sense of a willingness to question and challenge differences of view, a focus characteristic of the critical conception.

The extent to which such characteristics may be learned, as Korthagen (1985) previously argued, remains an open question, although the ability to reflect may be developmental. Thus, LaBoskey (1993) has distinguished between 'alert novices' (internally motivated to understand events) who are more open to reflection than 'common-sense thinkers' (dependent upon external motivation). Alternatively, reflection may be developmental in requiring a focus on practice before moving on to values (Calderhead and Gates, 1993b; McIntyre, 1993), or coming to view knowledge as uncertain (King and Kitchener, 1994). These latter definitions suggest that reflection may be categorised in ways which can be related to all three conceptions of teaching which frame this study.

ii.   The rise and survival of reflective practice in ITT

"There is not a single teacher educator who would say that he or she is not concerned with preparing teachers who are reflective", concluded Zeichner and Tabachnick (1991), and the importance of the reflective ideal in ITT in Britain is evident in its identification as a course aim by over 70% of HEI course leaders in the first phase of

the MOTE research (Barrett *et al.*, 1990). Yet, as Calderhead (1989) and Furlong and Maynard (1995) note, the contribution of reflection to professional learning remains uncertain, and it is arguably constrained at various levels of practice.

First, it may be limited by the underlying nature of society and of the educational system. In the USA. Beyer (1992) has associated a widespread technical, non-ideological, reflection with a scientific approach to training teachers which emphasises socially useful outcomes, an analysis which Graham (1997a) has applied to Britain. An alternative factor at this contextual level may be that an emphasis on 'foundational' knowledge (evidenced in the push to use research findings when training teachers (Reynolds, 1998)) encourages acceptance of, rather than reflection upon, knowledge (Mackinnon and Erickson, 1992).

Second, some critics of school-based ITT argue that it limits reflective practice because teachers are constrained by the stress of the classroom to think cautiously (Pollard, 1988), focus on the particular (Bolster, 1983), and therefore not actively build a reflective approach into their work with students (Abell, 1995). In the USA. Russell (1993b) has emphasised that mentors work at the level of action and focus on skills, and similar arguments have been deployed in Britain by those emphasising the importance of HEIs in promoting reflective practice (e.g. John, 1996). Pragmatic grounds for arguing that reflection can only have a limited rôle in school-based ITT include the lack of time teachers allegedly have for such work[11] and their need to be primarily concerned with the practicalities of teaching (e.g. Watkins, 1992). Others doubt whether teachers have the necessary ability to make explicit and analyse theory (Moran and Dollat, 1995). However, the case for HEI predominance in partnerships has been undermined by Proctor (1993), who found that the extent and forms of students' reflection depended upon their tutors' reflectiveness, which was constrained by their limited opportunity to discuss their own supervisory work with other tutors or teachers.

Third, external regulation of ITT may constrain the development of a reflective approach. Certainly there are courses where the reflective content of previous student portfolios has been replaced by a cross-referencing system designed to show a student has achieved each of the *Circular 4/98* standards (e.g. UWE, 1998), and Lucas (1991) found such concerns drew attention away from broad-based reflection. It may not be surprising, therefore, that the MOTE research team found that the reflective

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[11] The intention here is not to suggest that teachers do have lots of time to interact at length with students, but that reflection may be stimulated and structured without continual mentor-student contact.

model of ITT was referred to by just 46% of HEIs working under the *Circular 9/92* regulations which systematised a school-based form of ITT; this compared with over 70% of HEIs previously (Whiting *et al.*, 1996). There may even be difficulties where courses are *designed* to promote reflection. Richardson (1990) in the USA has drawn attention to the risk that reflection becomes 'technologised' in programmes designed to achieve particular behaviours. Extending students' concerns beyond technical aspects of teaching may require particular forms of intervention (Furlong, 1997). Thus the discourse of reflection has been seen to be characterised by an individualising tendency which needs to be countered by involvement in 'conversations' (Elbaz, 1987, 1988; Dobbins, 1996; Phelan, 1997).

Fourth, students may be seen as inherently incapable of reflection. Calderhead's (1987) and Russell's (1988) studies of 10 and 4 students respectively found them constrained by their limited practical experience, a view extended to the Oxford Internship Scheme (Hayward, 1997), and other forms of ITT in Britain (Bennett, 1995). Tann (1993) more specifically suggests that students are unfamiliar with the terminology which allows them to articulate their experience with the precision necessary to facilitate reflective practice. In addition, if qualities such as open-mindedness are necessary to reflect, students may only develop these once they have reached the developmental stage of acting competently and confidently in the classroom. Of course, some may not have, or be able to develop, these personal qualities at all.

Others take a more positive view of the potential for reflective practice to survive, and even prosper. For example, Menter and Pollard (1989) have argued that increasing central control of ITT *stimulated* the professional response of reflection, as a means to bridge the theory-practice gap which is of continuing concern in ITT. It is now widely accepted that reflection needs to be promoted through specific strategies, and Figure G on the following page gives an indication of the variety referred to in the literature. There is, however, no agreement as to how reflection may best be promoted. While students' writing has been a popular strategy, the effectiveness of the specific forms referred to has been questioned. Experience at Exeter University has suggested writing may act merely as a form of personal therapy (Harland and Myhill, 1997), Bain *et al.* (1999) questioned the efficacy of dialogic approaches in Australia, portfolios have been found to encourage an instrumental response from some students (Darling, 2001) while, in Spain, discussion was found to be a far more effective stimulus for reflection than writing (Naysmith and Palma, 1998). There is a trend however, evident in Figure G below, for reflection to be supported by increasingly specific forms of

student activity and not left to the student to develop in isolation; thus course design seems, by itself, to be insufficient.

Figure G: Some strategies to support reflective practice in ITT

Strategy	How reflection is supported	References
part of the week in school, part in HEI	*providing differing perspectives and forms of work*	*Furlong et al., 1988*
particular course content	*extending reflection into moral and ethical areas associated with the critical conception*	*Valli, 1990; Stoiber, 1991*
student research	*providing a stimulus and procedural structure*	*Barnes, 1992; LaBoskey, 1992 Ruddock, 1992a; Husbands, 1994*
written records of students' teaching:	*helping make intuitive knowledge explicit*	*Day, 1993*
journals		*Tripp, 1987; Zeichner & Liston, 1987; Ciriello et al., 1992; Richert, 1992; LaBoskey, 1993; Loughran, 1996; Woodward & Sinclair, 1998*
dialogic writing	*intervening to promote challenge*	*Francis, 1995; Reiman, 1999*
portfolios	*involving students in their learning*	*Husbands, 1993; Borko et al., 1997*
	sharpening the focus of self evaluation	*Dollase, 1996; Mokhtari et al., 1996; Pendry & McIntyre, 1996; Mahony & Harris, 1997; Winsor et al., 1999*
	stimulating reflection beyond the purely personal	*Richert, 1992*
	facilitating problem-solving	*Brooks et al., 1994*
	revealing complexity of teaching	*Krause, 1996*
	relating theory and practice	*Carroll et al., 1996*
oral dialogue	*external intervention*	*Pugarch & Johnson, 1990; Edwards & Brunton, 1993*
debriefing		*Fish, 1989*
coherent course framework	*continuing link with students' practical concerns e.g.*	*Zeichner, 1987*
	derived from students' beliefs	*Korthagen, 1992*
	delineation of teachers' decisions in the classroom	*Rowley, 1995*
critical incident analysis	*drawing out the thinking which underlies action*	*Francis, 1997*

Overall, and despite the concerns of those who associate reflection with HEI-based work, it seems reasonable to infer from the literature that school-based ITT *can* support reflection by students, and deserves to be examined in this study. Indeed, Ashcroft and Griffiths (1989) argue that reflection is actively encouraged by direct experience in school. Lucas (1996), from close analysis of the practice of one student, suggests that reflective work in school may even have an ethical basis. Lauriala's (1997) conclusion that contact with unfamiliar and problematic experiences stimulates critical reflection may support this finding, because experiences in school have an extra force and immediacy which demand a response from students. Goodson's (1997) view that teachers constantly reflect reinforces this conclusion, and hence the extension to mentors to of responsibility for promoting students' reflection (e.g.

McLaughlin, 1994). Interviews with mentors within one HEI-school partnership indicated that some even promoted reflection which transcended the focus on skills evidenced in their initial questionnaire responses (Russ, 1995). However, this review has also suggested that students need to be supported and challenged if they are to become reflective practitioners, so the issue of how mentors work with students seems worth exploring. While reflective practice may have survived despite the external changes to ITT, the nature of that practice must be reviewed to relate it to this study's concern with conceptions of teaching.

iii.   Conceptions of reflection

Reflective practice is often counter-posed to a view of teachers as managers and technicians (e.g. Handal and Lauvas, 1987; Liston and Zeichner, 1987; Popkewitz, 1987). Yet one can agree with Beyer's (1992) and Brubacher et al.'s (1994) view that all teachers reflect on *something*. A dichotomy of technical/reflective practice is inadequate. Moving beyond particular definitions of reflection, there are various frameworks which allow us to analyse differing forms of reflection. Those examined below will be increasingly inclusive, culminating in references to the model of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching.

The influence of Schon is evident in Griffiths and Tann's (1992) contrasts between the personal focus of reflection-*in*-action, and a reflection-*on*-action which is interpersonal and may involve research and an examination of theory over a longer period of time. Bennett (1996) has developed a more sophisticated model comprising four dimensions of reflection: *introspection* (leading to knowledge about one's own beliefs), *consideration of alternatives* (e.g. during planning), *critical analysis* (of the effectiveness of the selected alternative), and a *confirmation or revision of beliefs* (on the basis of their effectiveness). Baille (1994) takes this a stage further by relating forms of reflection to types of teachers. Thus, the *teacher as technician* reflects to achieve desirable outcomes, the *teacher as expert* reflects about the content of lessons to develop their thinking and action, while the *teacher as iconoclast* reflects upon the context of pupils and schools, bringing out the uniqueness of teaching situations. Some have set reflection in a developmental framework, though this is less common than is the case for mentoring, which has been more closely related to levels of student development. Figure H below provides some examples, from which it is clear that the critical conception has a relatively high profile here through the references to reflection upon 'values' and 'ethical issues' - albeit in terms of what is advocated rather than experienced. In view of the need to determine how reflection may relate to the conceptions of teaching, it is significant that it is the *focus* of reflection that has been so important in determining its nature.

Figure H: Developmental conceptions of reflection

Analytic categories ⟶ more developed				Reference
technical-rational	reflection-on-action	reflection-in-action		Hatton & Smith, 1995
'coping'		analysis of values		Shaughnessy, 1996
survival		ethical issues		Pultorak, 1996
process of teaching and learning	subject matter knowledge	political and ethical principles	social context of educational institutions	Tom, 1985
factual (focusing on practical situations)	retrospective (establishing patterns of understanding)	substratum (exploring values)	connective (establishing how other 3 can influence practice)	Fish, 1995b

Reflection may also be analysed in terms of broader perspectives, which are not represented in Figure H above because they tend not to be seen in terms of a hierarchy, although Valli (1993) does contrast a *psychological* perspective (concerned with individual students) with a *sociological* perspective (involving a broader, more critical, frame of reference). Louden's (1991) review of the literature extends this distinction by using the categories of *forms* of reflection (introspection, rehearsal, enquiry, spontaneity), and *interests* (goals which are technical, problematic, and personal). One of the advantages of setting reflection in such perspectives is that they transcend (but need not ignore) the concern with the process of reflection at the level of individuals; this reaffirms the possibility of examining reflection in terms of conceptions of teaching. Thus, a *moral* dimension is examined in Valli's (1990) study, which distinguishes between dimensions of reflection which are *deliberative* (involving thoughtfulness and questions about what ought to be), *relational* (concerned with developing an empathetic rather than rational understanding), and *critical* (aiming to provide challenges for students' belief systems and to question the distribution of power in society). Grimmett (1988) has similarly differentiated between the purposes of differing perspectives of reflection as *instrumental* (directing practice), *deliberative* (choosing between different versions of teaching), and *reconstructive* (generating new knowledge which informs practice). Grimmett *et al.* (1990) have extended this model by relating these perspectives to levels of reflection - on *action situations*, upon the *self as teacher* (including the understanding of the context), and *examining underlying assumptions*.

Reflection can be categorised in terms of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions. *Technical* forms of reflection may be characterised by a concern with the effectiveness of practice, and students may be encouraged to use research to guide their practice (Grimmett *et al.*, 1990). Reflection which is constrained by a tight procedure may also be defined technical in nature, Ross and Hannay (1986) have even suggested that Dewey's form of stage-by-stage reflective thinking has been proceduralised into a technical process.

Within the *interpretive* conception, reflection is concerned with establishing personal meaning. Thus, for Goodman (1991), it is the process by which intuitive and rational thought are integrated. Such reflection is also context-dependent.

Hatton and Smith (1995) note that '*critical* reflection' has been used loosely, commonly describing nothing more than self-criticism. When used with greater precision, it has often been associated with examining moral and ethical issues (e.g. Sparks-Langer and Colton, 1991). Grundy (1989), following Habermas (1972), defines critical reflection more specifically as involving a critique of ideology and ideological social relationships, an interpretation which has influenced this study. Like the critical conception of teaching more generally (see pp 29*ff.* above) this has been developed most fully in the USA (e.g. Beyer, 1992). As with the critical conception of teaching, this form of reflection seems particularly difficult to practice (Barnes, 1992; McIntyre, 1993; Hill 1996c).

Some writers have used models which may be related closely to the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions as a whole. Korthagen and Wubbels (1995) differentiate between forms of reflection representing technical concerns with *effectiveness* (in terms of a given outcome) and *rationality* (linking with accountability); an interpretive process of *reframing* (as advocated by Schon, *ibid.*); and *critical enquiry* (in which value positions are challenged). Van Manen (1977) similarly distinguished between three levels of reflection, *deliberative rationality* concerned with practical issues, an *interpretive understanding* of the nature of educational experiences, and a concern with fundamental *moral and ethical issues* - which his references to Habermas make clear is to be understood as promoting 'liberation'. Yet, Van Manen's analysis is influenced by the strength of the phenomenological approach in Dutch teacher education; for him, practical knowledge *orientates* actions rather than working in the instrumental way typical of the contemporary USA literature, and increasingly influential in Britain. This may suggest that the use of 'levels' by Van Manen need not imply a hierarchy of 'importance', although others who have explored this schema do seem to read it that way (e.g. Handal and Lauvas, 1987; Gore and Zeichner, 1991; Wood, 1991). Tabachnick and Zeichner (1991b) have similarly examined four perspectives of reflection concerned with, an *academic* view (of subject knowledge), *social efficiency* (application of research on teaching), a *developmentalist* view (prioritising students' thinking and development), and *social reconstructionism* (focusing on the social and political context of education   which they see as

particularly difficult to promote)[12]. Ecclestone (1996) explicitly relates a framework of *technical, hermeneutic* and *critical* reflection to stages of student development, reinforcing the value of relating forms of reflection to professionalism.

Reflection has also been analysed in terms of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions by Gore (1987) in relation to the USA literature on ITT, as well as by Carr and Kemmis (1986) at a more abstract level of analysis. McIntyre (1993) has referred to Carr and Kemmis in his discussion of reflection within the Oxford Internship Scheme, although his use of the practical (or interpretive) level of analysis differs from that used in this study. There, the interpretation of practice is limited to that of the individual student rather than of classrooms and practice more broadly. Nevertheless, and despite the relative lack of empirical research using this model, the nature of these conceptions of reflection can be set out in some detail and has informed the design of this study. It is this design, and the associated methodological issues which will be examined in the next Section. But first, it will be helpful to draw attention to some ways in which the literature review has influenced the nature of this study.

E.   Taking the research questions forward

This review has identified some key dimensions of partnership which deserve further examination. The have been innumerable studies at the level of individual participants, and even of courses, but less has been done to inform our understanding of practice at a more general level. The infrastructure of who does what is relatively clear, and there have been cost-benefit style analyses of the effects of contemporary HEI-school partnership arrangements. Moving closer to the concerns central to this study, the MOTE team established a valuable set of ideal-types of partnership in terms of relative HEI and school responsibilities for courses, but focused on the HEI perspective more closely than that of schools. This is so of much of the literature, so it became important that this study should examine the perspectives of students and mentors in as much detail as that of tutors. The literature review has shown that it would be valuable to explore the various forms of complementary and collaborative forms of partnership, but it has become clear that while the models of partnership discussed in the literature provide valuable analytical tools, they cannot be used to represent particular partnerships, because experiences within them are too great. At least as important, the need to extend the work of the MOTE team pressed for an empirical study which focused on the *experience* of partnership, especially as so many have studies have shown that this varied so widely within partnerships.

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[12] Zeichner (1992, 1994) later extended this model to include a *generic* form concerned with reflection for its own sake.

This informed the decision that to examine the association between the nature of ITT courses and the HEI-school partnerships which frame them, this study should *survey* experiences, using relatively broad and robust concepts which can relate to diverse partnerships. The value of giving equal weight to the perspectives of the teacher, tutor and student participants has also become evident. Apart from providing a relatively rounded, and hence valid, view, this approach also allows us to examine the similarities and differences between the work of tutors and teachers. This issue has often been debated, but relatively rarely with the benefit of empirical data which transcend the practice of individual practitioners. It is an issue which is particularly worth examining in the context of a literature which so often sees the extension of teachers' responsibilities for ITT as deprofessionalising.

The choice of which particular dimensions of partnership to examine in this study was, of course, closely informed by the literature survey, particularly the experience of the MOTE team, as well as an instrument development, testing and piloting process described in the next Section. A result of this process was a reduction in the number of issues it was proposed to examine, specifically contextual factors such as the effect of schools having partnerships with more than one HEI, the distance of a school from their HEI partner, and the nature of course assignments and other aspects of students' experience on courses.

There have also been many critiques of Government intervention in ITT, but the impact of this upon courses, and in particular upon the form of professionalism promoted through ITT, deserves more attention than it has received. There have been stimulating critical analyses, but little empirical detail and much of that has been set within the boundaries of a single school or partnership. Professionalism has been shown to be a complex and contested concept. The prevalence of studies which examine this at the levels of policy encouraged a focus on practical dimensions of professionalism, in the form of conceptions of teaching.

The literature relating to conceptions of teaching proved to be particularly extensive. The range of possibilities set the context for the decision to use the broad-based framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, although the ability to apply this to so many areas and levels of practice was a key factor. The review also confirmed the value of generating empirical data about the nature of ITT courses and, something not done previously, of working to relate conceptions of teaching to forms of HEI-school partnership. The range of concepts, foci and perspectives (amongst other things) examined in the literature played a major part in the process by which the research was designed and instruments were developed. Fundamental issues, such as whether to focus on how students' conceptions of

teaching might change during a course, or on course outcomes, and whose experiences were valid and worth examining, were raised through the literature. At a subsequent pragmatic level, the literature review was central to the identification and development of the particular elements of teaching examined through questionnaires, and the form of the categories used when analysing the HEI documentation.

The literature review also showed that empirical study of the critical conception has been relatively rare - strengthening the justification for the focus and empirical form of this study; particular attention was therefore given to exemplifying the critical conception when developing the research instruments

As professionalism has been shown to be such a complex concept, it was decided to complement the focus on conceptions with an examination of the nature of students' work with mentors and tutors. Here, there was again a rich choice of concepts and models presented in the literature. This diversity reaffirmed the value of using the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, because of the way it can be adapted to so many areas of activity in education. As a relatively large amount of such work has been empirical, it was possible to pay particular attention (when reviewing the literature and subsequently considering the research methods and instruments to be used) to wide-ranging models works which could be applied to practice in diverse partnerships.

Analysis of this literature on mentoring also drew attention to a variety of other issues which had the potential to influence the form of professionalism promoted through ITT. These included the nature of teachers' training for their work with students, participants' subject specialism, and the amount of time for which students worked with teachers and tutors. The research instrument testing process helped to establish which of these should be examined in this study, which involved excluding many which, as will be acknowledged below, do still deserve closer examination.

A concern with professionalism meant it was especially valuable to examine as many dimensions of participants' experience as possible, and the quantity and quality of the literature relating to reflective practice was impossible to ignore. The analysis of the literature associated with Schon and Dewey in particular played an important part in determining that it was the *focus* rather than the process of reflection which deserved to be examined in this study. This had the important benefit of transcending the common concern with reflection at the personal level (the impact of which is unclear), and allowing a place for the critical conception of reflection; this seems to be an important identifier of extended forms of professionalism, but has received relatively little empirical study in England.

It also proved possible to relate forms and purposes of reflection to the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions, supporting the validity as well as the value of relating examining reflection in this study. Moreover, the association of reflective work (and extended forms of professionalism) with HEI-based work and tutors rather than teachers, had the advantage of providing another means to compare the nature of their respective contributions to ITT. The nature of course structures, content and tasks which stimulate reflection have also been seen to deserve examination, as does the impact of reflection upon practice, which has been more often assumed than examined.

This literature review has thus oriented, or added particular emphases to, the initial research questions which guided this study. How precisely these will be addressed will depend upon issues examined in the subsequent discussion of research methods and methodology, which is set in the broader contexts of the research design and of methodological perspectives more generally.

III.   Research Methods and Methodology

Issues may be examined according to many different methodological principles and using innumerable methods. Decisions as to which to apply are influenced by a mix of philosophical views and, often, more pragmatic factors. The rationale behind the decisions taken here will be discussed below, as will more particular aspects of the study, including the development of the research instruments used. To set the scene, it may be helpful to note that this study is based primarily on quantitative data and methodology because of the nature and limited existing knowledge of the issues to be addressed, not because this approach is held to be inherently more valid. The study has also used qualitative data and approaches, but not simply to attempt to balance perceived weaknesses in quantitative methodologies. Rather, it is held that distinctions between these methodologies should not be exaggerated. This view has influenced the nature of this study, from research design to data analysis, which is why this issue is addressed when setting the study in a methodological perspective. First, however, the framework of the study must be described.

A.   Research design

The aim to explore ITT courses in terms of the conceptions of teaching and reflection they promote derived inductively from personal observation as an HEI tutor that these courses provided student teachers with school experiences which seemed to differ in terms of the conceptions of teaching they supported. An hypothesis that differing types of school-HEI partnership could be related to these conceptions, which seemed associated with distinctive forms of teacher professionalism, was developed on the basis of this inductive experience, that is retroductively (Hanson, 1958).

It was decided to research secondary rather than primary ITT courses because the former were subject to legislative reform (*Circular 9/92*) a year earlier, and were likely to be more stable in terms of their organisation and nature than those changed more recently. More specifically, the focus was on one-year PGCE rather than undergraduate courses because the aim of this study was to examine the nature of a course as a whole. As undergraduate secondary courses based on *Circular 9/92* were only being completed by students for the first time when this study started, (and may have been subject to incremental changes during the period of the course), the nature of these courses and the relationships between HEIs and schools was likely to be particularly difficult to establish. In contrast, the repeated experience of PGCE courses meant they may be considered relatively stable in terms of their partnership arrangements and of the conceptions of teaching they promoted.

The level of analysis had also to be established. Experience of a course may vary with the school context (Levy, 1993), so data collection had to transcend centrally produced course documentation. As participants in the differing rôles of ITT co-ordinator, mentor, tutor and student might have differing perspectives of a course, it was decided that data should be collected from each of these key rôle-sets. Analysis could then be applied to rôles within and across HEI-school partnerships, as well as at the institutional level of those partnerships.

The appropriateness of a case study approach was considered in some detail. The flexibility of a qualitative case study to reformulate the work as it proceeded (Burgess, 1985) was regarded as a particular advantage. Recent reforms had changed the nature of the area to be studied, and it was quite possible that unforeseen issues could arise. Significant advantages of this approach included the ability to extend understanding by encouraging the emergence of, and ability to make use of, exceptions to the hypotheses built into the design of the survey (Mitchell, 1983).

Conversely, the limited practical knowledge of this new field of HEI-school partnership meant that working with even 4-5 cases could not guarantee the opportunity to examine a full range of balances of HEI-school responsibility for a course. The decision to *survey* practice across 10 HEI-school partnerships was made for technical rather than epistemological reasons; that is, it was not possible to identify particular HEI-school partnerships as ideal types of an established model of partnership. A stratified sample was used, as explained below. SCITT schemes, in which schools receive funds directly from a government agency and buy in HEI support as they decide is appropriate, were also surveyed because they represented a distinctive 'separatist' (Furlong *et al.*, 1996b) form of the school-HEI relationship in ITT. Whether this research design can be classed as a case study may be a moot point. Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to a number of multi-site case studies, which can certainly be quantitatively-based (Stenhouse, 1980; Cohen and Manion, 1994), despite Hamilton (1980) setting case study research in opposition to survey analysis. However, a key distinctive element of a case study is the *depth* of the research into a myriad of variables to provide a holistic account (Stake, 1980), and neither time nor resources were available to apply this across 10 HEI-school partnerships. Establishing how this study relates to broader methodological perspectives requires a more detailed examination of the field.

Having established that it was appropriate to survey the *experience* of various rôles across a range of HEI-school partnerships, it was evident that the scale of the study dictated that data be collected primarily though self-completed questionnaires. This process was complemented by an analysis of HEI course documentation which

established *HEI intentions* for courses and an opportunity to compare these with participants' experiences of a course. The nature of HEI documentation and how it compared with the experience of course participants is in itself interesting, particularly in an era in which increasing faith seems to be placed upon establishing relatively prescriptive curriculum frameworks at all levels within the educational system. Following Giroux (1988), it also challenges the notion of texts as neutral transmitters of ideas. Interviews with HEI course leaders provided an opportunity to contextualise and explore key issues more deeply.

It had originally been intended to add an historical dimension to this study to provide a perspective which would allow a fuller consideration of the significance of contemporary developments[1]. Action is built on the legacies of the past and the historical dimension should have a place in such research, argue Reid (1986) and Goodson (1985, 1987c, 1994). Data gathered from the intended relatively open review of the secondary literature might also, suggests Andrew (1985), have strengthened this study by indicating new lines of enquiry, as well as providing a weak form of conceptual triangulation. Although an historical review was undertaken and did feed into the conceptualisation of the study, lack of space has precluded the development of the historical dimension beyond that of establishing a context and perspective for the analysis of contemporary courses.

Decisions about the research design raised a number of issues. Establishing the nature of participants' experiences was particularly complex. Even a single HEI may be in partnership with over 150 schools. The form of these HEI-school partnerships was therefore complex and, as analysis of the questionnaire data will show, varied within, as well as between, partnerships. Moreover, the experience of participants clearly varied with their rôle in ITT, and it was important to analyse experience at this level.

Yet it was also desirable to examine experience at the institutional level. For example, it was correctly anticipated that the nature of courses would differ between partnerships. Simply representing an aspect of partnership from all the questionnaire data relating to it would, however, be misleading, because this would not allow for the effect of the differential response rates of those working in distinctive rôles. Representation of experience across courses would be similarly distorted. When considering this issue, it has been helpful to note that the data were derived from those 'providing' courses (i.e. ITT co-ordinators, mentors, and tutors), and those experiencing the courses as students. To reflect these two perspectives in a

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[1] It was anticipated that this would use a framework of five models of partnership (derived from Wilkin's (1990) stimulating historical review of partnership), the development of which followed broadly chronological lines.

representation of the course, it is necessary to give the data from ITT co-ordinators, mentors, and tutors collectively a weight equal to that of the data from students. The question then became how to establish a composite representation of the data from ITT co-ordinators, mentors, and tutors. The amount of time spent working with students was one possible means of weighting the data. Analysis of the questionnaires indicated that, on average, ITT co-ordinators and tutors worked with students for shorter periods of time than did mentors. Yet they were likely to have had a greater knowledge of, and impact upon, the courses than this implies because they had (as the analysis of the questionnaires and documentation shows) greater responsibility than mentors for the organisation, monitoring and evaluation of courses. It was therefore decided that the most valid representation of the ITT co-ordinator/mentor/tutor rôles would probably be established by summing the three sets of means of data, and dividing the total by three. A representation of the course as experienced by those within a particular partnership may therefore be derived from the means of the relevant factor(s) examined, as follows:

$$\frac{(ITT\ co\text{-}ordinators + mentors + tutors) \div 3 + students}{2}$$

There was a similar concern to avoid numerically larger partnerships having a disproportionate influence upon the representation of the work of a particular *rôle*, particularly as the sample of HEI partnerships was already slightly weighted towards larger partnerships following the decision to stratify the sample according to the school subject specialism offered. The nature of the experience of a particular rôle *across* partnerships was therefore derived by extending the principle already used, and establishing the means of each rôle from the data of each partnership separately: i.e. summing the means of partnership 1 + 2 + 3 etc. and then calculating the mean figure of this process. The complexity and subtlety of the varied contribution to, and experience of, courses has been protected by also reporting data which represents the perspective of each of these rôles within each HEI.

The decision as to which elements of ITT should be examined was broadly framed by the hypothesis derived from the researcher's personal experience of partnership. The central concern with the balance of HEI-school responsibility for courses, and the conceptions of teaching promoted through them, was extended through a literature review, and Figure I (pp. 70-71 below) sets out the range of factors examined to establish respondents' experience of courses. The process by which these were operationalised and research instruments were developed is then discussed.

B. Setting this study within methodological perspectives

The particular research methods and instruments used will be examined below, but first, the study is examined in terms of methodological *perspectives* by setting it within a framework of scientific, interpretive and critical approaches, (discussed by Carr and Kemmis, 1986), which parallel that used in this study itself. The critical analysis of the methods and methodology used in this study will be extended to a discussion of the nature and validity of the distinction between qualitative and quantitative approaches. This is important because both have been used in this study and, more significantly, assumptions about the relationship between these approaches often underlie critiques of such research.

i. A scientific perspective

Following Carr and Kemmis (*op. cit.*), a *scientific* approach, in which an hypothesis is checked against data gathered through a study, has a long-established place in educational research. Typically, it is characterised by a desire to establish generalisations which can be applied to a range of contexts. Such work tends to involve measurement of the various dimensions of a concept in a systematic, objective manner. As surveys in general have been seen as inherently positivist (e.g. Barton, 1971; Lipset and Smelser, 1971; Baldamus, 1976; Eisenstadt and Curelaru, 1976), it is possible to see the use of questionnaires and content analysis in this study as representing a positivist approach to research. More specifically, this study has placed forms of teaching and reflection within a conceptual framework which allows elements of teaching, for example, to be aggregated to form a composite whole in a process similar to one which Lazarsfeld (1958) typifies as positivist. References in this study to generalised pressures of managerialism acting at the societal level may also indicate a positivist, possibly functionalist, approach in that the human dimension is not always in the foreground of such analysis.

There has certainly been a tendency for surveys at the *institutional* level examined here to be functionalist (Meyer, 1986) but, although the strength of the link between such method and theory may be debated (e.g. Platt, 1986; Bulmer, 1988; Layder, 1988; Platt, 1988), there are different types of surveys. While it is a characteristic of surveys such as this to identify, rather than provide complete explanations for, the nature of courses and organisational factors with which they are associated (Rubinson and Ralph, 1986), a comparison of course intentions and experience provided an opportunity to *challenge* a functionalist perspective on the basis of a relatively large set of data. The conceptualisation of this research, in which associations between a range of course-specific factors are examined, transcends a

functionalist approach by revealing that course intention and experience vary between, and within, partnerships. Indeed, one of the conclusions of this study is that particular courses, and individuals within them, may be less constrained by given frameworks than many fear. Similarly, while surveys may often be positivistic, preliminary discussions (with participants in rôles and circumstances similar to those examined) allowed the study to *anticipate* (as Bulmer and Burgess (1986) argue is possible in surveys) issues which potentially affected the conceptions of teaching promoted through a course. These included the amount of time for which students worked with teachers, and the extent to which students were involved in school life and discussed educational issues with teachers. More importantly still, perhaps, the variables examined in this study were selected on the basis of a thorough review of the literature, as well as direct personal experience of partnership as a mentor and a tutor, and a research development and piloting process which involved a wide range of students, teachers and tutors. This generated the theorising necessary to establish a meaningful survey. There was, therefore, some acknowledgement of contextual variables, even if it was not possible to examine the means by which a context was constructed. In any case, as Platt (1981b) again notes, although positivist work became unfashionable in the 1970s, the critique of positivism may have been overdone, not least because the term has been applied to such different kinds of work.

While particular methods used in this study may be seen as positivist (e.g. content analysis (Holsti, 1969)), it is not intended to suggest that it *was* positivist, or functionalist, in its starting point or execution overall. Rather than theory generating a hypothesis, as positivism requires (Bryman, 1988), the desire to examine partnership and conceptions of teaching derived from experience as a tutor which led to *retroduction* (Hanson, 1958), in that the study was designed to make observed practice explicable. It does not aspire to supply the *certitude* of scientific explanation, or to establish *causal* links between actions and outcomes. The concern here is to promote an *understanding* of, rather than the ability to control, educational processes. Indeed, this study examines differing conceptions of teaching and reflection, two of which represent perspectives of the nature of knowledge very different from the scientific one. Rather, there is a recognition that the context within which ITT is developing has too many new elements, and is too little understood, to provide prescriptive theorisation and categorisation of the variables involved. While key concepts such as partnership are embedded in theory, the link is a loose one by the standards of natural science (Bulmer and Burgess, 1986), as it is in most educational research. The importance placed upon such concepts is, as Bryman (1988) notes, not characteristic of positivism. Moreover, while facts are seen as 'neutral' and value-free in a positivist perspective (Keat, 1979; Krieger, 1979), this study has deliberately related course

documentation and participant views to a *range* of conceptions of teaching and reflection, rather than using a single criterion of, for example, efficiency. More precisely, values are regarded as part of the *process* of education, not merely an outcome as is typical of a scientific approach. The purpose of this research is, therefore, not to suggest that a particular type of teaching, or a particular type of partnership in ITT, is 'best'. It is not a model with this persuasive purpose as described by Kuhn (1970), although it may act as an 'interpretive framework' (Polyani, 1958) by providing a basis to examine, for example, the relationship between forms of partnership in ITT and the conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT courses.

ii. An interpretive perspective

The *interpretive* nature of this study is evident in characteristics such as those just discussed, in the acknowledgement of variation within rôles and partnerships revealed in the questionnaire data, and in the way that course intentions derived from analysis of the HEI documentation are contrasted with the experience of participants. It became evident that this documentation was responded to by participants in different ways, thereby reinforcing the interpretivist critique of positivist approaches (Cicourel, 1964; Plummer, 1990). The 'resistance' of participants to course intentions as set out in documentation (ignored by even radical educational theory of the early 1980s) is revealed[2]. Similarly, readers of this study are not expected to respond in a particular way to its findings; the analysis is designed to inform, not require, action.

Although the use of open questions, interviews, and inductive derivation of categories from the documentation strengthen the association of this study with the interpretive perspective, it certainly does not meet all the criteria of such work. For symbolic interactionists, the importance placed in the research design upon closed questions in the questionnaires be insufficient acknowledgement that understanding is negotiated (Blumer, 1967, 1969). Also, although the data here were critically analysed in relation to the context and respondents' experiences of the course, quantitative content analysis of the HEI documentation is open to similar criticisms. Certainly there are problems in seeking to derive generalisations about intentions from documents not designed specifically for that purpose (Platt, 1981a). Overall, however, it seems reasonable to conclude that the inclusion of open methodological approaches did provide that broader understanding which Cicourel (1964) suggests they help to develop.

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[2] This does not mean that data from the documentation are in some way less valid than those representing the experience of respondents. As well as adding a perspective from which to analyse the nature of that experience, an understanding of course intentions increases our knowledge of the society in which the documentation was produced (May, 1993). More extensive analysis of the documentation could, for example, extend understanding of how power is communicated (Habermas, 1987; Fairclough, 1989).

Carr and Kemmis (1986) note that some would also require an interpretive account to be subject to participant confirmation, and this was only done in an unsystematic manner through *ad hoc* telephone conversations with some HEI course leaders, other typical participants, and informal discussion with those in similar rôles. Although key findings (including, typically, 20 tables of results) were passed on to a number of HEI course leader and teacher respondents, there was no attempt to involve them in the research process, or to provide them with the means to develop an alternative analysis of the data as suggested by Hustler and Payne (1985) and Ruddock (1985). More fundamentally, perhaps, this study did not involve the dialectical process so important in, for example, the various forms of feminist methodology (Glennon, 1983). Similarly, respondents' experiences are set within an analytical framework, they are not explored in the more open way that Stanley and Wise (1983), for example, believe is necessary to relate research to the reality of life.

iii.   A critical perspective

Carr and Kemmis also identify a *critical* approach to research, which they develop with particular reference to Habermas (1972). Here, the values embedded in action and revealed through the interpretive process are themselves subjected to critique to promote action as well as understanding (see also Kincheloe, 1991). This may involve, for example, establishing processes in which participants are able to discuss the issues examined without external constraints, and are empowered to act. There are some similarities here with the 'teacher as researcher' model developed by Stenhouse (1975) and others (e.g. Stoeker, 1991), although the critical approach may be distinctive in the extent to which the resultant action is designed to contribute to political struggle. Although this critical conception is itself a focus of the study, it is not strongly exemplified in the research methodology. There are elements of a critical approach in the discourse analysis through which the contemporary political context is examined, and in the discussion of how this may relate to the predominance of, for example, particular forms of knowledge and conceptions of teaching in ITT in differing periods. The analysis of documents also meets many of Jupp and Norris' (1993) criteria of work within a critical paradigm by, for example, focusing on issues of consultation, power and responsibility. More significantly, an ideological framework of conceptions of teaching is central to the analysis of data from questionnaires, interviews, and HEI documentation; variation of intention and experience are revealed, which may imply an ideological struggle typical of this critical approach. The study also meets one of Grundy's (1987) criteria of critical research in that it generated data from all key participants, including students. However, while the concerns of a critical approach (i.e. with power, ideology and analysis at the societal

level) are addressed in the literature review in particular, these contextualise the analysis of the data, rather than being central to it.

iv.   Combining perspectives

The framework used above is a useful analytic *tool*, and these perspectives should not be regarded as paradigms in complete opposition to each other. Indeed, it is argued here that the concept of competing paradigms encourages exclusive approaches (such as Filstead's (1970) dismissal of quantitative methods) and misleading assertions (including Hamilton's (1980) claim that surveys aim to produce generalisations which are valid across all contexts). This survey seeks to provide a more subtle mix of methods and analysis. Attention has been drawn in it to variation *within* rôles and partnerships, and to the exceptions to the rule (so important to validity, emphasises Cronbach (1975). It is suggested that using the NUDIST software challenges the dichotomy of quantitative and qualitative methods, because the focus on variables in qualitative analysis is part of a 'technical culture' which is associated with a quantitative approach (Richards and Richards, 1991). Methodologies may tend to be associated with particular assumptions about the nature of knowledge and the purposes and forms of their findings (Guba and Lincoln, 1982), but these are unhelpfully crude distinctions (Hammersley, 1992, 1995).

In particular, qualitative methods may be less different from quantitative approaches than is often assumed. For example, while Cicourel (1964) questions the validity of quantitative data generated by using closed questions in a questionnaire, this interpretative critique can be extended to the way interviews are structured, or analyses and generalisations developed, in certain qualitative studies. Similarly, while the means by which quantified data are derived through, for example, these closed questions may be criticised, qualitative work also depends upon quantifying data, whether in terms of intensity of feeling or the number of instances supporting a particular point (Platt, 1981a). Conversely, qualitative judgements are involved in decisions such as which dimensions of partnership to survey, and in coding the HEI documentation (Davies *et al.*, 1985). The use of a particular research method may therefore be seen as a technical rather than an epistemological issue (Bryman, 1984; Walker, 1985; Baum, 1995), and this view is evidenced in the justification of the research design for this study.

Moving on to the process of analysing the data, while Henwood and Pidgeon (1993) argue that content analysis deals with qualitative data in a distinctively quantitative way, this does not allow sufficiently for the qualitative element when coding complex texts such as documentation and interviews. The concept of competing paradigms is

insufficiently subtle. This is also true in relation to the interpretation of data. Carr (1964) correctly emphasises that historians are selective (and thereby impose an analytical frame upon data) in their choice, ordering and contextualisation of qualitative evidence. An interpretive framework may be imposed upon data *after*, as well as before, it has been gathered. Feminist historical research, for example, analyses evidence in a distinctive way (Purvis, 1985), actively aiming to apply a particular perspective to evidence. Indeed, just as historians bring their 'second record' of specialist expertise (Hexter, 1972) to the analysis of evidence, so all researchers work within their own theoretical framework which, Scott (1985) notes, affects the data at all stages of the research process.

Some researchers argue that quantitative and qualitative methods should not be combined, whether for epistemological (Guba, 1985) or pragmatic (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982) reasons. Following the argument above, that the differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches can be exaggerated, the view that that breadth and depth of analysis may be extended by integrating quantitative and qualitative methods with each other (Bryman, 1992; Mason, 1996) is accepted here. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches will be used when treating and analysing the (primarily quantitative) data from questionnaires, and the (more qualitative) data from the HEI documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders.

In terms of generating theory, while this is generally associated with qualitative work, Glaser and Strauss (1967) have shown that quantitative studies can make a similar contribution. This is exemplified here in a relatively minor way through, for example, suggesting explanations for the differing nature of ITT co-ordinators', mentors' and tutors' contributions to ITT courses (i.e. small-scale theory (Silverman, 1985)).

C.   Sampling criteria

Having decided to *survey* HEI-school partnerships, the ones to be studied had to be selected. In view of the MOTE team's work on models of HEI-school partnership, *purposive* sampling (Cohen and Manion, 1994), in which institutions are selected as representative of a form of partnership had a strong attraction. The lack of firm boundaries around these models of partnership which were beginning to be described in the literature, reports of variation within partnerships, and a lack of evidence capable of identifying institutions representative of particular models of partnership meant, however, that this seemed impractical. Similarly, *focused* sampling (Hakim, 1987), in which cases are selected because they are expected to be particularly illuminating, seemed inappropriate in the absence of evidence as to which cases

these might be. *Cluster* sampling, i.e. where the institutions are geographically close to each other, was considered because this would have facilitated travel to the institutions, but the conurbations where this was possible seemed atypical in having particular problems in finding sufficient schools with which to develop their partnership. It was decided, therefore, to establish a *stratified* sample from English HEIs, because of the distinctive nature of the systems in Wales and, especially, Northern Ireland and Scotland. The strata used were:

- institutional status, i.e. 'old' and 'new' universities and colleges of higher education, because their respective curricula have historically been accredited according to different criteria. New universities, and their predecessors, have been associated with particular educational traditions (Craft, 1971; Logan, 1971; Peirson, 1971; Grainge 1972; Lynch and Plunkett, 1973; Hencke, 1977; Lynch, 1979; Judge, 1994b). Those working to CNAA regulations had a distinctive style of, for example, establishing detailed course objectives and emphasising practical experience (Smith, 1980; Wilkin, 1992, 1996a). 'Old' university courses have also been found to be based upon an agreed model of a teacher less often than those in other forms of HEIs (Whitty *et al.*, 1982). A distinction was also drawn between the old ''new' campus universities established in the 1960s, and the old 'old' universities, which were themselves split into civic and redbrick categories.[3]

- geographical region, a factor previously associated with differences between ITT courses (Lacey *et al.* 1974).

- course subject specialism, because knowledge structure is an important influence on practice (Roehler *et al.* 1988) and belief systems (Hoyles, 1992, Martin, 1995), and these forms of knowledge represent different intellectual disciplines (Hirst, 1974). The subjects focused on are mathematics, science, English, history and geography, which have been associated with differing world views (Schuell, 1992).

- number of students on the course, because this may affect the complexity of managing partnerships, and hence the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for the course. The size of the HEI was also found in an early study to affect a range of student and tutor attitudes (Cortis, 1975).

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[3] More complex typologies of HEIs have been developed (see Tight (1996) for a review and his own contribution), but the criteria he used include geographical factors (treated as a separate stratum here) and others not relevant to ITT.

The sample comprised two each of civic, redbrick, old 'new', new 'new' universities, and H.E. colleges. This is an under-representation of the new 'new' universities and H.E. colleges in terms of the number of institutions involved in ITT, but less so in terms of student numbers. Within these strata, the sample was a random one, though once a number of HEIs had been identified, there was sometimes only one eligible HEI within a geographical area because relatively few HEIs covered the subjects examined here. There was no HEI in the South West in the final sample. The value of having a reserve list of HEIs willing to participate was shown when two HEIs which had agreed to participate and distribute questionnaires, which they received, did not in the event do so. The sample also covered the largest providers within each of the subjects surveyed, and closely matched the relative numbers on these courses nationally - students of English were over-represented by just under 2% of the sample.

Within a course, questionnaires were sent to participating tutors, teachers and students, triangulating data to build a representation of the whole course from these differing perspectives. The structure of one of the HEI-school partnerships was distinctive in that there was only one teacher participant rôle, the mentor. There is, therefore no data from ITT co-ordinators in that partnership, and commensurately extra 'weight' has therefore been given to the data from mentors there.

SCITTs were also examined, because they represented a version of the 'separatist' category in the model of partnership outlined by Furlong et al. (1996b). Four of the seven SCITTs providing courses in the subjects described above were surveyed in what was a self-selecting sample because the other three schemes chose not to be involved in the study. The SCITTs were not able to provide copies of their course documentation, so it was not possible to establish their course intentions, but questionnaires were sent to the teachers and students involved in their ITT courses.

Of course, no sample can be representative in an absolute sense but, as Mitchell (1983) argues in relation to case studies, it is the cogency of the theoretical reasoning that is critical. This is evidenced in the contribution to the research design of inductive analysis, the use made of an extensive literature review, and the nature of the findings.

D.   Development of research instruments

Having established the nature of the sample, a series of research questions, with associated lists of content and issues to be examined, was developed to inform the process of establishing precisely what data were to be collected, and the means by which this was to be done, i.e. questionnaire, interview of HEI course leaders, or analysis of the HEI documentation. The first drafts of the questionnaire and of the

interview schedule were derived from this process. A more detailed list was later used to ensure that all elements of the questionnaire and interview related to the core concerns of the research, as recommended by Sudman and Presser (1982).

i. The content and form of the questionnaires

The content and form of the questionnaires was influenced by a testing and piloting process which (with a preliminary analysis of the questionnaire data) informed decisions about the interview schedule. This schedule was piloted with 5 tutors who had PGCE course responsibilities, and the questionnaire was subject to particularly extensive developmental work. Building on the initial series of research questions, the original questionnaire was considerably longer than that eventually used. Focusing was supported by continuing analysis of the literature and reviewing the key and supplementary questions described above, but the most important factor was the testing and piloting process applied to the questionnaire. This involved an opportunity sample of 100+ tutors, students and, especially, teachers involved in 6 secondary PGCE courses across the range of subjects surveyed. Their status and experience ranged as widely as did that of respondents in the study itself, although most worked in outer London or the South East. Open questions were used in early versions of the questionnaire to establish frames of reference as recommended by Schuman and Presser (1977). This was followed up by intensive interviews and analysis of the responses of those involved in the testing and piloting process at an early stage, which fed into the editing process as recommended by de Vaus (1996). Separate open interviews with teachers, tutors, and students were designed to range over the areas to be researched in a relatively unstructured way to help ensure that key issues became apparent. The testing and piloting process also informed the conceptualisation of key issues such as partnership, and decisions about which aspects of these should be focused on in the questionnaire, as well as the form of the questionnaire. It was decided that the questionnaire (which initially spread over 14 pages) should be confined to an A3 sheet to minimise non-response. The clarity of the questions and specific design details were also given continuing attention.

The variables which it was decided to examine through the questionnaire itself will be discussed more fully when examining the findings, but a resumé of the rationale for their inclusion in this study is set out in Figure I below:

Figure I: Factors examined through questionnaires

Variable	Rationale for inclusion in the questionnaire
HEI-school balance of responsibility for the ITT course	• the researcher's personal experience inductively suggested shared responsibility may support extended professionalism (Hoyle, 1974) and the interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. • the historical association of HEI/theory and school/practice may be perpetuated through the balance of teacher/tutor responsibilities. • conceptions of teaching and forms of professionalism (Hoyle and John, 1995) may be related to HEI-school balance of responsibilities. • the relationship between the HEI-school balance of responsibility and the theory-practice debate has been examined (Wilkin, 1990), and is here extended to the contemporary situation. • increased school responsibility for ITT has raised the issue of consistency of student experience across courses; this may be affected by the balance of HEI-school responsibility for them.
difference in the content of the work of teacher and tutor	• relative areas of teacher/tutor expertise is a dimension of partnership and a topical issue. • relates to integration of theory and practice, a continuing issue in ITT. • may differentially affect conceptions of teaching supported by a course, e.g. integration providing support for a critical approach.
conceptions of teaching supported by the course	• relates to forms of teacher professionalism. • these, and the form of professionalism are sites of ideological struggle (Ginsburg, 1988; Furlong, 1992; Wilkin, 1996a). • examines similarities & differences in the work of teachers and tutors
foci of students' reflection with teachers and tutors	• acts as a course descriptor complementing concern with teacher professionalism and conceptions of teaching. • enables relationship of theory and practice in schools, an issue raised by Wilkin (1996a), to be examined in another context. • particular foci may be related to the balance of responsibility in partnership, e.g. predominance of one partner may limit the extent to which theory is reflected upon in school. • reflection is a topical issue for research and course development. • a means to examine similarities and differences in the work of ITT co-ordinators, mentors, and tutors - and how this course provision compares with students' experiences.
the nature of students' work with teachers and tutors	• acts as a course descriptor which relates to teacher professionalism and conceptions of teaching. • examines similarities and differences in the work of teachers & tutors. • derived from inductive work of Sampson and Yeomans (1994a,b).
nature of evidence accepted as student achievement of a teaching competence	• an (open) indicator of conceptions of teaching. • topical issue, generates data establishing which competences are most evidenced, and by whom. • opportunity to examine whether emphasis on competence in associated with propositional knowledge (Eraut, 1994) i.e. with a technical conception of teaching.
integration of students' work with teachers and with tutors	• integration is an ever topical issue (e.g. Dunne, 1993). • to be meaningful, theory should be related to practice; integration may differentially affect conceptions of teaching promoted through a course. • theory is associated with a professionalism that transcends the practical (Hoyle, 1974, 1980; Hirst, 1996). • may be supported by particular forms of partnership, e.g. near equal balance of responsibilities. • examines whether 'theory' in courses is a separate dimension to 'practice' (Eraut, 1994).
purpose of training for teachers involved in ITT	• potentially relates to teacher professionalism/conceptions of teaching, and the HEI-school balance of responsibility for a course.

amount of time for which teachers and colleagues involved in ITT meet each other	• questionnaire testing suggested this was an important issue. • liaison is necessary for genuine partnership (Hargreaves, A. 1994). • extent of communication may correlate with course integration, and thereby conceptions of teaching, professionalism, etc. • communication may support particular conceptions of teaching etc.
amount of time students in school work with others in school	• questionnaire testing suggested this was an important issue. • more student time, with teachers in particular roles, may support particular conceptions of teaching. • establishes the extent to which teachers are involved in ITT, and how this is associated with the nature of the course.
purpose of tutors' school visits	• potentially relates to conceptions of teaching and forms of teacher professionalism.
level of students' involvement in school	• relates to a form of professionalism, cf. school culture (Lieberman 1990; Little 1990) - and hence to conceptions of teaching.
extent of students' educational discussions with teachers other than mentor and school co-ordinator	• collegiality cf. school culture (Lieberman 1990; Little 1990) may affect form of professionalism (Grimmett and Crehan 1992), and hence conceptions of teaching.
other school responsibilities of teachers involved	• more responsibilities may reflect wider experience/ involvement in school and thereby be associated with particular conceptions of teaching/a form of professionalism.
subject specialism	• different subjects may be associated with different forms of knowledge (Bernstein, 1971; Barnes, 1976; Schuell, 1992; Wilson et al., 1987) and, therefore, conceptions of teaching and possibly a form of professionalism.
gender ethnicity	• are gender patterns in choice of subject (Acker, 1983), methodology (Lacey, 1977); these may also relate to conceptions of teaching (Freedman, 1987) and reflection.
age year qualified number of years taught	• nature of ITT courses has changed over time (e.g. Barnett 1987) and with political context (e.g. Kogan, 1985). • teachers of similar ages have similar experiences, attitudes, concerns (e.g. Ball and Goodson, 1985); attitudes vary with age-based stages in a career (Sikes et al., 1985). • older students read for wider purposes (Howard, 1996).
school in which teach/placed	• contribution to, experience of, courses may vary with the type of school (i.e. comprehensive/grammar, etc.), with the 'hidden pedagogy' which in influenced by factors such as the ability level of the pupils (Denscombe, 1982). • consistency across the partnerships may vary (e.g. Williams, 1994b).

Figure I above indicates in outline why particular variables were included in the questionnaires, and these points are explored further when analysing the data. Some, however, need to be discussed here because of their centrality to this study. In the conceptually most complex area examined, the conceptions of teaching promoted by a course, the decision to use a framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching derived from Habermas (1972) and Carr and Kemmis (1986) was informed by a literature review (see pp. 15-43 above). A strength of this framework is its applicability to so many forms and levels of educational analysis. Thus, it may support analysis of thinking and action, relate to all participants in education, and be used with documentary, interview and questionnaire data. Moreover, it avoids the oversimplifying dichotomies of some models of analysis, while allowing retaining the

ability to relate to specific contexts and actions. Relating this framework to the areas examined in this study, notably conceptions of teaching, reflection and the nature of students' work with teachers and tutors, strengthened the coherence of this work. This framework also relates well to forms of teacher professionalism which provides a complementary thread through this study.

ii.   Developing a more specific focus

The literature review also influenced the composition of the more precisely focused *elements* of teaching examined within this framework. For example, Bennett (1976) undertook an important study of 'teaching styles' which represent differing conceptions of teaching. Some, such as 'the acquisition of basic skills', have a contemporary relevance, but others, including 'encouragement of self-expression' and 'development of pupils' creative abilities', seem more relevant to an era concerned with the influence of progressive education. The five perspectives used by Hammersley (1977) seem of greater continuing relevance, but still needed to be related more specifically to contemporary concerns. It was also felt that the stages of teaching, from planning to evaluation, should also be examined - as they have been by Harvard and Dunne (1992).

The questionnaire testing process played a key part in selecting the elements of teaching to be examined, and the statements by which this was to be done. For example, lists of concepts designed to represent dimensions of the three conceptions of teaching were discussed with over 60 teachers, tutors and students as a means to select the particular statements to be used in the questionnaire (see Appendix 3, p. 334 below). Sentence completion instruments (see Appendix 4, p. 335 below) and interviews were also used extensively in the developmental process so that the language used was as close as possible to that used by respondents (as recommended by Oppenheim, 1992). This reduced the risk that providing given statements concerned with ideas about teaching might generate invalid responses (Belson, 1981), or impose an artificial comparability of response (Moyser and Wagstaffe, 1987). To increase the validity of responses further, the ideas about teaching perceived to be promoted through the course were set in eight 'elements' of teaching to establish the conceptions of teaching supported through the ITT course overall (see Appendix 2, part D.2, pp. 332-333 below). The use of these elements is believed to provide *ecological validity* (Cicourel, 1982) in that the statements represented specific and real aspects of respondents' work; this also strengthened the reliability of the data (Fielding and Fielding, 1986).

An original aspect of these questions was that respondents were asked to allocate 9 marks between the three conceptions associated with each element of teaching. This had the strength of recognising that a conception is implicit in each form of belief or action, just as theory is inherent in all forms of practice. It was not possible for respondents to claim that the course promoted one conception to a high degree without acknowledging the implications upon the extent to which other conceptions could be supported[4]. These focused questions were preceded by a 'funnelling' question on the nature of 'good practice' in teaching, the open nature of which provided balance in that such questions tend to elicit different types of answers to those which are closed (Schuman and Presser, 1981). Responses here were again analysed in terms of the framework of conceptions of teaching, although they also produced distinctive additional categories. Similarly, establishing the nature of evidence accepted as indicating students' achievement of a teaching competence was designed to reveal the conceptions of teaching used by participants in another distinctive, relatively open, context to complement that provided by the more precisely focused questions.

The validity of responses to the statements representing conceptions of teaching was tested by personally estimating (without referring to the statements) the overall 'score' in terms of the conceptions of teaching held by 20 subjects (whose work I had previously observed and known for a number of years), and comparing these with accounts produced by those teachers. These results were later compared with those derived from the same teachers' responses to the final version of statements. These were accurate to ±2 of the 72 marks available within a conception. When, using the statements this time, my estimates of each subject's conception of teaching was compared with their own, the correlation was (with one exception) ±1 in relation to individual statements, and ±2 to each of the conceptions overall. Another layer of testing was provided through depth interviews to establish the content and process validity of their responses. Marsh (1984) has emphasised the necessity for such interviews, which were used to probe how the statements had been interpreted, and to test the validity of responses. Such issues are discussed in more detail when analysing the questionnaire data (p. 163*ff.* below).

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[4] It was for such reasons that the Likert, Guttman and Thurstone attitude scaling methods were not used. These scaling methods also assume that a respondent will hold a consistent attitude and promote a conception of teaching, for example, to the same extent in all contexts which, as discussed above, is held to be an invalid assumption. Guttman scales were also inappropriate because they are cumulative, that is they assume that the elements examined can be scaled in terms of the intensity with which they represent a particular conception. Bi-polar semantic differential scales, and personal constructs in particular, were also considered, but did not support the holistic approach built into the framework of the three conceptions of teaching).

Moving on to the concept of reflection, this has played an important part in studies of ITT, and was a natural concern of this study in view of the inherent interaction between forms of reflection and conceptions of teaching. The decision to examine the *focus* of students' reflection was informed by a literature review (see pp. 43-51 above) which also showed how this could relate to the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions (see pp. 52-53 above). Two foci of reflection were established on the basis of the literature review and the testing and piloting process to represent each of the three conceptions. An additional category of reflection upon the adequacy of theory was used because the interaction of theory and practice has been a long-standing concern in ITT courses, and this complemented the similarities and differences in the content of teachers' and tutors' work with students. Preliminary analysis of the HEI documentation confirmed that the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching could validly be applied to reflective practice. As with other factors which were examined following inductive analysis of the HEI documentation, the nature of additional variables and the justification for examining them is discussed in the context of the analysis of the documentation (see pp. 236-247 below for a delineation of the forms of reflection examined through the HEI documentation).

The categories used to examine other aspects of teachers' and tutors' work with students were derived from a relatively large research project examining ITT in primary schools, reported in Yeomans and Sampson (1994). The rôle dimensions derived from this were: *structural* (planning, organising, implementing the course programme, inducting students into it), *supportive* (mentor as host, friend and counsellor) and *professional* (which included 'training' and 'educative' strands, examined separately in the questionnaire). Personal experience and a review of the literature confirmed the validity of this to ITT in the secondary school phase, where Dormer (1994) has found a similar set of rôles. In the questionnaires sent to students, the congruence of this framework with that of the conceptions of teaching was increased by adding a category to represent a *critical* rôle dimension, in which teaching is examined from a moral, social, or political viewpoint. The coherence of this study was strengthened by these categories of work relating well to Furlong and Maynard's (1995) model of student development, and to forms of 'limited' and 'extended' professionalism (Hoyle, 1974). The empirical grounding of this framework was a useful complement to that of the conceptions of teaching, which is derived from philosophical and ideological analysis.

The balance of HEI-school responsibility for the course is the other key concern of this study. The extent and precise focus upon this was influenced by the then still

developing work of the MOTE team. While the details were unknown, it was clear from conversations with team members that they would be examining dimensions of partnership in finer detail than was possible in this study. It was therefore decided to limit the examination of the HEI-school balance of responsibility in the questionnaire to three dimensions. These dimensions were planning and organisation of the course, the assessment of students' teaching, and the assessment of students' work other than teaching. A fourth dimension of partnership, the extent of the difference in course content covered by teachers and tutors, was examined because the literature suggested that it might affect students' experience of the nature of the course. For example, where tutors and teachers differ greatly in the content they cover, the integration of the course may be reduced. In turn, the 'tightness' of the frame around such courses may, in Bernstein's (1971) terms, affect the forms of educational knowledge (and hence conceptions of teaching) promoted through a course.

HEI-school partnership in planning and organising courses has long been advocated (e.g. DES, 1984, 1989a). Clearly this was an issue of central importance which had to be examined. The two potentially distinct concepts of planning and organisation were conflated here because the testing process strongly suggested that respondents had difficulties in distinguishing between what they 'looked' like in practice unless a range of definitions of the distinct categories were provided. In the piloting process, respondents found these definitions difficult to assimilate, and using them seemed likely to reduce the response rate. Responsibility for assessment of students' teaching was, like planning and organisation, identified by the TTA (1996b) as a key issue in the development of partnership, and was highlighted in the testing process, as was the assessment of students' other work.

The means of examining the other factors in this study can be described more briefly. Two forms of training for teachers involved in ITT were examined, distinguishing between that which was designed to support teachers' ability to *deliver* course requirements (i.e. a 'technical' approach associated with a limited form of professionalism); and *educative* training, designed to enable teachers to be aware of, and talk about, their knowledge of teaching. It was hypothesised that the former model of training might be associated with a partnership for which teachers had limited responsibilities. A similar rationale underpinned questions which established the purpose of school visits by tutors. Reasons for examining the other variables are described in Figure I (pp. 70-71above).

iii.   *Some issues of questionnaire design and presentation*[5]

At this point, it should be acknowledged that pragmatic factors influenced the *form* of the questionnaire. Thus, respondents were asked to give the year of their birth because there was not enough space on the questionnaire to provide a less specific list of eras to frame their response to a potentially sensitive question. In the event, the vast majority of respondents answered this question. The fact that the section asking for these personal details was left until the end of the questionnaire, by which time respondents had got into the flow of responding, may have been helpful here. Similarly, using the DfEE categories of ethnicity in this 'personal characteristics' section was held to be less likely to provoke a negative response than other, arguably more valid, categorisations. Although some researchers like to start questionnaires with such 'straightforward' questions, these were deferred in this questionnaire because it was felt that they might have been perceived as sensitive issues, and thus discouraged a response from some participants.

The form of other questions used in the final questionnaire is a significant issue. The first section of the questionnaire was designed to be relatively straightforward to complete, so that respondents were eased into the process of completing the instrument. Although the reliability and validity of the initial questions for teachers and tutors on the nature of the training provided for participant teachers to support their work in ITT was potentially reduced by the time-lag since that training was experienced (Cannell and Kahn, 1968), the testing and piloting process suggested that respondents did not find this problematic. Likert-type scales were widely used because the testing process suggested that the familiarity of this form of questioning allowed respondents to focus on their response to the given statements, and increased the response rate. An important advantage of this method is that it allowed 'scores' to be summed. A composite representation of partnership could therefore be developed from the elements surveyed, and two differing forms of a single conception of reflection, for example, were summed. Two scale ranges were used, 'not at all - fully' and 'not at all - a lot'. Where respondents may have felt that they had insufficient information to answer, they were give the opportunity to indicate this; respondents tend to answer questions even when they know little about a topic unless they are given this option (Schuman and Presser, 1981). The form and difference in wording of these two scales derived from the piloting process, and met Lyons' (1998) criticism of using the 'agree - disagree' scale with items not validly scaleable in this way. It also avoided the 'uncertain' category of this scale (which in reality is a different order of

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[5] An example of a questionnaire sent to mentors is included as Appendix 2, pp. 330-333 below.

response rather than a mid-point one) and, to an extent, the risk of encouraging acquiescence with a given statement (noted by Converse and Presser, 1986). The lack of clear empirical referents means responses were contextualised within the experience of the respondent (Foddy, 1993), so the choice of these scales was made only after interviews with respondents and careful consideration of this issue during the testing process. It was concluded that providing the referents necessary to apply to the range of categories examined made the questionnaire impracticably complex and would reduce the response rate appreciably.

It is well known that responses differ according to whether questions are open or closed (Schuman and Presser, 1981). This does not mean that responses to the closed questions used here are less valid. Personal experience, the literature review, and the testing and piloting process indicated that the elements were well-grounded in the participants' experience. Closed questions have also been found to be helpful in demanding a lower level of psychological effort (Cannell and Kahn, 1968) when responding to demanding aspects of a questionnaire, such as conceptions of teaching and reflection promoted through the course. This was balanced by opportunities for respondents to add categories of work and reflection which they felt were not covered by those in the questionnaire, to provide a commentary upon responses to Likert-type scales relating to students' experiences of the course, and to respond to open questions. Following the advice of Sudman and Presser (1982), the space allocated to these open responses was limited on the grounds that they rarely extend beyond one sentence, although the data they generated here was richer than seems typical.

The number of points on the Likert-type scales used was also an issue. Hoinville and Jowell et al., (1978) suggest that five seems the easiest to understand and is sufficient for most situations. The piloting process supported the decision to accept this format. Attention was also given to structural factors at the level of individual questions. Texts particularly helpful here included Selltiz and Wrightsman (1976), Sudman and Presser (1982), Oppenheim (1992) and Foddy (1993).

The testing and piloting of specific questions and versions of complete questionnaires was an important preparatory stage in areas ranging from conceptualising the issues to be examined, to fine-tuning the instructions guiding completion of the questionnaire. It would be misleading, however, to represent it as the neat process described in some methodology handbooks, in which statements are developed, tested and piloted in a linear sequence. For example, the statements designed to represent particular conceptions of teaching were informally discussed with many

tutors, teachers and students while they were being more formally tested. Also, some questions were tested more rigorously than others. While a great deal of time was spent establishing and testing statements designed to represent the conceptions of teaching, less was devoted to those derived from recent research, such as Sampson and Yeomans' (1995) categories of mentors' work with students.

The presentation of questionnaires is also an important issue which can affect the validity of responses; here, this was supported by personalising each questionnaire in terms of the rôle of the respondent and the partnership within which they worked, as recommended by Smith (1975). As a result, the 'dialect' (Lyons, 1970) of the questionnaires and of the respondent, were more closely matched, although variation between HEIs in how courses are organised may still limit this. Responses were required at the level of the respondent's contribution to, or direct experience of, particular aspects of a course. This was felt to be likely to generate more valid and reliable data than that provided at a more generalised level particularly, as Payne (1951) found, when a value dimension may be perceived in the questions. Practical considerations were also important. The lay-out of the questionnaire was designed to allow a smooth route through the questionnaire. This influenced the decision to use a Likert-type scale in more than one context, and the effort put into lining up boxes to allow the eye to flow through the page and a framework of associations to be developed within the particular areas examined. This process was supported by advice from other educational researchers and a market researcher. There is an inevitable tension between aiming to produce a questionnaire which can be completed quickly and easily, and generating sufficiently rich data. Overall, the questionnaire remained complex but, as de Vaus (1986) notes, this is less of a problem when the population surveyed is a specialist one.

iv. *The content and form of the interviews and analysis of the HEI documentation*

Many of the points discussed above in relation to questionnaire design relate also to the development of the interview schedules, although here the emphasis was on open questions set within a semi-structured format (see Appendix 6, p. 337 above)[6]. The selection of questions was informed by preliminary analysis of the questionnaire data, as well as the nature of the key issues addressed in the study and pilots of the schedule. As with the questionnaires, more complex evaluative questions were asked

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[6] Very occasionally, the order of these questions would be changed, to avoid an unhelpful rigidity in the flow of the interview (Saran, 1985).

towards the end of the interview. Figure J below provides a brief rationale for the focus of the interviews with HEI course leaders.

Figure J: Factors examined through interviews of HEI course leaders

variable	rationale for inclusion in the interview
1. *Change over time*	• To establish the stability of the nature of courses, informing the extent of valid generalisation from this study.

2. *Partnership*
   a) areas and extent of consultation
   b) balance of HEI-school responsibility
   c) reasons for balance of HEI-school responsibility
	• Establish areas and extent of consultation with teachers through open question.
	• Triangulation of data from questionnaires.
	• Reveal contextual, pragmatic pressures for this balance.

3. *Type of teacher promoted through the course*	• Establish through open question, balancing structured approach of questionnaires. • Triangulation of data re. model of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching
4. *Variation in school-based support for teachers*	• This (e.g. time and other resources available) has been referred to in the literature.

5. *Variation in students' school experience*
   a) school-based tasks
 	
   b) monitoring of schools' contribution.
 	
   c) time working with teachers
   d) course integration
	• Data enriches that establishing the nature of partnership and the HEI-school balance of responsibilities.
	• Data enriches that establishing the nature of partnership and HEI-school balance of responsibilities. Quality assurance in ITT is a contemporary yet little researched issue.
	• Variation here may affect nature of other data; triangulation with data from questionnaires.
	• Triangulates, and contextualises, data from questionnaires

6. *Contextualisation*
   a) effect of *Circular 9/92* on nature of course
   b) effect of other factors on nature of course
	• Sets course in an historical and political context.
	
	• Sets course in an historical and political context.

7. Distinctiveness of the HEI contribution to ITT	• Complements data establishing the types of teacher promoted through courses, and the nature of HEI responsibilities.

The geographical spread of the survey meant that there were significant advantages to interviewing HEI course leaders by telephone rather than on a face-to-face basis. Dicker and Gilbert (1988) considered the use of telephone interviews in educational research to be innovatory (and this still seems to be the case), but they do not seem to be especially problematic methodologically. McCann *et al.* (1984) found telephone interviews provided better answers to complex questions than did questionnaires and, in addition to increasing accessibility to data, they may be as lengthy and, with few exceptions, generate the same response as face to face ones (Sudman and Presser, 1982; Sykes and Hoinville, 1985; Miller, 1995). The use of a telephone may also be inherently less threatening because of the lack of direct personal contact. Further, questions were designed to minimise threat through introductory phrases such as: "... and naturally there's variation between practice...".

The categories of teachers' and tutors' work with students derived from the HEI documentation broadly matched those used in the questionnaires, providing mutual support for the validity of these sets of categories. The forms of reflection set out in the HEI documentation similarly complement the focus of the questionnaires, as well as extending it to other relevant areas such as the purposes and means available to support reflection.

v. Some issues of analysing interviews and HEI documentation

Generating data from the HEI documentation was a quite different process. To a greater extent than was possible even with the interviews of HEI course leaders, the analytical framework could be developed continuously, and some examples of this are given below when describing the methods of preliminary analysis.

The interviews and the HEI documentation were subject to content analysis. This has been little used in recent educational research, possibly because of a perceived association with positivist research (Holsti, 1969), although Haggarty's (1995, 1998) and Hagger's (1997) studies of communication between mentors and students are interesting exceptions. In conjunction with the NUDIST computer program, content analysis was found to be a more flexible and sensitive method than some critics have suggested. As Beringer (1978) notes, content analysis is not a simple mechanical procedure; rather it required a sophisticated knowledge of the concepts studied, and was able to support Holsti's (1968) contention that it can effectively reveal patterns of communication, as well as simpler forms of knowledge.

A key issue in content analysis is the unit of analysis, which may be individual words, grammatical units, a character or a content theme (Berelson, 1952; Holsti, 1968). Here, it was decided to code by the relatively extended unit of paragraphs, or equivalent categories such as lists. This allowed the analysis of the data to be contextualised, and for associations of concepts found close to each other in the text to be revealed. A further idea of how the content analysis was operationalised can be given by examining some of the key concepts surveyed. To develop a representation of the HEI-school balance of responsibility for the course, units of text in the documentation and interviews were coded using a five-point bi-polar scale, as in the questionnaire. Acknowledging the intensity as well as the presence of a factor is suggested in authoritative works on content analysis (e.g. North *et al.* 1963), and in this study it supported the validity of comparisons of the nature of *planning for* the course with *experience of* it, as well as the validity of the analysis of the documentation and interviews itself.

Representing the relative responsibility of schools and HEIs for a particular aspect of courses by a numerical value may be taken to impart an unrealistic level of precision and certainty to the analysis. Following the discussion of the nature of quantitative and qualitative methodology above, it is suggested here that the use of numerical values implies no more, or less, inherent reliability and validity than using a range of adjectives derived from an overtly qualitative analysis, in which the importance of examples is established through an implicit quantification which is expressed linguistically rather than numerically. Using numerical categories here is intended to make more transparent the process by which analytical judgements and theory are developed. The accuracy of these judgements is supported by contextual detail which extends and validates the quantitatively-based analysis.

E.   Response rate

Across all school-HEI partnerships, 1078 questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 38%, which seems acceptable for a 'cold', relatively complex postal questionnaire to participants who perceived themselves to be under severe time pressures. The average was brought down by the response from the largest course, where the HEI distributed the questionnaires to participants. There were 122 responses here, with the response rate of 26% based on an estimate provided by the university of the number of mentors and ITT co-ordinators involved. The figures of 160 mentors and 90 ITT co-ordinators for 196 students was an unusually high ratio of teachers to students, especially as it was HEI policy to place students in pairs within departments when possible. A more typical ratio of teachers to students would produce a response rate close to 30% in this partnership. The highest response rate from an HEI was 45%, and this range (30-45%) applied to responses from mentors and ITT co-ordinators across the HEIs, with the exception of ITT co-ordinators in one relatively small but well-established partnership, 59% of whom responded. The response rate from students was somewhat lower (32%), while that of tutors was higher (57%). Originally, a distinction was made between subject tutors and those contributing to 'general', or 'professional' parts of the course, but this was not maintained as many fulfilled both rôles. The response rate from subject tutors was higher (62%), but there was no significant difference between the nature of their responses and that of 'general' tutors, and the two groups have not been treated separately below. Details of the response rate by HEI-school partnership, SCITT and participant rôle are provided in Appendix 1 (p. 329 below).

Strategies to maximise the response rate included many of those recommended by authorities such as Oppenheim (1992). These included using an official letterhead

when writing to respondents, explaining the purpose of the research, and acknowledging the time commitment required to complete a questionnaire by offering to send various ITT policy and practice materials to respondents on request. I also aimed to show my understanding of their position by referring to my own recent experience as a teacher and tutor of school-based ITT. The presentation of the questionnaires (as described above) also supported their accessibility. Naturally, a return envelope was provided for respondents, though this was pre-paid under a license rather than stamped. The latter may, Oppenheim (1992) suggests, have a positive effect upon the response rate but was not possible because of the cost involved. Respondents were not given the advance notice of involvement in the research recommended by Oppenheim for the same reason.

The initial response rate was increased by contacting as many non-respondents as possible by telephone, letter or, in one case, through the HEI involved. Analysis of these responses suggested that the data from those responding later were not significantly different from those who had returned questionnaires straightaway. Data from over 200 telephone conversations with late respondents indicated that lack of time was the key reason for non-response, but that they seemed not to be atypical in terms of their interest in, or commitment to, ITT. Of course, this does not 'solve' the issue of representativeness of the respondent sample.

Within the SCITT schemes, 45 questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 28%, with a response rate of under 20% in one particular scheme. This suggests that a more cautious approach to the interpretation of data here will be required.

Other than shortage of time, the response rate may also have been limited by the climate of accountability that has developed in recent years, which may have engendered some concern even though responses were anonymous. This emphasis on accountability may explain why contemporary action research is typified by evaluations of outcome against pre-specified criteria (Haigh, 1992) rather than the qualitative form popular in the 1970s (Shipman, 1985). It may be relevant that ITT co-ordinators, i.e. those with greater responsibility for ITT within schools, were less likely than were mentors to identify the school in which they worked. This concern had become evident in the piloting process, and led to the enclosure of a nine-point research protocol with the questionnaire (see Appendix 5, p. 336 below).

F.   Method of preliminary analysis

Quantitative work has been criticised for not explaining the nature of links between variables (Blumer, 1956). For example, the difficulty of establishing *causal* links

between factors in education is well established at the level of general theory (Heyns, 1986) and in particular studies (e.g. Rutter *et al.*, 1979). Decisions about the form of the questionnaires used in this study had implications for the nature of the data, how these could be statistically treated, and the type of relationships between the variables examined which it would be possible to establish. Thus, examining the relationship between the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for a course and the conceptions of teaching promoted through it revealed *associations*, rather than causality. Although there is a face validity to the expectation that existing forms of partnership influence the nature of the dependent variable of conceptions of teaching, it is possible that a view of the course as promoting a technical conception of teaching could influence opinions of the extent to which a school should accept responsibility for the various dimensions of partnership. While Rosenberg (1984) suggests that an attribution of cause is valid if a dominant direction of influence is evident, this is not universally accepted, and a conservative line has been taken in this study.

Causal connections may also be established by ordering variables chronologically (Blalock, 1964; Davies *et al.*, 1985) which, on the face of it, might apply to the (established) balance of responsibilities and (subsequently developed) conceptions of teaching. However, it is feasible that a respondent who felt the course promoted a critical conception of teaching would not expect, or accept, much responsibility for course planning and organisation. Moreover, despite the breadth of the literature review and the extensive testing and piloting of the research instruments, the possible effect of unexamined antecedent or intervening variables upon the nature of partnership and of the conceptions of teaching promoted through a course cannot be ignored.

More significantly, perhaps, just as it is virtually impossible to separate out teacher effect from other school effects upon pupil attainment, for example, so the relationship between partnership and conceptions of teaching may be reciprocal. Reinforcing the appropriateness of avoiding claims of causality, the ordinal nature of these data and, in particular, and their non-normal distribution pattern, require that they should be treated as non-parametric. This means that Pearson's correlation, regression techniques and multivariate analysis of variance - which could weigh and describe the direction of a relationship between variables - are inappropriate measures, even though they are used in many social science studies which treat similar forms of data as parametric (Andrich and Masters, 1988; Bryman and Cramer, 1990).

Conservative statistical measures, in the form of the Kruskal-Wallis test (applied through SPSS), were therefore used. A variance level of >.05 has been accepted as statistically significant here, in line with accepted practice. In relation to the chi-

squared test, Yates' Correction, a conservative measure advocated by some statisticians (e.g. Bryman and Cramer, 1990), has been used in relation to 2 X 2 tables. It should also be noted that the mean rather than the median value was used when summarising the data in tables. Some writers consider that the median is likely to be more representative because the mean is distorted by extreme, or outlying, values. The decision to use mean values was taken after a close analysis of the data. When set in the context of responses across a complete questionnaire, and of a number of additional accompanying comments, it seemed clear that the outlying responses were made thoughtfully. It would have been presumptuous, and *reduced* the validity of the data, to have excluded them.

Using SPSS provided obvious benefits of speed and reliability when analysing the questionnaire data. Using software such as this, and the NUDIST programme also encourages an orderly and systematic approach, suggests Tesch (1991). It certainly facilitated more detailed coding than would have been feasible without such computer support. Such analysis may, note Weaver and Atkinson (1994) generate meanings which would not otherwise be revealed

SPPS also supported the coding and analysis of the open questions used in the questionnaire. Some stood alone to establish how 'good practice' in teaching was promoted, or what was accepted as evidence that a student had achieved a criterion of competence. Others were used to generate additional comments about factors (such as course integration) which, it had been hypothesised, might affect the core concerns of the nature of HEI-school partnership and the conceptions of teaching promoted through the course.

Turning to the HEI documentation, this was analysed to establish HEI intentions in a range of areas, including the core concerns of the HEI-school balance of responsibility for the course, and the conceptions of teaching promoted through it. The text was imported into the NUDIST software program to code and structure the data. This program can search for patterns in the coding and generate reports and statistical summaries of these. It was therefore possible to apply sophisticated analytical frameworks, including the five-point scale used to establish relative HEI-school responsibility for the course. The interviews with the HEI course leaders were transcribed, imported into the NUDIST program, and were treated there in the same way.

The content and form of the HEI documentation and the interviews allowed issues such as the nature of HEI-school partnership, for example, to be examined in more detail than was possible through the questionnaires. It provided the opportunity to

examine particular aspects of partnership, such as factors constraining the development of partnership (see Appendix 8, pp. 339*ff.* below for further details). Similarly, Sections II-IV in Part 2 (pp. 139*ff.* below) show how the conceptual frameworks used to examine conceptions of teaching and reflection, and the nature of students' work with teachers and tutors, were also applied to code the data from documentation and interviews. This triangulation extended the analysis to which the data were subjected, as well as its validity.

The broad nature of the analytical frameworks used in this study allowed them to be applied to categories which were inductively derived from the HEI documentation (see Appendix 7, p. 338 below). Because the design of some examples of the HEI documentation meant that references to particular forms of practice were repeated a number of times when, for example, the documentation focused on different audiences in turn, the weighting of these categories was calculated on the basis of the number of categories to which references were made, rather than a simple count of all references relevant to a particular conception of teaching. This provided a representation of the relative 'strength' of each conception of teaching, for example, in each set of HEI documentation. A similar approach was applied to the nature of students' reflection, their work with teachers and tutors, and the extent and means by which course integration was achieved. This has allowed detailed analysis of the data even if, as suggested above, it is not possible to establish reliable causal connections between the variables examined.

Initially, the data were analysed primarily at the institutional level. Similarities and differences between HEI-school partnerships, and possible reasons for these, were analysed in considerably more detail than is presented here. This aspect of the study was reduced partly because the analysis was conjectural, albeit interesting, but also because there would not otherwise have been the space to examine so fully the nature of the courses themselves, and the differing perspectives which mentors, ITT co-ordinators, tutors and students had of these. This has been worthwhile because there have been some notable findings, but it seems interesting that a substantially different study could have been written on the basis of the data available.

The data were used to examine hypotheses which were brought to the study. These included that the balance of HEI-school responsibility for a course was associated with particular conceptions of teaching, and that teachers do not necessarily promote a critical conception of teaching to a far lesser extent than do tutors. Other hypotheses were generated from the data, and supported by being tested in a number of contexts for example, that the distance of a participant rôle from the

classroom affects the conception of teaching promoted. An advantage of developing such hypotheses is that, as Rosenberg (1968) points out, they differ from 'interpretation' in that they are not dependent only upon the strength of argument.

G.   Validity and reliability

Issues of validity and reliability have been raised at the *general* level when setting this study within the research perspectives discussed above. These relate in particular to the design of the research. The process of developing the research instruments, as described above, was also designed to support the validity and reliability of the data.

It is now appropriate to examine further issues of reliability and validity associated with the research methods used in this study. A significant problem when using questionnaires is the extent to which all respondents understand questions in the same way, an issue which seems unresolvable (Cicourel, 1964; Marsh, 1984). Respondents may, Foddy (1993) notes, use existing frames of reference rather than report a valid view of, for example, their contribution to a course. As one respondent noted, it is not easy to focus on perceptions of a course rather than of one's own classroom teaching. Similarly, HEI documentation may be interpreted in various ways, by participants; particular sections may be especially influential for, or ignored by, the reader. Alternatively, HEI documentation may represent an idealised image of a course, just as questionnaire and interview respondents may present an idealised version of their practice. Data from the questionnaires and interviews were also subject to the effect of the respondent's characteristics, including their personality, commitment to the course and level of knowledge about it, and the effect of contextual factors such as a particular issue having been recently discussed within an institution.

These issues are inherent in asking questions and not unique to the methods used here, although their impact may be reduced by a number of characteristics of the study. For example, the overlapping nature of the concepts examined, and the breadth of concerns to which the robust framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching may be applied, offers some protection of validity at the general levels of analysis of the participant rôles, institutions, and courses. The fact that respondents were all members of a specialist community concerned with ITT, with access to the information for which they were asked, further protects the validity of the data by reducing differences in the 'dialects' used by respondents (Lyons, 1970). Similarly, the nature of the sample may reduce the likelihood of the misinterpretation of questions found by researchers working with respondents less

closely involved in the subject of the questioning (e.g. Butler and Kitzinger, 1976; Belson, 1981; Deutscher, 1984).

Valid responses also rely on the experiences examined being *salient* to respondents. The fact that involvement in school-based ITT was a relatively new form of experience for all respondents may have strengthened this saliency, although commentating upon practice over an extended period remains problematic. A more fundamental point is that while the form of questions used in a questionnaire may influence responses, the researcher has to apply an analytical framework at *some* point, as discussed above when examining how distinctive qualitative and quantitative approaches are. While Cicourel (1964) refers to the distorting effect of respondents' 'relevance structures', it is the systematic effect of these which research *should* reveal. Closed questions may also be seen as an effective means to generate valid data because they remind respondents of issues they might otherwise forget (Oppenheim, 1992), and there is some evidence that open questions need to cue the respondent's memory if they are to be effective (Foddy, 1993). Distinctions between open and closed questions in terms of their validity may not be absolute.

Examining the questionnaires in closer detail, the use of Likert scales has been discussed above (pp. 76-77 above), but there are additional issues associated with using such scales. Ghiselli (1939) has argued for using a *four*-point scale on the grounds that respondents may use the mid-point as a way of avoiding a decision. This, however, applies to attitudes and the classic 'agree - disagree' scale rather than those used here, in which the mid-point is a distinctive category rather than a compromise one. Non-extreme responses were, therefore, expected, and a five point scale is commonly recommended in this situation (e.g. Smith, 1975). Another issue is that when summing scores from Likert scale questions, or the 9-point scale used to establish the conceptions of teaching promoted through a course, the meaning of the data is limited by the fact that the same 'score' can be reached in different ways. The impact of this has been reduced by reporting the individual elements of these summed categories which are, therefore, transparent.

There are other criticisms of survey-type research, reflected in the anti-quantitative bias of educational research since the 1950s (Husbands, 1981). But while quantitative work has been seen as reductionist and limiting debate about competing values (Young, 1979), the focus and form of this study contrasts HEI intentions with the experience of participants, and so reveals the complex way in which values vary between and within partnerships and rôle sets. Moreover, the development and piloting of research instruments was designed to minimise potential methodological

problems and indicate a *process validity* which may be extended to the study itself. A more significant limitation, perhaps, is that this essentially 'snapshot' survey of a relatively new and fast-changing area of practice does not effectively highlight *trends*, although the interviews with HEI course leaders did provide some data here which may extend the understanding promoted through the analysis of contextual factors.

At a more specific level, interactionists criticise the use of questionnaires on the grounds that reality is 'negotiated'. Moyser and Wagstaffe (1987), for example, suggest that fixed-choice statements are inappropriate to establish the nature of thinking. This is a valid concern and other methodological approaches, such as the use of personal construct theory (PCT) (Kelly, 1955; Fransella and Bannister, 1977; Pope and Keen, 1981) were seriously considered. However, the strength of this latter approach lies in analysing practice at the level of the *individual*. It is less effective when applied to rôles, courses or institutions. While Diamond (1982) considers that the consensus necessary for PCT to be used in particular contexts does exist, this assumption seemed unsafe to apply to the range of institutions and rôles examined in this study. Moreover, the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching would not have fitted well with this bi-polar method, which would have weakened the breadth and power of the analysis made in this study. The interpretive elements of the research design of this study (pp. 63-64 above), including the inductive analysis of the HEI documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders, should not be forgotten either.

Some see the *provision* of statements representing, for example, each of the conceptions of teaching, as problematic, although Cannell and Kahn (1968) see this as helpful to respondents when examining such factors. To the extent that it is a potential issue, it was addressed in part by setting the conceptions in a range of specific contexts designed to ensure that the statements were meaningful to respondents. Providing respondents with the flexibility to distribute 9 'marks' across the three conceptions for each of these contexts (or 'elements') of teaching is likely, Foddy (1993) suggests, to have further limited the constraining effect of providing the statements.

In addition, the extent to which the questionnaires focused on conceptions of teaching promoted through a *course*, rather than establishing more purely personal views of ideal practice, may have reduced the risk that responses represented ephemeral opinions, or that questions were perceived as expecting respondents to provide information which was potentially discreditable to themselves. It may similarly have reduced the potential for questions to be perceived as threatening the status and professionalism of the respondent, thereby encouraging a non-response

(Sudman and Presser, 1982), or a tendency to opt for the last response offered (Payne, 1951). Providing a response framework also has the advantage of reducing the risk that respondents answer at different levels of generality (Foddy, 1993), while specifying perspectives in this way increases the extent to which answers are of the same type (Kahn and Cannell, 1957), and so supports the validity of the analysis.

Moreover, the value of a research design which contrasts the experience of participants with HEI intentions is acknowledged in the interpretivist critique of positivist approaches (see p. 63 above). The validity of data-sets representing particular factors may, however, be especially problematic. The most notable example is that which represented the average amount of time for which respondents met with other participants in ITT-related work; the validity (and reliability) of these data may have been limited by the fact that there may be no 'typical' week. Also, respondents may have differed in the extent to which they included informal meetings when calculating this time, and were affected by a natural desire to present personal practice in a positive light.

Despite best efforts when developing the research instruments, the validity of data from primarily closed questions remains an issue here, just as it does in qualitative work where the focus of concern is on the interpretations made by the researcher. In addition, and despite the testing and piloting process, it is possible that important variables have been excluded from this study. The need to make the questionnaire manageable meant that the effects of aspects of school culture, for example, were not examined, although Mardle and Walker (1980) have suggested that these influence teachers' ideas about teaching. The nature of students' work (e.g. the balance between participatory seminars and lectures at the HEI), and of their assignments were similarly not examined, although it was considered that examining these might provide a richer picture of the conceptions of teaching promoted through a course. The number of students placed in a particular school was also not established. These points have the potential to be significant because, as Cronbach (1975) shows, changing the analytic frame of reference can create different forms of explanation.

In the questionnaires, pre-testing and piloting the wording of questions and statements helped to maximise their clarity, and hence reduce the variation in ways in which they were interpreted. Much testing and piloting was done to ensure that the language and concepts used helped respondents to provide valid data, and individual questions were kept as short as was practicable to support response reliability (Molenaar, 1982). Bateson (1984) considers this especially appropriate when examining subjective phenomena, such as conceptions of teaching. The fact that this

was a study into a relatively specialised community familiar with a range of relevant technical terms was undoubtedly helpful in reducing the risk of a communication gap, as Bateson (*ibid.*) acknowledges. The testing and piloting process also provided some evidence of *external reliability*, in that where comparisons could be made there was a high correlation of 0.95 across responses made at different times. However, these results should be treated cautiously because a short period of time was involved (so respondent memory of previous responses may have been a factor), and these responses were often made to slightly different statements (because these were adapted during the testing and piloting process).

Ways to establish *internal reliability* (that statements are valid indicators of a conception) include the use of multiple item indicators (de Vaus, 1986) and factor analysis (which checks whether a part indicator of a conception is associated with other indicators of that conception). These were inappropriate in this study because, while conceptions of teaching, reflection and the nature of teachers and tutors' work with students were examined across many elements of teaching, it was anticipated that an individual would *not* promote a particular conception of teaching to the same extent across each of these elements. The fact that teaching is not an activity which is entirely rational or conceptually consistent in all contexts will be emphasised time and again, both in relation to the data from this study, and to the literature. Issues of validity are discussed further in the context of analysing the data, but possibly the most significant concern relates to one of the foci chosen to represent the interpretive conception of reflection. The intention was to distinguish between two dimensions of this conception, focusing on the teacher and on the pupil. While the latter ('reflecting upon how pupils learn' seemed clearly valid) the former (focusing on the *style* of teaching) seems in retrospect imprecise. Interviews during the testing phase suggested that this term had been understood 'correctly', but it does seem open to differing interpretations.

The breadth of the elements of teaching covered in the questionnaire when examining the conceptions promoted through a course, as well as the more general way in which this framework of conceptions can be related to other forms of reflection and work examined in this study, provided the multi question approach which supports *content validity* (Kidder, 1981), that is the extent to which the different dimensions of a concept are examined. This was also supported by the wide-ranging nature of responses to interview questions, notably those designed to establish the conceptions of teaching which the course was intended to promote. This validity is supported further by references to how other researchers have used such concepts,

by its congruence with the researcher's experience as a teacher and tutor, and by discussions which provided access to others' experience. From this basis, open questions were developed and used in the questionnaires to examine categories which were not delineated in, or derived from, previous research, i.e. those relating to the nature of 'good practice' in teaching and to the nature of evidence accepted as indicating achievement of a competence. The breadth of data in the HEI documentation strengthened this form of validity further.

The validity of the data is threatened by a potential pressure on respondents to place themselves in a positive light. The focus on the nature of a *course*, rather than purely personal views was therefore felt to increase the validity of the data in this study. This was reinforced by the explanations of the purpose of the research, guarantees of anonymity and confidentiality, and the form of the questions relating to conceptions of teaching in particular. In so far as these conceptions may have been perceived by respondents to represent practice which was desirable to a greater or lesser extent, Sudman and Presser (1981) consider that postal questionnaires provide more valid data than personal approaches such as interviews, although the distancing effect of the telephone may have been helpful in the interviews with HEI course leaders (Nias, 1991; Frey, 1989). Also, the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching was not directly visible to respondents - who were encouraged, particularly through the questionnaires, to respond to specific and contextualised aspects of the course rather than the broader principles of the conceptual framework or what they 'should' be doing.

When coding responses to open questions, detailed coding books were used to support reliability and validity at the classificatory stage of analysis of data from questionnaires, as when coding the HEI documentation. The reliability of coding the HEI documentation was increased by a repeat coding of more complex elements, such as the conceptions of teaching, one month later. It was further strengthened by the coder's experience of analysing the questionnaire data, which increased his familiarity with the concepts involved. Also, documentation from the first HEI to be coded was re-coded one month later, which involved minimal changes, comprising one addition to two of the 143 categories used. As an additional check, if no examples of a particular category were found in an HEI document, the data were re-examined. Particularly problematic issues of coding were discussed with two tutors who were familiar with the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching as defined here. Validity was strengthened further by coding for gradations in, for example, the balance of responsibilities for partnership, paralleling the scale used in the questionnaires. Although such fine coding potentially reduces

the reliability of the process (Pool, 1959; North *et al.*, 1963), the ability of the NUDIST program to collate and print categories enabled this to be checked and re-checked with relative ease. The validity of the data was reinforced because this program also supports an interactive process of reading, coding and adding memoranda, and encourages continuing thought about the nature of categories and the relationships between them (Weaver and Atkinson, 1994). In view of the complexity and range of data coded, this seemed a more effective way of protecting reliability than using other coders.

Nevertheless, some issues of the validity of the coding remain. It is possible that the presence of the critical conception was underestimated because it may be difficult to be sufficiently confident that relevant criteria such as *examining* values are met in a particular piece of text, for example. This may have been balanced by the fact that there was occasionally insufficient contextual detail to ascribe a statement to the technical or interpretive category, when it clearly belonged to one or other of them. Another problem was the documentation from the various HEIs included varying amounts of detail, although this should affect the absolute rather than relative number of references to the categories examined (and so not weaken the validity of the data).

The validity of data from content analysis may be limited by the fact that it does not take account of its position in a text (Pool, 1959), or the tone used in an interview (Graddol *et al.*, 1994), and data are lost in the process of numeric coding (Rose and Sullivan, 1993). An unanticipated benefit of using the NUDIST software program, however, was that it allowed, as Tesch (1990) notes, coding reliability and validity to be checked through text searches for words which seemed to be associated with particular analytical categories. The questionnaire data were coded into the SPSS program, and the extended text responses were transcribed to increase access to the richness of the data.

More serious, perhaps, is the risk that the nature of the coding may be influenced by the design of the HEI documentation rather than directly reflect HEI course intentions. For example, one set of HEI documentation placed particular emphasis on the assessment of competences. Although this category of 'competence' ignored mere repetition of the precise terms used on *Circular 9/92*, and was reported separately from the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, it may have encouraged a complementary emphasis on the technical conception of teaching. It was on such occasions that the triangulation provided by the data from interviews with HEI course leaders provided valuable support for the validity of the coding process.

Construct validity, (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955), that is how closely the results of the study matched theoretical expectations, is supported by the analysis of the distinctions between the perspectives of the participant rôles, as detailed in each Section below. It is also evidenced in the nature of the association found between the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for a course and aspects of the nature of that course, including conceptions of teaching and reflection. Because such conceptions are, as Fenstermacher (1978) has noted, a matter of inference, this is a useful indicator of the validity of this aspect of the study, although one must acknowledge that such theory is not well-established. Construct validity has also been an important guide in deciding what data to report, in that it is a means to distinguish between statistically significant results which are theoretically meaningful, and those which are not.

Content analysis of course documents and interviews with course leaders provided a form of *convergent validity* (Campbell and Fiske, 1959) through what Denzin (1989) terms methodological triangulation with the data from questionnaires. This is commonly seen as a way to balance the weaknesses of one method with the strengths of another (e.g. Jick, 1983). In this study, the slight difference in focus of the methods means the triangulation is not precise. Rather there is a 'between methods' triangulation of complementary data (Brannen, 1992), and the interaction between these methods, data, and findings did extend the breadth and rigour of the analysis. Another form of triangulation was also provided by gaining questionnaire data from teachers, tutors, and students, which provided an opportunity to cross-check at institutional as well as aggregate levels. While it was anticipated that mentors, for example, would have a distinctive perspective and contribution to the course (reducing the value of this triangulation as a test of validity, except in so far as construct validity is supported), the ability to compare the data from those teachers and tutors (who provided the course) with that from the students (who experienced it), did enrich the analysis.

Turning to more specific aspects of the interviews with HEI course leaders, it seems possible that interviewing by telephone limits the rapport with respondents gained through non-verbal signals. This had the potential to be a significant problem because, *pace* the positivist perspective, it affects the quality of the data, as Measor (1985) emphasises. This did not *seem* to be a particular problem, possibly because interviewer and interviewees had experience of working as tutors in ITT in common, and the issues addressed were perceived as valid foci for research - most interviewees asked for some feedback from the research. Indeed Frey and Oishi (1985) have suggested that telephone interviews reduce the threat to validity produced by interviewer effects such as body language.

The data from HEI course leaders were strengthened by meeting three key criteria of validity - access to the information sought, understanding of what is required from the interview process, and interest in the subject matter of the interview (Cannell and Kahn, 1968; Moser and Kalton, 1983). Although one must be aware that HEI course leaders may tend to present themselves in a positive light when providing the rich detail contextualising the nature of the course (Harré, 1988), they were providing data about a course (albeit one for which they were responsible) rather than the personal practice which might have increased this bias. The piloting process suggested that the less personal nature of a *telephone* interview may also have been helpful here, supporting a 'neutral' relationship less likely to distort the data. Furthermore, as already mentioned, using open questions - which allowed categorisation of data *after* the interview - balanced the less open approach of the questionnaires. It was, of course, also possible to increase the validity of these data by prompting and exploring particular issues from a number of perspectives. Although part of the implicit contract in gaining permission for an interview may be that the interviewee will not be pressured (Benney and Hughes, 1984), a shared interest in the issues did seem to encourage the interview to address them in some depth. Respondents were also given a transcript of their interview and the opportunity to comment upon it.

The validity of the data and analysis in this study is supported in a number of different dimensions, and is not solely dependent upon the face validity which is a common fall-back in research reports (Cannell and Kahn, 1968; Bateson, 1984). Problematic issues remain, of course. The response rate may be one, even if the number of respondents is relatively high in absolute terms. Others include those inherent to surveys. The context within which respondents worked varies across far more dimensions than it was possible to examine here. It would have been interesting, for example, to examine the nature of the departmental and school cultures within which respondents worked. This has to await further study. Other factors, such as size and type of school, were examined and not found to have an effect, but the data here were not complete. Respondents were completing questionnaires near the end of the course upon which they were commenting; this was designed to reinforce their ability to provide data about the course overall, but a dramatic recent experience may have been a distorting factor in particular cases. More seriously, perhaps, respondents may have found it difficult to provide accurate information. This may have been so in relation to the questionnaire focus on the time participants spent working with students (see p. 89 above). Similarly, the ability of managers such as HEI course leaders to accurately provide an overview of their organisation may be questioned

(Useem, 1995), although there was no evidence of this here. Such issues are discussed when appropriate when analysing the data below.

Finally, there is the natural desire of a researcher to see patterns in the data, the 'opiate of the intellectual' (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 231). The conservative statistical measures used in this study provide some protection against this form of error. Nevertheless, when establishing relationships between variables, there is a risk that the finding is a spurious one, i.e. that both variables are responding to a third factor. This issue was addressed, when relating the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for the course to conceptions of teaching for example, by making comparisons with the other factors examined in the study. Also, particularly when examining the data at the institutional level, detailed consideration was given to the potential effect of antecedent variables, such as the sampling strata. Indeed, while there is always a risk that a distinctive composition of cases limits the ability to generalise, the size and construction of the sample reduces this type of concern, especially as it was stratified rather than led by convenience (Schofield, (1993). Moreover, the analysis of the data has sought to provide evidence of, for example, construct validity - that is showing that the findings 'make sense' in terms of theory.

Nevertheless, as noted above, the impact of, for example, school and departmental cultures upon the key concerns of this study are potentially significant, but it has been possible to examine only limited aspects of these. While it is hoped that this study presents the findings and discusses their significance in appropriate detail, the implications for practice at the levels of individual participants and institutions must be drawn by the reader.

H.   Some strengths and weaknesses of the methodology

The intention here is, finally, to highlight a few key points which relate to the specific nature of this study rather than comment at the more general level of the characteristics of quantitative and qualitative work, which has been reviewed above.

The focus of the work is felt to be *original* in a number of ways. The balance of HEI-school responsibilities for ITT courses has previously been examined from the perspective of HEI course leaders and tutors, but the views of the *teachers* and *students* involved have not previously been established. This study therefore extends the work of the MOTE team (e.g. Whiting *et al.*, 1996). There has been a considerable amount of research into the other key concern of this study, conceptions of teaching, but little of this has been empirical, and even less related to ITT courses. The variation in the contributions and experiences of the key participant rôles in ITT has

also not been studied before in this context. In particular, the relationships between the nature of HEI-school partnership and of the courses for which they share responsibility has not been examined. Moreover, the strategy of contrasting HEI intentions with the experience of participants is also distinctive. The selection and development of the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions, applicable to so many levels of analysis and types of data about teaching, has perhaps provided a robust and flexible means of analysis which may enable comparison with findings from other studies using different analytic categories. On the other hand, it has already been noted that only a limited number of contextual factors which may affect the nature of HEI-school partnership and the conceptions of teaching promoted through courses have been examined here.

This study has also covered a wide range of concepts and issues, yet it is believed that coherence and continuity has been maintained by their complementary and inter-connected nature. This has been extended by the form of the analytic frameworks used (e.g. conceptions of teaching, forms of teacher professionalism, and the developmental nature of mentoring and of students' development) which relate well to these concepts and to each other.

Aspects of the methodology are also thought to be original, in particular the application of the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching to ITT, and the means of establishing which conceptions of teaching were promoted through courses. Although content analysis of HEI documentation is not in itself unusual, it does not seem to have previously been used as a means to contrast course intentions with participants' experience, as it has been done here. Similarly, the multi-level analysis used in this study has not often been applied to practice across a range of HEI-school partnerships in ITT courses: the scale of this study is relatively extensive. While it is not unusual for both quantitative and qualitative methods to be used, it is rare, suggests Bryman (1988), for them to interrelate in the way that they do here. Finally, although the fast-changing nature of ITT courses must be acknowledged, this study has also examined issues which are important at many levels of contemporary practice - and has the potential to inform their continuing development. At which point it is appropriate to turn to the analysis of the data itself.

Part 2:

Description and Analysis of the Research Results

I.   *The balance of responsibilities, support and accountability in HEI-school partnership*

As indicated above, our concern with partnership is focused specifically on the balance of HEI-school responsibility for a course and, more generally, between professional support and accountability in HEI-school relationships. These issues are examined here primarily on the basis of questionnaire data representing teacher, tutor and student participants' contributions to, and experience of, ITT courses; but these were also complemented by the analysis of HEI course documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders. As noted above, this methodology provides a degree of triangulation, although the analysis of the HEI documentation and the interviews with HEI course leaders allowed a more broadly based analysis of HEI-school partnership. The analysis of the data will start here, as in subsequent Sections, by examining course *intentions* as established through an analysis of the HEI documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders, before moving on to examine *experiences* of the courses from the perspectives of the ITT co-ordinator, mentor, tutor, and student participants. Finally, variation between *HEI-school partnerships* will be examined, but reported only when they raise or address potentially significant issues. To facilitate comparison between course intentions and experience, the 'core' dimensions of partnership, concerned with the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for the course, will be examined first, before the analysis of partnership is extended into other dimensions.

The following 'core' dimensions of partnership were derived inductively from the HEI documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders, on the basis of their ubiquity and their ability to complement data about the balance of responsibilities as derived from the questionnaires:

- the balance of HEI-school responsibility for:
    - ⇒ the assessment of students
    - ⇒ the content of school-based programmes
    - ⇒ other course content
    - ⇒ the course in general terms
    - ⇒ the course overall

These dimensions were common to all the sets of HEI documentation, and broadly parallel those examined through the questionnaire survey, which examines partnership in terms of:

- the balance of responsibility for:
  ⇒ planning and organising the course
  ⇒ the assessment of students' teaching
  ⇒ the assessment of students' other work

The HEI documentation and interviews in this study also provided data about other dimensions of partnership, notably the difference in, and integration of, course content covered by teachers and tutors. Wilkin (1996) has shown the issue of relative responsibilities in partnerships relates closely to debates about course integration, which is therefore also discussed here. Issues relating to the problematic nature of partnership, and ways to strengthen HEI-school partnerships also emerged from the data. They too are important but not directly central to the developing themes of this study, and so they have been collated to form Appendices 8, and 9 respectively (see pp. 339*ff.* and pp. 344*ff.* respectively below.

The data from the HEI documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders which examine the balance between accountability and support are complemented by questionnaire data which explores the same issue through a focus on:

- the nature of the training provided to support teachers' work in ITT
- the purposes of visits by tutors to schools.

The focus initially will be limited to the balance of HEI-school responsibilities *across* partnerships. At this general level, the analysis updates the work of the MOTE team (e.g. Whiting *et al.*, 1996), whose interview-based work examined partnership in finer detail than was possible here. This study extends the MOTE survey by examining HEI documentation and using questionnaires to generate data from a far larger number of course participants, as well as by revealing differences *between* partnerships and the rôles of respondents, which are reported when this level of analysis produces significant findings.

A. The balance of HEI-school responsibility: HEI intentions

First, then, the data from the HEI documentation and interviews with the HEI course leaders will be examined to establish the HEI perspective in terms of the HEI-school balance of responsibilities. This has been termed '*HEI* intentions' because although, as

evidenced from interviews with HEI course leaders, schools had been consulted about significant aspects of the HEI documentation, responsibility for that documentation ultimately lay with the HEI. The balance of HEI-school responsibility for the ITT courses as set out in the HEI documentation did not vary significantly between HEIs, and such variation as there was did not support distinctions associated with the historic institutional character of the HEIs (i.e. old/new university or college of higher education), their geographical location, or the number of students on their PGCE course. The intended balance of HEI-school responsibility for courses will not, therefore, be reported at this level of analysis.

The data are summarised in the following tables, the derivation of which now needs to be explained in more detail than when discussing the methodology above. A five-point bi-polar scale was used to code the text, as in the questionnaire survey. For analytical purposes, a value was ascribed to each level of the scale, ranging from -2 describing strong school responsibility, to +2 representing high HEI responsibility for the relevant theme. The number of text units coded at each level were then summed, which allowed the overall balance of responsibility for an issue to be expressed numerically. This facilitated the representation of the balance of HEI-school responsibility within each area of responsibility, and across them overall. A value of 0 represents shared responsibility; this is neutral in the summing described above, which therefore does not fully recognise its distinctive nature. This is one of the reasons why the results of the coding have been reported for each level of the scale, not just as a summary total.

The documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders are represented separately in the tables below, because the nature of these sources sometimes differentially affected the results. The HEI documentation presented intentions, whereas the responses of HEI course leaders referred to the level of practice as well as intention. Making the distinctions between the sources visible can therefore promote a deeper analysis of the level and nature of HEI and school responsibilities for the course.

The coded text has been collated within each aspect of responsibility and the results have been reviewed and edited so that they are not distorted by a particular responsibility occurring repeatedly due to the length or design of the documentation of a particular HEI. The tables below describe the number of text units coded at each point on the scale of the different areas of HEI-school responsibility for the course. A sum total has been included to represent the balance of HEI-school responsibility for each area of responsibility.

Each dimension of responsibility will be examined in turn to establish the balance of responsibility in those particular areas, and an overall summary view will be provided. The data indicated that although HEIs' responsibilities were more extensive overall, schools did have a greater level of responsibility for key aspects of the course; it seems that partnership was not shared in the sense of collaboration in each of its dimension, but rather in the sense that the partners accepted the authority of each others' contribution (Cameron-Jones and O'Hara, 1993). Finally, it is shown that partnership continues to develop conceptually and organisationally, and this dimension of change is reflected in a brief examination of issues which may influence the relative balance of HEI and school responsibilities in the future.

i.   *Assessment of students*

The focus here is initially on assessment generally, not distinguishing between students' teaching and their other work because the documentation tended not to make this distinction. Table I-A below shows that the data is spread across the scale of HEI-school responsibility for assessment, although the balance of responsibility overall is tilted towards schools.

Table I-A:
The balance of HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students
HEI intentions

balance of responsibility:	school		shared	HEI		total
ascribed value:	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	
documentation	13	8	11	13	8	-5
interview	6	4	4	8	1	-6

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation; 10 interviews with HEI course leaders)

Closer analysis of the sources helps to explain the slight differences of emphasis in the data from the documentation and that from interviews, and draws out the distinctive nature of the HEI and school responsibilities. Some points are unsurprising; thus, the HEIs are seen to have had a relatively high responsibility for those competences which did not relate directly to the classroom or teachers' daily practice, such as those supporting 'Further Professional Development'. Hirst (1996) suggests that it is natural that they were the concern of tutors because their concerns are broader than those of teachers. Tutors also tended to have a high degree of responsibility for other course tasks required of students by HEIs. Written assignments were the most notable example. Schools had the major responsibility for assessing the key area of students' teaching competence, for obtaining and collating evidence to support assessment judgements, and for summative and, especially, formative assessment in general.

The extent of schools' responsibility for assessment became more evident when those areas in which responsibility was shared were examined more closely. Interviews

provided relatively fewer examples of responsibility being shared than did the documentation, because course leaders often added a gloss to their documentation when it referred to particular responsibilities as 'shared'. Students were in school more than in the HEI, and it became evident that the balance of responsibility for assessing them in practice reflected the fact that teachers were closer to students than were tutors, even if on paper that responsibility was divided equally between the HEI and school partners. For example, responsibility for the development of formative and summative profiles was often described as *shared*; but teachers' greater contact with students, and the perceived primary importance of the competences associated most directly with work in the classroom, indicate that the sharing of responsibility was not collaborative in this sense. Overall, therefore, these data suggest that although HEIs were responsible for assessing students in a range of areas, the prime importance of the areas of assessment for which schools were responsible underlines the weight of their influence and responsibility in the assessment process.

There may, however, be a risk that this over-generalises the limited extent of HEI responsibilities for assessing students. In the exceptional partnerships where tutors were able to visit and observe a number of student lessons, they retained some responsibility for assessing the competences directly related to classroom teaching. More commonly, tutors were responsible for moderating assessments made by teachers, an HEI responsibility which was probably undervalued by the text coding process because this aspect of the monitoring rôle was often an implicit rather than an explicit responsibility. Another reason for the limited visibility of this rôle may be that, as some course leaders implied, moderating assessment was a responsibility which HEIs found difficult to carry out rigorously. Operationalising partnership required maintaining positive relations with schools, which constrained HEIs' ability to exercise their quality assurance responsibilities. Partnership, while not truly collaborative, may not be *complementary* either, in that the level of participants' responsibilities seems to be subject to the pragmatic factors such as location and the need to maintain partnerships, rather than inherent differences in teachers' and tutors' abilities.

It is also important to emphasise that the balance of responsibility for assessment is not common to all schools, and may change over time. Within schools, relatively limited commitment to ITT, a lack of awareness of the type and level of support that students (and teachers) required, or crises such as long-term mentor ill-health were quoted as examples requiring additional HEI involvement. Such problems are probably inevitable, but they are likely to be reduced as schools become more aware of the nature of school-based ITT, and as the process of appointing mentors - hitherto often done on the basis of who volunteers (Mardle and Walker, 1996) - becomes formalised. More common and permanent a problem, is the increased responsibility of HEIs when a student's school

experience is problematic. This may involve a small minority of students, but is clearly very time consuming when it happens. One tutor reported 11 extra school visits to support such a student. Again, this responsibility may be undervalued in the coding process because the procedure whereby the HEI was called in was often set in the context of a bureaucratic process of responding to 'causes for concern'; the assessment element of this work by the HEI is inherent, but not always explicitly stated.

HEI responsibility for assessing students is extended if one interprets 'responsibility' more broadly than did the coding process used here to include provision of the guidance and pro-formas used in the assessment process. This was typically subject to consultation with schools, but was very much led by the HEIs, as explained below.

The balance of responsibility for assessing students is, therefore, more complex than it first seemed, which may become increasingly significant if resource constraints and other pressures continue to increase, as they commonly do once a new scheme has been established. In this scenario, HEIs may be placed under increased pressure by the fact that a significant amount of their time is given to responsibilities which are not necessarily visible to teachers, many of whom already feel payments delegated to schools by HEIs do not cover the costs of their contribution to ITT (e.g. Barker *et al*, 1996; McIntyre and Hagger, 1996).

There are also interesting differences in the forms of assessment used. A number of HEIs, particularly the older universities, supplemented the *Circular 9/92* competences with their own. These tended to focus on attitudes and processes associated with education rather than training. The MOTE survey (Whiting *et al.*, 1996) found that most course leaders did not feel the *Circular 9/92* competences were a sufficient basis to plan courses and train students. Because using such additional competences could affect the nature of students' course experiences, it would be interesting to establish the extent to which this belief has been exemplified in additions to the frameworks provided by *Circular 9/92* and its successor *Circular 4/98* (DfEE, 1998a), and to identify any similarities or differences between the courses of HEIs with differing traditions and emphases.

ii. *Content of school-based programmes*

Students work in schools in many different ways. They teach classes, they may research school-based or school-focused assignments, and they are often involved in a range of extra-curricular activities. All these could be said to comprise the content of the school programme, but here the term is used in the more limited sense of the programme of students' *planned* work with mentors and ITT co-ordinators.

As one might expect from a *school*-based programme, the HEI documentation allocated the bulk of the responsibility for the content of this programme to schools, as Table I-B below indicates. Yet, as with the assessment of students, HEI course leaders suggested that HEIs had greater responsibility here than was indicated in the documentation.

Table I-B:
The balance of HEI-school responsibility for the content of school-based programmes.
HEI intentions

balance of responsibility:	school		shared	HEI		total
ascribed value:	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	
documentation	16	3	17	5	0	-30
interview	0	1	4	4	0	3

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation; 10 interviews with HEI course leaders)

This difference between the data from the HEI documentation and from the course leaders may, perhaps, be explained by the case of one typical HEI. Here, the documentation referred to mentors devising and managing an appropriate programme to support students in school, yet the HEI course leader was clear that this programme was largely the responsibility of the HEI. This may not be surprising because, as another course leader emphasised, if course coherence and integration are to be maximised, the central body has to do the leading. A partial explanation for the language in the documentation may be that the programme was agreed through a consultative process led by the HEI, but mentors were allowed to devise their own route through the programme and, in that sense, to devise, manage and be responsible for it. This supports Whiting *et al.*'s (1996) finding that teachers were responsible for courses at the level of day-to-day planning rather than of overall course leadership.

The situation was therefore again quite complex. Schools were formally responsible for the operation of the programme, but HEIs had a possibly less visible lead responsibility for establishing intended practice. The significance of this may be that it reinforces the view (e.g. of Kagan *et al.*, 1993) that schools want to focus on pupils rather than ITT students. On the other hand, the documentation indicated a formal delineation of the balance of responsibility which could enable schools to extend their responsibility for, and control of, the school-based programme should they wish to do so.

Whether schools *want* to extend their involvement in this way may depend upon the extent to which they benefit from such involvement. Potential gains at the general intangible level of enhancing the climate of debate (Blake, *et al.*, 1996; Bush, *et al.*, 1996; Brooks, *et al.*, 1997), for example, can be realised through particular strategies which promote teacher, departmental, and school development, as found in specific cases (Glover, 1995a; Jones, 1995; Haydn and Levy, 1995; Carney and Hagger,

1996; Benson *et al.*, 1997). Schools' involvement in ITT may also be encouraged as opportunities are created for them to collaborate with each other on school-based programmes (Johnson, 1995), potentially reducing their ITT-related costs. The benefits of involvement may also become more evident if, for example, the TTA's suggestion of bringing the induction of Newly Qualified Teachers within the ITT framework, is taken up (SCETT, 1997). This could encourage school involvement in ITT by highlighting a continuity of ITT and continuing professional development which is widely advocated but rarely found (Shaw, 1992b). Similarly, the partnership of schools and HEIs in ITT may extend to continuing professional development, potentially enhancing the professionalism of teachers, as Bridges (1993) anticipates in his model of collaborative partnership.

Glover and Mardle (1996) suggest that schools are, at best, split as to whether they should extend their involvement in ITT. The data from HEI course leaders here indicated that the level of HEI responsibility for ITT is higher than that envisaged when the pattern of school-based ITT was set in 1992, because schools wanted HEIs to protect them from what they perceive as a burden of greater responsibility and involvement in ITT. This conclusion is reinforced by the finding, described below, that HEIs are developing partnerships by increasing the practical support for mentors, and are treading softly when following up quality assurance issues.

iii.   Other course content

Other course content referred to in the HEI documentation and interviews was set out, in typical formulations, as the Subject and General Professional Studies components. Students' work in these areas, particularly the former, tended to be HEI-based and, as Table I-C below shows, was largely the responsibility of HEIs. This weighting of the HEI rôle was again emphasised more strongly in interviews than in the documentation.

Table I-C:
The balance of HEI-school responsibility for other course content
<u>*HEI intentions*</u>

balance of responsibility:	school		shared	HEI		total
ascribed value:	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	
documentation	0	0	4	4	1	6
interview	0	0	0	8	2	12

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation; 10 interviews with HEI course leaders)

As before, the interview data indicate that the difference between the sets of data was due to the HEIs' leadership of the consultation process. As a result, in the perception of the HEI-based course leaders at least, the HEIs had greater influence in practice than the formal documentation implied. Indeed, one course leader specifically noted

that the HEI responsibility had become greater than was originally planned because the schools *wanted* the HEI to lead in terms of suggesting ways to work, as well as determining the actual content of the course. As Mardle (1995) has noted, the response of teachers to partnership has determined the rôle of tutors.

iv. *Courses in general terms*

Responsibility for courses 'in general terms' is a catch-all category, but usefully captured data relating to a range of disparate but time consuming and important course-related work. Such work included the selection of students, the preparation of documentation, and other administrative tasks. Examining Table I-D, it is evident that HEIs had the main responsibility for the diverse range of work covered here.

Table I-D:
The balance of HEI-school responsibility for courses in general terms.
HEI intentions

balance of responsibility:	school		shared	HEI		total
ascribed value:	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	
documentation	0	7	17	14	21	49
interview	0	3	0	5	6	14

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation; 10 interviews with HEI course leaders)

The extent of HEI responsibility in these disparate areas may have been even greater than Table I-D above indicates. The area of responsibility most often associated with schools was the process of selecting students for courses, yet it was clear that a particular school might be involved only occasionally, and in most partnerships such involvement was explicitly voluntary. Moreover, data from HEI course leaders indicated that a number of partnerships had found it increasingly difficult to secure teachers' release from the classroom for interviewing, even when these were held in partnership schools. As this was reported to be primarily a funding problem, it may prove difficult to establish a more equal balance of responsibility here. Some HEI course leaders emphasised that HEIs had responsibilities which drained time and expertise from their resources in many such areas, including liaison with the TTA, UCET and the relatively frequent (by school standards) OFSTED inspections. This reinforces the possibility noted above, that the weight of such less visible responsibilities may cause tension within partnerships as resource constraints and external demands, including those of raising standards, increase the pressure on those involved in ITT.

The nature of mentor meetings was another example of the way that HEI responsibility may have been underestimated in the data here. The documentation typically referred to such meetings as leading to an 'agreed programme', suggesting that responsibility was shared; but it was clear from the interview data that the agenda and papers presented at these meetings usually originated in the HEI, with schools responding to,

rather than initiating or leading, developments. This suggests that *leadership*, if not formal responsibility, tends to revert to the HEIs.

On the other hand, Devlin's (1995) study across three partnerships found that mentors resented a largely reactive rôle such as this, and wanted more influence at a strategic level. The data from HEI course leaders in this study question this, and suggest that such meetings were designed to be HEI-led to meet the expectations of mentors and ITT co-ordinators. It seems that these teachers may have valued involvement in ITT, but did not see it as a core school responsibility.

A somewhat cynical explanation for this difference between the findings of Devlin (*ibid.*) and the data here, is that it characterises the differing perspectives of mentors and HEI course leaders. Mentors may not have had the commitment to lead, yet may have been unhappy at being led; alternatively, HEI course leaders may have been seeking to justify their attempts to cling on to control of what they still perceived as 'their' courses. Another possibility is that the different findings reflected the fast-changing nature of ITT. It may be that mentors wanted more influence in the transitional period when HEIs were taking time to establish courses which were appropriate in their nature and organisation, but became more concerned with extending the support for their work as courses became established.

v. Courses overall

Finally, to establish HEI intentions for the relative HEI-school responsibilities for courses overall, data from the tables above have been collated in Table I-E below to establish a simple summary view of the overall responsibility for courses. This indicates that HEIs were ascribed greater responsibility for ITT courses than were schools.

Table I-E:
The balance of HEI-school responsibility for courses overall
HEI intentions

balance of responsibility:	school		shared	HEI		total
ascribed value:	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	
documentation	29	18	49	36	30	20
interview	6	8	8	25	9	23

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation; 10 interviews with HEI course leaders)

The interviews and the documentation produced similar data totals representing the balance of HEI-school responsibility, but from databases of very different sizes. This underlines the point, evident in many areas of responsibility for courses, that the interviews with HEI course leaders suggested that the level of HEI responsibility was greater than the HEI documentation suggested.

This summary view may, however, risk exaggerating the weight of HEI responsibilities because the aspects of the courses for which schools were responsible may be perceived to be of key importance, in at least two senses. First, the intensity of students' school experiences has a profound effect upon their learning (Denscombe, 1982; McNally et al., 1997). Second, professional courses such as teaching are now essentially about showing competence (Watson, 1992), which gives precedence to the school-based part of the course because many competences can only be evidenced there. This highlights a tension evident in the existing balance of responsibilities: the prime importance of school experience implies a high level of teacher responsibility for assessment and the school programmes. This is largely recognised in HEI documentation yet, HEI course leaders suggested, much less so in practice.

B. The balance of HEI-school responsibility: the experience of respondents

The experience of respondents may, however, provide a different account of the balance of HEI and school responsibilities, and views may differ with the location and rôle of the participant. As a starting point, the data from respondents in all the HEI-school partnership rôles surveyed, that is of ITT co-ordinators, mentors, tutors and students, will be collated and examined to provide a view of the balance of responsibility in HEI-school partnership at the inclusive level of courses overall. These data will then be discussed and compared with the analysis of the HEI documentation and interviews, which it complements and supports. To examine whether respondents' rôles or location affected the experience of partnership, the questionnaire data will then be examined from the perspective of each participant rôle in turn, and any distinctive characteristics which emerge will be discussed.

i. The courses overall

The balance of HEI-school responsibility in three dimensions of partnership, as perceived by all respondents, is represented in Chart I-A below. These dimensions are the balance of responsibility between school and HEI in the:

- planning and organisation of the course
- assessment of students' teaching
- assessment of students' work other than teaching

As noted above, respondents used a five-point scale to describe the balance of responsibility between schools and the HEI in these areas. Thus, '0' in the charts below represents full responsibility for the school, while '4' represents total HEI responsibility. Chart I-A below reports the mean 'scores' across these areas of responsibility, showing that HEIs were more responsible for the organisation and planning of courses

than were the schools with which they worked. To an even greater degree, HEIs were responsible for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, while schools enjoyed much of the responsibility for assessing students' teaching.

Chart I-A:
The balance of HEI-school responsibilities in partnership
The courses overall
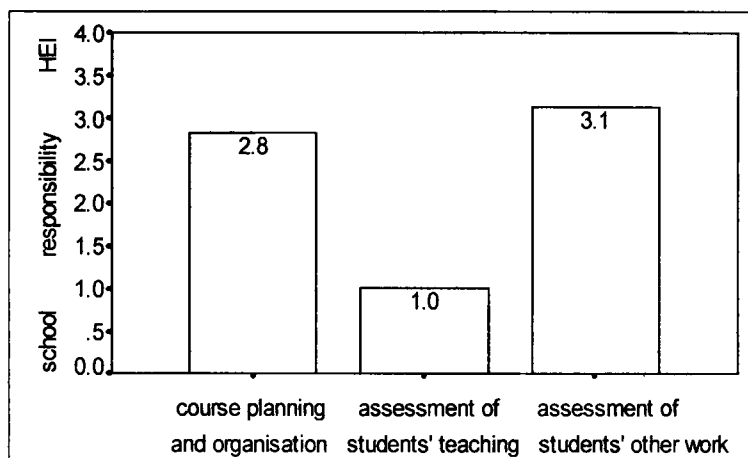
(N = 1062, 1067, and 1056 questionnaires from respondents relating to the respective categories above)

The nature of these broad findings, and some reasons for this mix of change and continuity in the balance of responsibilities, will be examined in more detail below, complementing the data from HEI course leaders in the MOTE survey (Whiting et al., 1996). As partnership is a concept which is still developing, the likely durability of this traditional division of responsibilities will then be discussed. It should be noted that there was significant variation between the arrangements in different partnerships (see pp. 117ff. below), confirming the lack of consistency in practice found by Griffiths and Owen (1995b) and Furlong et al. (1996b).

The dimension of responsibility for course planning and organisation is broader than the dimensions derived from the HEI documentation and interviews with course leaders; these related more specifically to the school-based programme, other course content and less precisely defined categories. It does seem clear, however, that the experience of respondents supported the view presented by the HEI course leaders, rather than that of the HEI documentation, i.e. that the HEIs were still largely responsible for structural elements such as course organisation and planning in the partnership, despite the intentions of the then Secretary of State for Education, Kenneth Clarke (1992). The Government asserted that partnerships should be led by schools, in areas ranging from the design to the assessment of courses. At the level of statutory implementation, directives such as Circular 9/92 have required no more than that responsibility for the planning and management of courses should be 'joint'. In practice, HEI responsibilities have been found to go beyond the bureaucratic aspects

of academic validation, course accreditation and the award of qualifications highlighted in that Circular. McIntyre and Hagger (1996) have suggested that planning is still seen as a matter for HEIs. The data here broadly support that assertion.

There seems, moreover, no strong pressure for this balance of responsibilities to change at present. Course coherence, as already noted, is supported by leadership from a single source. The justification for a continuing high level of HEI responsibility for course planning and organisation may be reinforced by the external accountability model of quality assessment favoured by the TTA (1996a), because it is the HEIs as validating bodies which are being held to account. Studies from the school perspective suggest they do not want to increase their responsibilities (Downs, 1996; Glover and Mardle, 1996; Whitehead *et al.*, 1996; Williams and Soares, 2000). In some partnerships, HEIs have even had to create a new form of 'associate partner' schools (with fewer responsibilities for ITT) to get enough school placements for students (Brooks, 1997). Presumably, also, if many schools had wanted to increase their responsibilities for ITT the number of SCITTs would be increasing faster than it is.

The impact of *Circular 9/92* upon this aspect of HEI-school relations should not be underestimated, however. Previously, the HEI-school relationship in particular courses could be relatively close, even collaborative in a number of aspects (Everton and White, 1992; Harrison and Gaunt, 1994), but the purpose was to support the integration of school-based and HEI-based course elements (Furlong *et al.*, 1994). The notion of partnership in *Circular 9/92* focuses on a different issue, that of control, in a context in which the HEI contribution to ITT is minimised in terms of its distinctiveness (Whiting *et al.*, 1996) and its influence in ITT (Mahony and Hextall, 1997). The power of this reorientation is strengthened by the competence framework in *Circular 9/92*, which implicitly raised the value placed on the schools' contribution to ITT.

What has this meant for HEI-school partnership in structural terms? Furlong *et al.* (1996b) found HEI-school relationships to be typically characterised by forms of *separatist* partnership in which responsibility for some aspects of the course is devolved, rather than responsibility for the course as a whole shared in a collaborative partnership[1]. The data in this study support that finding. These limited changes in HEI-school relations in ITT may be surprising in view of the pressure of statutory legislation and the power allocated to the TTA, which worked to extend school involvement through exhortation (TTA 1996a) and was even able to find £2 million to promote teachers' participation in ITT (TTA, 1996b).

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[1] *Furlong et al. (2000) now prefer the term 'complementary' to 'separatist'.*

The process of developing closer partnerships may well have been inhibited by schools' limited desire to increase their involvement (e.g. Ring, 1995). But the case of ITT may also be an example of the difficulty of *imposing* change. Thus, Martin, T. (1996) refers to a context of a change which has been:

- imposed by a Government distrustful of, and with low regard for, HEIs
- introduced quickly, with little consultation
- introduced with no additional funding beyond the transitional period

Martin concludes that the reforms are unsustainable in the short- and the long-term. Also, as Fullan (1994) notes, it is easier to introduce structural than normative change, but that does not mean it is effective to do so. Moreover, he adds, external change agents are more likely to be influential at the level of initiation than implementation. The decreasing level of school responsibility for ITT as one moves from Clarke's (1992) initial intention, to the statutory implementation of *Circular 9/92*, and to the practice as evidenced in the questionnaire data here, exemplifies the difficulty of imposing change. While the variation in the balance of responsibilities within and between HEI-school partnerships which will be referred to below may indicate a lack of clarity as to where responsibilities lie (Blake *et al.*, 1997), it may also be taken to be, from the perspective of those who want to control the nature of their work, a heartening indicator of how crucial is Fullan's (*ibid.*) emphasis on the *meaning* (to participants) of change, rather than its content or process.

The extent to which schools were responsible for *assessing students' teaching* stands out in the questionnaire data, and is supported through close analysis of the data from the HEI documentation and HEI course leaders. This meets the expectation enshrined in *Circular 9/92*, that schools should be the dominant partner when assessing students' competence in classrooms.

Yet this realisation of a rational expectation may obscure the importance of the transfer of responsibility for a crucial aspect of the course to schools. There is nothing new about teachers making a *contribution* to the assessment of students' teaching competence. The MOTE survey found that by 1992 teachers in most courses were systematically involved in this work, with evidence of a change in the balance of power such that HEI tutors could find it difficult to pass a student if the school disagreed (Barton *et al.*, 1994). In relation to courses in 1994-95, the MOTE survey indicated, on the basis of data from HEI course leaders, that teachers were beginning to take *primary* responsibility for the assessment of students' practical teaching (Whiting *et al.*, 1996). The data from the questionnaires, HEI documentation and HEI course leaders in this study supported this latter finding, and indicated that the balance of

responsibility in this dimension of partnership has continued to tilt towards schools, as a survey of secondary PGCE course leaders (in all HEIs), and mentors and students (in four partnerships) also finds (Williams and Soares, 2000). The degree of change over time is difficult to establish because of the differing foci of empirical studies; but whereas Taylor (1995) found that 20% of mentors felt that the school alone should fail a student, the data here showed over 30% of mentors believed that the school was fully responsible for assessing students' teaching. As all students had to pass this aspect of the course to gain the teaching qualification, this may indicate an increase in school responsibility for ITT.

The significance of the increased school responsibility for this aspect of ITT is affected by whether it is a 'natural' change, that is the outcome of a continuing trend, or the result of external intervention, such as *Circular 9/92*. In critiques of the Government reforms, a number of HEI-based commentators have suggested that there was an existing, independent HEI-inspired trend to develop closer partnerships with schools (e.g. Bridges, 1993; Rivalland, 1993; Cornish *et al.*, 1994; Fidler, 1994, Inman *et al.* 1994). Certainly there were many references in the HEI documentation examined here to teachers being 'best-placed' to assess students. On the other hand, HEI tutors have written, with understandable wistfulness and frustration, of their reduced ability to visit and observe students (e.g. Blake, *et al.*, 1995a), a complaint expressed in the questionnaires. The previously higher level of observation by tutors would have allowed a more equal sharing of responsibilities between HEIs and schools. An implication may be that the increased school responsibility found here may be a pragmatic response to the way the external structural reform of *Circular 9/92* has changed the rôle of HEI tutors, rather than an independently conceived desire of HEIs to delegate this responsibility as a principle of partnership. It is possible to infer from this that HEIs ideally seek to maintain a high level of responsibility for ITT rather than seek a collaboration of equals.

Moving on to the *assessment of students' work other than teaching*, the nature of this work suggested that it is not surprising that respondents perceived it to be largely the responsibility of HEIs (see Chart I-A above). Detailed analysis of the HEI documentation, which also supported this conclusion, indicated that written assignments were a key part of students' assessed work other than teaching. The following discussion will focus largely on these assignments, although this work other than teaching potentially included competences collated under headings such as 'Further Professional Development' in *Circular 9/92*.

These assignments were often completed while students were based at the HEI full-time, or while on a complementary school experience. Typically, the rôle of teachers

while students were on these complementary school experiences was to extend students' development and their experience of professional issues beyond that necessary for 'survival'. In that sense, teachers were well placed to assess such work by students. One HEI did note that teachers *could*, if appropriately accredited through the HEI, be involved in assessing these assignments, but it was evident that this form of teacher involvement was exceptional, even in that partnership.

Why, then, did teachers have so little responsibility for these areas of assessment? The continuing force of a traditional division of responsibilities between teachers and tutors may be one factor, but other aspects of ITT traditional arrangements have changed with the introduction of a cash nexus. The level of financial resources delegated to schools have been negotiated, so presumably teachers could at least press for the increased resources which would allow them to exercise responsibility for assessing assignments, if they wanted to. But, it was clear from the data, they had not. There may be various reasons for this.

First, the perception of a theory-practice dichotomy continues to influence debate about ITT courses (e.g. Dunne, 1993) and, as is clear from the HEI documentation, students' assessed work other than teaching invariably involves examination of a literature and ideas commonly regarded as 'theory'. The work of teachers when supporting students has had the strength of being context specific but, it has been suggested, is characterised by generalised comments and little analysis (Olson, 1982; Kerry and Farrow, 1996). This suggests that teachers are not well-qualified to contribute to the theoretical aspects of students' work. In the past at least, teachers have been reported to lack the commitment, experience and expertise necessary to assess such work (Frost, 1993; Butt, 1994). Thus, even in the influential Oxford Internship partnership scheme, where was a relatively high level of joint planning over a period of time, the teacher and tutor rôles are distinctive in this respect (Benton, 1990a).

Second, although teachers could have worked to break down this dichotomy, most studies consider there to be few grounds for this. For example, Dunne and Dunne (1993b) suggest that previous teacher participation in ITT may have involved little contact with HEI tutors, while Davies and Ferguson (1997) found teachers unlikely to have recently read texts about, for example, pedagogy. In any case, many teachers have been found unwilling to take on extra ITT responsibilities (Barker *et al.*, 1994; Menter *et al.*, 1995) and, the interview data indicated, even where HEI course leaders thought it desirable in principle that teachers be involved in assessing assignments, it was decided for pragmatic reasons that this should not be done.

Third, the individualistic view of teachers as 'self-made' (Lortie, 1975), creating individualistic patterns of work in response to the diffuse nature of teaching (Flinders, 1989), is echoed in the continuing emphasis mentors place on personal experience rather than the underlying principles or theories of practice (Dunne and Bennett, 1997).

Finally, even if a number of teachers *did* want to take greater responsibility for assessing students' assignments, the involvement of a large number of people in an assessment process would create quality assurance difficulties, which would be time consuming, and inherently difficult, to address; such difficulties relate to the problems of communication discussed below (pp. 120*ff.*). Whether for such pragmatic reasons, or ones inherent in teachers differing expertise, it seems partnership was collaborative only in Cameron-Jones and O'Hara's (1993) sense of mutual acceptance of the other partner's authority in particular areas.

These perspectives and constraints may be challenged. The feasibility of increasing teachers' responsibilities for theoretical elements of courses has reviewed in Appendix 9 (see pp. 344*ff.* below), where it has been set in the context of more specific strategies by which HEI-school partnerships may be strengthened. For now, it is more appropriate to examine the differing experiences of the various respondent rôle-sets.

ii.   The perspective of teachers, tutors and students

A number of issues have been raised and explored by examining the data from all respondents collectively. Analysing the experience of each participant rôle allows a more detailed analysis which does not seem to have been applied to partnership before. First, the data from *teachers and tutors* will be examined - Chart I-B below sets out their views of the balance of HEI-school responsibilities and, in the interests of transparency, sets it in the context of data from *students*, which is examined separately below.

Although the profile of the balance of responsibilities is similar to that derived from the data from other respondents, Chart I-B below shows that ITT co-ordinators and mentors represented schools as having greater responsibility for courses than did students and tutors. Here, and in the similar charts below, the figures on the HEI-school responsibility axis are mean values; higher figures indicate greater HEI responsibility.

Chart I-B:
The balance of HEI-school responsibilities in partnership
The experience of teachers and tutors
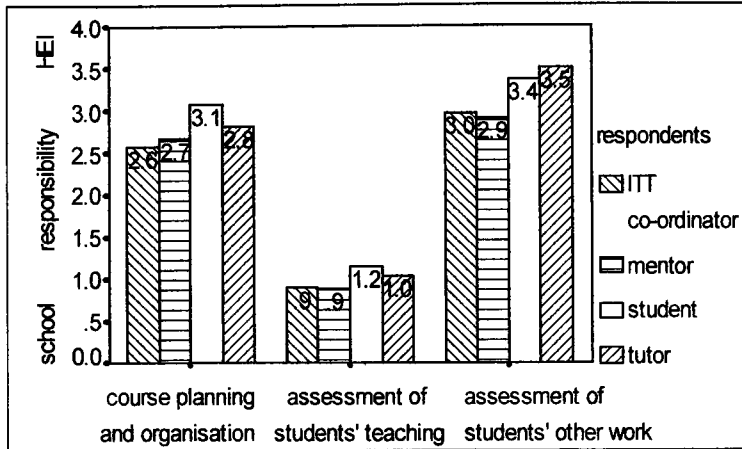
(N = 175, 175, and 174 questionnaire responses from ITT co-
ordinators , 360, 364 and 367 from mentors, and 96, 96 and 95 from
tutors to the respective categories above)

It seems likely that ITT co-ordinators' and mentors' perceptions that schools had relatively greater school responsibilities for courses are associated with their institutional location and responsibilities. The rôle of mentors and, especially, ITT co-ordinators involved organising and planning aspects of the course at school level, which required knowledge of *school*, but less so of HEI, responsibilities in ITT. This factor may also explain why teachers placed more emphasis than did tutors on school responsibility for students' work other than teaching. Some of this work, as noted above, was located in HEIs and, therefore, teachers may have had less knowledge of the extent of this than did tutors and students.

Table I-F below reports that although variation across all the respondent rôles was statistically significant, it was limited in relation to the individual teacher and tutor rôle sets (the distinctiveness of the students' perspective will be examined later). The conservative practice of accepting variation of .05 as statistically significant has been followed, and data in the table have been set in bold italicised type when this criterion has been met. Clearly, tutors are more strongly distinguished from mentors than from ITT co-ordinators.

Table I-F:
Statistical significance of variation between teachers' and tutors' perceptions of the balance of HEI-school responsibilities in partnership
The experience of teachers and tutors

balance of responsibility for	statistical significance of variation between			
	All rôles	tutors &		mentors &
		ITT co-ordinators	mentors	ITT co-ordinators
planning & organisation	**.0088**	.0961	.4043	.3727
assessment of teaching	**.0003**	.1650	**.0258**	.4274
assessment of other work	**.0000**	**.0000**	**.0000**	. 6104

(N = 175, 175, and 174 questionnaire responses from ITT co-ordinators, 360, 364 and 367 from mentors, and 96, 96 and 95 from tutors to the respective categories above).

The limited responsibility which *tutors*, like all respondents, reported HEIs had for the assessment of students' teaching is unsurprising confirmation of the changing rôle of tutors as foreseen by, for example, Butt (1994). It may be significant, however, that they perceived HEIs to have greater responsibility for assessing students than did teachers. Regarding students' teaching, the difference may be influenced by teachers' relatively direct involvement in assessment, while tutors' responsibility is exercised less visibly through, at least in part, mentor training, and monitoring and moderating teachers' assessments when visiting schools. In relation to students' other work, the impact of course assignments (typically assessed by tutors) probably explains the variation between teachers and tutors.

Although the variation in the experience of tutors with *ITT co-ordinators* is limited in statistical significance; this may itself be important, by indicating that the liaison rôle of ITT co-ordinators has influenced their perceptions of partnership. Nevertheless, the consistent pattern of the data may indicate that the ITT co-ordinator rôle is distinctive, and that may be important. Indeed, when the three dimensions of the balance of responsibilities examined are collated into one measure of the balance of HEIs responsibility for courses, the perspective of tutors varies from that of ITT co-ordinators at the .0001 level of statistical significance. Examining the data more closely, ITT co-ordinators and tutors may have differed in their perceptions of HEI-school responsibilities for course planning and organisation because of their different locations and responsibilities, but this gap potentially has implications for political and diplomatic relations between schools and HEIs. It is clear from the HEI documentation that ITT co-ordinators were key figures in HEI-school liaison. This typically involved discussion of teachers' work and responsibilities, and any proposed development of these will be coloured by perceptions of existing responsibilities. For example, where these perceptions differ between teachers and tutors, there may be problems in communication and in reaching a consensus as to how to maintain and improve the quality of the course. As the pressure to continue HEI-school partnerships is uneven in that HEIs have to find school placements for students, but schools choose whether they want to enter such partnerships, it may be in the interest of HEIs to examine whether teachers and tutors in their partnerships have differing perceptions of the existing balance of responsibilities for the course.

Turning to *mentors*, the contrast between their perspective and that of tutors may be explained by the nature of the mentoring rôle, and the close relationship mentors typically have with students (e.g. Evans, 1995). It is mentors who work most often with students in the classroom, so their emphasis on school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching is to be expected. Mentors may also typically be in

the best position to support students' other work such as school-related assignments and, possibly, to assess those competences for which evidence of student attainment may be provided through teacher-student discussion.

In relation to course planning and organisation, mentors perceived HEIs to have slightly more responsibility than did ITT co-ordinators. This may have been because they tended, as the HEI documentation indicated, to be distanced from some of the ITT co-ordinators' whole school responsibilities and liaison with HEIs. Mentors would therefore be likely to be less aware of, or place less emphasis on, these school responsibilities. It has also been suggested that the nature of traditional, limited, responsibilities for teachers in ITT have influenced mentors' views of ITT (Elliott and Calderwood, 1993), although presumably the effect of this will decrease over time.

The perspective of *students* has been highlighted by contrasting it with the data from teachers collectively (i.e. ITT co-ordinators and mentors combined), as well as with tutors. Interestingly, Chart I-C below shows that students perceived HEIs to have more responsibility in each dimension of partnership than teachers believed to be the case.

Chart I-C:
The balance of HEI-school responsibilities in partnership
<u>*The experience of students*</u>
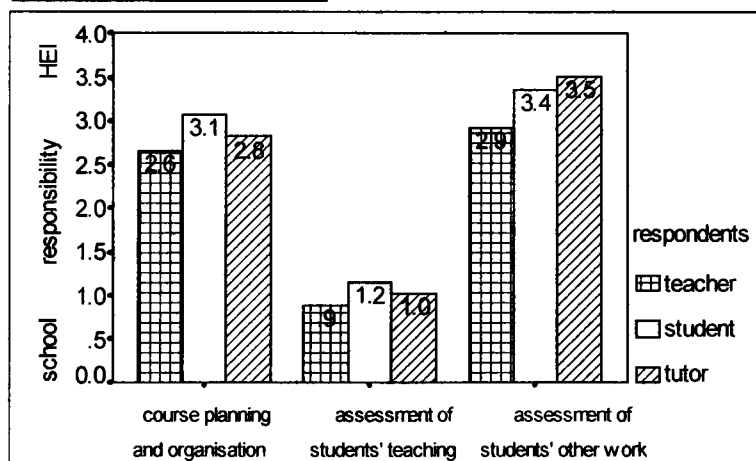
(N = 427, 429 and 429 questionnaire responses from students to the respective categories above)

Location may help to explain the experience of students, just as it has that of teachers and tutors. The relatively high level of responsibility for the course which students ascribed to HEIs may be influenced by them spending some of the course in HEIs working with tutors (and so possibly sharing aspects of their views of partnership), and not knowing of HEI-school liaison about course planning in previous years. It is also interesting that in two of the dimensions of partnership, students rated the level of HEI responsibility higher than did other respondent rôles. Table I-G below sets out the statistical significance of the variation between the respondents' perspectives.

Table I-G:
Statistical significance of variation between teachers' and tutors'
perceptions of the balance of HEI-school responsibilities in partnership
<u>*The experience of students*</u>

balance of responsibility for	statistical significance of variation between		
	all rôles	students &	
		teachers	tutors
planning & organisation	*.0088*	*.0014*	.3443
assessment of teaching	*.0003*	*.0000*	.6460
assessment of other work	*.0000*	*.0000*	.0712

(N = 427, 429 and 429 questionnaire responses from students to the respective categories above)

Table I-G above reinforces the fact that the experience of students was closer to that of tutors than of teachers. Due to the HEI-based part of their course, students were probably more familiar with HEI responsibilities than were teachers, whose concerns relate primarily to the school-based elements of courses. For example, the assignments which comprised a significant part of students' work other than teaching would have made more impact upon students than teachers not least because, as the HEI documentation indicates, students often needed to pass such work to complete the course successfully. Teachers are likely to have focused on school-related aspects of the course, while tutors had a responsibility to develop the overview of the course as a whole which students were in many ways best placed to achieve.

iii.   HEI-school partnerships

When examining differences between the HEI-school partnerships, variation will only be reported when it is significant in terms of its *meaning*, as when analysing HEI intentions for the HEI-school balance of responsibilities (which did not differ significantly between partnerships). At this level of participants' experience of courses, variation was again limited, with two exceptions. The first of these was that HEI 6 had a relatively high level of responsibility for assessing students; although distinctive, this feature was not surprising because tutors here made far more visits to schools, and thus worked more extensively with students during their school experience placements, than did tutors elsewhere. This reinforces the suggestion made above, that at least part of the reason for schools' increased responsibilities for ITT is the pragmatic factor of the limited number of times tutors can visit schools.

Second, HEI 9 had less responsibility than did other HEIs for each of the dimensions of partnership examined here, particularly that of course organisation and planning. Some potential reasons for this may be discarded. HEI 9 was a college of higher education based in a small city, with fewer students on its courses than most of the HEIs sampled in this study, but these factors were not generally associated with lower levels of HEI responsibility for courses. More notably, schools in this partnership were spread over a

geographically wide area, which may have discouraged the HEI from giving a stronger lead in course planning and organisation. There are some indications that this may have been a significant factor. Certainly the course leader in HEI 8, in which schools also extended over a large area, raised this as a problematic issue for the development of close HEI-school partnerships. He made this comment unaware of the evidence that his HEI was also perceived by respondents to have a relatively low level of responsibility for course planning and organisation. Chart I-D below shows the balance of responsibility in this dimension of partnership across the HEIs.

Chart I-D:
Mean scores of the balance of responsibility for course planning and organisation
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships
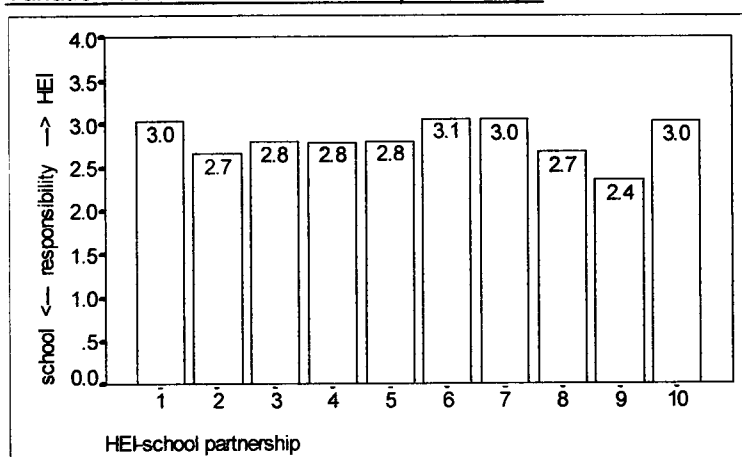
(N= 104, 60, 190, 117, 152, 104, 85, 71, 83, 96 questionnaire responses relating to the respective partnerships above)

One should not make too much of the variation between the HEI-school partnerships evidenced in Chart I-D above; but there may be an additional reason to suggest that difficulties in establishing close partnerships tended to increase schools' responsibility here. The four HEI-school partnerships (2, 3, 4 and 5) in which schools had greatest responsibility for course planning and organisation were based in large cities, in which schools could choose between HEIs when deciding with whom they wanted to work. Just as competition between HEIs for school placements has affected negotiations over the level of resources to be transferred from HEIs to schools (Sidgwick, *et al.*, 1994), so this may also impact upon the nature of partnership. The autonomy of headteachers has increased with, for example, the introduction of local financial management, and there is a wealth of anecdotal detail that headteachers and Senior Management Teams are taking increased responsibility for establishing the detailed frameworks and targets which guide planning and organisation within schools. It would not be surprising, therefore, if this attitude leaked into the attitudes of headteachers (and their senior representatives) responsible for negotiating and developing with HEIs the nature of ITT course planning and organisation. While this may be a general trend affecting all geographical areas, the ability of schools to establish a relatively high

level of responsibility for course planning and organisation for themselves is likely to be increased where the level of competition between HEIs for school placements is greatest. This analysis is conjectural, but its ability to explain the data here suggests that it may deserve further research.

C.   Differences in, and integration of, course content covered by teachers and by tutors: HEI intentions

The similarity or difference in the course content covered by teachers and by tutors affects the nature of participants' rôles and responsibilities, influences the way in which they relate to each other, and is thus a dimension of partnership. This factor emerged in the HEI documentation, and was specifically examined through the questionnaires. Indeed, the related issue of course integration has been shown by Wilkin (1996) to have been the means and language by which HEI-school partnership was examined before this latter term came to the fore, and so demanded the attention it has been given through inclusion in the questionnaire. These issues have been the subject of many studies made over an extended period of time, and from many perspectives. This enquiry is, however, distinctive in the breadth of the sources used, and in examining this issue in the context of established HEI-school partnerships.

Inductive analysis of the HEI documentation and the interviews with HEI course leaders established sets of categories which were collated under the two main headings of 'problems' and 'how integration was supported'. References to integration in the HEI documentation were generally made in terms of the *work of teachers and tutors*, paralleling a concern examined through the questionnaires. It was not possible to calculate the anticipated extent of these differences, although the traditional association of tutors with theory and teachers with practice was evident.

In six of the HEI-school partnerships there were references to *complementary* forms of integration, i.e., it was intended that the examination of issues from the perspective of the HEIs would be complemented by views of these issues from the school-based perspective. There were suggestions, the strength of which varied across the partnerships, that this also characterised the approach of other HEIs. This indicates that partnership was itself seen as complementary, or at least not as seamless in its collaboration as Egan (1995) suggests.

Some HEI course leaders also compared the extent of integration on current courses with previous ones, and these evaluative comments will round off the analysis of the HEI documentation and set the scene for the analysis of respondents' experiences of the courses. First, however, perceptions of the problematic nature of integration will be examined.

The value of these data establishing HEI intentions lies very largely in its qualitative, not its quantitative, nature. The HEI course leaders were responding to *open* questions, which were not central to the purpose of (and consequently not addressed consistently by) the HEI documentation. It is, therefore, not appropriate to estimate the importance of the factors examined here on the basis of the number of times to which they were referred. Rather, the data here give a sense of the complex and varied nature of students' experiences of ITT courses.

a)   acknowledgement of problems

Continuing difficulties of integrating HEI-based and school-based elements of courses had encouraged closer HEI-school partnership in ITT courses before *Circular 9/92*, as Furlong (1992) has noted. The HEI course leaders interviewed in this study were certainly not complacent that closer partnership with schools had automatically or completely solved the problems which, they were aware, a number of students had experienced in the past. Apart from the inherently complex process of integrating different forms of knowledge of, or perspectives upon, events and issues, HEI course leaders identified a range of potentially problematic factors. These included:

- the quantity and quality of communication between HEIs and schools
- forms of course organisation and management
- variations in the nature and effectiveness of contributions by course participants in each of the rôles examined in this study
- variations between school subject departments and schools
- lack of resources.

The new partnerships required by *Circular 9/92* were generally seen as facilitating integration of courses, as will be discussed below, but partnership-related problems were acknowledged, in addition to costs which made it 'impossible to service the partnership at the level we need to and do research' (5.I); and to a lack of 'the goodwill to achieve the trainees' needs in terms of integrating the course (4.I).

The *form* of communication with schools was seen as a complex and problematic issue for a number of reasons. One seemingly unresolvable issue was the level of detail with which course elements in the HEI and schools should be described in the HEI documentation. Three HEI course leaders referred to the difficulty of 'getting the balance right between being overly prescriptive about what needs to be done, and being too general' (2.I[2]), and had either changed their documentation as a result, or were considering doing so. Other HEI course leaders referred to increasing or

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[2] *In this, and subsequent references of this type, the number refers to the HEI, and the letter denotes the type of source, i.e., interview with HEI course leader (I) and HEI documentation (D).*

decreasing the level of detail in their documentation. The difficulty of establishing an appropriate balance as needs change was evident in anecdotal evidence from teachers with whom the author has liaised as an HEI tutor, as well as from respondents in this survey. Clearly, perceptions of what level of documentary detail was appropriate varied widely. One ideal was that the HEI documentation could be developed through joint teacher-tutor planning, supplemented by the responses of participating teachers and tutors to their experiences of how well the documentation supported their practice; this would characterise a shared partnership involving a high level of collaboration. However, the tendency for some partnerships to suffer from an 'horrific' (10.I) turnover of mentors, as noted by Haggarty (1995a), constrains this possibility, and is unlikely to change while mentoring is seen as one of the paths to professional development (Bush *et al.*, 1996; Whitehead *et al.*, 1996) and promotion (Fair, 1992; Poppleton and Pullin, 1992). These changes in personnel over time, plus the difficulty of establishing forms of documentation appropriate for all, may help to explain why course planning and organisation found in this study to be HEI-led, as well as the predominance of separatist partnerships found by Whiting *et al.* (1996).

Moreover, the contribution of individual teachers was believed to vary in terms of the *quality* (1.I; 3.I) and the *expertise* (8.I) of the staff involved, with implications for students' ability to interrelate different aspects of the courses. More permanent differences between schools were also identified as problematic, while the scale of the communication involved was also emphasised: 'it's hard enough to get a team of five tutors to make something coherent, when you're talking about hundreds of people...' (9.I), and the HEI course leader's voice trailed off as if overwhelmed by the enormity of the task.

The problematic nature of course integration therefore seems likely to constrain the development of more complete forms of collaborative partnership. While McCulloch (1994a) has referred to different levels of partnership applying across various of its dimensions, the data here suggest that these levels will vary even within a *single* dimension. The situation was perceived to be further complicated by the varying models of subject beliefs espoused in different subject departments within schools (4.I), although the effect of this is uncertain in view of Dart and Drake's (1996) report that mentors tended not to refer to such subject beliefs in their work with students[3], the data in this study (see pp. 425*ff.* below) suggest this issue deserves further examination.

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[3] *This may be because, as Shulman (1987) suggests, teachers tend to hold internally inconsistent sets of beliefs which, although making it easier for them to become 'wise practitioners', might make it difficult for mentors to refer to the varied beliefs implicit in their own practice without confusing students. Alternatively, limited reference to subject beliefs may*

The problematic nature of partnership was not ascribed only to the limitations of teachers. Indeed, HEI course leaders acknowledged that the quality of the HEI contribution would be recognised by schools as uneven (8.1) and that, specifically, tutors varied in their ability to relate parts of courses for which they were responsible to the practice in schools, particularly when lecturing rather than leading seminars (3.I).

Finally, the contribution of students was seen as potentially problematic. While student portfolios were expected to support integration, one HEI course leader reported that 'a lot of students don't take that opportunity: they say, "What's this for? What's the profile all about? It is surely all a waste of time. Just tell me whether I've passed or failed, thank you"' (3.I). Another suggestion was that students were concerned with surviving rather than the broader concerns represented in an integrated course. This may have particular significant where contact between teachers and tutors is limited. There is the potential for students to support the development of partnership through their use, with mentors, of course materials collated, if not solely produced by, tutors. Similarly, students may bring tasks and products as well as ideas from school to help keep tutors in touch with school practice. For this, students' concerns need to transcend the ability to cope in classrooms.

b)   how integration was supported

The difficulty of establishing and maintaining partnerships was evident in references in the HEI documentation and by HEI course leaders to a wide variety of means by which integration was supported. These included:

- the nature of HEI-school partnership, including joint planning, the HEI documentation, and meetings between teachers and tutors
- course design and organisation
- student assignments
- student profiles
- the nature of participants' rôles and responsibilities

All cases of HEI documentation referred to teacher-tutor meetings designed to develop integrated courses. Indeed, the HEI documentation was itself clearly designed to meet this purpose, sometimes explicitly so: for example, 'The intention is to provide an integrated programme where arbitrary barriers between college and school are dissolved' (1.D). Although the level of detail in the documentation varied, all included course outlines and tasks for students which were designed to guide the development of

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characterise a limited partnership in which, as McIntyre and Hagger (1996) have suggested, subject beliefs are regarded by teachers as 'theory' and, therefore a matter for students' work with tutors

more detailed programmes for students in school so that they complemented students' HEI-based work. The continuing liaison between teachers and tutors which sought to ensure that school-based programmes facilitated students' integration of the course seemed to be HEI-led, as discussed below (see pp. 128-129).

Recognising that partnership had to be maintained through processes as well as structurally, the importance of personal contact was emphasised as enabling tutors to have, for example, 'professional discussions with mentors [and] ... working relationships with them.... We are constantly changing ideas' (4.I), which exemplifies shared partnership. In another HEI-school partnership, able to maintain relatively frequent tutor visits to schools, tutors regularly met students to 'encourage the interrelationship of school and university experience' (6.D). Interestingly, this high level of tutor involvement in students' school experience characterised a course where HEI responsibility for course planning and organisation was greatest.

The partnership arrangements had also affected course *design*. Thus, 'teaching experience is no longer "detached", but planned in phases to give a greater coherence to the overall structure of the course' (4.D). All but one of the HEIs had serial student placements (associated by Lock and Soares (1995) with more 'equal' partnership) which, in a typical formulation, supported integration by allowing a student to 'consider theoretical aspects of an issue in the university, and explore it through your own teaching.... You can then discuss your ideas about the juxtaposition of this theory and practice with tutors and teachers' (6.D).

Similarly, assignments, which in all cases had the purpose of interrelating theory and practice, were designed to enable students, in a typical reference, to 'contextualise their [HEI-based] study of cross-curricular issues, equal opportunity policies, personal and social education and the world of work etc.... through talking to staff and pupils' (9.D). Student profiles were also used widely across the HEI-school partnerships examined here. Two referred in their documentation to how these 'enhance the relationship between the school-based and university components of the course' (10.D), as others have experienced elsewhere (Wilson *et al.*, 1995; Pendry and McIntyre, 1996; Harland and Myhill, 1997). The competence criteria upon which the profiles were based were also positively regarded as a 'template as to how you should go about integrating what goes on here [in the HEI] and what goes on in school' (2.I).

Integration was, therefore, supported by course structures and organisation, but also by the rôles and responsibilities of those participating in the courses. Thus, while the documentation might set relatively detailed frameworks, these had to be related to particular school contexts and implemented by individual ITT co-ordinators and

mentors. Tutors were similarly expected to be responsive to contexts. Indeed, it was seen as the 'the college's job to improvise' (9.I), and there was an evident reluctance to make course requirements too onerous for schools by making them overly specific.

Students were given responsibility for their own learning and development through the course (see pp. 149-150 below), and this extended to integrating the course both through their reflective work (see pp. 237-238 below) and participation in seminars. These seminars were perceived as enabling students 'to relate theory to practice and habits of practice which are informed by sound theoretical principles' (1.D) more effectively than were lectures (3.I). As students' contribution to integration has been shown to be potentially problematic, the nature and degree of their success in this, and to extending partnership, deserves further research.

Overall, HEI course leaders took a positive view of the level of course integration and typically believed that this had *improved*. Thus, integration was 'not so much of a problem as a real gain' (7.I). This optimistic assessment typified the view of HEI course leaders. It needs, however, to be cautioned by an awareness that they were themselves responsible for ensuring that the courses were integrated and were thus, to an extent, commenting upon their own effectiveness. It is equally true, however, that they all openly discussed ways in which integration was problematic. The conclusion that integration has improved also has a face validity. John (1995) has referred to such courses becoming more coherent and integrated because they provide students with more reality to reflect upon. The continuing liaison between tutors and teachers evident here may explain a perception that teachers now had greater understanding of and more positive attitudes towards (or at least, 'less prejudice' (7.I) against) the work done in the HEIs. The same could be said of tutors' views of school-based work.

D. Differences in, and integration of, course content covered by teachers and by tutors: the experience of respondents

This positive view of the level of course integration may now be compared with the experience of participants. The extent to which students' work with teachers and with tutors was integrated was established through questionnaire responses to a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'not at all' to 'fully', as used elsewhere in this study. It has been set in the context of the extent of the difference in content involved in teachers' and tutors' work with students, which is a dimension of partnership in that it affects the nature of participants' rôles and responsibilities, and so influences the ways in which they relate to each other. Additional comments allowed the experience of respondents to be compared with the HEI intentions in terms of the *problems* limiting the extent of the integration of students' work, and the means by which it was *supported*. These

data were coded on the basis of categories inductively derived from the questionnaire data. They will be reported, as in previous Sections of this study, first in terms of the courses overall and then from the perspective of the key participant rôles. Data has been weighted according to the number of respondents representing each rôle.

Analysing the data at the institutional level showed that courses in SCITTs achieved significantly higher levels of integration than did HEI-school partnerships. This may, however, merely reflect the less complex experience of students in SCITTs, where tutors do not have an established place in the course. This issue will be examined in the following Section on conceptions of teaching. Variation between HEI-school partnerships was not significant, and so is not reported. Questionnaire data did reveal views of the difference in content covered by teachers and tutors varied between some rôles, but first, experiences will be examined at the level of the courses overall.

i.   The courses overall

As when examining HEI intentions, the problems experienced when working to integrate courses will be examined before establishing the means by which this was supported. The extent to which students' work with teachers and tutors was integrated will then be reported, and implications for the nature and development of partnership drawn out.

a)   acknowledgement of problems

Course integration has continued to be problematic, even as various forms of HEI-school partnership have come to the fore in the post-war period (Wilkin, 1996). This study shows that recent reforms may have reoriented discussion about this issue, but have not resolved it; the areas considered to be particularly problematic are identified, which may help guide future efforts to promote course integration.

The data from respondents to the questionnaires provided categories which were, with one significant exception, similar to those derived from an analysis of the HEI intentions. This difference was that HEI documentation and course leaders presented distinctions between the rôles of teachers and tutors as exemplifying the benefits of a complementary partnership. In contrast, participants typically recognised such distinctions as appropriate, but *problematic* in terms of integrating the course. It seems that HEI intentions here were difficult to achieve. This suggests that the optimism of HEI course leaders may indeed have been coloured by their desire to increase course integration. There is, therefore, continuity as well as change in the concern about the level of integration in courses.

The categories of problematic factors most often referred to in the questionnaire data were:

- the quantity and quality of communication between HEIs and schools
- variations in the nature and effectiveness of contributions by course participants in each of the rôles examined in this study
- variations between schools
- differences between the nature of contributions by teachers and by tutors

This emphasises that the development of partnership depends requires a focus on the processes as well as the institutional structures involved. Chart I-E below reports the number of references to these problematic factors. Although there were many forms and levels of variation which affected students' integration of courses, the category most often referred to was that of *communication between HEIs and schools*.

Chart I-E:
The problematic nature of integrating students' work with teachers
and with tutors
<u>*The courses overall*</u>
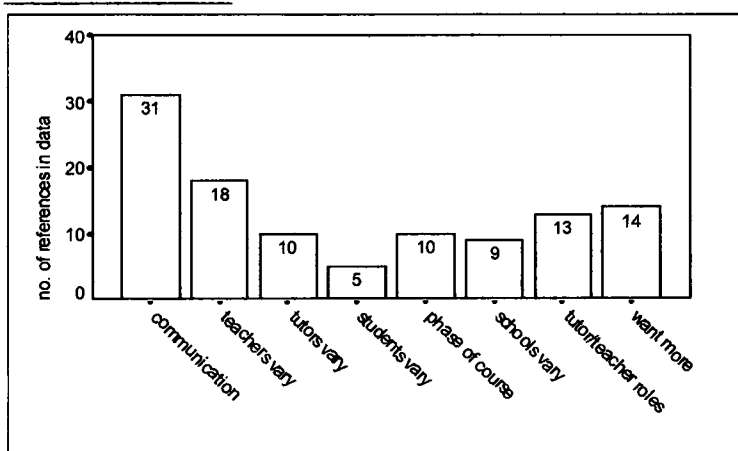
(N = 173 categories of response)

Establishing the appropriate level of course information in the HEI documentation was a problem experienced by participants as well as highlighted by HEI course leaders. Additional comments from respondents fleshed out their concerns. One ITT co-ordinator commenting on the level of integration noted that 'we are not given details of what is covered, so probably very little' (C4.26[4]), while a student felt that teachers and tutors 'never really communicate with each other' (S3.38). A large proportion of the comments in this category reported that teachers were not sufficiently aware of what students did in the HEIs to be able to relate their school-based work with the work students did with tutors. These data need, however, to be interpreted with care. One

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[4] *As before, the annotation indicates the rôle of the respondent in the initial letter, i.e., 'C' for 'ITT co-ordinator' etc., and the partnership in which they participated by the number which immediately follows. The final number(s) refer to the particular questionnaire returned.*

HEI course leader had learnt that providing too much detail in the HEI documentation was counter-productive, because teachers had found information inaccessible when the documentation was so full that they could not easily find their way around it (3.I). Nevertheless, the data from respondents do reinforce HEI course leaders' concern with the form and quality of communication with schools, an issue central to the experience of partnership. The fact that ITT is an HEI rather than a school priority suggests that this dimension of partnership is likely to be HEI-led, although HEIs need to be flexible in how they respond to schools' differing and evolving (Burton, 1998) needs.

There were also references, across all the HEI-school partnerships, to integration being constrained by a lack of personal contact between teachers and tutors. Thus, some teachers were unable or unwilling to go to meetings with tutors, while tutors' visits to schools were viewed as too infrequent. Again, it is difficult to interpret the significance of such comments with confidence. Some teachers may have had an unrealistic expectation of regular contact with tutors because they had not recognised the increased responsibilities of teachers in post-*Circular 9/92* courses.

Communication difficulties may help to explain why the nature of teachers' contributions was reported to vary although, in the few cases where explanatory details were given, it was the level of teachers' interest in, and commitment to, their involvement in the ITT course that was the key factor. A mentor noted that, 'Our priorities come first - where they wish to practise a particular skill/idea we will attempt to accommodate them, but our needs (kids, National Curriculum etc.) come first' (M6.2).

Of course, the quality of tutors' work was also reported to vary, while some students, as one ITT co-ordinator caustically commented, 'clearly do not have the ability to reflect/ apply theory' (C10.18). The developmental nature of students' learning may also have been significant, noted a tutor: 'Those in transmission mode devalue university work; those in reflective mode see it as integrated' (T6.8). These complexities, and students' differing contexts and concerns mean integration must remain a problematic aspiration, but should not be taken as a reason to ignore the issue. There were 14 references to wanting a higher level of integration of the course, and this desire was evident in the tone of many of the comments about the difficulty of achieving integration. While some believed such problems were 'inevitable' (M1.23) or even 'expected by students' (M3.26) because of the differing rôles of teachers and tutors, there was some criticism of tutors being out of touch with the reality of schools. This is important because it has the potential to undermine the development of partnership, and will therefore be reported in more detail when examining the data from mentors.

b) how integration was supported

Despite these problems, respondents indicated various ways in which students' integration of their courses was supported. The predominant categories matched those described as HEI intentions, i.e.:

- communication between teachers and tutors, including joint planning, the HEI documentation, and meetings between teachers and tutors
- course design and organisation
- student assignments
- student profiles
- the nature of participants' rôles and responsibilities

The relative number of references by respondents to these categories is shown in Chart I-F below. The nature of the data allowed references to communication between HEIs and schools to be split into three categories, of 'joint planning', 'HEI documentation', and 'HEI-school dialogue'. The 'meta-category' of communication was, therefore, the predominant means of establishing the foundation of shared course aims and principles which support students' integration of their work with teachers and tutors (Husbands, 1994), even though it has been reported above to have problematic aspects.

Chart I-F:
How the integration of students' work with teachers and with tutors was supported
The courses overall

Cases weighted by no. of respondents in role set
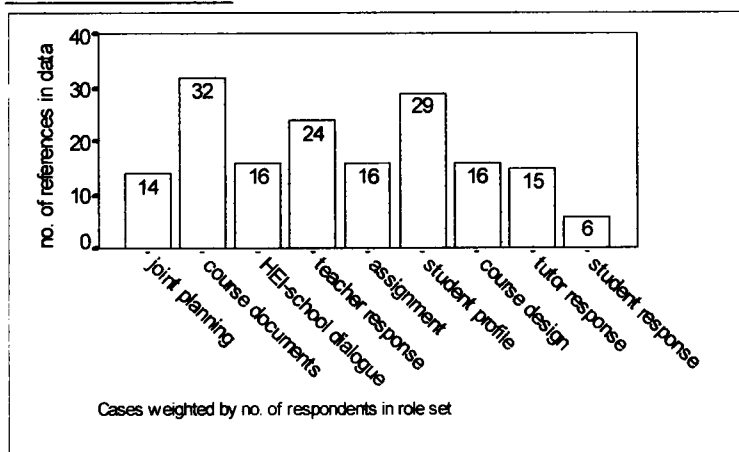
(N= 220 categories of response[5])

Specific examples of joint planning were given, but there were more references to the course documentation, possibly reflecting the fact that this joint planning was HEI-led and did not necessarily involve all teachers (see pp. 339*ff* below). This positive comment from an ITT co-ordinator about the course documentation was typical, and implicitly accepts the course is HEI-led: 'A detailed course handbook helps us to

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[5] *The 'N' given here does not tally with the figures represented by the bars because some responses could not be categorised in groups sufficiently large for it to be helpful to report them in the chart.*

integrate what we do with the university programme' (C8.13). A continuing HEI-school dialogue most often took the form of meetings, and an HEI course leader confirmed Martin's (1996) emphasis on the importance of personal contact as an invaluable basis for developing professional discussions and working relationships with mentors: 'Many university tutors and mentors are old colleagues and friends. So each one understands and can work with the others' (T5.11). This also suggests that such close working relationships, and the collaborative model of shared partnership they characterise, may be easier to develop in geographically and numerically limited HEI-school partnerships. Indeed, this was constraint upon partnership was reported long ago in a CNAA (1984) review.

The design of courses reportedly supported integration through serial placements, and students' course assignments in which both tutors and teachers were involved. Profiles of students' achievements were perceived to support integration for similar reasons.

Course design, the nature of students' assignments, and profiles were largely HEI-led. This balance of responsibility was highlighted by the fact that teachers were reported to *respond* to the work done in their partner institutions. For some teachers, this meant that they were 'aware of the objectives' (M3.34), while others seemed to pay closer attention to HEI documentation which 'allows us to design the appropriate in-school experience' (M1.11). Tutors were also responsive to students' experiences in schools, particularly, it seemed, in GPS courses which were typically the responsibility of the Link Tutors who had broader liaison responsibilities than did Subject Tutors.

As anticipated by the HEI documentation, students clearly had a significant level of responsibility for integrating courses, as evidenced in references to their involvement in the profiling process which was referred to in 20 of the 29 responses within this category. Of course, students also inhabited the interface between school and university. One student went so far as to note that the course was integrated, 'Only in the sense that I, as the student, relate what I have learnt in college to school experience' (S2.1).

c)   the extent to which students' work with teachers and with tutors was integrated
The extent of the difference between the content covered by tutors and by teachers, represented in Chart I-G below, suggests that the HEI-school partnership is a complementary one in which the HEI- and school-based participants each make distinctive contributions. It also implies course integration is an issue. Although integration was supported, as one respondent put it, by 'joint planning (and shared programmes) between tutors and teachers, [it was] less as it happens' (T5.14). The extent to which this integration was perceived to be achieved is set out below.

Chart I-G
Differences in the content covered by tutors and by teachers, and
extent to which their work with students was integrated
<u>*The courses overall*</u>
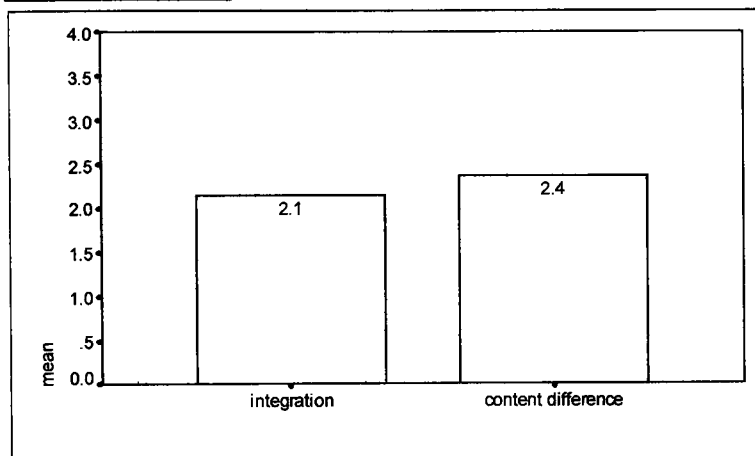
(N = 1018 questionnaires)

Whether the level of integration reported here is 'good', 'satisfactory', or 'awful' must be a matter of opinion; but the fact that it is reported to be little less than the difference in content of students' work with teachers and tutors may be seen as a relatively positive outcome in view of the persistence of the calls for increased integration (e.g. Porter, 1968; Hellawell, 1985). A more critical view is that one might expect the level of integration to be greater in view of the fact that HEI-school partnerships had been developed even prior to *Circular 9/92* as a means of integrating courses, and that the revised course structures and rôles in the developing partnerships should have promoted integration further.

Examining these issues from the perspectives of the key course participants may add useful detail to the overall view just examined, and inform our view of the agenda to be addressed.

ii.   The perspective of teachers, tutors and students

Respondents' rôle and responsibilities in the course seem to have influenced their views of course integration. This is evident in each of the aspects examined, its problematic nature, the means by which it was supported, and the extent to which it was perceived to be achieved. As explained above, the data here are weighted according to the number of respondents within each rôle.

a)   acknowledgement of problems

The categories of *problems* limiting students' integration of their work with teachers and tutors have been described above (see pp. 120*ff.*). Chart I-H below shows that ITT co-ordinators made relatively few responses here.

Chart I-H
The problematic nature of integrating students' work with teachers
and with tutors
The experience of teachers, tutors and students

Chart I-H. The experience of teachers, tutors and students. Cases weighted by no. of respondents in rôle set.
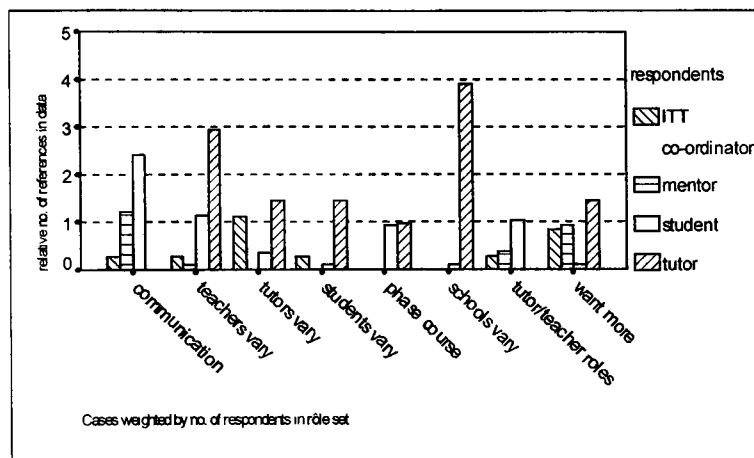
(N = 19, 41, 90, 40 responses from the respective rôles)

The limited scale of ITT co-ordinators' responses may indicate a lack of interest in, and/or knowledge of, the issue of integration, although their desire for more integration and the breadth of their responsibilities counts against this; ITT co-ordinators may simply have not have perceived integration to be particularly problematic. Thus, they reported higher levels of integration to be achieved than did mentors or students and, as Chart I-I below shows, referred more often to the means by which integration was supported. This may reflect the importance of the overview associated with their broad course rôle and responsibilities. Tutors had still greater course responsibilities, but worked with a greater number of schools, teachers and students than did other course participants. This is likely to explain their emphasis on the variation between schools, teachers and students, shown in Chart I-H above. Tutors may well also have been influenced by knowing that there are many references in the literature to variations in, for example, conceptions of the mentoring rôle (Tickle, 1993) and responses to differing contexts (Yeomans, 1994a; Chai, 1995); it is also widely known that practice within schools varies, as evidenced in calls for a whole school approach to ITT (e.g. Corbett and Wright, 1993; Shaw; 1995b). These comments were not, however, simply a means of abdicating responsibility for the problems involved in integrating students' work with teachers and tutors. Tutors were aware that variation between the work of different tutors also made integration more difficult to achieve.

Tutors also emphasised that the level of students' integration varied with the phase of the course. This may indicate an awareness of the nature of students' developmental progress through courses, in moving on from concerns with survival to more complex issues of professional growth (Tann, 1994; Maynard and Furlong, 1995) which require

students to make use of their work with both teachers and tutors. Nevertheless, tutors placed a relatively great emphasis on increasing the level of integration which, as this is a long-standing aim of ITT, may not be surprising.

The comments of tutors are also notable for what they do *not* refer to. Tutors did not suggest that differences between the rôles of teachers and themselves limited students' integration of their work. This may be because they shared the view expressed in many examples of the HEI documentation, that the differing contributions of teachers and themselves were complementary. As Chart I-I below shows, tutors felt that some forms of communication - HEI-school dialogue and, particularly, joint planning - *supported* rather than limited students' integration of their work.

The importance of rôle and responsibilities also seems evident in the fact that ITT co-ordinators found communication to be less problematic than did mentors. This may well have reflected ITT co-ordinators' position on the interface between schools and HEIs, broad responsibilities which contrasted with mentors' focus on students rather than the courses more broadly (see pp. 115-116 above). Mentors' had relatively limited liaison responsibilities, and this literal and metaphorical distance from HEIs may be why they perceived HEI-school relations as problematic. It may also be explain why ITT co-ordinators placed relatively more emphasis on integration being limited by variation between the number of tutors they would typically meet, while a mentor would see just one. Closer analysis of the data shows that mentors' experiences did, however, vary widely according to their subject specialism within an HEI-school partnership, which suggests there is the potential for communication to be improved.

The perspective of students is especially important in view of the responsibility for integration ascribed to them in the HEI documentation. They certainly felt there was a communication gap which, for one, meant that 'all too often the student teacher becomes the middle person caught between both, each complaining about the other' (S2.15). More often, perhaps, it may be a matter of relatively inexperienced students not being able to appreciate links which teachers and tutors had established through course planning and other forms of communication. As a student somewhat ruefully commented, 'It is integrated for them, but not really integrated from our perspective' (S5.5). Some even believed that there was no genuine commitment to support integration, that it was 'llpservice all round' (S6.17). A number were critical of tutors for being out of touch with 'real' schools. The responses of other students may have been limited by an individualistic, even relativist, view of teaching; 'everyone has different ideas' (S4.16) noted one student, commenting upon their perception that integration had been limited.

The effect of course responsibilities is reinforced by the fact that the impact of variation between schools, teachers, and students was emphasised by tutors, who worked with large numbers of each. ITT co-ordinators made fewer references to such issues, but more than the mentors who worked primarily at the level of individual students.

b)   how integration was supported

The means by which students' integration was supported overall have been described above (see pp. 128-129). Chart I-I below shows that while ITT co-ordinators referred more often to these means of *support* than to the problems involved (examined in Chart I-H above), it was mentors who gave relatively most examples of how integration was supported. This may be due to their closeness to, and consequent knowledge of, students' experiences. Indeed, mentors highlighted the importance of student (rather than teacher or tutor) responsiveness to their experiences in supporting integration.

Chart I-I
How the integration of students' work with teachers and with tutors was supported
<u>*The experience of teachers, tutors and students*</u>
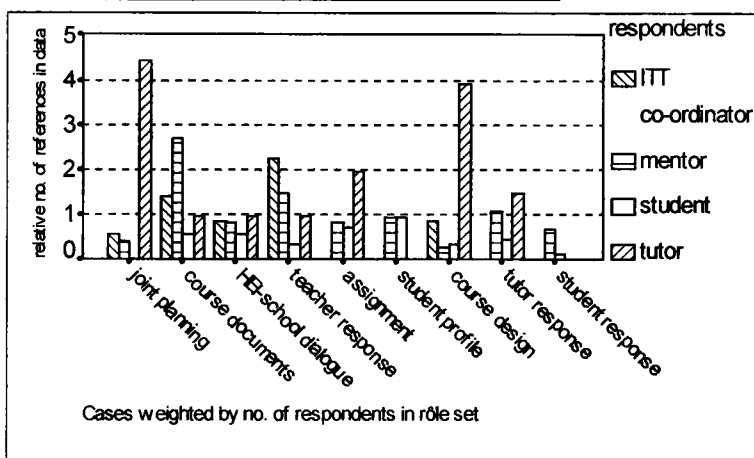
(N = 25, 82, 87, 39 categories of response from the respective rôles)

Mentors also emphasised the importance of course documentation, possibly because it was especially important due to the closeness with which they worked with the students for whose development they had relatively specific responsibilities. Conversely, ITT co-ordinators' broader responsibilities for the school-based course may have encouraged them to emphasise the contribution of the teachers, for whom they had managerial responsibility. Tutors, who had the broadest-based managerial responsibilities, referred to more factors supporting integration than did teachers, possibly reflecting their interest in this issue. Tutors also placed particular emphasis on the value of structural support in the form of joint planning course design, and student assignments for which they were primarily responsible. (see p. 115, above). The *lack* of reference by tutors to student profiles and to students' responsiveness as factors

which supported integration may be explained by tutors' relative lack of involvement with these examples of detailed work with students

Overall, students relatively seldom referred to ways in which the integration of their work with teachers and with tutors had been *supported*. They emphasised the importance of the student profiles and assignments, but did not feel teachers' and tutors' responses to their experiences had a notably positive effect. Students had little reason to know about joint teacher/tutor planning, so few references to that category should be expected here. Again, the data here seem to emphasise the effect that students' location had on their perspective of the course.

It is also interesting that while students saw the quantity and quality of communication between HEIs and schools as a problem, they also noted the positive impact of course documentation and continuing HEI-school dialogue. This may be interpreted as reinforcing the potential benefit of paying further attention to the structures and processes by which HEIs and schools communicate with each other.

c)   the extent to which students' work with teachers and with tutors was integrated

We have seen that ITT co-ordinators referred more often to how integration had been supported than to problems limiting it. It is not surprising, therefore, that they took a relatively positive view of the *extent* to which students' work was integrated, as Chart I-J below indicates.

Chart I-J:
The extent to which students' work with teachers and with tutors
was integrated
The experience of teachers, tutors and students
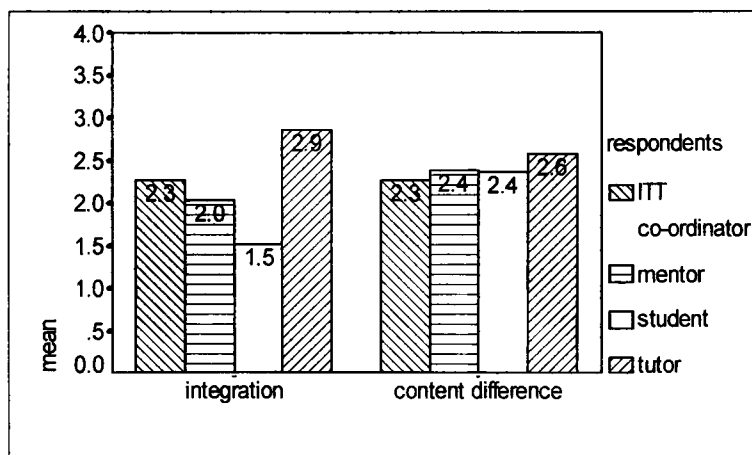
(*N* = 165, 339, 421, 93 questionnaires from the respective rôles)

The breadth of teachers' and tutors' responsibilities, and the degree of closeness with which they worked with students, may help to explain the data here. Thus, ITT co-ordinators believed integration to be greater than did the mentors (working more

closely with students, who experienced integration less than did those providing the course), and less than the tutors (who saw students relatively rarely while they were on school experience). This positive view is evident both in terms of the absolute levels of integration achieved and, as can be seen in Chart I-J above, relative to the level of content difference which respondents perceived there to be between the work of teachers and of tutors with students.

The nature of these data allows the statistical significance of variation between the perceptions of the different respondent rôles to be tested. Because the distinction previously drawn between students (who experienced the courses) and teachers and tutors (who, as a composite dataset, provided the courses) is not appropriate in this focus on perceptions, Table I-H below reports the statistical significance of the variation between each of the respondent rôles, including students.

Table I-H:
Statistical significance of variation between the perspectives of respondent rôles of the extent to which students' work with teachers and with tutors was integrated
<u>The experience of teachers, tutors and students</u>

extent teachers' & tutors' work is:	all rôles	statistical significance of variation between					
		ITT co-ordinators &			mentors &		tutors &
		mentors	tutors	students	tutors	students	students
integrated	.0000	.0284	.0009	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000
different in content	.0000	.2216	.0034	.3833	.0269	.7629	.0212

(N = 165, 339, 421, 93 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

These data highlight the distinctiveness of the perspective of tutors, the level of whose responsibility for the course may have encouraged them to believe that course aims such as integration had been more nearly met. Alternatively, the responses of tutors may have been made on the basis of their own efforts to support integration, which may be expected to be greater than those of teachers if ITT is the prime responsibility of tutors rather than teachers.

Tutors were also unique, possibly for similar reasons, in believing the level of students' integration of their work with teachers and tutors was greater than the differences in the content of that work. Nevertheless, all participants did refer to levels of content difference in the work of teachers and tutors with students, which may be notable in that the distinctiveness of tutors' contribution to ITT has been implicitly questioned by commentators. Thus Kelly (1993), has feared that HEI work has become instrumental in nature, while Bridges, D. (1996) has doubted whether tutors had a monopoly of expertise in educational theory. McNamara (1993) concluded that mentors and tutors had different but worthwhile contributions to make, yet in a later work (1996) suggested that the constraining effect of external reforms meant that universities should attend to the necessary examination of ideas by concentrating on higher level Diploma and Masters course rather than through ITT.

These data suggest that there are distinctive elements to the contributions of tutors, but do not indicate the nature of these. Other studies have pointed to the challenging, reconceptualising nature of tutors' work (John, 1996), or to their provision of varied perspectives through their knowledge of a wide range of practice in different schools (Barber, 1993; Butt, 1993; Furlong, 1996). These writers have also emphasised that tutors' knowledge of, and involvement in, research deepens students' understanding of teaching. The extent and nature of such differences deserves further research, not least because the data here indicate that the various participant rôles have differing views of these.

Moreover, a comparison of the nature of courses in HEI-school partnerships with those provided through the SCITT schemes reinforces the suggestion that the contribution of tutors to ITT was indeed distinctive (and see e.g. p. 207 below). Arguably, however, differences between the *views* of tutors and other participants are as significant because they imply a lack of shared understanding which is likely to constrain the development of collaborative models of partnership as described by, for example, (Sikes, 1994).

E.   Summary

In the HEI documentation, HEIs were ascribed greater responsibility for the courses than were schools. This may, however, give a misleading impression because the schools had more responsibility than HEIs for the critical area of assessing students' teaching in classrooms. Indeed, interviews with HEI course leaders suggested that schools had greater responsibility for assessing students' teaching than the near equal division of responsibility indicated in the HEI documentation. The HEI rôle here was, however, far more significant, and time consuming when there were problems due to a mentor's illness or the limited progress made by a weak student. Moreover, HEIs did have a significant rôle in establishing the structure of, and guidance for the operation of, the assessment process. A number of HEIs were also responsible for establishing criteria of competence which typically were concerned with students' attitudes and were used alongside the competences set out in *Circular 9/92*. Similarly, the structure of the school-based programme was, course leaders suggested, also influenced by HEIs to a greater extent than the HEI documentation indicated, as was the organisation of the course   in terms of selection of students, the development of documentation, and leadership of mentor development, for example.

The HEI course leaders' gloss on the intentions set out in the HEI documentation was supported by evidence from the teacher, tutor and student course participants. They reported that schools had the greater level of responsibility for the assessment of

students' teaching, but that HEIs had primary responsibility for the planning and organisation of courses. To an even greater degree, HEIs were perceived to be responsible for the assessment of students' work other than teaching.

This suggests the operationalisation of partnership has to some extent perpetuated the dichotomy evidenced in traditional allocations of responsibility for theory and practice. The evidence that there were differences in the content of teachers' and tutors' work with students offers some reinforcement for this, and may indicate a complementary form of partnership in which each partner provides a distinctive contribution to students' development. The recent survey by Williams and Soares (2000) supports this conclusion.

It is interesting that the perspectives of each of the respondent rôles seems to have been influenced by the nature of their responsibilities. ITT co-ordinators and mentors believed that schools had greater responsibility for each of the dimensions of partnership than did tutors, and it has been suggested that this difference in view may have reflected the locations and responsibilities associated with these rôles. The potential for this difference to become a political and diplomatic issue when relative HEI-school responsibilities are related to division of resources between HEIs and schools has also been raised above.

A similar difference of view associated with participants' rôles and responsibilities is evident when focusing upon the extent to which the work of teachers and of tutors with students was integrated. HEI course leaders were largely positive about the levels of integration achieved, although they identified a number of problematic factors, such as variation in practice across the course, and the constraint upon liaison due to the costs of partnership. The geographical spread of some partnerships was also an issue, as was the need to train a continuing flow of new mentors. While elements of collaborative partnership, such as joint course planning, were referred to as supporting integration, course participants seemed less optimistic about the extent these were achieved than were HEI course leaders. Moreover, when examined more closely, many factors seen as promoting course integration (including course design and students' assignments) were in practice primarily the responsibility of the HEIs. Again, partnership is seen to be somewhat separatist, with many responsibilities lying with the HEI.

As before, participants' responsibilities seem to have influenced their views here. For example, tutors and ITT co-ordinators had relatively positive views of HEI-school communication and of the level of integration achieved, possibly due to the relatively broad nature of their management rôle and liaison responsibilities. In contrast, students, and the mentors who worked so closely with them, felt integration was more

problematic than others indicated, and even suggested HEI-school communication was as much of a barrier to, as support for, course integration.

Turning to other dimensions of partnership, the relative responsibilities for monitoring and evaluation, the focus of HEI-school liaison, the forms of training, and the purposes of tutors' visits to schools have all reinforced the conclusion that partnership was HEI-led. This view was shared by all participant rôles, and most strongly by tutors. Structurally, partnership has been seen to be based more on a separation of responsibilities than a collaborative approach.

Not surprisingly, therefore, there is also some evidence that HEI-school relationships were characterised by accountability rather than professional support. This was evident to a degree in the focus of monitoring and evaluation and, possibly, the purposes of the training received by teachers and of the tutors' visits to schools. The managerialist principle upon which responsibilities were split between the participants tilted the balance further towards HEI-school relationships in which accountability rather than professional support had primacy. Monitoring, evaluation and other forms of HEI-school contact were led by HEIs who had prime responsibility for initiating, establishing the nature of, and making decisions on the basis of these relationships. On balance, however, the accountability element in these relationships seems to have been outweighed by the professional support provided through the nature of personal and institutional relationships and long-standing forms of pluralistic evaluation. To that extent there may be some potential to move to more collaborative forms of partnership.

II.   Conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT courses

An ITT course will promote particular conceptions of teaching, whether as an explicit intention, as broadly articulated in course aims, or implicitly through the course organisation as it interrelates with the practice and experiences of participants. Establishing what these conceptions are is a fundamental concern when examining the nature of contemporary ITT courses and the implications for teacher professionalism. As when examining the balance of responsibility in HEI-school partnerships, the focus in this section will initially be on the *intentions* of the HEI-school partnerships, as derived from the HEI documentation and the interviews with HEI course leaders. The focus is on HEI (rather than school) documentation because it was evident from interviews with ITT co-ordinators and mentors that few schools, and seemingly fewer subject departments in schools, had explicit ITT policies, and interviewing a sample of teachers sufficiently large to ensure reliability and validity was not feasible. As already noted, ITT is naturally more a core concern of HEIs than of schools. The nature of these course intentions will then be compared with the *experience* of respondents as established through the questionnaire survey. Finally, differences between partnerships (and the SCITTs, when examining courses at the level of experience) will be reported when they are notable. As this was a *stratified* survey of HEI-school partnerships differences between courses at this institutional level might be expected. While the intentions of SCITT schemes cannot be examined because they were not able to provide course documentation, comparisons will be made at the level of experience. Four SCITTs were covered in the survey but, as each SCITT comprised relatively few teachers and student participants (of whom 45 returned questionnaires), they have been treated collectively as comprising one type of course.

The nature of teaching may be conceptualised in innumerable ways (see pp. 15*ff.* above). Here, a framework of three conceptions derived from Habermas (1972) and Carr and Kemmis (1986) was adopted from the outset of the research. To repeat a brief definition used previously, these conceptions are the:

- *technical*, associated with pre-set objectives, effectiveness, didacticism, a view of knowledge as objective
- *interpretive*, associated with a focus on how pupils learn, teachers' interpretations of contexts, with the authenticity of knowledge dependent on the responsiveness and sensitivity of the teacher
- *critical*, associated with examining from a variety of perspectives the values and the social, cultural and political interests embedded in education, thereby creating a knowledge which escapes the constraints of these interests.

This framework was used to analyse HEI course intentions on the basis of data from, primarily, HEI course documentation, and from HEI course leaders. Some additional *elements of teaching* were also inductively derived from these data. These are *additional* categories because the sources from which they derived were insufficiently contextualised and exemplified to be related precisely to the framework applied generally. These elements of teaching comprise emphases on:

- competences
- the whole-school perspective
- reflection
- independent student learning
- developing through varied forms of experience in teaching
- continuing professional development
- the community perspective
- the subject-based nature of teaching
- personal qualities

Respondents' *experiences* of the courses were in turn examined through the questionnaires, to establish a composite picture of the conceptions of teaching promoted through those courses. These conceptions were built up from responses to statements which were set within eight elements of teaching (see pp. 161*ff.* below). Examining these responses will reveal the complex profile of the conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT courses, and perhaps augment our understanding of the particular contribution made to ITT by the various respondent rôles.

An open question designed to establish how the courses supported students' development of 'good practice' in teaching provided a more rounded picture of respondents' experiences of the courses. These are presented and analysed separately from data derived from the responses to the statements bullet pointed above, because of the distinctive nature of the contexts set through the questions. Merging the sets of data would reduce the sharpness of the focus of the data and raise questions about the validity of any conclusions. Other data provided additional representations of 'good practice' in teaching, associated primarily with the nature of students' experiences but also with course organisation and structures, and the rôles of the adults with whom they worked.

The nature of evidence accepted by teachers and tutors as indicating student achievement of a criterion of competence was also examined, adding another dimension to the picture of the conceptions of teaching associated with the work of teachers and tutors. The nature of these responses to an open question meant they were related to, rather than set precisely within, the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. First, however, the framework of

technical, interpretive, and critical conceptions of teaching will be used to examine the courses at the level of HEI *intentions.*

A.   HEI intentions

Data representing the conceptions of teaching which HEIs intended to promote through ITT courses were derived from content analysis of, primarily, HEI documentation, with supplementary detail from interviews with HEI course leaders. These HEI intentions will be examined first across all courses surveyed in terms of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, then in relation to other 'elements of teaching' which, due to the nature of the data, could not be set precisely within the frame of those conceptions. Variation at the level of HEI-school school partnerships will also be examined. The experience of respondents will then be analysed and compared with this evidence of course intentions, before examining aspects of variation between courses.

i.   The courses overall

The nature of the course will be examined in increasingly specific contexts. First, HEI intentions will be set within the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, before examining other elements of teaching which were insufficiently contextualised to fit validly and reliably within that framework.

a)   the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching

Chart II-A below describes the extent to which ITT courses, as represented through their HEI course documentation, intended to promote the technical, interpretive, and critical conceptions of teaching. Thus, 36.6% of the references in the HEI documentation which were coded in terms of these conceptions of teaching promoted the technical conception. The interpretive conception was almost as prominent, while the critical conception of teaching was supported to a significantly lesser extent.

Chart II-A:
Conceptions of teaching promoted through the courses
HEI intentions
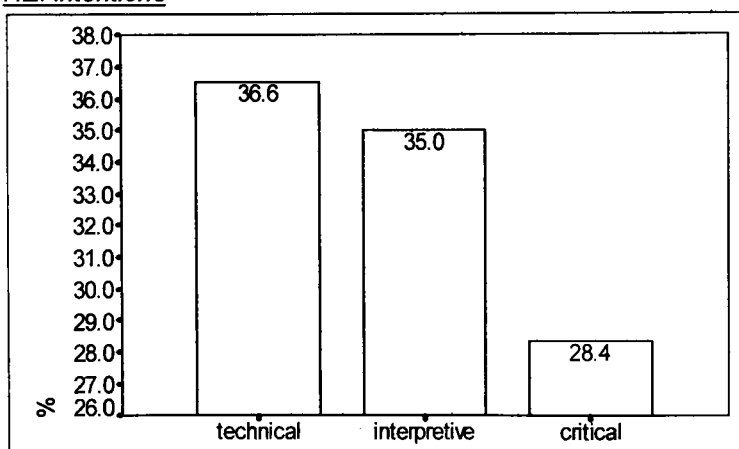
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The primacy of the technical conception of teaching found in this study contrasts with Simon's (1990) view that even as PGCE courses developed as more strictly *professional training* courses in the late 1980s, they maintained a focus on classroom contexts and the critical examination of issues in education. The predominance of the technical conception found here may be explained by a variety of factors. As outlined in pp. 12*ff.* above, some, such as increasing managerialism, individual accountability and the intensification of work, act at the professional level. Others are more specific to ITT and the nature of teaching; these include the Government-led reforms implemented by CATE (Kelly, 1993), through *Circular 9/92* (Mahony and Harris, 1996; Weir, 1997), to the continuing reforms of ITT led by the TTA (Gillard, 1997; Hextall and Mahony, 1997). These have been criticised as promoting a craft-based (Barton *et al.*, 1994), technical-rationalist (Harris, 1997) conception of *training* which focuses on 'effectiveness' rather than the critiques characteristic of *education*. From the perspective of such critics, this paradigm of ITT as training has restricted professionalism and challenged the emphases on innovation, flexibility and the teacher as an agent of social and educational equality characteristic of a previous era (Taylor, 1978). For political as well as professional reasons, it is virtually inevitable that HEI course leaders and the documentation for which they were responsible would have been affected by these pressures.

Other factors which may promote the technical conception of teaching are probably more closely related to the internal characteristics and developmental choices of HEIs. Thus, pupil profiling became commonplace in schools by the early 1990s through, for example, the practical developmental work of the ILEA (1989) and the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (1989). HEIs have developed student profiles to support student autonomy and pro-active involvement in what they learn (e.g. Beardon and Reiss, 1990; Krause, 1996; Pendry and McIntyre, 1996), a problem solving approach (Brooks *et al.*, 1994), the assessment process (e.g. Pritchard, 1993; Griffiths *et al.*, 1996; Mahony and Harris, 1996) and their own learning (Wilson *et al.*, 1995), as well as to make information about the student more accessible to, for example, those responsible for the student's continuing professional development in their first post (Husbands, 1993).

Emphasising the technical conception of teaching has not been part of the explicit rationale for developing profiling, but it may have been an unintended consequence. Stronach (1989) has criticised profiling (in the context of ITT) for encouraging a focus on teachers rather than pupils, and as led by a utilitarian purpose characterised by a vocational rather than an educational discourse. Students' discussions with teachers

and tutors in this process may thus be reduced to the level of evidencing competence rather than examining the nature of contexts and schooling. While Lawson and Harrison (1999) conclude that the action planning typically associated with profiling may empower rather than control students, they do question whether it provides an illusion of freedom within a bureaucratic framework. Hence, profiling may be associated with the technical rather than the interpretive or critical conceptions of teaching.

Of course, the precise effect of profiling will vary with the nature of the profile components; and as we have seen when examining the HEI documentation, in a number of cases these did include elements designed to support reflection, for example. Profiling may, therefore, support the reflective process as Richert (1992), Wilson et al., (1995) and Carroll et al. (1996) anticipated. The nature of student-tutor and student-teacher dialogue is probably a key determinant of which foci of reflection and conceptions of teaching are promoted through the profiling process, but the language used in the HEI documentation examined in this study does suggest that profiling may be driven by a potentially mechanistic process, liable to support the technical above other conceptions of teaching.

The rôle of HEI tutors in school-based ITT may also help to explain the relative emphasis on the technical conception of teaching at the level of HEI intentions, if only because it may limit the support they are able to give to the interpretive and, particularly, the critical conceptions of teaching. Since Circular 9/92, the rôle of tutors has come to involve facilitating the work of teachers involved in ITT (Burton, 1995), which Avis (1991a) has seen as supporting conservative practices. In terms of tutors' contribution to the content of the course, their rôle is now a more generalist one, allowing them less time to teach their specialisms (Furlong, et al., 1996a) or to get involved in research (Bridges, D. 1996). This suggests that tutors are now less able to directly fulfil their traditional functions of enabling students to develop their sensitivity to a range of distinctive contextual factors and to critically examine practice even if (and Pring (1996) doubts this) the tutors have a well-founded academic expertise.

The predominance of the technical conception of teaching at this level of intention is evident in the representation of HEI intentions in Chart II-A (see p. 141 above); but there were also references to elements of teaching which could not be set precisely within the framework of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching used in this study. The analysis of these shows that they broadly support the data presented in Chart II-A, making the relative emphasis on the technical conception of teaching seems all the more notable.

Factors which may help to explain the pre-eminence of the technical conception of teaching have been outlined above. These also seem likely to limit support for the critical conception, and so will be explored further here in that context. For example, competences such as those listed in *Circular 9/92* have been described (e.g. by Busher and Simmons, 1992) as based on a mix of behaviourist and craft conceptions of teaching. Because developing a craft (rather than a decontextualised skill) requires a sensitivity to differing situations, the use of these competences may have limited the critical rather than the interpretive conception of teaching. Similarly, the critical conception may have been constrained by the relegation of the issues with which sociology of education is concerned to the 'Further Professional Development' section of the list of competences, as Reid and Parker (1995) have complained, permitting, Tomlinson (1996) adds, only limited scope for the multicultural perspective. Indeed, sociologists of education now contribute little to ITT courses (George, 1992; Furlong *et al.*, 1996a). As the ITT courses examined were designed to enable students to achieve these competences, their nature was bound to influence HEI intentions. Moreover, it would be strange if HEI course leaders had not been affected by a 'context of influence' (Bowe *et al.*, 1996) in which the New Right has strongly criticised educationalists in higher education. Documentation is a relatively visible indicator of the HEI contribution to ITT, and it may be that those responsible for it have wanted to show that they are supporting legislative requirements, and not leave themselves open to criticisms such as those made by the seemingly influential Lawlor (1990) in her analysis of HEI documentation.

The nature and experience of respondents in ITT also formed part of the context within which HEI documentation was developed. Teachers were expected to make an important contribution to students' understanding of the experience of teaching, and the HEI documentation made many references to their experience-based knowledge. These often promoted the interpretive conception of teaching by emphasising the importance of the pupil perspective and of teachers' responsiveness to classroom contexts. Teachers were, however, less often associated in the HEI documentation with categories of work which promoted the critical conception of teaching; as teachers had a prime rôle in ITT, this perhaps explains why this conception was promoted less fully even at the level of course intentions. There is some evidence that the emphasis given to, for example, skills and effectiveness in the HEI documentation supported a somewhat restricted professionalism of the classroom technician (Carr, 1992) in which the teacher's rôle tends towards the closed rather than the open (Kohl, 1970), and meaning-receiving not meaning-making (Postman and Weingartner, 1971); there was little place for the teacher as problematiser (Broadfoot and Osborn, 1988) or even

influencer of the curriculum (Hartness and Naish, 1993). Similarly, knowledge was often represented as craft-based (Brown and McIntyre, 1992) and, although the intuitive personal dimension (e.g. Schon, 1983) which may be associated with processes rather than propositional knowledge (Eraut, 1994) had a significant place, the uncertainty of knowledge (e.g. Popkewitz, 1987), values and issues set beyond the classroom were rarely considered. A transformative intent (Freire, 1972) was not evident.

HEI course leaders were given the opportunity to describe the sort of teacher which they believed their courses supported. Although difficult to relate precisely to the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, the data clearly indicate less emphasis on the critical than other conceptions of teaching.

b)   other elements of teaching

As already noted, the HEI documentation included references to *elements* of teaching which were insufficiently contextualised to be placed precisely within the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. These elements, inductively derived from the documentation, were generic terms in that 'reflection', for example, also included references to 'reflective' and 'reflective practitioner'. The elements have been grouped together according to the frequency with which they were mentioned, to indicate their relative importance in the documentation. This will inform us about the types of teachers which courses were designed to produce in the opinion of those responsible for the HEI documentation, although these elements will be related to the framework of conceptions of teaching where possible.

The elements most often referred to in HEI documentation were 'competence' and the 'whole-school perspective'; the elements of 'reflection' and 'student independence' were present approximately 70% as often as the two most common elements, which was twice as often as references to the elements of 'developing through varied forms of experience in teaching', 'continuing professional development' and 'the community perspective'. These elements were associated with the work of all HEIs, while the 'subject-based nature of teaching' and 'personal qualities' were both referred to in seven of the ten HEIs; two elements, competence and reflection, will be examined separately in greater detail below (pp. 170*ff.* and pp. 231*ff.* below respectively) because they are specific foci in this study.

(1)   competences

Circular 9/92 required ITT courses to enable students to achieve a prescribed list of competence criteria, so it is not surprising that there were numerous references to competences in the documentation of all the HEIs. Moreover, seven of the ten HEI course leaders referred to competence when characterising the type of teaching their

courses aimed to promote. As the MOTE survey has reported increases over time from 6% of HEI course leaders referring to a competency model (Whitty *et al.*, 1992) to 11% (Whiting *et al.*, 1996), their emphasis on competence may be indicative of a trend.

While the competence criteria of *Circular 9/92* may tend to promote a technical rather than a critical conception of teaching (see pp. 25-26 above), this is not necessarily evidence of a 'dumbing down' which some have associated with the use of competences in ITT (e.g. Busher and Simmons, 1992). These criteria have been seen as open to various interpretations, reducing the risk of promoting a restricted form of teaching and professionalism (Furlong, 1995; Barton and Elliott, 1996). Moreover, the criteria set out in *Circular 9/92* were often clearly not regarded as a sufficient descriptor of the type of teacher which courses sought to promote. Most HEIs referred in their documentation to *extended* forms of competence, whether in terms of levels of attainment within a competence, or attainment of particular aspects of teaching not referred to in *Circular 9/92*, such as contributing to policy reviews. Indeed, 40% of all references to 'competence' were to this 'extended' form. Some HEIs set competence alongside other descriptors, such as those of a reflective practitioner. Courses may, therefore, have used competence frameworks to support the development of an *extended* form of professionalism. However, the neutral language typically used may be seen as implicitly presenting values as conservative rather than contested, and thus as technicist (Hyland, 1996a, b) and restricting professionalism.

(2)   the whole-school perspective

The whole-school perspective is an inherently wide-ranging category, which may help to explain why it was referred to so often in the HEI documentation. It comprised various strands, some of which were related to the formal school curriculum. Within these, there was an especial emphasis on the pastoral dimensions of teachers' work, including those associated with their work as form tutors and with teaching personal and social education programmes. Some HEIs also referred to cross-curricular themes (e.g. those identified by the DES (1989c) to complement the statutory requirements of the National Curriculum), skills (e.g. Information Technology) and dimensions (e.g. equal opportunities and special educational needs, which were referred to by all HEIs). Other strands highlighted within this whole-school perspective were teaching responsibilities beyond the classroom (such as reporting to parents); involvement in extra-curricular activities; and the nature of school organisation and policy and how it affected classroom practice.

These facets of the whole-school perspective have been addressed in ITT courses for many years, but HEI course leaders did acknowledge that the school-based structure of courses had enhanced the breadth and depth of students' experiences. They

reported, and this is supported by data from the questionnaires, that students were involved far more commonly than before in a range of activities beyond the classroom and, in particular, had more experience of the form tutor rôle. Robinson (1994) suggested that students who had greater experience of this perspective gained more than others from their course, and data from this study support this by representing the development of students' whole-school experiences as an example of course improvement. The whole-school perspective was, however, emphasised far more strongly in the HEI documentation than by HEI course leaders, who rarely associated it with the type of teaching promoted through their course.

It may be that this whole school experience is associated with the interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. Involvement in the pastoral rôle and in activities outside the classroom seems likely to introduce students to a range of unpredictable *contexts*, and hence experiences associated with the interpretive conception rather than technical skills. Work related to the cross-curricular themes and dimensions may also be imbued with political and ethical aspects which have the potential to promote the critical conception of teaching. Such associations with particular conceptions of teaching may be tendentious; the particularities of students' involvement in this whole-school perspective must be a crucial determinant of the conception of teaching promoted. The breadth of concerns evident here do seem likely, however, to support an extended for of professionalism, even if we cannot be too precise about the precise strand involved.

(3)   reflection

As noted above, the term reflection has come to be used ubiquitously in ITT courses in recent years, although the recent MOTE survey (Whiting *et al.*, 1996), in which 46% of HEI course leaders used the term to characterise their courses, suggested its predominance is less than it once was. The continuing prevalence of its use evident here, however, justified the attention given to it in this work. The nature and extent of 'reflection' in ITT is examined more fully in Section IV (pp. 231*ff.* below). For now, it is sufficient to establish the importance of reflection relative to other elements of teaching referred to in the HEI documentation, and to draw some general conclusions.

One HEI course leader interviewed here did fear that the students' reflective practice was threatened by the increased amount of work required of students on school-based courses; but overall, the data from course leaders and the HEI documentation indicated that the place of reflection remained strong. Nine HEI course leaders used the term to characterise aspects of students' work on their courses. While the place of reflection was less dominant in the HEI documentation, HEI course leaders referred more often to reflection than to competence, and it seemed that HEIs shared Elliott's (1993b) belief that it was part of their rôle to promote wide-ranging reflection.

It has been suggested above that the term 'reflection' has often been used in a rather generalised sense, which is why the questionnaire survey distinguished between types of reflection in terms of their focus. Various forms of reflection were also identified through inductive analysis of the HEI documentation, and will be examined in Section IV below. Here, the analysis will focus on aspects of reflection which cannot be related precisely to the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching.

Reflection seemed to be retrospective rather than anticipatory or contemporaneous, which may suggest that tutors shared Van Manen's (1995) view that it is unrealistic to expect contemporaneous reflection (or reflection-in-action, in Schon's (1983) terms) to be applied to the complex situation-specific nature of teaching. Schon's work (*ibid.*, 1987) has been very influential, and was referred to in many cases of the HEI documentation, but there is some evidence in the HEI documentation that Furlong's (1997) criticism of Schon's notion of reflection as limited by being set within the reflector's own knowledge is shared by many in HEIs. The documentation of nine of the HEIs viewed students' reflection as promoted by the design of the course and the contributions of other course participants including, for some, fellow students. Reflection was clearly valued as a means to encourage thoughtful attitudes and approaches to teaching.

The professional developmental *purpose* of reflection was predominant and common to all HEIs, although its use as a means to integrate different parts of courses (seen by Menter and Pollard (1989) as a rationale for developing of reflection), of supporting student autonomy (as reported by Wilson *et al.* (1995), and Harland and Myhill (1997)), and of producing evidence of student competence were also referred to. Reflection was also seen as a facet of, or a means to achieving, professionalism. Thus, reflection was associated with a depth and breadth of understanding, with a thoughtful process which enabled practice to be informed by a knowledge of theory which traditionally has been regarded as underpinning professionalism (Millerson, 1964; Goode, 1969; Hoyle, 1980), rather than with teaching in one way, or with one emphasis rather than another.

When the references to reflection in the HEI documentation were more closely examined, it was clear that they were most often associated with a technical conception of teaching, as characterised by the language of 'skills', 'performance' and 'outcomes'. The interpretive conception was represented in a few references to contextual differences and to pupil-centred perspectives. The extent to which the critical conception was promoted is uncertain; there were many references to 'critical reflection', but the context did not clarify what precisely this involved. In six HEIs there were references to reflection upon theory which, in the academic tradition of

universities involves responding to a range of ideas (McNamara, 1996), and thereby promotes the critical conception. The references to theory in the documentation were, however, insufficiently contextualised to make that link here. Overall, 'reflection' was used as a rather generalised term, the meaning and effect of which would have been established through dialogues between students, tutors and teachers.

(4) independent student learning

There has been a long-standing desire to support independent student learning (e.g. Dymond, 1959; Logan, 1971) but, with the partial exceptions of a move from lecture to seminar and tutorial-based courses and expressions of concern that tutors should not be too didactic (Porter, 1968), practical suggestions seem to have been limited in number and effect until relatively recently. Reflective practice which focuses on a student's own classroom experience has rightly been associated by Lucas and True (1993) with students' responsibility for their own learning. Similarly, portfolios built up by students to represent their experience and progress through the period of a course have been associated with student self-evaluation and autonomy (Beardon and Reiss, 1990; Wilson et al., 1995; Griffiths et al., 1996; Krause, 1996). These facets of practice were represented in all examples of the HEI documentation examined here, but have been extended in ways which complemented the requirements of Circular 9/92. Thus, students were commonly given the responsibility to use evidence they had gathered to 'claim' competences; there is some evidence that students in the newer universities and colleges were ascribed greater independence here in that they, rather than teachers or tutors, were identified as leaders of this process. Similarly, it was the new universities and colleges which referred to self-study materials to support student learning.

Independent student learning was also supported through students' involvement in setting and reviewing targets for their development (a process which has become popular in ITT as in education generally (Tomley, 1993)), and in making judgements about their progress.

There was less consensus about the stage of the course at which students were able to work independently. Half of the HEIs saw students as independent learners from the start of the course, for the other five it was a final developmental stage in students' learning (as described by, for example, Furlong and Maynard (1995)).

It is inherently difficult to relate accounts of content-free processes which supported independent student learning to the model of conceptions of teaching used here. Lawson and Harrison (1999) found action planning empowered students, but Nixon (1989) suggests that the self-evaluation typically associated with this process may encourage a simplistic model of professional development, a perspective shared by Ford et al.'s (1996) view that critical reflection may require an outside stimulus. In this

context it is interesting that one HEI course leader indicated that part of the rationale for regarding students as independent learners was that it justified a reduced contact time with staff. This does not imply that support for student independence was necessarily an exercise in cynicism - the extent and tone of the HEI course leaders' promotion of it does not support this - but it is a cautionary reminder that a positive gloss may be given to enforced course developments by *post hoc* justifications.

(5)   developing through varied forms of experience in teaching

The value to students of teaching in a variety of contexts was recognised in *Circular 9/92*'s requirement that they teach in at least two schools as part of their training. Eight of the HEIs also referred to students having varied forms of experience *within* a school. This variation was expressed in terms of student observations of varied teaching styles within and across departments. Two HEIs also referred to students teaching pupils of varying abilities. The *means* by which students were given access to varied forms of teaching may have influenced the conceptions of teaching which were promoted through a course. For example, where students alone had responsibility for the interpretation of these varied experiences, it seems unlikely that support for the critical conception of teaching was high; as discussed in the context of student autonomy. It may be significant, therefore, that the *active* involvement of teachers in this aspect of students' experience was limited. The responsibility of mentors was largely organisational, that is they arranged the appropriate observations of and by students. ITT co-ordinators were sometimes allocated broader responsibilities in that they not only arranged student observations of teachers in other departments, but could be expected to lead discussions designed to broaden students' perspectives; this expectation was, however, rare. Four partnerships also referred to discussions between students as a means to (vicariously) broaden their experience.

Six HEIs referred to the rôle of tutors in enabling students to broaden their perspectives of teaching, but it was not clear whether this involvement had the purpose of providing indirect experience of alternative ways of teaching (thereby supporting the interpretive conception), or of challenging the positions taken by students (and promoting the critical conception). Although there was no evidence of this in the documentation, tutors could have promoted the technical conception of teaching by, for example, building a 'tips for teachers' list based on teaching techniques successfully used in a number of contexts. A precise meaning of 'varied forms of experience' in terms of the conception of teaching promoted is therefore elusive.

(6)   continuing professional development

HEIs may well have encouraged students to continue their professional development after their initial training even before this concept was endorsed by the James

Committee (DES, 1972). This continuing professional development was referred to here by all HEIs, and emphasised as fully as was the importance of varied forms of experience in the development of students' teaching. It was often promoted in the HEI documentation as an ideal without any contextualising detail, although the factor most commonly associated with it was 'reflection'. Five HEIs also referred to continuing professional development as involving forms of research or reference to theory, although with insufficient detail to support the association of work involving theory with the critical conception of teaching found elsewhere in this study.

The DFE had already sought to improve what they perceived from previous studies (HMI, 1987) to be an uncertain basis for induction of newly qualified teachers into their first posts by encouraging their trainers to provide them with competence profiles (DFE, 1993). At the time of this survey, the TTA had introduced career entry profiles (TTA, 1997a), so naturally most HEIs had specific arrangements designed to support students' induction into their first post. Three HEIs planned that students would take a set of personal targets with them to their first post to support their continuing professional development, and five others had a *levels* of competence framework which provided at least implicit support for this process.

It was clear that the nature of continuing professional development envisaged by HEIs was intended to transcend a simplistic craft or skill-based conception of teaching, but there was insufficient detail to relate it more precisely to the framework of conceptions of teaching used here.

(7)   the community perspective

Circular 9/92 included an understanding of the place of schools within the community in its list of competence criteria, and a 'community perspective' of teaching was supported in some form in the documentation of all HEIs. The issue, then, is what this term means. Defining 'the community' is inherently difficult although, it generally encompasses a *diversity* of potentially clashing interests. This attention to diversity implies support for the interpretive conception, while *examining* the differing interests would support the critical conception of teaching.

One HEI barely went beyond the wording of *Circular 9/92* in its documentation, but others were more specific. Interestingly, references to the community at relatively broad social, political or educational levels in data from eight HEIs, were more common than were those to the local community (specified by five HEIs), or to parents (identified by four, including two which had not referred to the local community). Three HEIs referred to 'the world of work'. It is possible that the emphasis on setting the community in a relatively broad context was the surface representation of significant promotion of the critical conception of teaching. This may be supported by the fact that tutors - whose

location associates them with intellectually rigorous reflection (McNamara, 1996) - were identified as responsible for this work with students as often as were teachers.

The community perspective, however, had many facets. Examining one of these, culture, suggests that a high level of support for the critical conception of teaching may be less likely than the references to the social and political dimensions of the community perspective imply. When used in educational contexts, the term 'community' is often associated with multi-ethnic or multi-cultural issues; this represents a relatively broad understanding of 'community' and increases the potentially critical nature of such work. Yet the HEIs largely followed *Circular 9/92* in setting the examination of culture within the restricted context of differences between individual pupils. Just three HEIs set culture in a social or political context; of these, the only HEI to specify a perspective other than what Francis (1984) has seen as a de-politicised form cultural pluralism, did so through an *optional* workshop. This reinforces Craft's (1990b, 1996) view that multicultural education appears to have had little impact upon the professional development of teachers, and reinforces the limited opportunities for the examination of values which characterises extended professionalism.

(8)   the subject-based nature of teaching

'Subject knowledge' and 'subject application' comprised two of the headings used in *Circular 9/92* to organise the list of competence criteria, so naturally they were referred to by all HEIs in that context. The documentation of seven HEIs went beyond these requirements in the extent to which students were expected to examine the nature of the subject they taught, and in one of these subject expertise was directly equated with the quality of teaching. Calderhead and Miller (1986) argued that subject content knowledge informed the planning rather than the classroom practice of students, but the HEIs here seem to have taken more note of the view that content knowledge influences thinking and action in the classroom (e.g. Buchmann, 1982; Doyle, 1986; Wilson *et al.*, 1987). On the other hand, a view of mentoring and student learning as not subject-specific was implicit (as it is in most of the literature) in that there were no references to differences between subjects affecting the nature of students' teaching, despite this issue having been raised by Lacey (1977) and Dart and Drake (1996). Such references to examining the *nature* of subjects may indicate promotion of the critical conception of teaching, but the data are insufficiently detailed to confirm this.

(9)   personal qualities

Five HEIs also referred in their documentation to 'fuller' or 'extended' forms of professionalism, which were characterised by personal qualities such as commitment and enthusiasm. Holding, and being able to justify, personal principles was highlighted by four HEIs, while other qualities specified included a commitment to promoting equal

opportunities, a willingness to take the initiative and, by one HEI, an appreciation of the rôle of parents. The abstract nature of these personal qualities means it is not helpful to try to relate them to the conceptions of teaching. It may be significant that references to personal qualities such as these are present despite their absence from *Circular 9/92* (which is concerned with outcomes rather than dispositions); and they may represent a person-centred resistance to the use of criteria which, Voiels (1996) argues, discourage the self-exploration and development traditionally encouraged by HEIs.

ii.   HEI-school partnerships

Examining the conceptions of teaching promoted at the level of HEI-school partnerships reveals interesting variations, notably in the level of support for the technical and critical conceptions of teaching, which are shown in Chart II-B below. This indicates a distinction derived from the historic institutional character of the HEIs, i.e. between old universities and new universities/colleges of higher education. The new universities and colleges are bracketed together because of their common association with the CNAA as validator of their courses. The old universities are those in partnerships 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10. While this distinction may be of particular relevance to ITT courses because of the associated differences in the agency of course validation, Scott's (1995) typology may be used to distinguish more finely between these old universities, with universities 3 and 7 being 'civic' universities founded in the late nineteenth century, 6 a 'redbrick' founded in the earlier part of this century; and universities 8, and 10 more recently established on campuses. The new universities are represented in partnerships 2 and 4, the colleges by partnerships 1 and 9. The data here indicate that, with some exceptions, the older universities tended to refer more often to the critical conception of teaching, while the new universities and colleges placed greater emphasis on the technical conception in their documentation.

Chart II-B:
Technical and critical conceptions of teaching promoted through the courses
<u>Variation between the intentions of HEI-school partnerships</u>
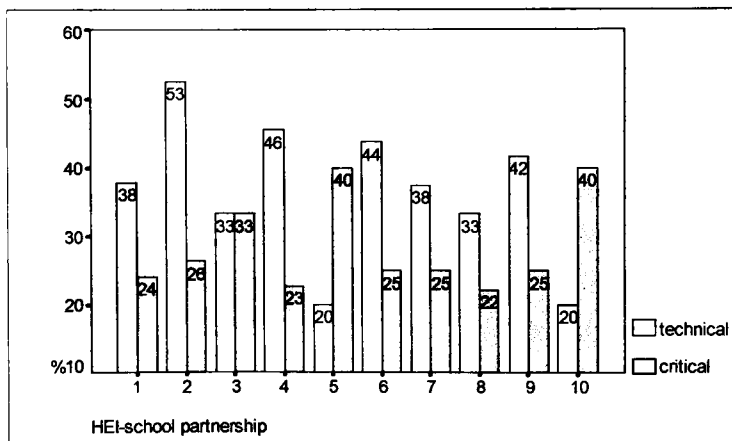
(10 sets of HEI documentation)

The greater support for the technical conception of teaching provided through the course documentation of the new universities and colleges of higher education was contradicted only by the documentation of HEI 6. It is interesting that although this HEI is a redbrick university, the education department there had 'taken over' a college of education in the 1980s. A more direct explanation of this university's anomalous level of support for the technical conception is, however, that it has been affected by the decision, when analysing the content of the HEI documentation, to regard references to educational theory as neutral in terms of the conceptions of teaching. The basis for this assumption was that theory may be technical in nature, when, for example, perceived as knowledge to be implemented as a means to increase teachers' effectiveness. However, in practice, the level of importance which questionnaire respondents placed upon theory (as established in the importance they placed upon reflection on the adequacy of theory in their ITT work) was negatively associated with the technical conception, and positively with the critical conception of teaching, at the statistically significant level of .05[1]. Thus, the support for the technical conception of teaching in the documentation of HEI 6 is probably overstated, and that for the critical conception underestimated. This suggestion is supported by Charts II-EE and II-GG (p. 200 and p. 202 below respectively), which show that respondents in this university experienced a low level of support for the technical, and a high level of support for the critical, conception of teaching.

The level of support for the critical conception of teaching provided through the HEI documentation was broadly a mirror image of that for the technical conception. Of the six older universities represented in Chart II-B above, three (3, 5, and 10) provided far greater support for the critical conception of teaching in their documentation than did the newer universities and colleges. An explanation for one of the exceptions, HEI 6, has already been suggested, and this may apply to HEI 8 also. This latter university had a strong tradition and emphasis on students *researching* the practice in their schools. As research generally involves reference to theory to examine practice from various perspectives, the coding process may have underestimated the level of support for the critical conception as, it is suggested, was the case in HEI 6. Certainly, this process of research by students has been associated by Ruddock (1992b) with the critical conception of teaching. Like HEI 6, the course was reported to promote the critical conception of teaching to an above average extent in practice (see p. 199 below). Respondents indicated that HEI-school partnership 7 promoted the critical conception of teaching more than any other but, as Chart II-B above shows, this was not the case in its HEI documentation. Unlike HEIs 6 and 8, there was no explicit or implicit high level of references to theory which might explain this.

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[1] *using the Kruskal Wallis test of the distribution of the variables*

The distinction between the old and new universities indicated here may reflect historic distinctions in course emphases. The CNAA, which had validated the courses of these new universities and colleges, moved relatively early to require courses to concentrate on the development of teaching skills, to ensure that teachers contributed to these courses (Lynch, 1979), and to promote a more practical model of training in which the importance of theory was reduced (Wilkin, 1996a). These characteristics are associated here with support for the technical conception, which may have been strengthened by the CNAA's use of an implicitly objectives-led curriculum model (Sharples, 1984). The course characteristics and culture associated with CNAA validated courses may have had a continuing influence on contemporary practice. There is some evidence that the distinction between old and new universities was also evidenced in the emphasis on participants' management responsibilities as set out in the HEI documentation, but it is differences in the conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT courses that are central to this study. The data will thus be examined to see whether the new-old university divide in terms of the conceptions of teaching promoted is maintained in practice (see pp. 199*ff.* below). First, however, experience will be examined at the level of the respondent *rôles* involved.

B. The experience of respondents

HEI intentions have been described in Chart II-A (p. 141 above) as promoting the technical more than other conceptions of teaching. Yet, despite the fact that some of the other elements of teaching were treated in the HEI documentation in too generalised a way for their potentially broadening and even critical effect to be evident, the emphases on continuing professional development, reflection, whole-school perspectives and extended forms of competence indicate the potential for ITT courses to transcend restricted forms of teacher professionalism. This picture of HEI *intentions* is complemented below by a representation of respondents' *experience* of the conceptions of teaching supported through the ITT course, which is derived from the questionnaire survey. As when examining the HEI-school balance of responsibilities in partnership, we shall first examine the data at the overall level, that is across all partnerships and respondent rôles. The conceptions of teaching, will then be examined from the perspective of each of the respondent rôles and, subsequently, of each HEI-school partnership.

i. The courses overall

As when establishing HEI intentions, respondents' experiences of the courses will be examined in increasingly specific analytical contexts. First, the overall conceptions of

teaching promoted through teachers' and tutors' contributions to the courses will be discussed. The data here were derived from the ratings which respondents applied to *given* sets of questions and statements. Each of the eight questions represented an 'element' of teaching, and was related to three statements characterising the nature of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching within the context set by that element of teaching (see Appendix 2, pp. 330-333 below, for full details of the questions). This representation of the courses in terms of these conceptions overall will then be extended by examining the eight elements of teaching in closer detail.

Finally, data from *open* questions which focused on particular aspects of the courses will be analysed. These generated data representing particular aspects of a course: the ways 'good practice' in students' teaching was supported, and what teachers and tutors accepted as evidence that students had achieved the course competences. The open nature of these questions meant that they could largely be set within the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, but they also enriched the picture of the courses by establishing a range of other categorisations of teaching, which varied with the particular aspect of the courses examined.

a)   the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching promoted through teachers' and tutors' contributions to the courses

Chart II-C below describes the extent to which each conception was perceived by the teacher, tutor, and student respondents to be supported through the ITT courses. To ease comparison with data from the documentation, the extent to which the conceptions were promoted is presented in percentage terms, as in Chart II-A (p. 141 above). Here, it is the *interpretive* conception of teaching which was perceived to be most strongly promoted through the courses; the technical conception was supported to a considerably greater extent than was the critical.

Chart II-C:
Conceptions of teaching promoted through the courses
The courses overall
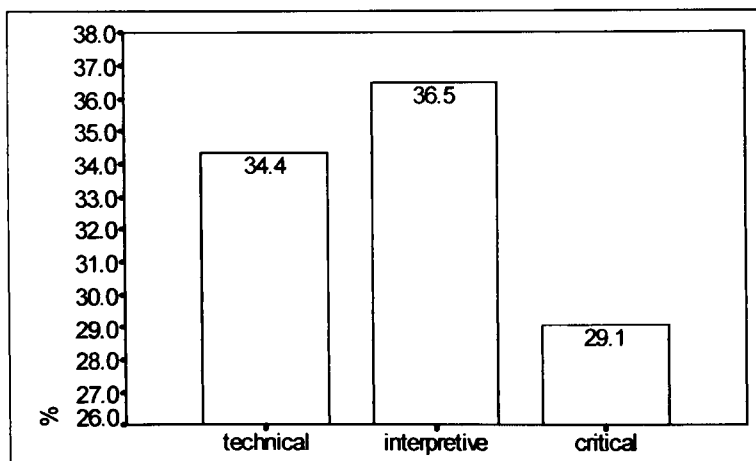
(N = 1008, 1012, and 1012 questionnaire responses for the respective conceptions)

The fact that respondents experienced courses as promoting the technical conception of teaching *less*, and the interpretive conception *more*, than did the HEI intentions as represented in the documentation is remarkable for two reasons. First, as described above, there has been a range of contextual factors pressing for a technical conception of teaching. Second, the increased involvement of teachers in ITT has been criticised in *principle* as supporting a limited form of technical training because teachers are insufficiently aware of broader issues in education (Wright and Bottery, 1997). Teachers' work in ITT courses has also been criticised on the *pragmatic* grounds that it does not meet even their own ideals of supporting students' work (Jones, 1996), raises few moral and ethical issues (Penny *et al.*, 1996), involves relatively little support and stimulus to review even students' own teaching (Oversby, 1996), and may decrease in quantity once students achieve competence (Dunne and Dunne, 1993a). From the perspective of students, Dunne (1993a) found that experience of ITT courses increased their concern about their effectiveness in terms of classroom order (associated with the technical conception of teaching), and reduced their interest in broader factors such as pupils' home background (associated with the interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching).

There are, perhaps, some explanations for why the interpretive conception was promoted to a relatively greater extent in the data representing respondents' experiences than at the level of HEI intentions. First, there were factors constraining the extent to which the interpretive conception was represented in the HEI documentation. The *Circular 9/92* competences did not address issues central to the interpretive conception, such as how pupils learn. Also, as Frost (1993) points out, the political climate has changed to become most uncongenial for previously dominant perspectives such as the child-centred concerns as described, for example, by Browne (1971). It has become safer for HEIs to justify their courses in 'hard' technicist terms rather than the 'soft' ones associated with the interpretive conception of teaching. Darling (1994) even suggests that the desire to by-pass the child-centred concerns typical of HEI tutors encouraged the move to school-based ITT.

Second, there were factors active at the other end of the equation, tending to increase the extent to which the interpretive conception was promoted through the process of the courses relative to the level of support for them in the HEI documentation. The dominance of child-centred education in earlier periods of ITT has been noted, and the values and ways of thinking of tutors who had taught in HEIs for some time may have been set within these perspectives in ways which were not easily changed, however precise was the documentation. Similarly, the forms of teachers' thinking will

have been largely developed within this earlier period. Moreover, the interpretive conception is associated with a knowledge of, and sensitivity to, classroom contexts. It may, therefore, have been supported by the extended time students spent in school, with access to mentors and, to an extent rarely recognised in the HEI documentation but evident in the questionnaire data, working with other teachers within and beyond their department. Also, despite the concerns about the nature and quality of mentoring which are expressed widely in the literature, others hold that school-based ITT has *improved* courses; these include mentors (Robinson, 1994), tutors (Blake *et al.*, 1996), and students (Mardle, 1995b). It is possible, therefore, that this course improvement enabled students to reach the relatively advanced developmental stage of focusing on pupils rather than teachers (Fuller, 1969; Tann, 1994; Furlong and Maynard, 1995), which is a characteristic of the interpretive conception of teaching and a relatively extended form of professionalism.

The critical conception was promoted less than the other conceptions of teaching, but more than might be expected in view of constraining contextual factors and the intrinsically complex nature of the conception in terms of what it involves in principle, and how it may be operationalised. This may be part of the reason why there are no authoritative texts to guide critical forms of curriculum development. This contrasts with established practice and the availability of accessible texts related to ITT courses, which have given strength to the technical and interpretive conceptions (e.g. McManus, 1994; Mercer, 1994). It is not surprising, therefore, that Grundy's (1987) study of the critical conception in school education concluded that teachers recognised that school structures did not support that conception of teaching, and drew attention to the personal pressures on those who did work in that way. Whole literatures have grown up to explain the failure of possibly less ambitious forms of curriculum development, from perspectives ranging from political theory (e.g. Weiler, 1989), through the micro-political (e.g. Ball, 1987), to the cultural (e.g. Handy, 1984). Yet here the critical conception of teaching has been found to be promoted to a slightly *greater* extent than HEI intentions indicated.

The data here therefore give some reason to question the view that school-based ITT courses necessarily and greatly limit the promotion of the critical conception. The critical conception of teaching may be promoted here less than were other conceptions; but even in the USA, where there have been more reports of ITT courses designed to support concerns or processes characteristic of the critical conception of teaching (e.g. Elbaz, 1987; Smyth, 1987a, b; Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Valli, 1990; Goodman, 1991; Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1991), the record of such enterprises has not been impressive, as Russell (1993a) admitted. Where success has been reported,

it has most often been limited to the level of case studies of individual students or teachers (e.g. Bullough and Gitlin, 1991; Liston and Zeichner, 1991). A review by Hill (1996a) of similar attempts in England to promote critical approaches in ITT also found success was generally limited. The data here describe *course* rather than *student* practice, but the strength of the critical conception of teaching found in this study seems notable in the context of previous studies. This issue will be examined in more detail when analysing the contribution of mentors and ITT co-ordinators to, and students' experience of, ITT courses, but some possible reasons for this relative strength of the critical conception will be cautiously suggested.

The contribution of mentors and ITT co-ordinators to the critical conception of teaching in their work with students was, as will be shown below, less than that of tutors, but it may be that the work of these teachers had a disproportionate impact on the critical nature of students' experience in schools. Students had regular contact with teachers in a context in which they developed their understanding of teaching, and evidence from the USA suggests this may be significant. Thus, Zeichner and Liston (1987) and Wood (1991) identify supportive teacher-student collaboration as promoting a critical conception of teaching. As mentoring in school-based ITT involves teachers working with, rather than supervising, students, this form of training may provide structural, 'hidden', support for the development of the critical conception among students.

Similarly, the continuing 'gap' which students have consistently found between theory and practice (e.g. Russell, 1988) will very probably have limited their access to the critical conception of teaching, because interrelating theory with the assumptions or experience of students stimulates an examination of that theory, a process which may be associated with that critical conception. Hatfield (1984) suggested that theory and practice should be interconnected by bringing teachers and tutors together; the data here suggest that HEI-school partnerships have not been able to do that as often as they may have wanted. On the other hand, teacher-tutor meetings have been supplemented by HEI documentation which has acted as an alternative form of communication, albeit one which is HEI-led. This liaison between HEIs (associated in the data here, as traditionally, with 'theory') and schools (associated with 'practice') has historically been related to increasing the integration of theory and practice (Furlong *et al.*, 1994; Wilkin, 1996a).

In this study, the extent to which students' work with tutors was integrated with their work with teachers was examined, as was the extent to which respondents' work involved relating practice to theory. The data indicated that both these forms of integration were associated only weakly, or at least not in a perfectly linear fashion,

with the critical rather than the technical and interpretive conceptions of teaching. Nevertheless, it seems that the impact of students' understandings of the theory-practice relationship upon their conception of teaching deserves more attention.

The development of school-based ITT has typically been seen as limiting the distinctive, challenging, contribution of HEIs to ITT (e.g. Furlong, 1996) and, by implication, limiting the promotion of the critical conception of teaching. Certainly tutors have less contact with students under these arrangements but, conversely, they do have more contact with teachers. The expertise and confidence of ITT co-ordinators and mentors to challenge (as students cannot) tutors' positions and theories when these are perceived as not closely related to practice, may enable tutors to refine their theories so that they are more grounded in practice. This is merely a suggestive possibility, and there are alternative scenarios. Moore (1994), for example, fears that HEI-school partnership involves a compartmentalisation of rôles which will *decrease* the extent to which theory and practice are integrated. The data in this study do indeed suggest that the differing location and responsibilities of teachers and tutors affects the nature of their contribution to ITT, but the level of integration reported suggests that there is not a widespread compartmentalisation of rôles.

The explanations indicated here for what has been interpreted as notable support for the critical conception of teaching are acknowledged to be merely suggestive. The need for such explanations is reinforced, however, by the broadly similar emphases which will be reported when examining the foci of students' *reflection*. This supports the validity of the data here. On the other hand, the validity of conclusions drawn from a comparison of HEI intentions with the experience of respondents is reduced by the impossibility of placing all references to the types of teaching promoted in the HEI documentation within the framework of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. However, a review of the relevant text in the documentation reaffirmed the reliability of the coding and the validity of the data presented above.

The interpretive and critical conceptions were, therefore, promoted through courses more fully than some might expect in view of the constraining effect of contextual factors, and the increased involvement of teachers in ITT. Concerns about students' over-emphasis on survival and short-termism have been raised (Diamond, 1991), but the data here suggest that ITT courses can transcend simple notions of mastery, and go some way towards establishing a broader understanding of the nature of teaching and learning and even the examination of underlying values characteristic of extended professionalism. Explanations for the 'strength' of the interpretive conception in particular, have referred to the (new) HEI documentation and (more established) practice

of experienced teachers and tutors, and to the potential for school-based courses to enable students to achieve the developmental stage of awareness of the varying needs of pupils and relate experience to at least some forms of theory. It has been suggested that the extent to which the critical conception was promoted is notable, not least because experience indicates it is notoriously difficult to translate into practice.

b)   elements of the technical conception of teaching promoted through teachers' and tutors' contributions to the courses

Each of the three conceptions of teaching as represented above were composites derived from respondents' responses to eight statements which represented distinctive and significant *elements* of teachers' work. Each element was presented in the form of a question to which respondents were asked to respond by allocating nine 'points' between three statements, each representing a conception of teaching. Respondents allocated these points on the basis of the extent to which they promoted each of these conceptions through their contribution to (or, as students, experienced the conceptions through) the courses in these elements of teaching.

The validity of responses was protected in a number of ways described above (pp. 86*ff*.), notably ensuring that the elements of teaching examined a range of significant, meaningful, and different aspects of a teacher's rôle. The arithmetical process used to establish valid data at this overall level meant that the sum of the mean scores ascribed to each element across the conceptions does not necessarily equal nine. The process did not significantly alter the shapes of the profiles of the conceptions from those found in the raw data, which may be taken to support the validity of the analysis.

An example of the questionnaires used is included in Appendix 2, but the questions and those elements associated with the technical conception (italicised) are also set out here to aid interpretation of Chart II-D below. These were:

1. Planning for lessons should be determined by *course objectives*
2. The curriculum should be designed so that *teachers can put it into practice effectively*
3. Teaching is concerned with *the knowledge pupils gain*
4. To support pupils' learning, teachers should *instruct, tell*
5. Teachers improve by developing their *skills in classroom management*
6. Good teaching develops from *knowing what teaching methods are effective*
7. A teacher should think about teaching in order to *develop the techniques of teaching*
8. Education should *enable pupils to get jobs*

Examining which particular elements within a conception were promoted is valuable because it increases our understanding of which particular strands of professionalism

were promoted (and, when examining the experience of respondents, it will give a fuller picture of the nature of teachers' and tutors' differing (or not) contributions. The extent to which elements within the technical conception were perceived to be promoted through ITT courses is reported in Chart II-D below.

Chart II-D:
Elements of the technical conception of teaching promoted through the courses
The courses overall
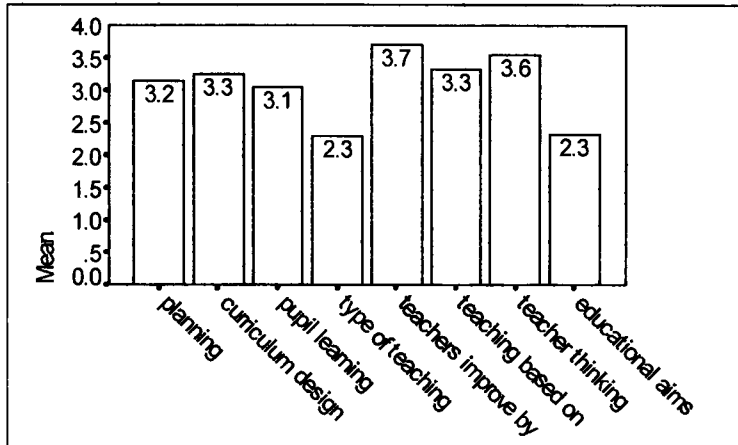
(*N = 1045, 1039, 1047, 1047, 1041, 1044, 1043, 1043 questionnaire responses for the respective elements above*)

The elements of the technical conception of teaching which were promoted to the greatest extent were, in order of magnitude, those numbered 5, 7, 2, and 6 above. This provided some indication that the technical conception of teaching was associated with *teachers'* work in the classroom, and their preparation for this. Thus, teaching skills and techniques (elements 5 and 7) were emphasised more than elements of teaching not directly associated with teachers' work in the classroom, such as the purposes of teaching and pupil learning (elements 8 and 4). The limited emphasis on teachers supporting pupils' learning by instructing and telling them what to do (element 4) may indicate that the technical conception of teaching should not too easily be taken to be as straightforward as would be implied if this element were more strongly represented here. The skills and techniques which were given primacy here may be complex. This reinforces a conclusion drawn from the analysis of the HEI documentation, that it is possible to hold a broadly technical, but not simplistic, conception of teaching.

The primacy accorded to a focus on the work of teachers and their skills here may complement the association of students' teacher-centred perspectives with a focus on classroom management, as found by Bramald *et al.* (1985). These emphases on the skills, techniques and effectiveness of a teacher doubtless also reflected external pressures for the accountability of individual teachers. Smith and Zaniotis (1988) have suggested that the demand that schooling fit the economic order has encouraged an individualistic emphasis on effectiveness in classrooms, which seems to be reflected,

for example, in the value placed upon monitoring and target setting at all levels in schools. A London headteacher has recently been honoured with a CBE for establishing this process within her school (Guardian, 1997), for example.

The analysis here must be somewhat conjectural because there has been no similar empirical work which provides a base with which these data may be compared. Moreover, while the piloting and testing of the statements representing the elements of teaching to ensure their validity and reliability was as thorough as possible (involving interviews as well as analysis of written responses), this lack of similar work capable of providing foundations for the development of these elements must limit the certainty with which conclusions may be drawn at this level of specific detail. It is feasible, for example, that the unique contexts of respondents influenced their responses to the questionnaires in ways not evident in the inherently different contexts of those involved in the testing and piloting of the questionnaires. Further work is therefore needed to test the robustness of the conclusions here. Nevertheless, the association of the technical conception of teaching with classrooms which demand potentially complex, rather than simple, skills of teachers does have a face validity in view of the contextual pressures described above. Also, this emphasis on complex skills and techniques underlies the complementary nature of teachers' rôles as developed in early school-based ITT courses such as the Oxford Internship scheme (Benton, 1990b). Validity is also supported by the data from the HEI documentation, which similarly highlighted skills, effectiveness and teaching objectives as characteristics of the technical conception. The implications of the data here for perceptions of teacher professionalism will be examined further below, but it does suggest that although the nature of professionalism may have changed, this may not have involved the level of deskilling feared by Harris (1997).

c)   elements of the interpretive conception of teaching promoted through teachers' and tutors' contributions to the courses

As explained above, respondents to the questionnaires also reported their involvement in the courses in terms of the interpretive conception of teaching. Analysis of Chart II-E below, which describes the extent to which the particular elements were supported, may be facilitated by the following list of statements representing the interpretive conception in the questionnaires. These have again been italicised and set in the context of the eight elements of teaching:

1. Planning for lessons should be determined by *what will interest pupils*
2. The curriculum should be designed so that *it can be adapted to pupils' interests*
3. Teaching is concerned with *how pupils learn*
4. To support pupils' learning, teachers should *enable, facilitate*

5. Teachers improve by developing their *sensitivity to classroom events*

6. Good teaching develops from *interpreting the experience of teaching*

7. A teacher should think about teaching in order to *clarify what happens when teaching*

8. Education should *bring out pupils' potential*

The relative extent to which these elements representing the interpretive conception of teaching were promoted through ITT courses is set out in Chart II-E below.

Chart II-E:
Elements of the interpretive conception of teaching promoted through the courses
<u>*The courses overall*</u>
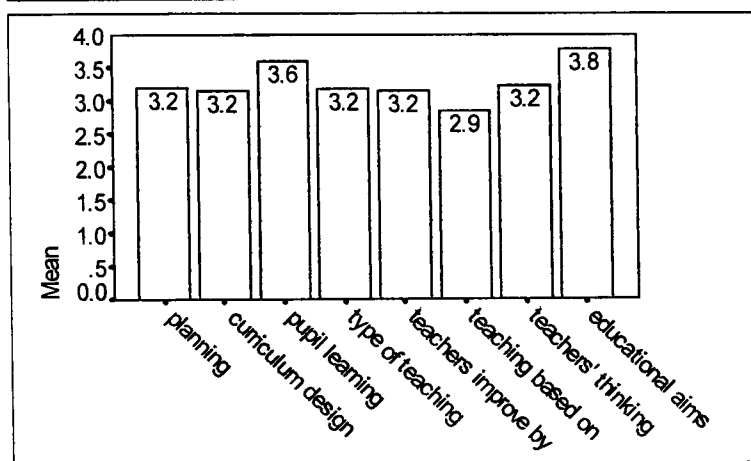
(N = 1045, 1040, 1048, 1050, 1042, 1045, 1042, 1043 questionnaire responses for the respective elements above)

The profile of the interpretive elements of teaching presented here is relatively smooth. There is, perhaps, some indication that the interpretive conception of teaching was strongest when related to what *pupils gain* from education (elements 8 and 3) rather than the narrower one of the *teacher in the classroom* (element 4). The emphasis here is strongest when going beyond that upon the teacher, which was characteristic of the technical conception of teaching.

Also notable, is the extent to which teaching was conceived as concerned with how pupils learn (element 3), despite the *Circular 9/92* competences paying little attention to this. This mirrors concerns found in the HEI documentation, where it was ascribed to the continuing influence of a previously dominant ideology; however, Burn *et al.* (2000) found a similar emphasis on pupil learning in students' thinking about their practice, which they suggest may be encouraged by the nature of contemporary partnership courses.

d)   elements of the critical conception of teaching promoted through teachers' and tutors' contributions to the courses

As before, the statements representing the critical conception of the elements of teaching are listed below to aid interpretation of Chart II-F, which describes the extent each element was promoted through the courses:

1. Planning for lessons should be determined by *what will challenge pupils' views*

2. The curriculum should be designed so that *issues are investigated from different viewpoints*

3. Teaching is concerned with *the ideas pupils consider*

4. To support pupils' learning, teachers should *challenge, question*

5. Teachers improve by developing their *awareness of which values the curriculum supports*

6. Good teaching develops from *examining the nature of what is taught*

7. A teacher should think about teaching in order to *establish how far values e.g. justice are promoted*

8. Education should *help pupils improve their lives*

The extent to which these elements of the critical conception of teaching were promoted through ITT course is shown in Chart II-F below.

Chart II-F:
Elements of the critical conception of teaching promoted through
the courses
The courses overall
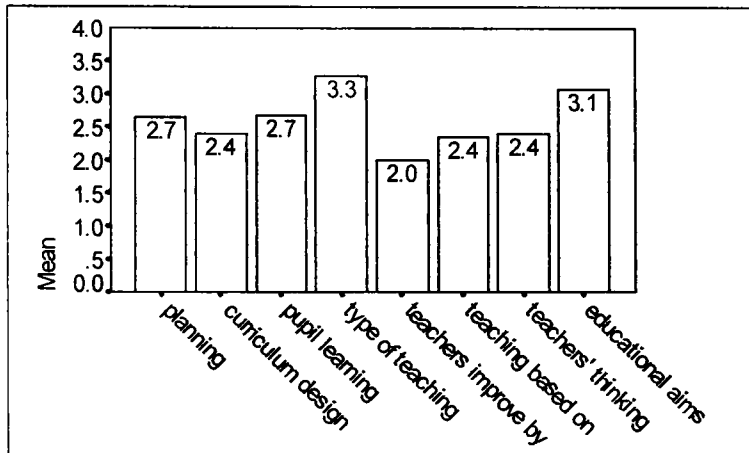
(N = 1045, 1040, 1049, 1049, 1044, 1045, 1042, 1041 questionnaire
responses for the respective elements above)

The profile of the critical conception does not fit a self-evident pattern. It is promoted most extensively through the ways teachers promote pupil learning, as well as in the broader context of educational aims. This seems notable because the critical conception of teaching is complex, and difficult to operationalise. It might reasonably be hypothesised, therefore, that it would have been strongest in elements which left more room for the expression of rhetorical intentions, such as curriculum planning, rather than those which focused more directly on teacher-pupil relations in the classroom.

Conversely, the critical conception was relatively little promoted in elements associated with teacher development (elements 5, 6, 7). In view of the developmental models of teaching described above, in which a critical approach represents an

advanced level of practice, this might seem to indicate limited horizons and a professionalism of apolitical expertise (Avis, 1991b), rather than one in which the problematic nature of teaching is emphasised. This may be particularly important for what it says about the aspirations teachers have for their professional development, as well as the nature of ITT.

This interpretation should, however, be treated cautiously. The statement designed to characterise the critical conception in element 4 may do so imperfectly. The use of two key descriptor words in the statements associated with this element of teaching was found helpful by most respondents in the process by which these statements were developed, tested, and piloted; but it still may be that this use of *two* words clouded the clarity of the representation of the conception, and allowed respondents to pick and choose which of the words they were responding to. Small scale re-testing of these statements did not support this concern, but the possibility remains.

e)   the nature of 'good practice' in students' teaching as promoted through the courses

The data representing the extent to which teachers' and tutors' promoted the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching were supplemented by responses generated by an open question concerned with how the courses had helped students develop *'good practice' in teaching*. Responses were coded in terms of the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching to extend the analysis.

These technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of 'good practice in teaching will be represented in terms of the number of references made by respondents to each conception. As 'good practice' here focuses on *all* the aspects of courses, rather than those associated with the particular rôle of the respondent, it is the raw data which are reported here. It was judged that the focus on the courses *overall* meant that it was not appropriate to apply the arithmetical formula which made allowances for the differing number of respondents in each rôle.

Chart II-G below describes the support for students' development of 'good practice' in terms of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. Clearly, the critical conception of teaching was perceived to have had a minimal rôle here. It is also notable that the extent to which the technical conception was more strongly represented than the interpretive conception of teaching is unusual within this study.

here, however, was just one small part of a relatively long and complex questionnaire, which did not encourage respondents to add a lot of explanatory detail to their comments.

The consideration of these points suggests that the low profile of the critical conception of teaching in Chart II-G above is due to a combination of points 2 and 3. Point 2 in particular also provides a possible explanation why the technical was promoted more than the interpretive conception of teaching: it was a consequence of the nature of the aspect of the courses examined. Nevertheless, the data here are useful in setting the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching within a context of perceptions of 'good practice'. This seems to reinforce the suggestion that the technical conception of teaching was associated with 'practice' more than other aspects of teaching and of the courses generally.

While the context seems to affect the relative extents to which the conceptions of teaching are promoted, examining 'good practice' in teaching in these terms does enrich our understanding of the nature of respondents' experiences of the courses. The data here were therefore analysed to draw out the emphases within each conception, as previously were the data of HEI intentions. This complements the detail of the relative emphases within these conceptions which was drawn by examining the elements of teaching in Charts II-D, II-E and II-F (pp. 162-166 above).

A review of the data coded to represent the technical conception of teaching, revealed an emphasis on *classroom skills*, as was found when examining the HEI documentation and the elements of teaching analysed in the previous Section. It has been suggested that this may in part be due to the form of the question, but it does present a more precise indication of the nature of the skills and techniques emphasised by respondents. Specific skills (such as presentational ones and pacing lessons) and techniques (such as providing pupils with positive feedback) received more emphasis than broader ones (such as time management and organisation). This reinforces the association of the technical conception with the means of directly and immediately affecting practice.

There was certainly also a strong emphasis on *learning through practice* in these data. Within this conception, it was typically characterised in responses by 'trial and error', although there also references to 'experimenting' in which it was clear that there was not believed to be a single 'good' way of teaching. Naturally enough, the emphasis on practical experience was complemented by a high value being placed upon the school location of much of the course. This was sometimes expressed in an anti-HEI way, both by mentors who thought the courses benefited students most "By sending them

into schools to actually learn something" (M5.34)[2], and a student's comment that "You can't learn from books" (S9.9).

School-based placements were valued for many reasons, including the opportunity they presented for students to practice skills and gain confidence in the classroom, and to be treated as "a full-time teacher" (M9.19). The contribution of school-based experiences to students' learning was evident but, typically, was set in the context of the course as being "long enough to learn good and bad practice" (S4.9) rather than as the only meaningful source of learning. Indeed, as will be noted below, the contribution of tutors to developing students' 'good practice' in teaching was more often referred to than that of mentors. Various form of knowledge were referred to, notably of various teaching strategies, but they were not primarily associated with schools as was the process of learning through practical experience. As will be suggested below, the data indicate that the support for students' development of 'good practice' in teaching was provided through a complex interweaving of school-based experiences, contributions by teachers and tutors, and the structure and organisation of the course.

Within the interpretive conception of teaching, a *focus on pupils' learning* rather than just teacher action was by far the strongest strand. It was exemplified by an emphasis on the importance of developing an understanding of how pupils learn, and of the nature of the interaction between classroom teaching and pupil learning. This parallels the emphasis placed on the pupil perspective in the HEI documentation. Despite the classroom focus associated with 'good practice' in students' teaching, seminars (as well as classrooms) were identified by students, teachers and tutors as a source of learning about this perspective.

Similarly, there was here, as in the HEI documentation, an emphasis on the beneficial effects of teaching in a *range* of contexts and of observing a *range* of teaching styles, which could be associated with both 'promoting a diversity of strategies and confidence' (S4.23).

References set within the critical conception of teaching were too few to serve as a sound basis for detailed generalisation, though there was a common concern that teachers should be concerned about issues broader than what 'works'. This was set in the contexts of examining both the values of a teacher and the purposes of teaching.

[2] *Quotations here have been annotated to indicate the rôle of the respondent in the initial letter, 'S' for 'student' etc., and the partnership in which they participated by the number which immediately follows. The final number(s) refer to the particular questionnaire returned.*

f)   the nature of the means used to establish students' achievement of competences

The use of competence frameworks in ITT has generated considerable debate at the philosophical and political levels, but little empirical data. This study examines just one aspect of the use of competences, the means by which students' achievement of these were established. The nature of the data here means that it is not helpful to set the use of competences precisely within the frame of the conceptions of teaching, because it has proved difficult to validly and reliably distinguish between data associated with the interpretive and with the critical conceptions. It is clear, however, that the technical conception was pre-eminent. This limited conclusion can be extended by examining the means by which students' achievement of the competences were established in terms of categories which were inductively derived from the data.

First, it should be noted that a few respondents expressed concern about the nature of the competence frameworks. Typically, such critics regarded addressing these to be a bureaucratic exercise of 'unsuitable reductionist assessment' (T7.6) which was formally completed but kept separate from the 'real', more holistically-based judgements. This may be one reason why Tuson (1996) found that teachers' comments accompanying competence profiles were not always related to the competences themselves.

Most respondents described more than one way by which they established whether students had achieved a competence. Of these, observation was naturally enough the means most often identified, being mentioned by virtually all teachers, and even by some tutors whose rôle did not formally extend to observing students. This observation was usually reported in general terms, but where a specific focus was clear, it may be notable that teacher action was identified just 6 times, while teachers' response to, or relationship with, pupils was referred to in 144 responses There were other widely used means of establishing student achievement of the competences, and these are worth examining because, as Hodkinson and Issitt (1996a) note, the structure of a competence scheme is less important than how it is used. It will be suggested here that bureaucratic procedures are evident, but that the use of these is balanced by, for example, the weight put on information gained through more open means such as discussion.

Some of the criticisms of competence frameworks have been discussed above, but the *Circular 9/92* competences have been credited with making the assessment process more transparent (Moore, 1996) and, at least potentially, more systematic (Furlong, 1995). Certainly the guidance provided in the HEI documentation examined here was more detailed than that which was typical only a few years ago. This seemingly increased transparency and systematisation of assessing students may be reflected in the range of means used by teachers and tutors to establish student achievement of a

competence. Observation of teaching may retain primacy, but documents and inter-personal sources were also referred to extensively in the data.

Overall, there were slightly more references to documentary-based means of establishing students' achievement of competences than to the various forms of classroom observation used. Various forms of inter-personal sources, such as discussions, were referred to approximately one third as often. The number of references to means other than classroom observation is less surprising than it may seem because the elements under three of the five headings of the competence criteria in *Circular 9/92*, Subject Knowledge, Assessment and Recording of Pupils' Progress, and Further Professional Development, are not set within the classroom or described in the form of *activities* which need to be observed. Moreover, where the HEIs added their own competences to the frameworks used, these were expressed in terms of personal qualities or processes, which again were not susceptible to assessment through classroom observation. The *documentary*-based means of assessment are described in Chart II-H below. The nature of the categories used is briefly described in the following list:

1. students' lesson plans
2. student file: i.e. general record of their work kept in their file
3. profile: of a students development including, but broader than, the specific competences
4. competence matrix: e.g. a tick-list of the competences
5. students' written assignments
6. students' self-evaluation of lessons
7. other written work by students
8. pupils' written work
9. written report from another teacher

Chart II-H:
Document-based means of assessment of students' achievement of competences
<u>*The courses overall*</u>
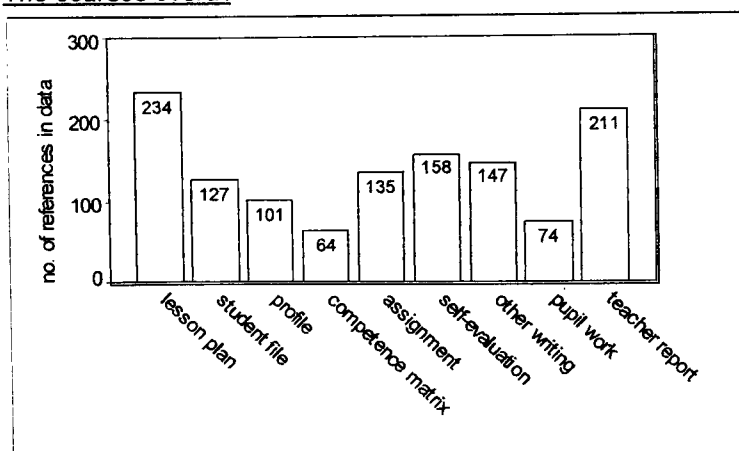
(*N = 1012 questionnaire responses*)

Although observation of students' classroom teaching was the predominant means of assessment, there evidently was extensive use of a range of documentary sources of information. Over two thirds of respondents reported using one or more of these to establish students' achievement of competences.

The relatively large number of references to lesson plans is to be expected, because lesson plans were themselves a focus in the *Circular 9/92* competence framework, and were a means of access to students' achievements in many other areas. The references to students' self-evaluation reflect the emphasis on student autonomy found in the HEI documentation; indeed, the data there suggest that students would also have had a significant rôle in presenting evidence of their achievement of competences through the development of student profiles, the competence matrices and the record of their work within student files. These forms of organising and recording students' past work are distinctive, which is why they have been categorised separately, but they do overlap and the particular form used depended largely upon the procedures agreed by the HEI-school partnership. Collectively, they evidence a somewhat bureaucratic strand within the assessment process. Counter-emphases are, however, indicated by the references here to pupils' work and students' written work, and in the means of assessment based on *interpersonal* sources such as discussion, the categories of which are listed here and set out in Chart II-I below:

1. discussion with student
2. verbal assurance by student
3. student contribution to seminar
4. evidence of reading by student
5. student involvement in school beyond the subject department: e.g. in extra-curricular activities
6. student attitude
7. student confidence
8. teacher-teacher discussion
9. teacher-tutor discussion
10. knowing the student: i.e. knowledge gained through general observation and contact

Chart II-I:
Inter-personal-based means of assessment of students'
achievement of competences
The courses overall
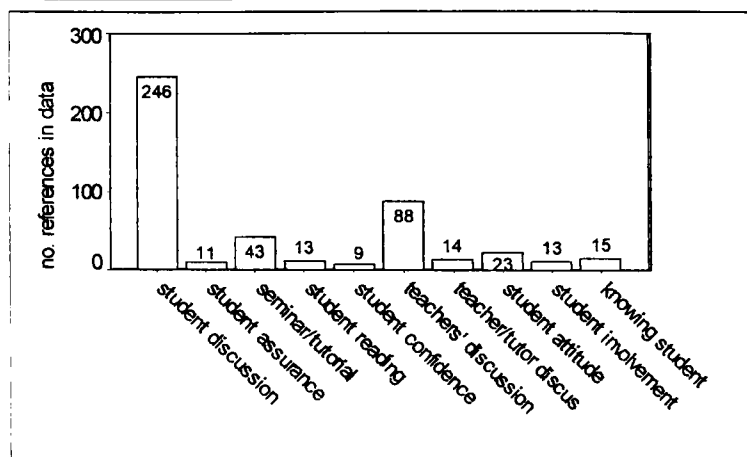
(N = 1012 questionnaire responses)

The weight of references to *discussion* limits the extent to which assessment should be presented as a technicist process. Moreover, the openness inherent in discussion was supplemented by the subjective nature of some of the other judgements made, such as students' attitude, confidence and involvement in whole school affairs. This may have potentially promoted the interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching more than did the use of documents, but supports McSharry and Reid's (1997) contention that systematic use of the competences is not possible in practice.

Finally, it is notable both here and in the use of some forms of the documents described above, that *indirect* means of assessing students' achievement of competences were also used. Assessment via student evaluations and assurances, for example, may raise questions about monitoring the quality of the process.

ii.   The perspective of teachers, tutors and students

The conceptions of teaching promoted through the courses overall, and in the specific contexts of support for students' 'good practice' in teaching and the means by which students' achievement of competences were accepted, will now be examined from the perspective of each rôle set of respondents. The work of the ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors providing the courses will be examined first, with the data from students representing the perspective of those 'receiving' the course. This presents an opportunity to examine the student perspective both in its own terms and as a means of triangulation with the data from those teachers and tutors contributing to the course. Data from students have, however, been included in all the charts to provide as full a view of the course as possible.

a)   the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching promoted through teachers' and tutors' contributions to the courses

ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors had differing perspectives of the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for courses, and this distinctiveness is also evidenced in the profile of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching they promoted through those courses. Chart II-J below shows that those who worked with students most closely in the classroom, i.e. mentors, made the greatest contribution to the technical, and less to the interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. Conversely, tutors were distinctive in promoting the critical and interpretive conceptions more, and the technical conception of teaching less than teachers. The contribution of ITT co-ordinators was, for each conception, set between that of mentors and tutors.

Chart II-J:
Conceptions of teaching promoted through the courses
The contributions of teachers and tutors
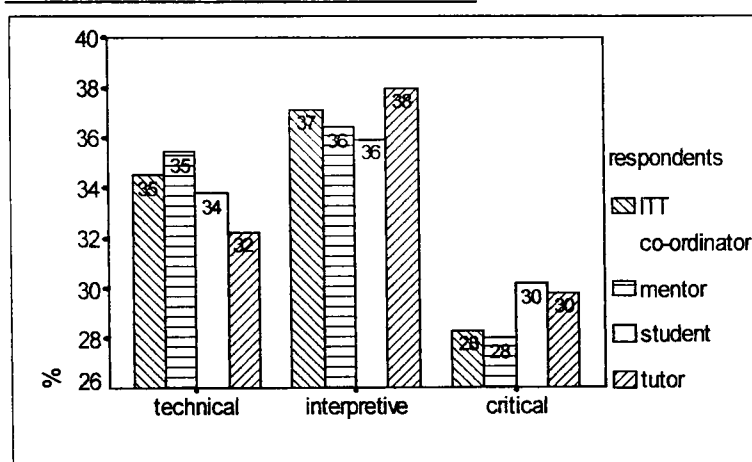
(N = 161, 350, 415, 86 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

The statistical significance of the differences in which the various respondent rôles promoted the conceptions of teaching was established by using the Kruskal-Wallis test appropriate for non-parametric data (see p. 83 above). Table II-A below describes the statistical significance of the variation between ITT co-ordinators and others contributing to courses (i.e. mentors and tutors). Variation across all the respondent rôles has been reported to contextualise comparisons between particular rôles, upon which the discussion has focused. As before, statistically significant variation of .05 (or greater) has been indicated by the use of bold italicised type.

Table II-A:
Variation in the extent to which the conceptions of teaching were promoted through the courses
The contributions of teachers and tutors

conceptions of teaching	statistical significance of variation between			
	all rôles	ITT co-ordinators &		mentors & tutors
		mentors	tutors	
technical	.0000	.2711	.0074	.0002
interpretive	.0001	.1994	.2175	.0150
critical	.0000	.6879	.0072	.0014

(N = questionnaire responses from 161 ITT co-ordinators; 350 mentors; 86 tutors; 1011 for all respondents)

The extent to which the data varied across all the respondent rôles was statistically significant, although it was greater between mentors and tutors than between mentors and ITT co-ordinators, as Table II-A above confirms. The rôle of mentors was set primarily within the relatively narrow and specific context of the classroom. This may be at least part of the explanation for why their contribution differed from that of ITT co-ordinators and, especially, tutors. The relatively limited support for the critical conception indicated here may provide empirical support for the concerns of Elliott and Calderhead (1993), who suggested that this was an inherent and limiting characteristic of mentoring. This point may be extended to mentors' relatively limited support for the interpretive conception of teaching. Alternatively, as will be discussed below, these differences may be seen as relatively limited in absolute terms, and relate more to mentors' location and responsibilities rather than an inability to promote a critical conception of teaching.

The relatively high level of tutors' support for the *interpretive* conception may have been due to the breadth of their experience and views of teaching, as described by Furlong *et al.* (1988) and referred to in the documentation of number of the HEIs examined here. This breadth would tend to support tutors' awareness and understanding of the *range* of contextual factors (elements associated with the interpretive conception) which affect teaching, and have influenced their contribution to the course. The association of this conception with broader views and experience of teaching is supported by the fact that ITT co-ordinators also made a relatively great contribution to the interpretive conception, and typically had a broad view of teaching by virtue of the length of their teaching experience, the nature of their other school responsibilities, and of their ITT rôle in the partnership.

The variation between mentors and ITT co-ordinators has been discussed above when examining the contribution of ITT co-ordinators, so comparisons here will focus on mentors and tutors. The variation in their contribution to the conceptions of teaching is statistically significant and, indeed, is greater than that between any other rôle set of contributors to the course. This could be interpreted as highlighting a distinction between teachers (promoting a deprofessionalised technical form of training) and tutors (representing teaching as a complex interaction between the teacher and multi-dimensional contexts and as involving a critical approach which is characteristic of extended forms of professionalism). A barely caricatured extension of this outline would characterise the development of school-based ITT as directed by a radical New Right determined to neuter Marxian teacher trainers hell-bent on making everyone equal. Of course, caricatures can be a skilful and revealing dramatisation of a truth. Succeeding sections of this study will indicate that students' work with tutors

was associated with the critical conception of examining teaching from a moral, social or political viewpoint, and reflecting upon how pupils learn the values underlying, and the social and political context of, teaching. From this perspective, school-based ITT may be associated with a restricted form of professionalism.

An alternative interpretation of the data is possible. Tutors promoted the *technical* conception of teaching significantly less than did ITT co-ordinators and mentors, yet even this level may seem surprising in view of tutors' distance from schools and their historic association with a critical approach to teaching. Explanations are implicitly proffered by Kelly (1993) and McNamara (1996), who suggested that the competency movement has undermined the academic tradition in universities, while tutors' work has been found to be school-focused (Furlong *et al.,* 1995) and concerned with training rather than education (Smith, 2000). It is also possible that tutors' support for utilitarian, practical, concerns has taken up a larger proportion of the limited time available under *Circular 9/92* for their work with students. As transcending the technical conception of teaching may, in part at least, depend upon external stimuli, the emphasis on independent student learning evident in the HEI documentation examined here may also be a factor - because 'independence' may isolate students and reduce their experience of such challenges. The reduced staffing of HEI courses may have had a similar effect.

Moreover, Bridges D. (1996) has drawn attention to staffing changes within HEIs which have led to many tutors not being actively involved in research. Empirical support for questioning whether tutors do support extended forms of professionalism so much more than teachers is provided by John's (1995) association of school-based ITT with a delivery mode of pedagogy by tutors, whose rôle has increasingly become that of an ambassador (Dunne and Dunne, 1993b) or guide (Burton, 1995) facilitating teachers in their work with students, but themselves working as generalists (Furlong, *et al.* 1996a) rather than using the depth and breadth of their knowledge to promote a critical approach to teaching. On the other hand, long established references to the limited integration of theory and practice (NUT, 1969), and to only the most able students showing an understanding of theory in their practice (HMI, 1988a) may suggest that the halcyon days of students developing critically-based practice are as mythical as are most 'golden ages'. The data here may, therefore, exemplify these concerns and indicate that tutors promoted conceptions of teaching which, in absolute terms, are not so very different from those of teachers, especially when set in the context of a literature which tends to emphasise the distinctiveness of the mentoring and tutoring rôles.

Part of the difference between the contributions of mentors and tutors as reported here may be due more to differences in the rôles and responsibilities ascribed to them by the HEI-school partnership than to the limited potential of mentors' contribution to ITT. The contribution of ITT co-ordinators relative to mentors and tutors supports this explanation. ITT co-ordinators were less responsible than mentors for students' classroom-based work, and more so than tutors. This is reflected in the respective contributions these rôles made to the technical conception of teaching, which seems to be associated with classroom teaching generally, and classroom-based skills in particular. Similarly, ITT co-ordinators worked with students in broader, whole school, contexts than did mentors. While the breadth of tutors' experience and responsibilities greater still due to their work across many schools.

Detailed analysis of the contributions made to the elements of teaching by teachers and tutors, to students' development of 'good practice' in teaching, and the means by which students' achievement of competences was established supports this emphasis, as will be seen below. For example, there does seem to be an association between work involving theory (for which tutors were invariably responsible) and the critical conception of teaching. This emphasis on the significance of the rôle rather than knowledge of participants supports McIntyre's (1995) defence of the complementary teacher/tutor rôles as developed in the Oxford Internship Scheme against those derived from the 'levels of theory' approach advocated by Furlong *et al.* (1988) and Hirst (1990).

Judgements here are somewhat subjective, but it seems reasonable to conclude that the commonplace contrast between mentors promoting a reductionist form of ITT (Harris, 1997) which involves technical training and minimal critical thought (Wright and Bottery, 1997), and tutors providing a critical stance (Furlong, 1996), may have been overdone. This seems true even at this overall level of analysis, and is supported in more detail when the practice of mentors and tutors is contrasted at the level of individual partnerships (see pp. 198*ff.* below); this reveals signs of the 'alternative professionalism' in which Woods (1996) has seen a reaffirmation of concern with the principles which underpin practice.

Less subjectively, it may be suggested that the data here have the potential to influence the agenda for continuing mentor support and training. For example, it might be thought desirable to encourage students to focus on pupil learning, which may be described as a developmentally advanced stage of student learning (e.g. Furlong and Maynard, 1995). An effective means to do so would be to focus support and training on mentors, who this study has found to provide relatively limited support for the interpretive conception of teaching.

Turning to the experience of students, they were distinctive in believing that the technical and interpretive conceptions were promoted less, and the critical more, than teachers or tutors suggested. In Chart II-K below, the data from students have been set against that which represents teachers and tutors collectively. This has the benefit of highlighting the distinction between the teachers and tutors who 'provided' the course, and the students who experienced it.

Chart II-K:
Conceptions of teaching promoted through the courses
The perspective of students
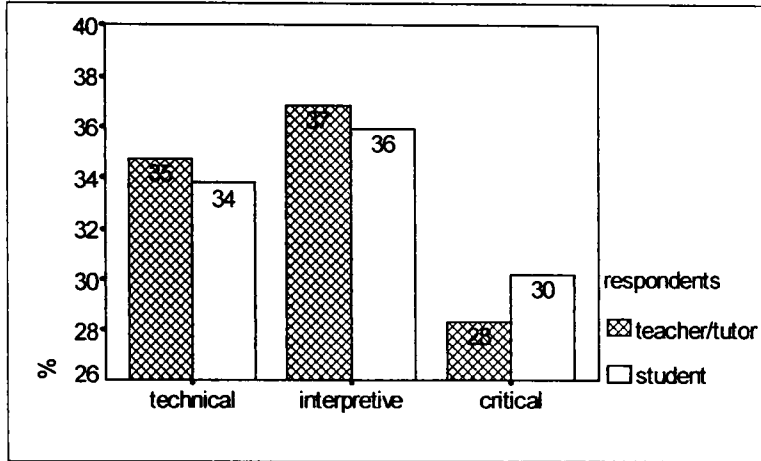
(N = 596, 415, questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

The distinctiveness of the data from students represents a mismatch with that from teachers and tutors The fact that perceived course 'inputs' were not recognised as course 'outputs' requires explanation, particularly as this variation is shown in Table II-B below to be statistically significant.

Table II-B:
Variation in the extent to which the conceptions of teaching were promoted through the courses
The perspective of students

conceptions of teaching	statistical significance of variation between	
	all rôles	students & teachers/tutors
technical	.0000	.0078
interpretive	.0001	.0001
critical	.0000	.0000

(N = questionnaire responses from 596 teachers/tutors, 415 students)

The relatively extensive degree to which students perceived the critical conception to be promoted seems to be open to two sorts of explanation. First, there is a well-established range of evidence, reviewed by Bramald *et al* (1985), that students' perceptions of a course are affected by the views they hold when starting that course. Thus, the extent to which students believed teachers and tutors promoted the critical conception may be exaggerated by their initial 'common sense' perspective of teaching in which practical skills (rather than a critical perspective) are emphasised

(Lortie, 1975; Denscombe, 1986). This analysis complements previous references to the developmental nature of students' learning.

Second, in an alternative perspective, school-based ITT enables students to recognise the importance of issues associated with the critical conception of teaching, such as social and individual differences (Field, 1994d). Thus it has been suggested that students are able to pick from contradictory course elements to maintain key aspects of their own ideology (Ginsburg, 1988) which has not yet been socialised into the ways of schools (Lacey, 1977). This explanation, however, *allows* rather than positively *explains* the lack of triangulation in the data. This point will be discussed in more detail when examining the elements within the critical conception.

This leaves students' perception of a relatively low level of support for the interpretive conception of teaching to be explained. It has been suggested previously in this study that students' understanding of contextual differences is an indicator of the level of their development as student learners. If so, the promotion of the interpretive conception by teachers and tutors will not always have been recognised as such by even the more 'developed' students. All teachers know that they teach more than is learnt. This explanation has the advantage of complementing the reference to students' initial 'common sense' perspective made when discussing the high level of support for the critical conception of teaching they perceived in the course.

Examining the contribution of respondents at the more specific level of the *elements* within each of the conceptions of teaching adds some useful detail to the picture. The results may inform our understanding of how specific areas of responsibility may affect the form of teacher professionalism promoted through courses. The mean figures presented in Chart II-L below represent the 'scores' allocated to each of the elements; respondents allocated nine points between the three conceptions in relation to each of these elements (see Appendix 2, pp. 330*ff*. below). The wording of the elements has been detailed above, and so is repeated here only when commented upon.

As can be seen in Chart II-L below, the profile of the contribution of ITT co-ordinators across the elements was very similar to that of mentors and tutors. More significant variation is evident typically between mentors and tutors, as was seen when examining their contributions to the conceptions of teaching overall.

Chart II-L:
Elements of the technical conception of teaching promoted through the courses
The contributions of teachers and tutors
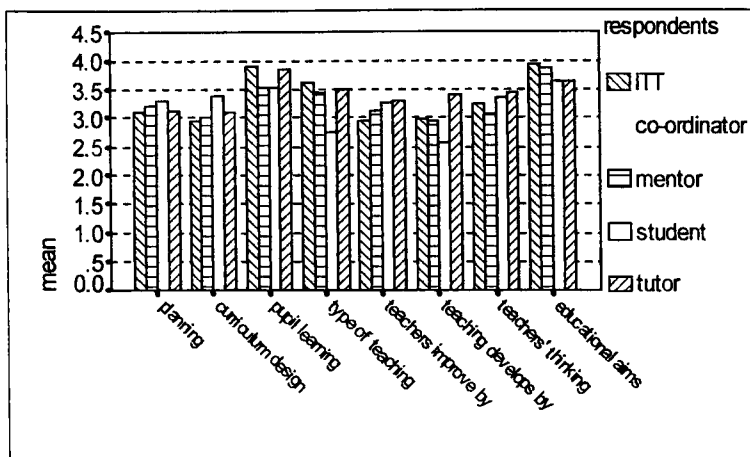
(N = 167-169, questionnaire responses from ITT co-ordinators, 359-364 from mentors and 90-93 from tutors to the respective elements above)

Close examination of the data does reveal, however, some patterns which may be indicative of the nature of participant rôles in ITT and deserve further research. In relation to elements of teaching where the focus was relatively *distant* from the classroom, that is those emphasising the importance of course objectives in *lesson planning* and the *educational aim* of enabling pupils to get jobs, mentors made a relatively *lesser* contribution to the technical conception of teaching than when addressing elements more directly focused on the classroom. Here, by contrast, tutors promoted elements within the technical conception to a relatively greater extent. Where the elements were more *closely* related to the classroom, such as the forms of *pupil learning*, how *teachers improve by* developing classroom skills, the purpose of *teacher thinking*, and how good *teaching develops by* knowing what teaching methods are effective, tutors promoted the technical conception of teaching to a relatively lesser extent. Table II-C below confirms that variation was significant between tutors and both ITT co-ordinators and, especially, mentors.

Table II-C:
Variation in the extent to which elements within the technical conception of teaching were promoted through the courses
The contributions of teachers and tutors

elements within the technical conception	statistical significance of variation between			
	all rôles	ITT co-ordinators &		mentors & tutors
		mentors	tutors	tutors
planning	.0522	.1767	.3850	.8568
curriculum design	.0000	.6965	.0164	.0021
pupil learning	.0000	.0005	.1103	.0000
type of teaching	.0152	.5011	.6121	.2658
teachers improve by	.0000	.7610	.0001	.0000
teaching develops by	.0000	.8159	.0004	.0001
teachers' thinking	.0000	.0951	.0044	.0000
educational aims	.0000	.9430	.0686	.0570

(N = 167-169, questionnaire responses from ITT co-ordinators, 359-364 from mentors and 90-93 from tutors to the respective elements above)

Tutors promoted the technical conception of teaching less that did teachers across all of the elements of teaching. The consistency of this variation reinforces the case for the distinctiveness of tutors' contribution to ITT. Like tutors, the elements through which ITT co-ordinators made a relatively large contribution to the technical conception were characterised by a focus distant from the classroom; where their contribution was relatively less, the element was more directly related to classroom practice. As the rôle of ITT co-ordinators was concerned primarily with whole school rather than classroom issues, this may suggest that the technical conception took a larger place in these core responsibilities than it did in other areas of the courses, to which ITT co-ordinators made a complementary, rather than leading, contribution.

Examining the elements of teaching within the technical conception thus adds to the evidence that participants' contributions to courses may be shaped by the nature of their rôles and responsibilities. Categories of 'teacher' and 'tutor' alone tell only part of the story. Moreover, one interpretation suggested above may inform the debate about the effects of introducing school-based ITT. Mentors' emphasis on the technical conception of teaching may derive from their core classroom-focused responsibilities rather than an inherent attachment to the technical conception of teaching. A lot of attention has been given to the issue of *with whom* students work, i.e. the effects of students working with teachers rather than tutors; but it may be that the *focus* of their work, as established in their responsibilities and the HEI documentation, deserves more attention. This analysis has moved into conjecture, yet may deserve closer study because conclusions here may inform the development of school-based ITT courses, as well as increasing our understanding of them.

Interestingly, students' perspective differed from that of teachers and tutors, as Chart II-M below shows.

Chart II-M:
Elements of the technical conception of teaching promoted
through the courses:
The perspective of students
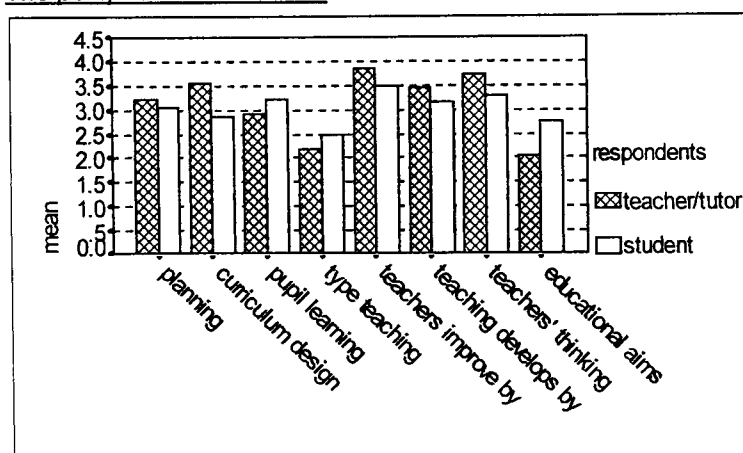
(N = 423, 420, 423, 420, 418, 420, 423, 421 questionnaire responses from students to the respective elements above)

The elements within the technical conception of teaching which students perceived to have been promoted more than teachers and tutors indicated were those in which there was a focus on pupils at the general level of *educational aims*, as well as abstract ones of *pupil learning* and the *type of teaching* which supports pupil learning. Conversely, those elements characterised by a focus on what teachers do in the classroom, i.e. effective implementation of *curriculum design*, *teacher thinking* about teaching techniques, how *teachers improve by* developing their classroom skills and good *teaching develops by* knowing which methods are effective, were reported by teachers and tutors to be promoted more than was perceived by students. Table II-D below shows that the variation here was statistically significant in all the elements.

Table II-D:
Variation in the extent to which elements within the technical conception of teaching were promoted through the courses.
<u>*The perspective of students*</u>

elements within the technical conception	statistical significance of variation between	
	all rôles	students & teachers/tutors
planning	.0522	.0163
curriculum design	.0000	.0000
pupil learning	.0000	.0000
type of teaching	.0152	.0024
teachers improve by	.0000	.0000
teaching develops by	.0000	.0000
teachers' thinking	.0000	.0000
educational aims	.0000	.0000

(N = 423, 420, 423, 420, 418, 420, 423, 421 questionnaire responses from students to the respective elements above)

This lack of triangulation between those providing and those experiencing courses requires explanation. It seems very possible that the differing perspectives derived from the developmental nature of students' learning, as suggested previously. Students' awareness of pupils' varying characteristics and needs typically increases over time. Thus, they tended to set issues relating to pupils at the broad levels described above within the more closed technical conception of teaching. The elements focusing on teachers may be divided into two sorts. The more straightforward to deal with are those which focused on lesson planning and curriculum design; here, students showed placed less emphasis on the need to work within given frameworks. This may reflect the flexibility they are given during their training, or a limited awareness of the external constraints upon teachers. Students also found the technical conception to be promoted less than teachers and tutors suggested when looking to the future, that is the process and nature of teacher improvement, and the underlying purpose of their thinking about teaching. Close analysis of the data suggests that this may represent a concern to understand the nature of events, with less emphasis on developing the particular skills and techniques characteristic of the technical conception. This may

reflect a stage in students' development in that they need to develop their 'knowledge-in-action' before they are able to recognise the impact of the teacher action which more experienced teachers intuitively know is appropriate. The data here therefore reveal a gap between students and those contributing to the courses which, like any such difference, has the potential to make it less likely that students' development on courses is maximised. Addressing this issue may, therefore, increase the effectiveness of a course. This is, in effect, a dimension of partnership, and one which merits further research for specific and practical as well as broader theoretical reasons.

Turning to elements within the *interpretive* conception of teaching, the profile of data from tutors, as shown in Chart II-N below, is again distinctive when compared with ITT co-ordinators and, particularly, mentors.

Chart II-N:
Elements of the interpretive conception of teaching promoted through the courses:
<u>*The contributions of teachers and tutors*</u>
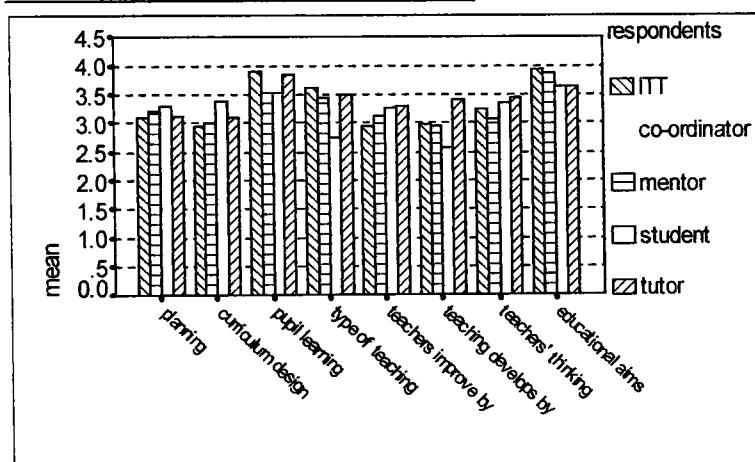
(N = 167-170 questionnaire responses from ITT co-ordinators, 359-364 from mentors, 90-93 from tutors to the respective elements above)

The contribution of tutors was relatively greater in those elements more directly associated with a focus on the *professional development* of teachers; that is those of good *teaching develops by* interpreting the experience of teaching, *teachers improve by* developing their sensitivity to classroom events, and *teacher thinking* about what happens when teaching. Conversely, they contributed relatively less to the element of *educational aims*, which related to pupils and was set in a broader context. Where the focus was on pupils in the classroom context, as in lesson *planning* to interest pupils, *curriculum design* to meet pupils interests, and the *types of teaching* to support pupil learning, the variation between these rôles was not statistically significant. The distinctive nature of tutors' contribution may be due to a breadth of their responsibilities and experience. This parallels, as we shall see, the relatively great value tutors placed on reflection and evaluation, which was associated in the HEI documentation with teachers' continuing professional development.

ITT co-ordinators made a greater contribution to those elements within the interpretive conception which focused on pupils, such as enabling *pupils' learning,* and the *type of teaching* which focused on how pupils learn. This may reflect the breadth of ITT co-ordinators' experience and responsibilities in relation to a wide range of pupils. The nature of respondents' institutional locations and responsibilities supports this interpretation, and statistically significant variation is apparent in this limited number of elements, as Table II-E below indicates.

Table II-E:
Variation in the extent to which elements within the interpretive conception of teaching were promoted through the courses
The contributions of teachers and tutors

elements within the interpretive conception	statistical significance of variation between			
	all rôles	ITT co-ordinators &		mentors &
		mentors	tutors	tutors
lesson planning	.1702	.2566	.7332	.5419
curriculum design	*.0000*	.6804	.4866	.6194
pupil learning	*.0025*	*.0032*	.9511	*.0077*
type of teaching	*.0000*	*.0315*	.2081	.6500
teachers improve by	*.0007*	*.0275*	*.0018*	.0964
teaching develops by	*.0000*	.8511	*.0001*	*.0000*
teachers' thinking	*.0002*	.0702	.0702	*.0003*
educational aims	*.0019*	.8050	.0543	*.0142*

(N = 167-170 questionnaire responses from ITT co-ordinators, 359-364 from mentors, 90-93 from tutors to the respective elements above)

Turning again to the perspective of students, this again differed from that of those providing the course. Chart II-O below indicates that students highlighted interpretive elements which emphasised the importance of pupil interest in what is taught through *curriculum design* and lesson *planning.* Sensitivity to what happens in classrooms was further reflected in the focus on *teacher thinking,* and how *teachers improve.*

Chart II-O:
Elements of the interpretive conception of teaching promoted through the courses:
The perspective of students
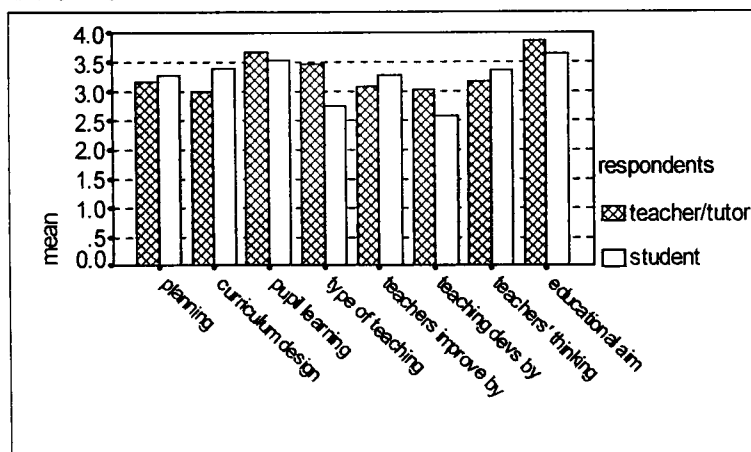
(N = 423, 420, 423, 423, 419, 421, 421, 421; questionnaire responses from students to the respective elements above)

However, where the focus was at the more general level of *educational aims*, or on teachers (*how teachers develops*, and *types of teaching*), students reported interpretive elements were promoted to a lesser extent than teachers and tutors indicated. Table II-F below shows that variation was statistically significant in all but one of these elements.

Table II-F
Variation in the extent to which elements within the interpretive conception of teaching were promoted through the courses.
The perspective of students

elements within the interpretive conception	statistical significance of variation between	
	all rôles	students & teachers/tutors
planning	.1702	.0566
curriculum design	*.0000*	*.0000*
pupil learning	*.0025*	.1584
type of teaching	*.0000*	*.0000*
teachers improve by	*.0007*	*.0065*
teaching develops by	*.0000*	*.0000*
teachers' thinking	*.0002*	*.0073*
educational aims	*.0019*	*.0021*

(N = 423, 420, 423, 423, 419, 421, 421, 421; questionnaire responses from students to the respective elements above)

The distinctiveness of students' responses may reflect the impact classroom events had upon them. Lacking the intuitive knowledge of experience teachers, students seem to be especially aware of variation here, and receptive to emphases on the need to be sensitive and responsive to these.

Turning to the *critical* conception of teaching, ITT co-ordinators and, especially, tutors promoted to a relatively greater extent those elements which focused on the broad level of the curriculum (i.e. curriculum design, how teachers improve and, to an extent, teacher thinking) rather than upon classrooms events or pupils. It is also interesting that promoting the critical conception of teaching in those areas closest to pupils and the classroom is problematic. This has implications for the profile and impact of extended forms of professionalism. Chart II-P below presents the profile of the data here.

Chart II-P:
Elements of the critical conception of teaching promoted through
*the courses:*
<u>*The contribution of teachers and tutors*</u>
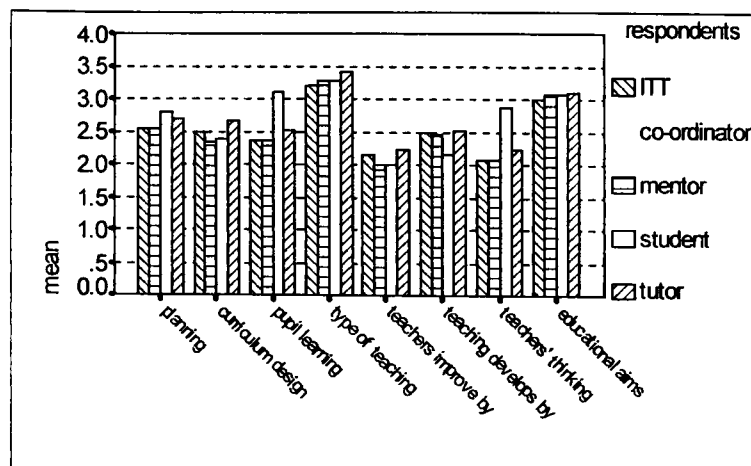
(N = 167-170 questionnaire responses from ITT co-ordinators, 159-163
from mentors, 90-93 from tutors to the respective elements above)

There is limited statistically significant variation between the contributions of the respondent rôles, as Table II-G below shows. This should induce some caution in the extent to which we emphasise the distinctively critical contribution tutors make to ITT.

Table II-G:
Variation in the extent to which elements within the critical conception of
teaching were promoted the courses
<u>*The contributions of teachers and tutors*</u>

elements within the critical conception	statistical significance of variation between			
	all rôles	ITT co-ordinators &		mentors &
		mentors	tutors	tutors
lesson planning	*.0171*	.9921	.1779	1772
curriculum design	*.0152*	.3817	*.0283*	*.0013*
pupil learning	*.0000*	.4706	.0690	.1340
type of teaching	.3402	.2304	.0520	.2579
teachers improve by	*.0380*	.1319	.1516	*.0046*
teaching develops by	*.0000*	.5664	.3784	.5956
teachers' thinking	*.0000*	.9376	.1026	.0917
educational aims	.8120	.8613	.3967	.3569

(N = 168, 168, 170, 169, 169, 167, 167, 168 questionnaire responses from ITT co
ordinators, 159-163 from mentors, 90-93 from tutors to the respective elements above)

Table II-G above underlines the suggestive rather than conclusive nature of the analysis here. This is, however, strengthened by the fact that other data (representing the nature of students' work with teachers and tutors, and the foci of reflection upon which they place most importance) similarly associate tutors with broadly focused work. It is also interesting that promoting the critical conception of teaching in those areas closest to pupils and the classroom seems to be problematic. This has, of course, implications for the profile and impact of extended forms of teacher professionalism.

Turning to students, they perceived those elements of *pupil learning, teachers' thinking* and *planning* which focused on *pupils' ideas and values* to be promoted to a relatively greater extent, as shown in Chart II-Q below.

Chart: II Q:
Elements of the critical conception of teaching promoted through the courses:
<u>*The perspective of students*</u>
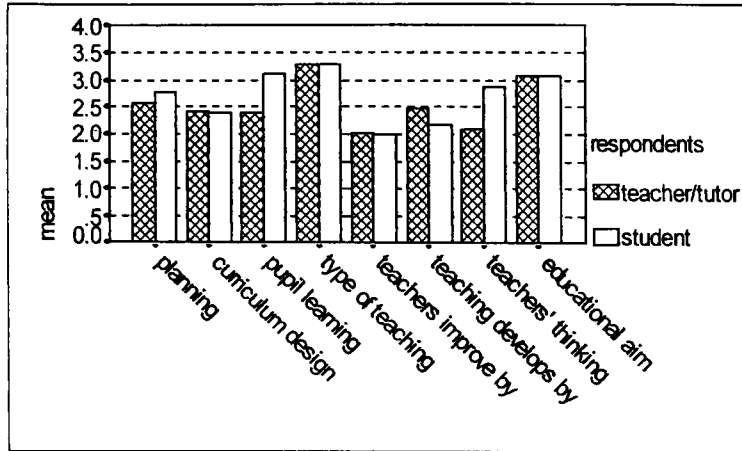
(N = 423, 420, 423, 423, 421, 421, 421, 419 questionnaire responses from students to the respective elements above)

The developmental nature of students' learning may again be an explanatory factor here. The references to pupils' values and ideas may have had relatively greater impact upon the students' conceptions of teaching evidenced above because they were close enough to the classroom to be recognised as 'important', yet set at a sufficiently general level to allow implementation to seem an achievable ideal. Conversely, elements such as *curriculum design* and *educational aims* may have been perceived as too distant from students' classroom practice for them to have much impact, and so were reported to be promoted to a relatively lesser extent. The nature of the elements means it is difficult to distinguish between the elements neatly on the basis of their closeness to the classroom, which may help to explain why the variation between the data from students and the teacher/tutor contributors to the courses was not always statistically significant, as can be seen in Table II-H below.

Table II-H:
Variation in the extent to which elements within the critical conception of teaching were promoted through teachers' and tutors' contributions to the courses
<u>*The perspective of students*</u>

	statistical significance of variation between	
elements within the critical conception	all rôles	students & teachers/tutors
planning	*.0171*	*.0040*
curriculum design	*.0152*	.5110
pupil learning	*.0000*	*.0000*
type of teaching	.3402	.9784
teachers improve by	*.0380*	.9624
teaching develops by	*.0000*	*.0000*
teachers' thinking	*.0000*	*.0000*
educational aims	.8120	.8739

(N = 423, 420, 423, 423, 421, 421, 421 419, questionnaire responses from students to the respective elements above)

Nevertheless, the value of *distance from the classroom* as an explanatory factor in enhanced by the way it complements previous emphases on the effect of the developmental nature of students' learning. It may, therefore, indicate that the high level of support for the critical conception overall, as perceived by students, could be due more to the developing perspectives of students than to their ability to maintain a pre-existing critical ideology by selecting supportive aspects from a disparate set of course elements.

b)   the nature of 'good practice' in students' teaching as promoted through the courses

Moving on to the more specific context of students' development of 'good practice' in teaching, this was supported most often through means associated with a technical conception. The profile of the data from the respondent rôles may be explained by how closely they worked with students in classrooms. Thus, Chart II-R below shows that teachers, especially mentors, placed greatest emphasis on the technical conception of teaching, which has been associated with classroom skills and learning through practice.

Chart II-R:
The technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching promoted through the courses' development of 'good practice' in students' teaching:
The perspective of teaches and tutors
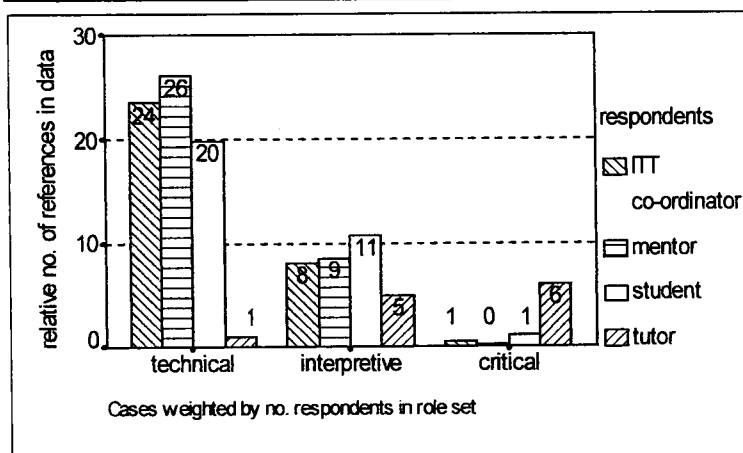
(N = 158, 337, 398, 92 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

In contrast to their contribution to the conceptions of teaching generally, mentors' promoted the interpretive conception here *more* than did ITT co-ordinators or tutors. Closer analysis of the responses suggests that this was because mentors often referred to the value of becoming aware of the varying nature of pupils individually and collectively in classes. This focus on pupils encouraged an awareness of contexts associated with the interpretive conception, but was less evident in the data from tutors, whose location distanced them from the experience of working with pupils. Mentors' emphasis on pupils complements their contribution to the interpretive

elements of teaching, as set out in Chart II-R above, and indicates how an awareness of pupils' interests may interact with an emphasis on teachers' sensitivity in planning and classroom management to promote the interpretive conception of teaching. This reinforces suggestions that mentors may help to extend students' professionalism. Tutors made relatively more few responses here, so the analysis must be treated cautiously, but it is notable that they highlighted the critical conception of teaching far more than did teachers.

Students associated 'good practice' in teaching with the technical conception of teaching even more strongly than did teachers and tutors, as Chart II-S below confirms.

Chart II-S:
The technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching
promoted through the courses' development of 'good practice' in
students' teaching:
The perspective of students
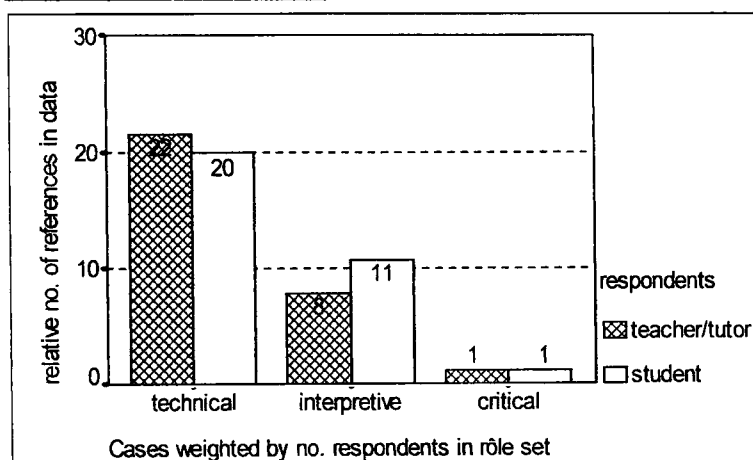
(N = 398, 587 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

As survival is a prime initial concern of students which, Tickle (1989) found, extends into their first year of teaching it is somewhat surprising that they referred less often to support for 'good practice' characterised by the technical conception than did those responsible for training them. Rather, students' responses emphasised how *varying contexts* supported the development of 'good practice' in teaching. It may be that the process of coming to terms with differences between teaching different classes had a sharp impact on students' understanding of teaching, and stimulated references representative of the interpretive conception of teaching. This, together with their view of courses as promoting the technical conception of teaching less (and the critical conception more) fully than teachers and tutors thought may indicate a potential for students' learning to be extended further beyond the technical conception of teaching than is now the case.

Examining the *forms of learning* associated with students' development of 'good practice' in teaching at the overall level of the courses revealed an emphasis on the

practical dimension, i.e. on contact with 'real' teachers and classrooms, as Chart II-T below shows.

Chart II-T:
Forms of students' learning associated with the development of
'good practice' in students' teaching:
The perspective of teachers and tutors
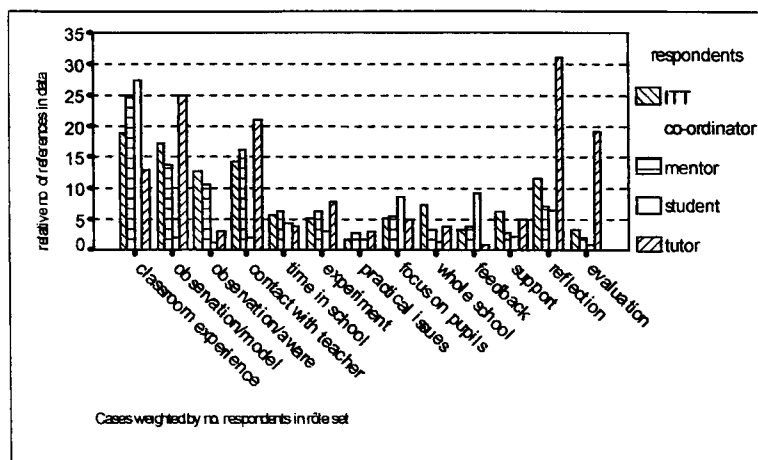
(N = 158, 337, 398, 92 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

Again, participants' rôles and responsibilities may be an explanatory factor here. Mentors were distinctive in referring more often to classroom experience and to a focus on pupils' feedback from teachers than did other contributors to the course. This matches key elements of the construct of the 'good mentor' established by Jones et al (1997) from their research into mentors' conceptions of the rôle, and parallels the emphasis mentors have been found in this study to place on teacher-pupil interaction in the classroom. Mentors placed relatively less emphasis on evaluation and reflection by students, and on the whole school context. The nature of mentors' responsibilities is probably responsible for the relatively few references they made to students learning through a focus on the whole school context, but limited mention of reflection and evaluation may support the view that that reflection is a contemplative process (Handal and Lauvas, 1987) best supported in HEIs rather than schools (Stephens, 1995). This does not mean, however, that mentors viewed ITT as a 'learn by doing it' apprenticeship, even in relation to the development of 'good practice'. Mentors acknowledged the value of students learning from contact and discussion with other teachers, and referred less often than did ITT co-ordinators or tutors to observing a particular teacher as a model of practice. The data here therefore tend to support a view of the contribution of mentors which was developed when examining the conceptions of teaching in the courses as a whole: that the concerns and conceptions of mentors were framed by the practical emphasis demanded in the classroom, but that these were typically perceived as complex and demanding.

An emphasis on the practical also characterises ITT co-ordinators' responses, but in the distinctive form of using observation as a model of practice, and as a means to raise

awareness of how practice may vary. The perspective of ITT co-ordinators was particularly distinctive in emphasising the benefits of students' involvement in the whole school context. This reflects the relatively broad-based experience and responsibilities of ITT co-ordinators, while highlighting the value of accessible support from teachers may represent a view that learning to teach requires more than practice alone. ITT co-ordinators' referred more often than mentors to reflection and evaluation. This may be seen to characterise a thoughtful approach to teaching, while the scarcity of a focus on classroom experience or practical issues further supports a view of ITT co-ordinators as valuing, but going beyond, the benefits of practical experience. This complements the evidence provided throughout this study of the greater support for the interpretive and critical conceptions provided by ITT co-ordinators relative to mentors. It thereby indicates that a coherent whole-school approach to ITT may be qualitatively different from one in which mentors work in isolation. Moreover, if the contribution of ITT co-ordinators is distinctive, the nature and extent of their specific responsibilities will have implications for the conceptions of teaching and professionalism promoted through ITT.

The data from tutors is similarly distinctive, notably the relatively large number of references by tutors to *reflection* and *evaluation*. It may be inferred from this that tutors considered that the development of 'good practice' in teaching required a thoughtful approach, characterising an extended form of professionalism. Alternatively, this emphasis on reflection and evaluation may merely indicate a familiarity with fashionable terms which, indeed, were commonplace in the HEI documentation. Moreover, these terms have been used to justify HEI involvement in ITT on the grounds that these processes need to be distanced from schools (Smith and Alred, 1993), and are little evidenced in teachers' work (Hayward, 1997). Yet tutors also emphasised the value of contact with teachers and relatively seldom referred to classroom experience as promoting 'good practice' in teaching. This implies that tutors held a relatively complex view of 'good practice', as not easily achievable without external challenge and support.

Two further points deserve comment. First, tutors referred relatively often to the value of observation as a *model* of classroom practice, more frequently than they did to observing a *range* of teachers; there is no evident explanation for this, except possibly that their distance from schools made them less aware than mentors of the range of teachers with whom students worked. Second, tutors' emphasis on learning through a focus on practical issues could represent an acknowledgement of the benefits of school-based ITT, but may have derived from a belief that this characterised their own school-focused work with students. Overall, the data here are complex, but indicate

that tutors believed 'good practice' was not to be achieved through an apprenticeship style emphasis on practice, but demanded a thoughtful approach to difficult issues. Teachers may be seen to take a view which is different from tutors, but which also represents learning to teach as a complex process.

Despite this association of 'good practice' with practical forms of learning, students relatively rarely referred to the value of observation, as Chart II-U below shows. This parallels Haggarty's (1995a) finding that learning by students from observation was rare.

Chart II-U:
Forms of students' learning associated with the development of
'good practice' in students' teaching
The perspective of students
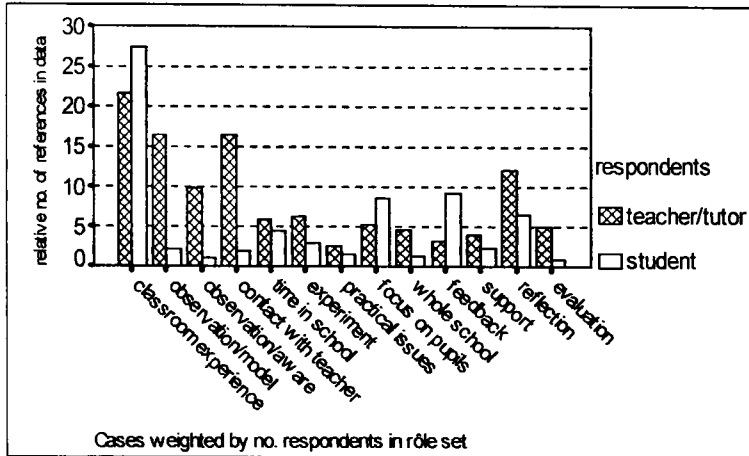
(N = 587, 398 questionnaire responses from the respective roles)

Students' relatively large number of references to feedback from teachers contrasts with the limited emphasis on reflection and evaluation, which may be surprising in view of their visibility in the HEI documentation. It may be that the value of reflection and evaluation is limited, as Hayward (1997) suggests, when set within the narrow teaching experience of students. Teachers and tutors may, therefore, find it useful to build a breadth of concern into reflective evaluation by providing tasks which encourage students to transcend their personal experience. Students also relatively often acknowledged the benefit of a focus on pupils, and seldom referred to whole-school contexts as helpful. This may again reflect the developmental nature of their learning, in which attending to issues and variation at the level of pupils typically precedes broader whole-school concerns.

Teachers and tutors had different views of the *means* by which they believed 'good practice' in teaching was supported as is evident in Chart II-V below.

Chart II-V:
The means of support for 'good practice' in students' teaching:
The perspective of teachers and tutors

Cases weighted by no. respondents in rôle set
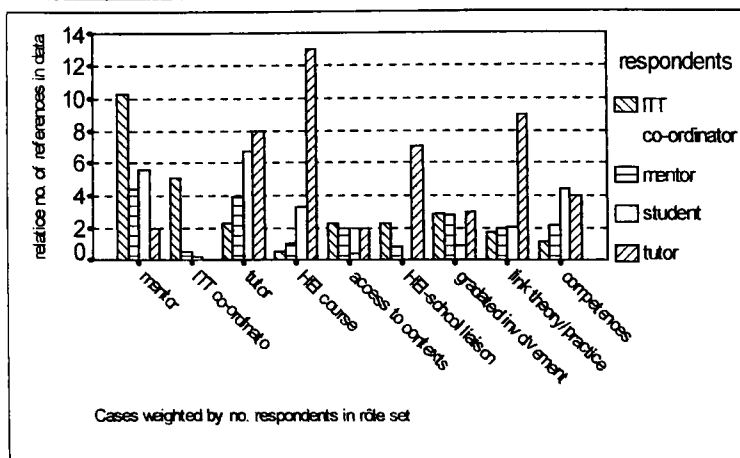
(N = 158, 337, 398, 92 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

The many references by tutors to the contribution made by their own rôle might be regarded as self-serving, were it not for students' confirmation of this. Tutors made, however, far less mention of mentors than did teachers and students. This may indicate they insufficiently appreciated the value of mentors' work in this significant aspect of students' development. Conversely, mentors and ITT co-ordinators relatively seldom identified tutors, or the HEI courses, as supporting 'good practice'; this may indicate a gap in perception which could inform the agenda of future HEI-school liaison, a category which was itself identified relatively far more often by tutors than teachers. If HEI-school partnerships are to develop, it may be politic to address this issue.

Interestingly, mentors placed more value on the contribution of tutors and of the HEI courses than did ITT co-ordinators, despite being less involved in liaison with the HEIs. This may be because they did not share the confidence of ITT co-ordinators, as revealed above, in schools' ability to contribute to ITT with minimal support from HEIs. Mentors also referred to competences here more often than did ITT co-ordinators. This might seem to reinforce the point made previously - that these competences were particularly associated with classroom-based work. Yet tutors referred to them relatively more often still, despite their HEI location (and the critical attitude to them typically expressed by largely HEI-based commentators). Teachers and tutors shared, however, a positive view of the gradated involvement of students into schools and teaching (which has developed as students have spent more time in schools).

Students' emphasis on the contribution of tutors has already been noted. This complements their view that HEI courses supported their development of 'good practice' in teaching, but it is worth highlighting that tutors were identified more often than mentors and ITT co-ordinators combined. Chart II-W below reinforces the evidence that tutors and HEIs made a contribution which is more directly relevant to the classroom than much criticism of their rôle in ITT has acknowledged.

Chart II-W:
The means of support for 'good practice' in students' teaching
The perspective of students

Cases weighted by no. respondents in rôle set
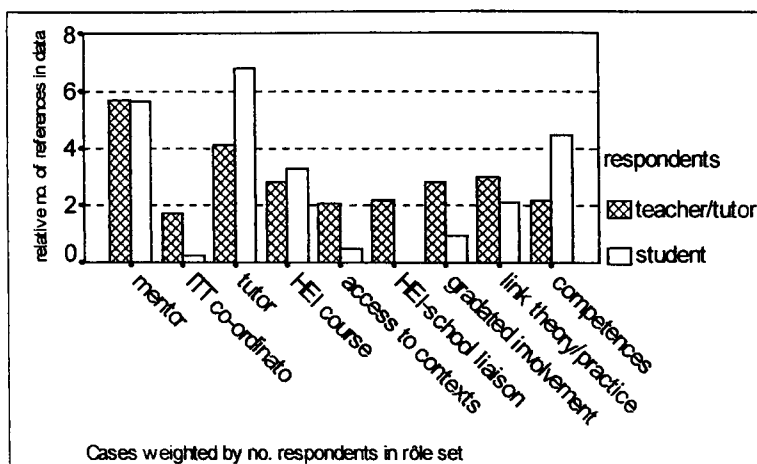
(N = 495, 398 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

Students also referred relatively often to the competences here, which may be natural because achieving these was a pre-condition for passing the course. The value of competence frameworks has been extensively debated, but the data in this study indicate that the competence criteria may have had a positive impact in some ways, possibly by making the nature of teaching more explicit, as Field (1994c) suggests, and by providing a common language which facilitated the communication between participants which promotes learning. The limited number of students referring to their access to contexts and gradated involvement in classrooms may reflect less awareness of the impact of course structure than that shown by the tutors and teachers providing the course.

c)   the nature of the means used to establish students' achievement of competences

Turning to the means used to establish students' achievement of competences, mentors identified lesson observation as a source of evidence more often than did ITT co-ordinators and, particularly, tutors. This seems a natural reflection of how closely their respective responsibilities were related to classroom practice. Additional comments suggested that some tutors were frustrated by their limited opportunities to observe students, feeling, as Robinson (1994) found, that their rôle was being impoverished, and that they did not know how 'their' students were getting on, as noted by Blake *et al.* (1996). These figures reflect in broad terms the nature of the respondents' responsibilities. Examining the other means used to establish students' achievement of competence will add more detail to this picture.

The means used to establish whether students had achieved the criteria of competence were of two sorts, those which involved personal contact and, which will be examined first, those which relied on documentary sources. Chart II-X below shows

the nature of respondents' responsibilities has a continuing impact[3]. Thus, mentors' concern with classroom practice is reflected here in their references to pupils' work and lesson plans. This reinforces Constable *et al.*'s (1995) more general finding about the focus of mentors' work with students.

Chart II-X:
Document-based means of assessment of students' achievement of competences:
The perspective of teachers and tutors
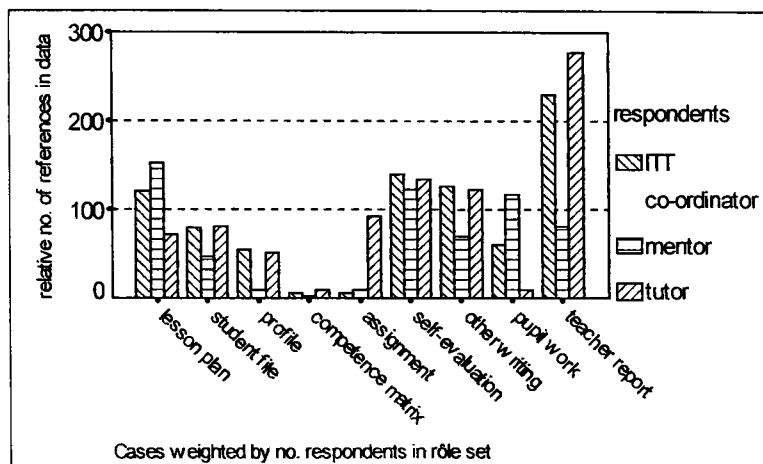
(N = 164, 353, 93 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

ITT co-ordinators and tutors referred relatively more often than mentors to using student files, profiles, student self-evaluation, reports from teachers and students' written work other than assignments. These sources are distinctive in relating indirectly to the classroom, as do ITT co-ordinators' and tutors' respective responsibilities. This may have some implications for the validity of their moderation of mentors' assessment of students' school-based work. Tutors were distinctive in using assignments as a means to establish students' achievement of competences, which was not surprising as the HEI documentation made it clear that they were responsible for setting and marking this work.

Students were distinctive in their emphasis on observation. This was identified in 81% of students' responses, compared with 5% of teachers' and 18% of tutors'. Possibly the tension which accompanies being observed teaching meant its impact upon students was particularly deep and lasting, and was therefore reported more extensively by them. Observation of a student's teaching is a relatively formal means of assessment, and students also referred relatively frequently to other formal, document-based, means of assessing their achievement of competences. The extent of this is shown in Chart II-Y below, in which the data allowed a distinction to be made between students' work with teachers and with tutors. Students also placed a notable

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[3] As noted above, the data have been weighted to allow for the differing number of respondents in each rôle-set

emphasis on written assignments, which evidently made an even greater impact upon them than it did upon the tutors who marked them.

Chart II-Y:
Document-based means of assessment of students'
achievements of competences:
The perspective of students
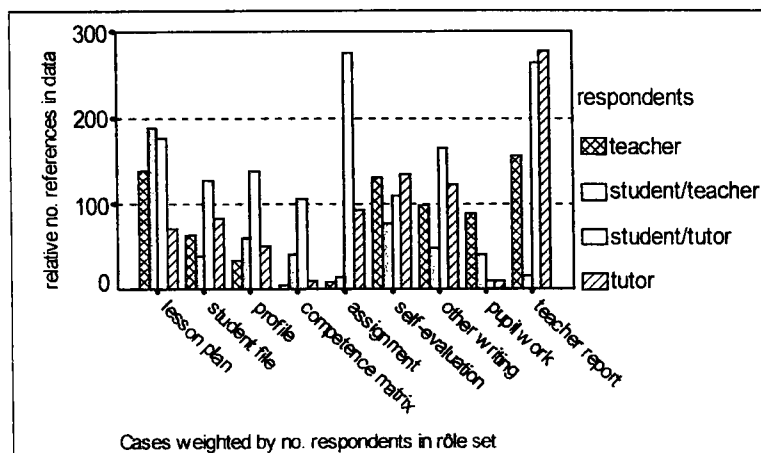
(N = 517, 415, 415, 93 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

Students also relatively often identified other formal documentary records of their overall progress, such as profiles, competence matrices, and student files. They relatively seldom referred to pupils' work. This suggests that students saw the assessment process as more formal, bureaucratic even, than did tutors and teachers. The data from students confirms evidence from teachers and tutors that the assessment by the latter was less directly focused on students' work in classrooms than was that by teachers.

Knowledge gained through personal contact also informed judgements about student competence, and Chart II-Z below shows that discussion with students was the means referred to most frequently by both teachers and tutors.

Chart II-Z:
Inter-personal means of assessment of students' achievements of
competences:
The perspective of teachers and tutors
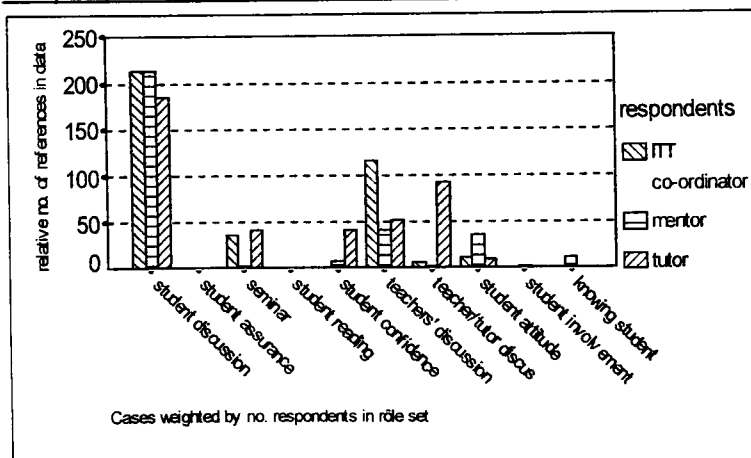
(N = 164, 353, 93 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

While sharing a common emphasis on discussion, each respondent rôle was distinctive in the inter-personal means of assessing students' achievement of competences which they highlighted. Mentors were notable for an ability to use their close knowledge of the student as a person and of their attitudes as sources of evidence. This closeness to the student, personally and in terms of responsibility for their progress, may help to explain why mentors made relatively few references to using information gained through discussion with other teachers. As mentors worked with one or at most two students, and were not responsible for organising seminars with groups of them, they naturally seldom referred to seminars as a means they used to assess students' achievement of competences. ITT co-ordinators' and tutors' management and monitoring responsibilities, and their distance from students' work in classrooms may be reflected in their references to discussions with other teachers and to seminars, and the absence of references by them to knowing students. The pattern of the data here therefore reaffirms the impact of a participant's place in terms of location and responsibilities upon the means used to establish which competences students had achieved.

Tutors did, however, refer relatively often to student confidence as an acceptable indicator of confidence, which is somewhat surprising both in itself and because they rarely identified other personal dimensions of students. This may be because confidence was visible at the surface level of student-teacher interaction, whereas 'knowing the student' and their attitudes required a deeper knowledge which tutors were poorly-placed to develop.

Students referred less often to inter-personal means of establishing their achievement of competences, as Chart II-AA below indicates.

Chart II-AA:
Inter-personal means of assessment of students' achievements of competences
The perspective of students
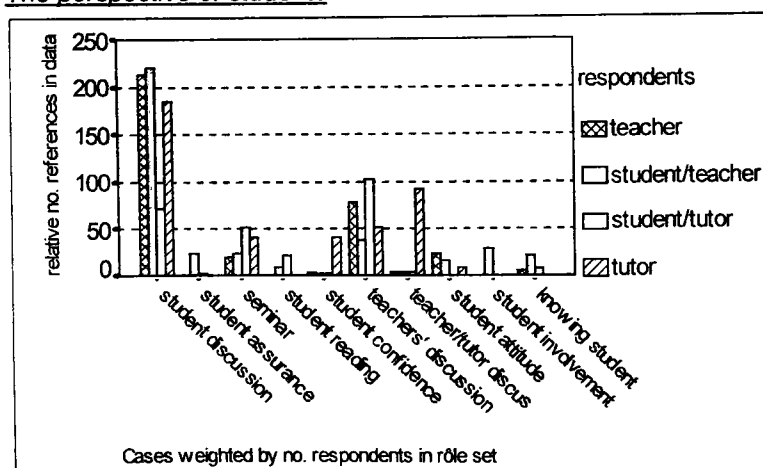
(N = 517, 415, 415, 93 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

The low profile of the data from students here reinforces the indication that students perceived the assessment process as more formal, and less dependent upon personal interaction, than did teachers and tutors. This analysis may be supported by the relative scarcity of students' references to their attitudes and confidence, or to discussions with teachers and tutors, and the low weight they put upon their personnel assurances and on the personal knowledge others might have of them.

Students did refer relatively often to discussion between teachers as a means of establishing whether they had achieved competences, suggesting that they may have seen the assessment process as more collaborative than did teachers and tutors. The number of their references to seminars and to their reading complements the scale of their references to assignments noted above. Students' emphasis on these less practically-related activities may, however, be surprising in view of the classroom-based emphasis which is more typical of their perspective

iii.   HEI-school partnerships

Analysis of the HEI documentation indicated some interesting distinctions between the course intentions of old and new universities/colleges. The documentation of the new universities and colleges of higher education referred relatively often to the technical conception of teaching, but Chart II-BB below shows that this distinction was not evidenced in the experience of respondents from HEI-school partnerships 1 and 2. The gap between intention and experience is clearly complex, and deserves further study. Here data from SCITTs is also available, and it is shown that they promoted the *technical* conception of teaching more fully than did any HEI-school partnership. The data have been presented, as before, as a percentage of the three conceptions of teaching promoted through the course.

Chart II-BB:
Promotion of the technical conception of teaching:
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
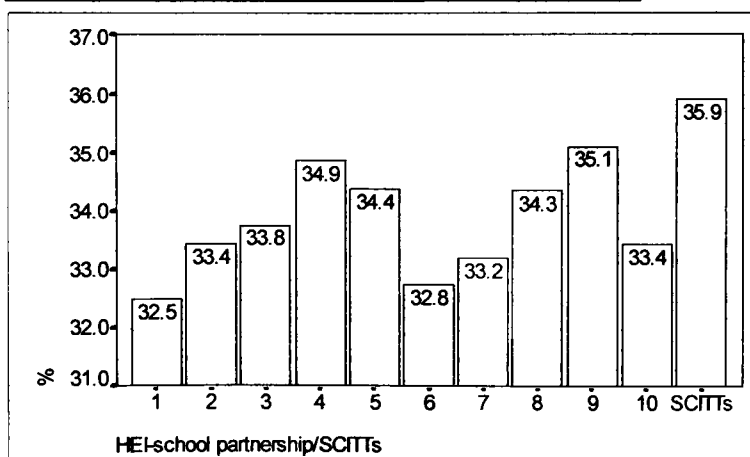
(N = 102, 56, 182, 110, 141, 97, 83, 65, 81, 91, 42 questionnaires
respectively relating to the partnerships/SCITTs above)

This critique of SCITTs is strengthened by the limited extent to which they promoted the critical conception of teaching, evidenced in Chart II-CC below.

Chart II-CC:
Promotion of the critical conception of teaching through courses
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
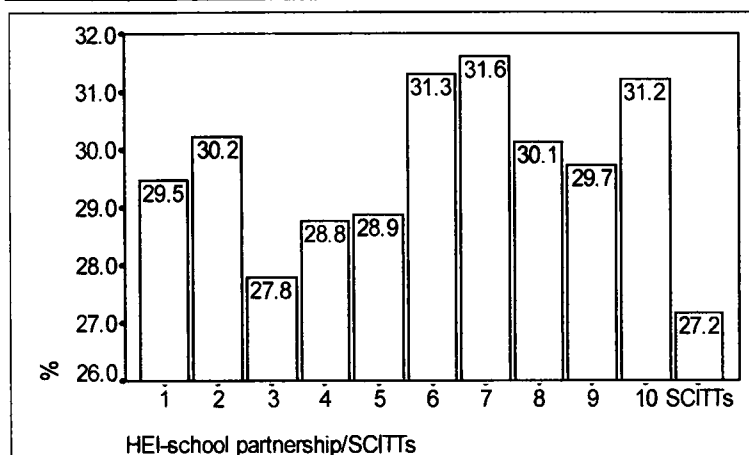
(N = 102, 56, 182, 111, 142, 96, 83, 69, 80, 91, 42 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)

It is also notable that whereas the documentation of the old universities tended to promote the critical conception of teaching more than did that of the new universities and HE colleges, the experience of respondents did not reflect this. Thus, HEI-school partnerships 3 and 5 promoted the critical conception of teaching to a significantly lesser extent than their HEI documentation had indicated.

As SCITTs continue to slowly increase in numbers, some additional comments are called for here. Their position is distinctive, but open to various interpretations. Thus, the support provided for the technical conception of teaching by SCITTs may be seen as confirming These data may also reinforce the evidence from those students in SCITTs surveyed by Anderson (1994), who said their course was too practical. More generally, it may be suggested that SCITTs risk deprofessionalising teaching by supporting a restricted form of professionalism. By extension, such criticism of SCITTs may add to the doubt cast on the increased involvement of teachers in school-based ITT courses (Bullough, 1987; Hillcole, 1993).

From a political perspective, the establishment of SCITTs may be seen as complementing other efforts by the former Conservative Government to make teaching a low skill occupation (Weir, 1997) delivering a neo-conservative National Curriculum (Quicke, 1989) which is technicist (Goodlad, 1988) and reproductive (Green, 1991). In this perspective, the effectiveness of the system is sharpened by a product efficiency model of improvement (Simons, 1988) in which teachers are technical operatives (Elliott, 1988), whose autonomy and status is reduced by a managerial form of appraisal in which acceptance of the need for teachers to show

responsibility and accountability has been used as a means to increase surveillance of them (Inglis, 1989, and see p. 406 and pp. 419*ff.* below.). The introduction of performance-related pay seems to fit this managerial model well.

However, examining the contributions and experiences of respondents *within* a particular rôle across the partnerships and SCITTs raises some interesting issues. It will be shown that generalisations about the characteristics of the various rôles involved in ITT established in previous sections may not apply across all courses. In view of the concern about increasingly prescriptive regulation of ITT (e.g. Hartley, 1998), such variation may be regarded as an indicator of the power which individual participants and institutions retain to interpret even statutory regulation. Here, the focus has been on the contributions of ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors rather than students, because the variation experienced by students on different courses is implicit in the Charts included within this section, as well as those presented above.

Across the HEI-school partnerships overall, mentors have been shown to have promoted the *technical conception of teaching* to a greater extent than did ITT co-ordinators (see p 174 above). Yet Chart II-DD below shows that this was not so in HEI-school partnerships 7 and 10, nor in the SCITTs.

Chart II-DD:
Promotion of the technical conception of teaching through courses:
<u>*Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across*</u>
<u>*the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs*</u>
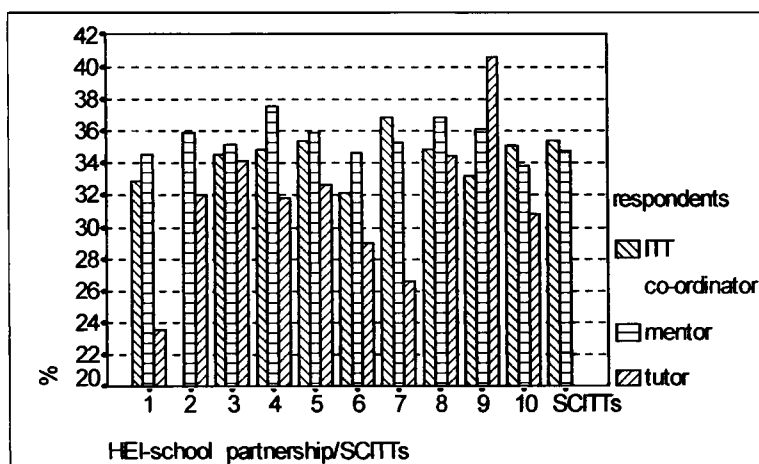
(N = 102, 56, 182, 110, 141, 97, 83, 65, 81, 91, 42 questionnaires
relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)

The distinctive nature of the relative contribution of ITT co-ordinators and mentors in partnerships 7, 10 and the SCITTs may be due to particular expectations of those rôles there. These were not evident in the HEI documentation but may also, for example, have reflected the nature of the training and opportunities for development open to these teachers, or the nature of their continuing contact with tutors. It is also noteworthy that the teachers in SCITTs did *not* make a markedly greater contribution

to the technical conception of teaching than did teachers in HEI-school partnerships, despite the SCITTs promoting this conception to a relatively great extent overall.

Just as significant, perhaps, is the fact that the data presented in Chart II-DD above indicate that tutors in some HEI-school partnerships promoted the technical conception of teaching to a *greater* extent than did ITT co-ordinators or mentors. Thus, tutors in partnership 9 promoted the technical conception of teaching more than did ITT co-ordinators or mentors there, and tutors in partnership 8 did so more than ITT co-ordinators in partnerships 1, 6, and 9, and than mentors in partnerships 9 and 10. This challenges the stereotype by which tutors are associated with critical practice, a view developed largely be HEI-based writers. It also questions the accuracy of those who have criticised tutors for propagating airy-fairy theories (e.g. Lawlor, 1990).

The data here therefore suggest the need for generalisations to be treated with caution, most notably those which associate the technical conception with the work of teachers rather than tutors in ITT. Similarly, while at the overall level tutors promoted the interpretive conception of teaching to a greater extent than did ITT co-ordinators and mentors, this was not so in HEI-school partnerships 1 and 3, as Chart II-EE below shows.

Chart II-EE:
Promotion of the interpretive conception of teaching through courses:
Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across
the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
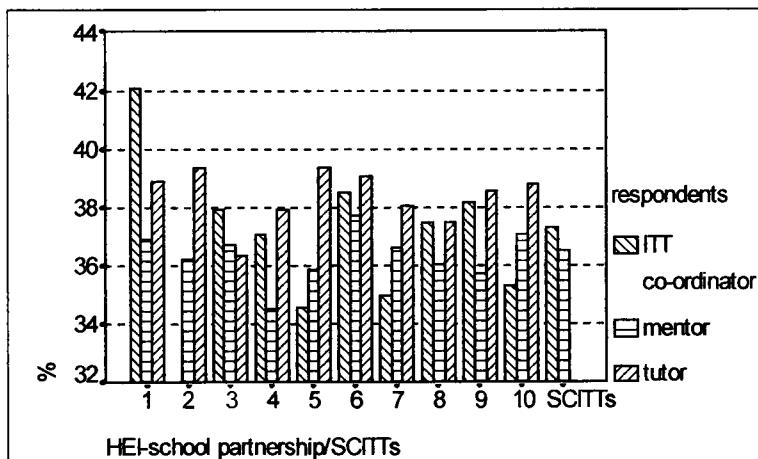
*(N = 102, 55, 182, 111, 142, 97, 83, 69, 80, 91, 42 questionnaires relating
to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)*

It will be shown (pp. 259*ff.* below) that there was similar variation in the relative importance placed upon the interpretive conception of reflection upon how pupils learn. In terms of the *critical* conception of teaching, this was generally promoted more fully by tutors than by teachers, but this was not the case *within* partnerships 5 and 9. This point is reinforced through comparisons *across* partnerships. The ITT co-ordinators in partnerships 5 and 10 promoted the critical conception of teaching more

in their work with students than did tutors in partnerships 2, 3, 8, or 9, while the mentors in partnership 10 also made a relatively large contribution to this conception. These data are presented in Chart II-FF below.

Chart II-FF:
Promotion of the critical conception of teaching through courses:
Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
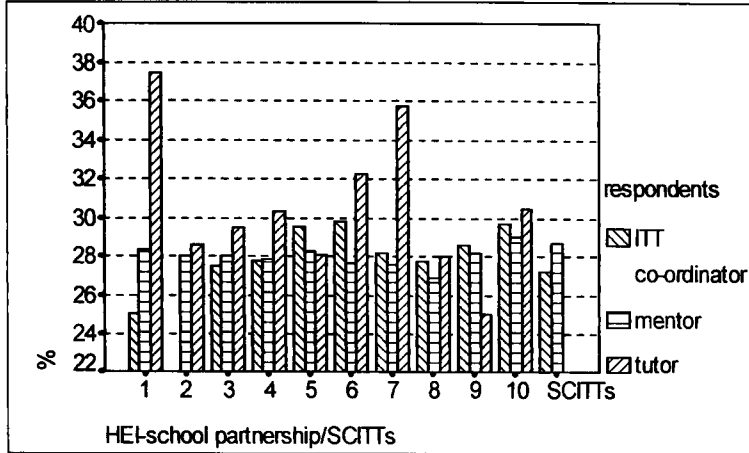
(N = 102, 56, 182, 111, 142, 96, 83, 69, 80, 91, 42 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)

The data from the SCITTs in Chart II-FF above are also notable because they do *not* support the plausible hypothesis that the involvement of teachers working in HEI-school partnerships with students and tutors encouraged those teachers to develop a more critical conception of teaching. As was the case for the interpretive conception, SCITTs provided less support for the critical conception of teaching in their work with students overall because, it seems, students there did not work with tutors as they did in HEI-school partnerships. Teachers in SCITTs did not promote the critical conception of teaching less than teachers in HEI-school partnerships.

C.   Summary

This section of the study has established the extent to which the conceptions of teaching were promoted in ITT courses at the levels of HEI *intentions* and of *practice*. These conceptions have been examined in terms of the courses overall, and in relation to the particular aspects of support for students' development of 'good practice' in teaching, and the means by which students' achievement of competences was established. When focusing on respondents' experiences of the course, the conceptions have also been examined in terms of the elements of teaching from which the overall conceptions were derived. Other elements of teaching which could not be set within the conceptions were also identified at the levels of HEI intentions and practice, and the analysis of these has built up a fuller, more variegated, picture of the ITT courses. Further dimensions of subtleties have been revealed by drawing out the distinctiveness

of the contribution of each of the respondent rôles, and of variation between courses, including SCITTs. The key points of this analysis are summarised below, and set in the context of their implications for the nature of teacher professionalism.

Whereas the technical conception of teaching was the perspective promoted most fully in the HEI documentation, it was the interpretive conception which came to the fore in the practice of teachers and tutors. It has been suggested that the external pressures favouring the technical conception had particular effect on those responsible for the HEI documentation for various reasons, including the visibility of the documentation and their responsibility for enabling participants to meet external prescriptions such as the *Circular 9/92* competences. The primacy of the interpretive conception in professional practice may represent a form of teacher and tutor resistance to technicist pressures exerted upon those writing HEI documentation. As the interpretive conception is associated with sensitivity and responsiveness to contextual variation, it may also indicate that students have been encouraged to work at a relatively advanced level which acknowledges the complexity of professional practice. It is argued here that the extent to which the critical conception was promoted may be significantly less than the other conceptions at the levels of both HEI intention and of practice, but seems particularly notable in view of the limited extent to which it was supported in the HEI documentation, the inherently complex and partially charted nature of this conception and, experience suggests, the difficulty of implementing practical examples of it successfully. Extended forms of professionalism may be supported more extensively through ITT than many have suggested.

The predominance of the technical conception in this experiential context was reinforced by the more specific data representing the nature of 'good practice' in students' teaching promoted through the courses. Here, the importance of teachers' classroom skills, and learning through practice 'in the real world' were emphasised. Strands of these data even indicated a relatively narrow view of teaching and learning as comprising a lonely apprenticeship in which students gained 'Nellie's' skills through observation and a trial and error form of experience. The technical conception of teaching was also pre-eminent in the means used to establish students' achievement of competences. The strength of the technical conception is indicated in its tendency to predominate in those aspects of teachers' and tutors' contributions to courses which were central to their rôles and responsibilities. For example, in mentors' contribution to courses, the technical conception came to the fore when the focus was on work in the classroom, for which mentors had prime responsibility.

This *technical* conception has been associated with external pressures commonly regarded as limiting, or reorienting, the nature of teacher professionalism, such as the

nature of the *Circular 9/92* competences, as well as processes freely chosen by partnerships, such as profiling and the form and focus of tutors' work with students. Yet the technical conception of teaching has here been represented in ITT courses as a relatively complex rather than simplistic form of teaching, despite the fact that the *initial* nature of training examined in this study was likely to constrain the development and exploration of the more complex aspects of the technical conception of teaching. Not only, then, was the technical conception of teaching found to be less dominant than is implied in the work of some critics of mentoring and recent reforms of ITT, but it is also suggested that the technical conception should not necessarily be equated with a simplistic view of teaching, or of the training required to become a teacher. Moreover, while the association of the technical conception with skills and classroom practice may seem to confirm the concern of those who have seen a move to using criteria of competence and 'standards' as characterising technicist approaches which constrain professional development, the variation across courses shows that this is not inevitable.

The *interpretive* conception of teaching was most often represented in the HEI documentation by references to teachers' responsiveness to pupil learning and to awareness of other contextual factors impinging upon teaching. Respondents' experiences of courses suggested that the conception was promoted most strongly in elements of teaching which were set in contexts broader than the classroom. References to support for 'good practice' in students' teaching reinforced this picture of the interpretive conception, as they did for the technical. Here, it was associated with a focus on pupil learning as well as teacher action, and with direct and indirect experience of a variety of contexts and teaching styles. A notable conclusion is that it seems that promotion of the interpretive conception of teaching may be associated with particular forms of (broad) experience and responsibilities of teachers and tutors, just as the technical conception may be associated with experience in, and responsibilities for, work in the classroom. The significant extent to which the interpretive conception was promoted in ITT courses may have been supported by the continuing commitment of respondents, particularly tutors, to child-centred perspectives, and the greater sensitivity to contexts derived from students' increased time in schools.

The *critical* conception of teaching was most often represented in the HEI documentation by references to examining the aims and objectives of education and the nature of contemporary schooling. In the experience of respondents the conception was, it is suggested, associated with the broad context of educational purposes, but also with teacher-pupil work in the classroom. The critical conception

was promoted less fully than were other conceptions of teaching, particularly in the context of support for students' development of 'good practice' in teaching, but arguably more than might be expected in view of the complex nature of the conception, the contextual factors pressing upon ITT courses, and of experience in the USA.

There is some indication that the limited association of the critical conception with teachers' professional development may witness the development of a relatively restricted form of *teacher professionalism*, at least in particular aspects of ITT courses, such as 'good practice' in students' teaching, but this point should not be overdrawn. The strength of the critical and, especially, interpretive conceptions of teaching overall, and the representation of the technical conception as relatively complex, suggest that Sikes *et al.*'s (1985) evidence for both the proletarianisation and professionalisation in teachers careers may also represent the situation at the level of ITT. Different conceptions of teaching, and forms of professionalism, may come to the fore depending upon the aspect of teaching and teachers' rôles which are examined. For example, an instrumental view of education was promoted to the extent that course objectives were emphasised, but had only a limited presence when extended to the purposes of education.

The forms of professionalism promoted through the courses may be examined more closely. Respondents' views of what supported students' development of 'good practice' in teaching, suggest that professionalism was perceived to be developed more through experience to build up knowledge than sensitivity to, and understanding of, varying contexts. The courses, therefore, did not meet the criteria of the 'new professionalism' as described by Elliott (1991a). On the other hand, the fact that ITT courses promoted the idea that teaching was concerned more with how pupils learn than the knowledge they gain indicates that respondents had been able to resist reforms challenging this previously dominant ideology. Moreover, evidence from the overall and more specific contexts examined here indicate that where the technical conception of teaching was promoted, it was done so in a way which treated it as complex, demanding discussion, reflection, and a thoughtful approach to professional development.

The interpretive was promoted more fully than was the technical conception of teaching, but it may be argued that a restricted sense of professionalism, as described by Hoyle (1974), was still supported by the courses because for him this incorporated intuition (which may be associated with the sensitivity and responsiveness to contexts which characterises the interpretive conception). It may also be considered that this restricted form of professionalism characterised the courses because the relatively limited, albeit complex, technical conception of teaching was associated with a focus on classrooms which, McIntyre (1994) suggests, are the dominant learning context for

students. The 'industrial trainer' form of ITT reflected in the *Circular 9/92* competence criteria (Clemson, 1995), and the evidence in the data here of technicist processes by which students' achievement of competences was established, provide some support for this perspective. However, examining the profiles of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching suggests this was not so. The concern with pupil learning (rather than pupil knowledge), and the fact that courses promoted enabling and challenging (rather than instruction of) pupils, indicate that respondents perceived that the courses supported a relatively extended form of professionalism in terms of teachers' and pupils' work in the classroom. Moreover, the relatively open means by which students' achievement of competences were established, often involving dialogues both through discussion and the use of documentation, may also indicate that a restricted form of professionalism was not predominant. Data from SCITTs, however, shows that they provided most support for the technical conception of teaching, and least for the critical conception.

Some of the data from the HEI documentation could not be set precisely within the framework of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. This has the unintended benefit of drawing attention to a range of elements of teaching which were important across the partnerships examined, and which increase our understanding of the nature of ITT courses and their impact upon students. Thus, references to 'competence' indicated that this, like the technical conception of teaching, may have been viewed as a complex term which transcended a restricted form of professionalism. Moreover, students benefited from the development of the whole-school perspective, notably in relation to the pastoral system, characteristic of post-*Circular 9/92* courses. The term 'reflection' tended to be used in a generalised way, but did seem to be associated with continuing professional development and a sense of professionalism; almost all HEIs claimed reflection was supported by the design of the courses as well as through the contribution of participants. There was an expectation of personal reflection by students, and partnerships sought to support student autonomy further through the use of student portfolios, delegating responsibility for 'claiming' competences to students, and target setting processes. The importance of students' personal qualities were also emphasised in five sets of HEI documentation, which treated them as a dimension of professionalism.

The questionnaire data filled out the distinctive nature of the *HEI* contribution to courses by associating HEIs with theories and representing them as a source of good ideas, even in the very practical context of students' development of 'good practice' in teaching. Complementing this broad-based contribution, HEIs were reported to be prime providers of support for students' understanding of, and involvement in, wider school issues and responsibilities which transcended subject-specific teaching.

Indeed, tutors were identified more often than mentors as supporting students' development of 'good practice' in teaching. Less directly, largely HEI-led liaison with schools may indicate that HEIs were seen as primarily responsible for enabling tutors and teachers to collaborate and develop shared aims for courses.

The contribution of *tutors* to courses was distinctive in promoting the critical and interpretive conceptions of teaching more, and the technical conception less, than did teachers. These differences are significant in the context of the increased involvement of teachers in school-based ITT but, it is suggested, may be related more to their rôles and responsibilities than to more permanent characteristics of the participants. This emphasis on the impact of rôles and responsibilities is supported by the association of the critical and technical conceptions of teaching with, for example, broader and more classroom-focused levels of work respectively. Relating respondent responsibilities to the nature of their contribution to courses in this way is supported further by the fact that tutors were characterised as more similar to ITT co-ordinators (who had similarly relatively broad responsibilities) than to mentors (whose responsibilities were largely set within the classroom).

Tutors promoted the technical conception of teaching less than did teachers, yet more than might be expected in view of their HEI location. Tutors' support for relatively extended forms of professionalism should not be underestimated, however. In particular, tutors were associated with a thoughtful attitude to professional development. There is therefore reason to suggest that tutors *do* have a continuing rôle to play in ITT, even in terms of students' development of 'good practice' in teaching: the importance of tutors' contributions to extending students' professionalism and ITT generally can be emphasised without belittling that of teachers'. Indeed, the association of HEIs with examining wider school issues as well as theory provided evidence of a complementary form of partnership. It seems most significant that SCITTs promoted the technical conception of teaching more than did HEI-school partnerships, and this may be attributed to the lack of a contribution by tutors there. Possibly HEIs should highlight the nature of their contribution more effectively, especially as tutors' support for students' development of 'good practice' in teaching was recognised more often by students than by teachers. This threatens both the development of partners' mutual respect, and of partnerships themselves.

The contribution of *ITT co-ordinators* to courses was distinctive in that they promoted the interpretive and critical conceptions more than did mentors, and less than tutors and, conversely, the technical conception less than did mentors and more than tutors. This reinforces the conclusion that differences in the contributions of the respondents were rôle related. This interpretation may be extended to the analysis of the elements

within the conceptions of teaching. Here, the contribution of ITT co-ordinators to the critical conception was greater when it was set in the broader context of the curriculum than the narrower one of pupils or teachers, reflecting the focus and breadth of their rôle. The nature of this rôle may also have been responsible for the distinctiveness of ITT co-ordinators in emphasising the value of a whole-school perspective (rather than practical experience) when supporting students' development of 'good practice' in teaching. ITT co-ordinators may thereby have been extending students' professionalism by setting it in a broad context. This implies that courses may be qualitatively different where ITT co-ordinators provide a coherent whole-school approach. It may also be significant that ITT co-ordinators identified good liaison with HEIs as a positive factor which supported students' development of 'good practice' in teaching, but not the HEI course or the work of tutors. It is suggested that this may indicate a perception, not shared by mentors, that ITT co-ordinators felt relatively confident that schools compared well with HEIs in the effectiveness of their work in ITT. As ITT co-ordinators were relatively senior and influential teachers, this may have some significance for the nature of HEI-school liaison and the development of school-based ITT generally.

Mentors contributed more to the technical conception, and less to the interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching than did ITT co-ordinators or, particularly, tutors. This, it has been suggested, may reflect the classroom-focused nature of their responsibilities, a conclusion supported by their contributing less to those elements within the technical conception which were set in contexts distant from the classroom. This may inform the agenda for mentor development, though it should not be directly associated with a simple view of what being a professional teacher involves. Concerns and conceptions of mentors *were* framed by the practical emphasis demanded in the classroom, but these were typically perceived as complex and demanding.

Students' perceptions of the extent to which the technical conception was promoted through their experience of the courses closely matched the data from tutors and teachers, and such differences as there were in relation to the other conceptions of teaching may be explained in terms of the effect of students' developmental progress through the courses. Despite the natural and common emphasis on doing what was necessary to survive in the classroom, students emphasised the value of means representative of the interpretive conception in enabling them to develop 'good practice' in teaching. They also valued the involvement of other participants in their learning, which may be seen as a necessary basis for developing an extended form of professionalism.

Nevertheless, one might infer from the association of teachers with the technical rather than the critical conception of teaching that the move towards school-based ITT has restricted the development of professionalism. However, in some HEI-school partnerships, the technical conception of teaching was promoted most fully by *tutors*. Conversely, the interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching was most fully promoted by teachers in some partnerships. This is important evidence of the limited reach of centralised control, and of the potential to resist this while developing a distinctive course. Most importantly, and this challenges the generalisations which commonly emphasise the contrast between the work of teachers and tutors, a simple dichotomy of teachers (working with students in professionally restricted ways) and tutors (promoting extended forms of professionalism) is not subtle enough. This study suggests many HEI commentators have too easily dismissed the contribution of teachers as less demanding than that of their own. The situation seems more complicated than this, and deserves further study of particular cases. This conclusion will be reinforced when examining their respective contributions to the technical and critical conceptions of *reflection*. It is, however, a complex issue. Thus, while the institutional character of HEIs seems to underlie interesting distinctions between support for the technical and critical conceptions of teaching at the level of intention, this was not evident in the experience of respondents. The relationship between the curriculum as specified and enacted deserves further research.

Overall, the picture of ITT courses in terms of the conceptions of teaching they promoted is complex, but may be interpreted as a hopeful one. The courses examined here often transcended restricted forms of professionalism, and the analysis suggests that students' development has the potential to be extended still further. Partnerships were certainly developing their courses in many ways, notably by increasing or changing the nature of their support for mentors, as has been reported in the previous Section of this study, and this is likely to continue. Taking just one example of the analysis here, if participants' rôles and responsibilities do affect the nature of their contribution to the courses so significantly, focusing support on and possibly reorienting (not increasing) those responsibilities may allow partnerships to achieve their aims more successfully, even as external course requirements become more specific.

III. The nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students in ITT courses

Examining conceptions of teaching helps us understand the form of professionalism promoted through ITT courses. The nature of these courses is also determined, however, by the *processes* through which they are managed and taught, as well as their manifest content. Indeed, it is difficult to draw an absolute distinction between processes such as reflection, and the conceptions of teaching promoted through courses. This was evident in the previous Section when examining, for example, the means by which students' development of 'good practice' in teaching was supported; it was also a reason why the questionnaires were designed to establish the importance ascribed to various foci of reflection in ITT courses. Before examining reflection in the next Section, the HEI documentation will be analysed to establish the intended nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students, using categories which can be related to the conceptions of teaching and, in particular, restricted and extended forms of professionalism. As before, these intentions will be compared with participants' experiences of the courses as established through their responses to the questionnaires, which used similar categorisations of the nature of participants' work. This experience will be analysed at the level of the courses overall, and then from the perspective of each of the participant rôles. As before, significant variation across HEI-school partnerships will also be discussed.

A. HEI intentions

Content analysis of the HEI documentation established the relative emphases on these foci of management, which broadly matched those used in the questionnaires, supporting their validity. The nature of participants' work with students was established by inductively deriving categories from the HEI documentation. These categories were of two sorts, those relating to teachers' and tutors' course management responsibilities[1], and those describing the nature of participants' work with students.

When establishing the extent to which participants' management responsibilities and forms of work with students were emphasised in the HEI documentation, both sets of categories were treated as together representing an overall picture of teachers' and tutors' work in ITT courses. Emphasis on a specific focus of management, and on work of a particular nature, has therefore been reported as a percentage of teachers'

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[1] *These categories are broadly similar to, and complement, the categories of work examined through the questionnaires, but this dimension of responsible for course management was, while relevant, considered not sufficiently central to the focus of this study to be reported in detail*

and tutors' work overall. This allows a comparison of the relative emphases in the HEI documentation on teachers' and tutors' work in managing courses, and on the nature of their work with students.

This emphasis was established on the basis of the number of *aspects* of that category to which references were made. Relying simply on the number of references themselves would have been less valid because some sets of HEI documentation were designed in such a way that the same descriptions of responsibility were repeated. A seeming emphasis on a particular category of work could thus have been due to the form of the documentation, rather than signifying 'real' importance. Inductive analysis of the HEI documentation created categories which broadly matched (and therefore supported the validity of) those used in the questionnaires. These involved responsibility for:

- *assessing*   i.e., observing students teaching, contributing to profiles and other records of students' achievements, marking students' course assignments.
- *supporting*   i.e., counselling and providing pastoral support for students, being empathetic and friendly.
- *educating*   i.e., focusing on the nature of the practice of teachers, on students' practice, discussing lesson plans, promoting students' development e.g. by identifying their strengths, involvement in students' course assignments, focusing on whole-school issues - challenging as well as supporting students, promoting the interpretive conception of teaching by increasing their understanding across contexts.
- *training*   i.e., setting targets, providing diagnostic feedback, focusing on students' skills, leading progress reviews, coaching or modelling 'good practice' in teaching - a relatively technical form of work.
- *theory*   i.e., examining theories implicit in teachers' practice and in their responses to whole school issues, examining the relationship between practice and theory, focusing on theoretical aspects of students' assignments - potentially a critical form of practice.

These categories will be described first in relation to teachers' and tutors' management responsibilities, and then in relation to the nature of their work with students. The HEI documentation differentiated between ITT co-ordinators, mentors, and tutors when referring to the nature of their management responsibilities and course-related work, so the data will first be examined at the level of the courses overall, and then in terms of the rôles and responsibilities of the teachers and tutors involved. Finally, an interesting variation across the HEI-school partnerships will be discussed.

i.   *The courses overall*

Analysis of the HEI documentation revealed a relatively limited emphasis on *supportive* work with students is particularly notable because it contrasts with the experience of participants as described elsewhere (e.g., Cameron-Jones and O'Hara, 1997), as evident in Chart III-A below.

Chart III-A:
The nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students:
<u>HEI intentions for the courses overall</u>
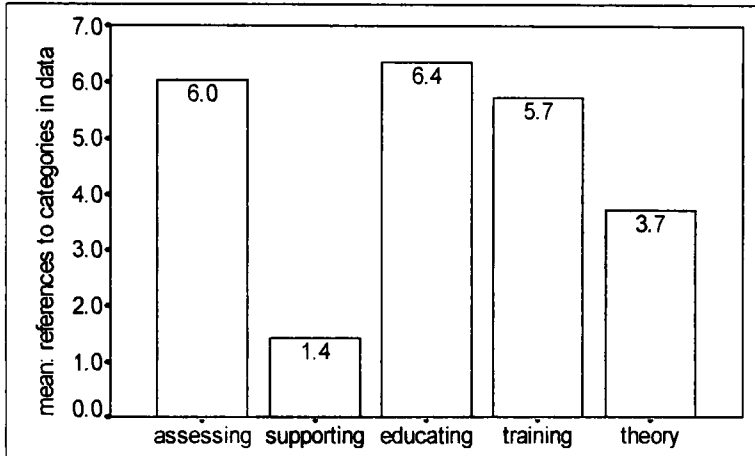
(*N = 10 sets of HEI documentation*)

The emphasis on *theory*-related work in the HEI documentation may seem surprisingly limited in view of the fact that CNAA course submissions for earlier HEI-based courses were found by Chambers and Chambers (1984) to focus on theoretical rather than practical concerns. This implies the nature of courses has changed since then, particularly as the CNAA typically validated the courses of the new universities and colleges which, as we shall see below, were associated in this study less with educational theory and more with elements of teaching characteristic of 'training' than were the older universities. At this level of HEI intention there is, therefore, some indication school-based ITT may promote a less extended form of professionalism than was the case previously.

The relative emphasis in the HEI documentation on work characterised as *training* reflected a concern with the development of students' practical skills, with which school-based ITT has long been associated (e.g., Tomlinson and Smith, 1985). In its references to setting and reviewing targets, the emphasis on training may be seen to typify the systems perspective which the TTA has applied to teacher development generally (Day, 1997). This may represent a relatively restricted form of professionalism, although more detailed analysis of the content of these targets is necessary to confirm whether this is actually (and necessarily) so.

Assessment-related work had a high profile in the HEI documentation, and was closely associated with the monitoring process discussed above. This should not be taken, however, as an indicator of a neo-Tylorist process focusing on depersonalised 'competence'. A formative purpose was evident in many of its aspects. Indeed, the nature of the data here indicates an educative intent, which is reinforced by the extent to which work more directly focused on *educating* students was emphasised in the HEI documentation. The number of references to discussion and enquiry highlighted the concern with the broader process of education.

The intended nature of students' work will now be analysed in more detail by examining it in terms of the rôles and responsibilities of the ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors involved.

ii.   The contribution of teachers, and tutors

Turning to the intended nature of teachers' and tutors' *work* with students, it is notable that Chart III-B below shows that mentors' work was distinctively focused on *training* and, to a slightly lesser extent, the *education* of students.

Chart III-B:
The nature of teachers' and tutors' work in ITT courses:
HEI intentions for teachers and tutors
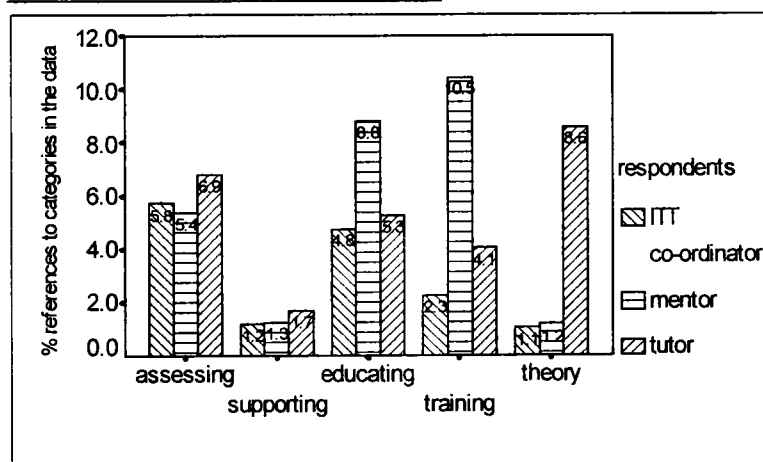
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The intention that mentors be concerned with *training* and the focus on classroom teaching skills with which work of this nature is associated, parallels the means by which they supported students' development of 'good practice' in teaching. This might indicate that the rôle of mentors was intended to be limited to providing students with access to a relatively technicist form of craft knowledge, were it not for the strength, in both absolute and relative terms, of mentors' more challenging *educative* rôle. The discursive, probing, nature of this rôle suggests that it was anticipated that mentors act, in McIntyre and Hagger's (1996a) terms, as professional teacher educators rather

than merely passing on the wisdom of the experienced. The limits of mentors' responsibilities are indicated by the minimal extent to which they were expected to be concerned with theory; but overall, it does seem that their rôle was designed to ensure that the process of students' learning transcended the reliance upon immersion found by Saunders *et al* (1995), and which may be associated with a restricted form of professionalism. Table III-A below indicates where variation between the rôles was statistically significant, and thereby emphasises that the responsibilities of mentors were, as before, more sharply distinguished from those of tutors than of ITT co-ordinators.

Table III-A:
Statistical significance of the variation between the nature of work of teachers and tutors in ITT courses:
<u>HEI intentions for teachers and tutors</u>

nature of work in ITT courses	statistical significance of variation between			
	all rôles	ITT co-ordinators &		mentors & tutors
		mentors	tutors	
assessing	.5696	.6532	.4867	.3252
supporting	.6630	.9648	.4764	.4172
educating	*.0426*	*.0548*	.5948	*.0191*
training	*.0006*	*.0005*	.1627	*.0051*
theory	*.0001*	.8945	*.0005*	*.0003*

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

Staying with mentors, it is somewhat surprising that they were not expected to be more involved in the personal dimension of supportive work with students highlighted in many studies of mentoring (e.g., Brooks, 1996a). Possibly the very prevalence of this form of work in the practice within these HEI-school partnerships (see Chart III-D, p. 217 below) meant those responsible for the HEI documentation felt they did not have to emphasise it there.

The intended nature of tutors' work was most notable for the extent to which it involved theory, as Chart III-C above indicates. This association is a commonplace in the literature. Conversely, 'training' is associated in this study (and generally) with classroom teaching skills, so it is not surprising that responsibilities for training should be ascribed in the HEI documentation to mentors rather than tutors. More interesting, therefore, is the fact that tutors' educative rôle was less emphasised than was that of mentors. This contrasts with the perspective of those who have criticised the development of school-based ITT on the grounds that tutors are better equipped to support long-term professional development than are mentors (e.g., Tann, 1994). While the extent of the educative work ascribed to participants may (as McIntyre (1995) has commented) have been due to the course organisation and structures rather than their inherent capacities, the intention that tutors would not monopolise the rôle of active educators of students is clear. This reinforces other findings in this study, that school-based training and an

enhanced rôle in ITT for teachers should not simply and directly be equated with a process of teacher deprofessionalisation. Nevertheless, the contribution of tutors was clearly intended to be distinctive.

Turning to ITT co-ordinators, they (like tutors) work with students in classrooms less closely than mentors, so naturally were expected to be less involved in training students. This parallels ITT co-ordinators' relatively limited focus on classroom and practical issues when supporting students' development of 'good practice' in teaching (see pp. 190-191 above). Slightly surprising, perhaps, in view of the breadth of experience typifying ITT co-ordinators, they were ascribed no more responsibility for relating practice to theory than were mentors.

However, the limitations of using relatively broad categories are shown by a closer examination of the data describing ITT co-ordinators' intended involvement in assessing students. These data show that ITT co-ordinators were associated with the assessment of general professional work, and moderating assessments, rather than making more detailed contributions to student profiles. Also, although there were almost as many references to classroom observation of students by ITT co-ordinators as by mentors, the former again typically moderated rather than made detailed summative assessments of students' teaching. This reinforces the managerial nature of their rôle as evidenced in the HEI documentation. Before examining how respondents' experiences compared with the HEI intentions, an interesting variation across HEI-school partnership will be considered.

iii.   HEI-school partnership

The distinction between the documentation of old/new universities and colleges in terms of the conceptions of teaching promoted, and of participants' management responsibilities (see pp. 198*ff.* below) also extends to the emphasis they placed on the nature of participants' work with students. Thus, the new universities and colleges placed less emphasis on *theory*-related work with students, and more on *training*, than did the old universities. Chart III-C below shows the balance between the emphasis on the two forms of work. The relative emphasis on these has been established by deducting the number of categories of work which involved theory from those characterised as a process of training in the content analysis of the HEI documentation. As there were more references to training than to theory-related work in the HEI documentation, a high 'score' in Chart III-C below represents a greater relative emphasis on training.

Chart III-C:
The relative emphasis on training and examining theory:
Variation between the intentions of HEIs
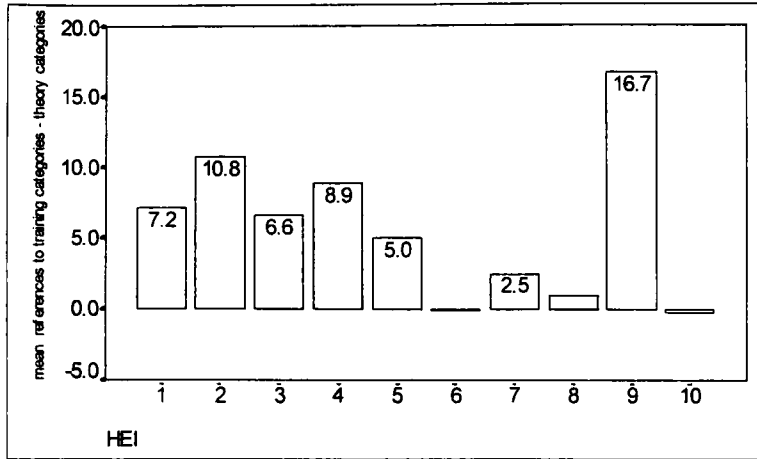
(10 sets of HEI documentation)

Thus, the HEI documentation of the new universities and colleges (HEIs 9, 2, 4, and 1) placed relatively more emphasis on training than on theory-related work than that of the old universities. Again, this has a face validity in view of the historic concerns of these two sectors of higher education.

The data here therefore reinforce the suggestion that there is continuing room for HEIs to develop courses which are distinctive, despite the increasing regulation of central agencies such as the TTA. Equally, it supports House's (1979) contention that those making and implementing policy need to attend to cultural factors if they want to maximise their influence over the outcomes. More recently, Fullan (1994) has focused on how the individuals involved interpret the meaning of change, and so shape the results of policy and practice reforms. Which is an appropriate lead-in to examining the experience of questionnaire respondents.

B. The experience of respondents

Participants' experiences of teachers' and tutors' work with students were established through a questionnaire survey, using categories similar to those derived from the HEI documentation. Each of the ITT co-ordinator, mentor, and tutor respondents provided data which represented the nature of their work with students in four categories described below. Students reported their experience with both teachers and with tutors in separate sets of responses, which included an additional category of critical work with teachers and tutors. The extent to which respondents were involved in each category of this work was established through a 5-point Likert-type scale of 'none' to 'a lot'. The four main categories used here were adapted from a research project reported by Yeomans and Sampson (1994). The italicised phrases describe the aspects of the categories examined in the questionnaire:

- managing the structure of the course, i.e., *providing students with information about the school*
- supporting, i.e., *building the confidence of students through encouragement*
- educating, i.e., *relating classroom practice to theories*
- training, i.e., *telling students how to deal with specific situations*
- critical, i.e., *examining teaching from a moral, social, or political viewpoint*

Respondents also had the opportunity to nominate other forms of their work on the course, which will be reported separately. As before, these data will first be examined at the overall level across all partnerships and respondent rôles, and then from the perspective of each of these rôles.

i.   *The courses overall*

The nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students is set out in Chart III-D below. The category most extensively experienced was that which *supported* students

Chart III-D:
The nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students:
The courses overall
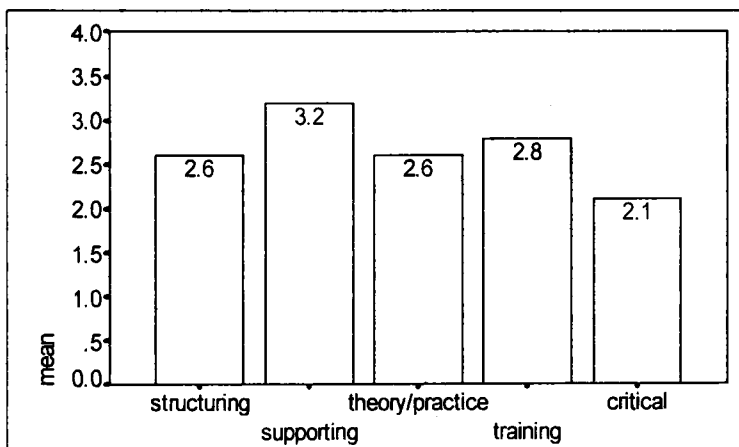
(N = 1071, 1076, 1072, 1073, 425 questionnaire responses to the respective categories above

The primacy of this supportive work with students is unsurprising, because it is a well-established practice (e.g., Back and Booth, 1992), which did not require teachers or tutors to develop new skills or attitudes. The emphasis on supporting students was far greater in practice than it was in the HEI documentation, but this may have been because, as suggested above, the existing prevalence of this nature of work in ITT meant it did not *need* to be emphasised in the HEI documentation. which may, indeed, have been designed to increase the ratio of challenge to support.

The extent to which work with students involved *structuring* their experience by giving them information about schools may indicate one of the benefits of school-based ITT. It has been suggested, by Elliott and Calderhead (1993), that this information is

necessary not only for students to survive in classrooms but for the richer 'case knowledge' which, they argue, supports student learning.

Work with students also often involved the relatively restricted form of *training* characterised by telling them what to do. The emphasis on skills-based competences in *Circular 9/92*, together with the opportunity that students had for working with experienced teachers and tutors, means this should not be surprising. The emphasis on training-type work contrasts with the limited extent to which students' work with teachers and tutors was *critical* in examining teaching from varied moral, social and political perspectives. This complements the finding that there was relatively limited support for the critical conceptions of teaching and reflection (see p.156 and p. 252). These data might (with the limited promotion of a critical conception of teaching (see Chart II-C, p.156 above)), therefore, seem to confirm the fears of those who believe the development of school-based ITT has been guided by New Right criticism of educational theory (e.g. Lawlor, 1990), cutting knowledge of theory off from teachers and deprofessionalising them (e.g., Moore, 1994).

However, although support for work of a critical nature with students was reported to be limited, there was a greater emphasis on work which was educative in its concern with relating practice to theory. Moreover, if theory needs to be related to classrooms in ways which are impossible in lectures, as Stones (1994) argues, it may be that school-based ITT courses have *increased* students' meaningful experience of theory which, Carr (1992) argued, had a limited place in pre-*Circular 9/92* courses anyway. This is supported by Dunne's (1993b) study of traditional HEI-based courses, which showed that even those students who had developed ideas of what theory meant to them had difficulties in relating this to practice. The picture is clearly complex, and it will therefore be helpful to examine the nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students from the perspectives of each of the respondent rôles for the light it throws upon the nature of school-based ITT courses.

First, however, it is useful to examine briefly the 170 additional categories of work with students which were nominated by respondents in open responses to the questionnaires. The category most often highlighted was that of 'general support', which was referred to by 18 respondents; this complements the emphasis on the supportive encouragement evidenced in Chart III-D above.

These data were also analysed to establish broader categories than the precise ones used in the coding process. The headings listed in *Circular 9/92* were found useful here. The heading of 'Subject Knowledge' was referred to just 9 times, but there were 33 nominations within the category of 'Subject Application', of which 12 referred to lesson planning and 10 to the use of a range of teaching strategies. Surprisingly, there were

only 2 references to that common concern of students, 'discipline', and just 18 which fell within the broader heading of 'Classroom Management'; this, moreover, includes 8 references to safety-related issues raised by those involved in science courses. The importance placed upon 'Assessment and Recording of Pupils' Progress' in *Circular 9/92* may be indicated by its division into five sub-categories, but there were just 3 references to it as a focus of teachers' and tutors' work with students. The catch-all nature of the final heading in this list of competences, 'Further Professional Development', partly explains the large number of references, 36, within this category, though 17 references to reflection and/or evaluation emphasise the importance placed upon these processes in ITT courses.

Many of the additional categories nominated by respondents did not fit within these competence-related headings. Of these, many focused on processes rather than purposes of courses; observation and associated feedback were prime examples of this.

ii. The perspective of teachers, tutors and students

Turning to the nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students, this will be examined, to increase our understanding of the distinctiveness of their contribution to ITT courses. The experience of respondents will then be compared with the course intentions as established in the HEI documentation. As before, the student perspective has been included so the courses may be viewed from each of the perspectives surveyed here, but it has been discussed separately and related to the data collated from those contributing to the courses as a whole, rather than to each of the rôles involved separately.

Mentors and, especially, ITT co-ordinators were, as one might expect from their location, notable for the extent to which they *structured* students' experience by providing them with information about schools, as Chart III-E below shows.

Chart III-E:
The nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students:
<u>*The contribution of teachers and tutors*</u>
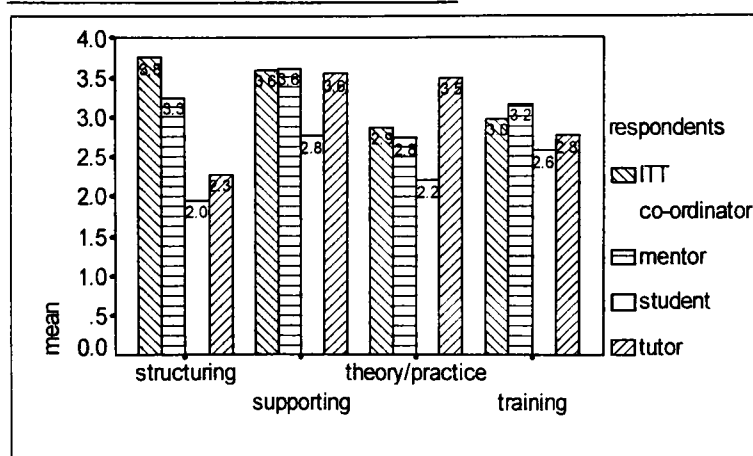
(N = 175-176 questionnaire responses from ITT co-ordinators 368-370 from mentors, 101-102 from tutors to the respective categories above)

ITT co-ordinators' provision of information complements their responsibility for managing those aspects of the school-based courses which transcended the classroom, and parallels the prime responsibility for this which they were allocated in the HEI documentation. It also complement's Wang's (2001) finding that mentors in Britain placed a greater emphasis on students working in ways similar to those of the teachers in their department than was the case in the USA or China.

Mentors were notable for their emphasis on training students which, complementing their relatively extensive promotion of the technical conception of teaching (see Chart II-J, p. 174 above), evidences support for a restricted form of professionalism. This may be influenced by the focus on those classroom concerns for which mentors had prime responsibility, a link reinforced by the nature of the additional categories of work mentors provided in their responses, 12 of which focused on planning lessons and/or teaching strategies. Conversely, there was just one reference to work involving wider policy issues. This vocational emphasis here is highlighted when the data are contrasted with that from Germany, where mentors are far less often perceived by students as a model of practice (Jones, 2000). Responsibility for training was, however, shared between the respondent rôles more equally than indicated in the HEI documentation (see Chart III-B, p.213 above). A key factor explaining the significant differences that there were, seems to be how close teachers and tutors were to students' work in the classroom. The impact of location may be emphasised by the fact that ITT co-ordinators' contribution to 'training' was greater than that envisaged in the HEI documentation. Nevertheless, tutors were more involved in training forms of work than those who see them as working in ivory towers suggest (complementing Smith's (2000) conclusion - based on a survey of over 150 students - that tutors have become trainers rather than educators). The validity of these data is supported by it paralleling the respondent rôles' relative contributions to the technical conception of teaching (see p. 162 above). This reinforces previous evidence in this study that institutional location and responsibilities may be more important in orientating practice than any inherent differences between teachers and tutors. The distinctive contribution of the different rôles is highlighted in the statistical significance of the variation shown in Table III-B below.

Table III-B:
Statistical significance of the variation between the nature of the work of teachers and tutors in ITT courses:
<u>The contribution of teachers and tutors</u>

nature of work in ITT courses	statistical significance of variation between			
	all rôles	ITT co-ordinators &		mentors & tutors
		mentors	tutors	
structuring	.0000	.0002	.0002	.0009
supporting	.0001	.1912	.6531	.2899
practice/theory	.0000	.8703	.0014	.0002
training	.0000	.00157	.0199	.0002

(N = 175-176 questionnaire responses from ITT co-ordinators 368-370 from mentors, 101-102 from tutors to the respective categories above)

The work of mentors in particular involved forms of training more than it did the educational concern of *relating practice with theory*. This parallels the findings of, for example, Dunne and Bennett (1997), although the level of mentors' and ITT co-ordinators' involvement in work which related practice and theory shown in this study suggests that they shared tutors' responsibility for developing students' understanding of theory to a greater extent than was indicated in the HEI documentation. It may be argued, therefore, that teachers went some way towards fulfilling a responsibility for relating practice and theory which they have been given by commentators such as Kirkham (1992) and Franke and Dahlgren (1996). This may reflect the growing confidence and experience of teachers as they move from a supervisory to an educative involvement in ITT, a conclusion which may be supported by Reid's (1999) finding that teachers involved in ITT were more likely to value theory than those who were not. This suggests it should not too easily be assumed that teachers support a restricted form of professionalism. The data here are, however, not conclusive. It was tutors who emphasised the importance of relating practice and theory to support students' development of 'good practice' in teaching (see p.193 above), and they may have had a rather more academically oriented understanding of 'theory' than teachers. Certainly it was tutors rather than teachers who referred to 'reflection' when nominating additional forms of work in their responses. The data here may therefore underestimate the differences in this dimension of tutors' and teachers' work. This conclusion may be supported by reports that mentors read little about (Lucas, 1996), and feel that they have very limited knowledge of, educational theory (e.g., Jones *et al.*, 1997). The data from students presented in Chart III-F below tend to support these latter views.

Turning to work which involved *supporting* students, it is well known that students get notoriously tense about their classroom-related work (e.g., Haggarty, 1997), and appreciate support and encouragement (Williams, 1994b, c). It is notable that ITT co-ordinators reported that they supported students almost as much as the mentors who worked so closely with students in classrooms, despite their less close working relationship with students, as previously evidenced (e.g., in Chart II-X, p. 194 above). Of course, ITT co-ordinators' distance from events in classrooms may have at times allowed them to be supportive in those times of difficulty when mentors had the prime responsibility for applying the pressure which the development of classroom practice often requires. Also, the nature of ITT co-ordinators' work as set out in the HEI documentation provided similar levels of support for students, as Chart III-E (p. 219 above) shows. The concept of 'support', and the different types provided by those involved in ITT courses, may deserve further examination.

The nature of the additional categories of work nominated by ITT co-ordinators in their open responses to the questionnaires reinforces the evidence that they supported

students almost as much as mentors. Of 39 responses, 7 referred to general support for students, which compares to just 5 from mentors - even though there were over twice the number of mentor respondents to the questionnaires. The breadth of ITT co-ordinators' responsibilities is evidenced by 5 references to work involving whole-school policy issues, while the managerial nature of their rôle is reflected in the three references to 'negotiating'; they made just 4 references to work which focused directly on the classroom. Of course, the limited number of those providing these additional responses does limit the weight that should be put upon such data and its analysis here, though its congruence with other data discussed above supports its validity.

In their responses, students distinguished between the nature of their work with teachers, and that with tutors. Chart III-F below therefore describe the experience of students, which is interesting in itself, as well as providing triangulation with the combined data from the teacher and tutor contributors to the course.

Chart III-F:
The nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students:
The perspective of students
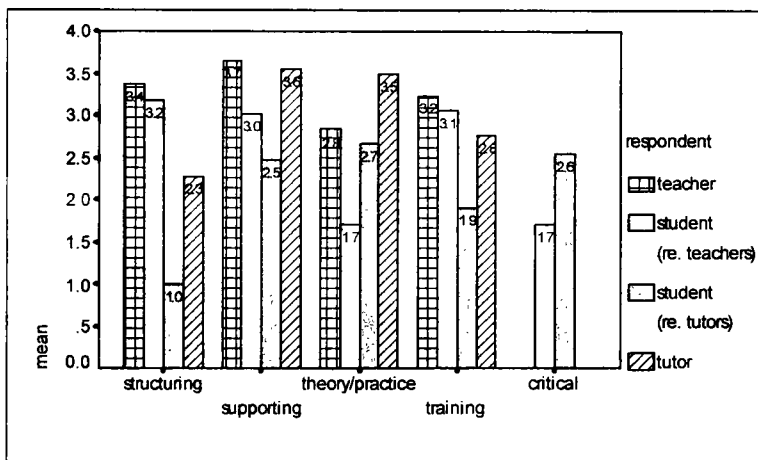
(N = 427, 428, 425, 428 425 questionnaire responses from students to the respective categories above)

Broadly speaking, the profile of the data from students is similar to that from teachers and tutors. This congruence supports the validity of the data. Before examining the data in more detail, it is worth drawing attention to the fact that the data from students are generally characterised by lower mean values than that of the comparable data from teachers and, particularly, tutors. This may indicate that those contributing to the courses were more aware of the extent of their contribution than were the students experiencing it, a not uncommon sort of gap in perceptions. The greater variation between the data from students and tutors than that between students and teachers may reflect students' perceptions of the relative extents of teachers' and tutors' contributions to the course; alternatively, it may indicate that students were less aware of tutors' work and intentions than they were of teachers' The statistical significance

of the variation between the data from students and teachers/tutors across the natures of work examined is presented in Table III-C below.

Table III-C:
Statistical significance of the variation between the nature of the work of teachers and tutors in ITT courses:
The perspective of students

nature of work in ITT courses	statistical significance of variation between	
	students re teachers & teachers	students re tutors & tutors
structuring	.3089	.0375
supporting	.0250	.0002
practice/theory	.0000	.0002
training	.8365	.0233

(N = 427, 428, 425, 428 questionnaire responses from students to the respective categories above)

In view of the discussion of teachers' and tutors' involvement in relating practice with theory, it is notable that students perceived that *tutors* were more involved in this type of work. Indeed, this is the only category here in which the gap between teachers' and students' perceptions of their involvement in it was greater than that between students and tutors. This may indicate that teachers overestimated the extent of their work in this area more than did tutors. Alternatively, it may have reflected a more inclusive definition of 'theory' held by teachers, or the effect of students' preconceptions of the rôle of tutors as suffused with theory. The interrelationship of theory and practice in ITT courses is a less common topic for enquiry than it once was, but may deserve continuing attention. It has, as Wilkin (1990, 1996a) has shown, been a significant issue in, even motor of, the development of ITT in recent decades.

Students also experienced lower levels of support than teachers and tutors felt they had provided. This may in part reflect the high levels of anxiety from which students suffer on courses (Capel, 1995). The natural tendency for students to hide at least some of their anxieties from those assessing them may have influenced respondents' perceptions of the level of encouragement students both needed and received.

The data from students also varied with statistical significance in comparison with that from tutors in their experience of work which *structured* their experience in school, and that which acted as a form of *training*. It may be significant that both these categories were relatively specific to the context of a school, rather than schools in general. The gap between the reported experiences of tutors and students may, therefore, represent the limited ability of students to apply tutors' more generalised information and advice to their specific context. The similar profile of the data from students and teachers in these areas may reinforce the validity of previous discussions of the relative contributions of teachers and tutors to the courses.

Students also reported on the extent to which their work with teachers and tutors involved *examining teaching from a moral, social or political viewpoint*. They experienced this nature of work with tutors more than with teachers (a variation at the statistically significant level of .0002), as Chart III-G below shows.

Chart III-G:
The work of teachers and tutors in examining moral, social or political viewpoints in ITT courses:
The perspective of students
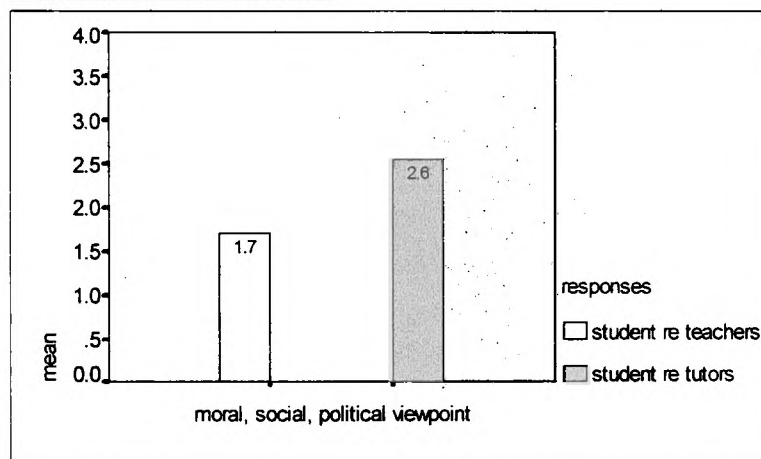
(N = 428, 426 questionnaire responses from students to the respective categories above)

Examining teaching from moral, social or political viewpoints is closely associated with the critical conception of teaching, so the data here reinforce the association of tutors with this conception (as discussed above, pp. 174-177)

In general, the data in this study have suggested that distinctions between teachers and tutors in terms of the conceptions of teaching they promoted in ITT courses are real, but should not be exaggerated. Here, the differing extent to which the work of teachers and tutors involved examining social, moral or political viewpoints is, however, drawn particularly strongly. As with differences in the educative and training forms of work, there is more evidence that tutors supported a more extended form of professionalism than teachers. On the other hand, it is possible that students' responses here may have been influenced by their expectations, as well as their experience, of the rôles of teachers and tutors.

Like teachers and tutors, students were able to nominate additional categories of work which they experienced on the courses. The category they referred to most often comprised various forms of *support*. Others related to the competence headings used in *Circular 9/92*. These were, in declining order of references included, 'Subject Application', 'Further Professional Development', 'Assessment and Recording of Pupils' Progress', although the weight one can put upon this evidence is limited by the number of references involved, which ran from seven to four in these categories. There were again, surprisingly, few references to issues of 'Classroom Management'.

Possibly the most significant aspect of the data here is that students reported that teachers provided more support than tutors in all of these categories.

iii.   HEI-school partnership

We have seen that the distinction in course intentions of old and new universities/colleges (with the former showing greater support for critical, and less for the technical, conception of *teaching*) was not maintained in practice. Similarly, although old universities have been seen (p. 216 above) to place more emphasis on theory-related work, and less on training, than the universities at the level of course intention, this was not evidenced in respondents' experiences.

Interestingly, although SCITTs have been associated elsewhere in this study with promoting technical rather than critical conceptions of teaching, the evidence here provides only limited support for this conclusion.

As Chart III-H below shows, SCITTs were at the top-end of courses characterised by the technical form of work with students, i.e. 'telling them how to deal with specific situations', but not distinctively so. Indeed, there was little variation here across the courses.

Chart III-H:
The extent to which teachers' and tutors' work with students
involved telling them how to deal with specific situations:
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
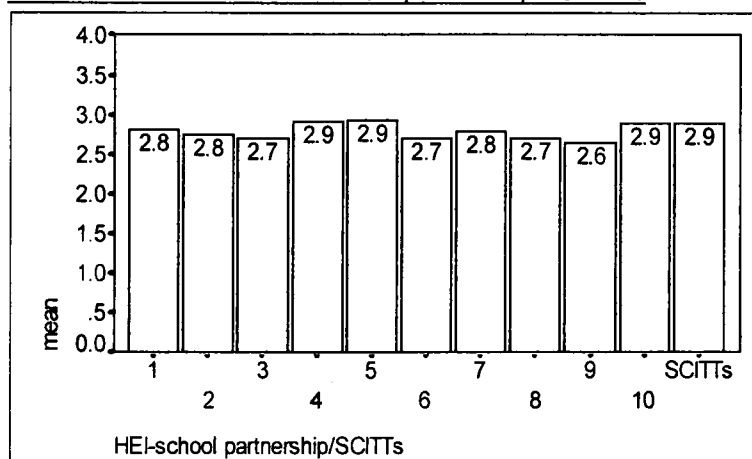
(N = 103, 60, 186, 121, 144, 100, 88, 69, 83, 91, 41 questionnaires relating
to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)

While there is some evidence that SCITTs made relatively little contribution to extending students' development beyond the technical conception of teaching, the increased time which students spent in schools in SCITTs may have enabled them to gain more contextual knowledge than would otherwise have been the case. Students' work in the SCITTs provided them with information about their school to a greater extent than in HEI-school partnerships, as reported in Chart III-I below.

Chart III-I:
The extent to which teachers' and tutors' work with students involved providing information about the school
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
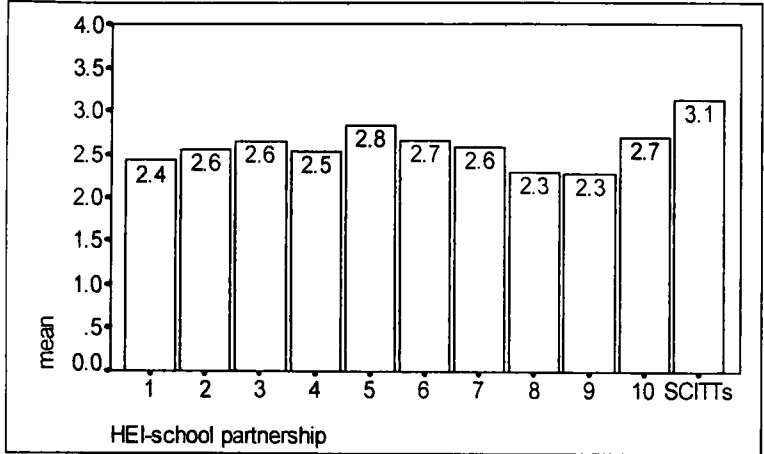
(N = 102, 60, 191, 122, 153, 104, 89, 71, 84, 95, 45 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)

Providing students with knowledge about the school in which they are teaching may be a process which socialises (Lacey, 1977) or acculturates (Wooldridge and Yeomans, 1994) students into school norms. This may be associated with the technical conception of teaching. Alternatively, such information may enable students to better understand and learn from teachers' use of their tacit knowledge (Woods, 1987), develop an educational concern with contexts (Smyth, 1987b), support a sense-making constructivist approach, and learn more through their complex school experience (Russell, 1993) - which may be associated with the interpretive conception of teaching. Establishing the more likely outcome would require a closer qualitative study.

In view of evidence in this study that SCITTs may support a relatively restricted form of professionalism, it is interesting that their work with students was characterised by a relatively large amount of work relating practice to theory, as Chart III-J below indicates.

Chart III-J:
The extent to which teachers' and tutors' work with students involved relating practice to theory
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
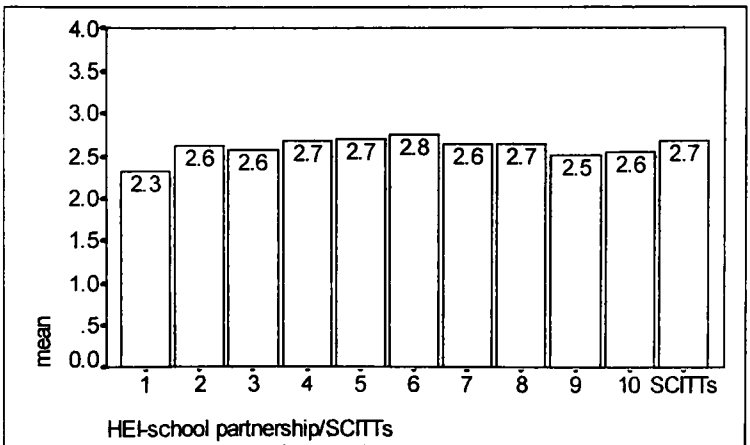
(N = 104, 60, 191, 122, 153, 104, 89, 71, 84, 98, 45 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)

The data here may raise questions about the continuing validity of claims that examining theory is as distinctive an attribute of the HEI contribution to ITT (e.g., Pring, 1996). The relative levels of expertise in schools and HEIs has changed, Bridges (1996) notes. However, examining the contributions of the respondent rôles in Chart III-K below, shows that tutors' contribution *was* distinctive: they were more fully involved in work relating practice to theory than were teachers in any course, including SCITTs.

Chart III-K:
The extent to which teachers' and tutors' work with students involved relating practice to theory
<u>*Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs*</u>
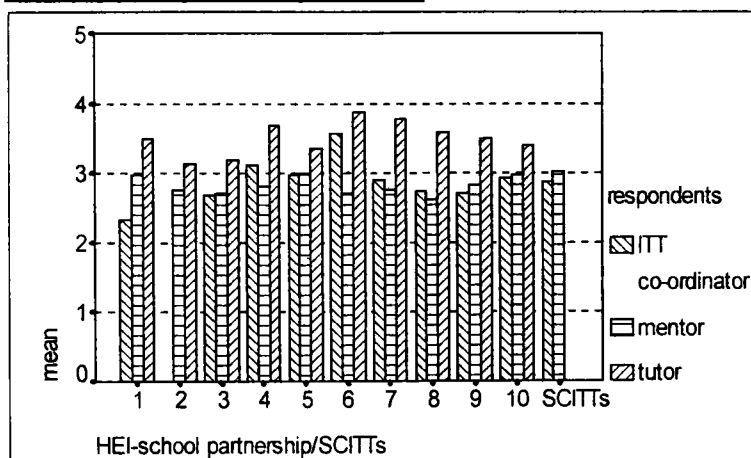
(N = 104, 60, 190, 122, 152, 103, 89, 70, 83, 98, 41 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)

The relatively large contribution here of mentors in SCITTs reinforces previous indications that they may have compensated for the lack of tutors' involvement by increasing the extent of their own involvement in relating practice to theory. It seems students' work in SCITTs need not be atheoretical. This level of involvement of mentors in theory-related work may even increase the opportunity to improve theory by grounding and testing it more extensively, as advocated by Carr (1995b). On the other hand, variation here may be influenced by differing understandings of the nature of 'theory'

Chart III-L below, focusing on a technical form of work, strengthens the conclusion that teachers in SCITTs did not necessarily support a restricted form of professionalism more strongly than those in HEI-school partnerships.

Chart III-L:
The extent to which teachers' and tutors' work with students
involved telling them how to deal with specific situations
Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across
the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
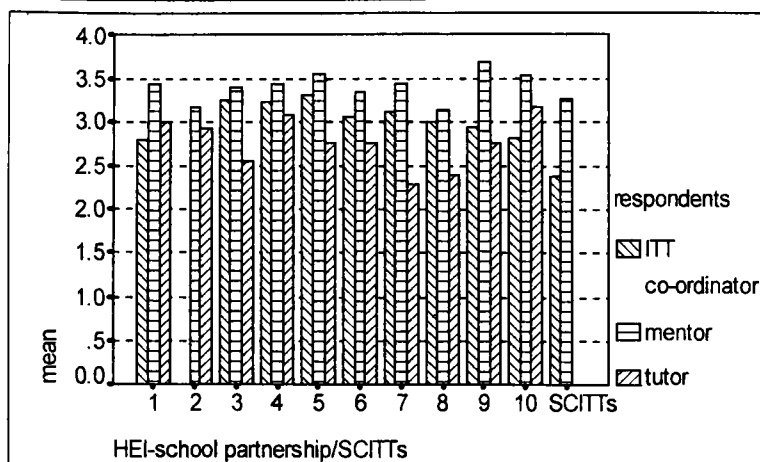
(N = 104, 60, 191, 121, 152, 104, 88, 71, 84, 97, 41 questionnaires
relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs above)

Moreover, as when examining conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT, it seems that generalisations about the differing contributions of participant rôles need to be dealt with cautiously. While tutors generally contributed to this technical form of work less than did ITT co-ordinators, this was not so in HEIs 1 and 10. Associating the technical conception with the work of teachers rather than tutors in ITT is not an absolute truth.

C.   Summary

This section has examined the nature of teachers' and tutors' work in ITT courses at the levels of HEI intentions (evidenced in HEI documentation) and of practice (reported by respondents through questionnaires).

At this level of intention, there was a heavy emphasis in the HEI documentation on training-type work, but still more on an educative approach. Moreover, although there were many references to work relating to the assessment of students[2], the educative intent of the courses was extended by the formative nature of much of the assessment. The primary rôle of mentors in both these categories of training and of educating students suggests these categories should not be treated as dichotomous,

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[2] Analysis of the HEI documentation showed that there was also particular emphasis on teachers' and tutors' responsibilities for monitoring the experiences and progress of students. This was a responsibility which extended to mentors as well as to ITT co-ordinators and tutors, although it was most extensive when associated with the broader responsibilities of the latter two rôles. Similarly, responsibility for managing the courses rested in particular with ITT co-ordinators, who had relatively broad responsibilities for the courses in school. The primarily school-based location of the courses almost certainly explains tutors' limited responsibility for managing students' experiences of the courses.

and reinforces the centrality of mentors to the process of enabling students to become teachers. Further, it suggests that changes in the form of teacher professionalism supported by ITT courses are complex, and need not represent the straightforward deprofessionalisation which critics of recent reforms in ITT have suggested. The complementary nature of tutors' contributions to courses was reflected in their predominant rôle in theory-related work. The relatively limited emphasis on work supportive of students may, it was suggested, have reflected teachers' and tutors' prior experience of this form of work.

Certainly, the *experience* of respondents was that work which *supported* students through encouragement was the most common form examined here, and this was so for all participant rôles. More general forms of support were also the most prevalent of the additional categories nominated by respondents. The school-based nature of the courses, and the breadth of ITT co-ordinators' responsibilities relative to mentors', were reflected in the relative contributions of teachers and tutors to *structuring* students' experience by providing them with information about schools. That this was a function of school-based training is supported by SCITTs supporting students' work more than did HEI-school partnerships. An association of responsibilities with institutional location was also evident in the relative contribution of teachers and tutors to training-type work, and to relating practice and theory. As when examining the conceptions of teaching promoted through the courses, however, it is possible to interpret these latter data as indicating that ITT co-ordinators and mentors made a greater contribution than is often indicated in the literature to extended forms of professionalism. It has been suggested that the meaning of theory for students may even have been extended (in certain classroom-focused aspects at least) by the school-based nature of the courses. This challenges the commonplace association of school-based ITT with an undifferentiated and restricted form of professionalism. Conversely, tutors were found to have contributed more to the *training* of students than might be expected from much of the literature or, indeed, from the HEI documentation examined here.

The data from students broadly supported that from ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors in distinguishing between their relative contributions. This includes the predominance, but arguably not the absolute dominance, of tutors in work which involved *relating practice to theory*. The greater involvement of tutors than teachers in work which examined teaching from moral, social and political viewpoints strengthened the association of tutors with the *critical* conception of teaching and an extended form of professionalism.

Students reported that they experienced lower levels of the categories of work examined here than those indicated by the teacher and tutor contributors to the courses. This may reflect a common gap in communication and learning, although it may also indicate that teachers and tutors could at times be more explicit about the purpose and nature of their work with students.

The nature of the additional categories of work nominated by respondents reinforces the conclusion that the courses did not support a narrow focus on classroom management. While distinctions between the actual, as well as planned, contributions of ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors remain clear, the areas of difference should not be extended on the basis of stereotypes. For example, while the classroom focus of mentors' work has again been evident, those with broad managerial responsibilities (ITT co-ordinators) or located distant from classrooms (tutors) provided similar levels of supportive encouragement for students as those who worked most closely with students in classrooms (mentors). Overall, it is clear that just as teachers and tutors had both broader and narrower management responsibilities, so the courses comprised work designed to both educate and train students - and that both teachers and tutors were involved to a significant extent in these forms of work. The dangers of stereotyping are highlighted again when examining the data at the level of the participant rôles. For example, tutors promoted a technical of work more fully than did ITT co-ordinators in some HEI-school partnerships, despite this not being the case generally - and in contrast to widely held views of their respective contributions; this reinforces a conclusion from the previous Section.

IV.   The form of students' reflection in ITT courses

Having examined the nature of participants' work in ITT courses in general, we turn now to a more specific form of students' work: 'reflection'. The continuing importance of this term in ITT generally has been discussed above (see pp. 43*ff.*), and is confirmed by the emphasis upon it in the HEI documentation examined here. It would seem, therefore, to be an important part of the process through which students developed their understanding and practice of teaching. Students' reflective work has again been analysed here in terms of the framework for technical, interpretive and critical conceptions, thus adding another dimension to the picture of ITT courses drawn in the two preceding Sections.

The focus of the literature on reflection has tended in Britain to be limited to the level of theory, or to practice within a particular HEI-school partnership. This study is therefore distinctive in that it is concerned with the *focus* of reflection, rather than the process which has been more often examined; moreover, it is based on data from a *range* of HEIs. As with the other aspects of the ITT courses examined in this study, course intentions (as evidenced in HEI documentation) will be compared with the experience of participants (as reported in their responses to the questionnaires). These experiences will be examined as before, at the levels of the course overall, of the perspectives of the participant rôles, and across the HEI-school partnerships and SCITTs. The following analysis is, therefore, felt to be distinctive not only in adding another dimension to our understanding of the form of teacher professionalism promoted though ITT, but in the focus of the empirically-based analysis of the nature of ITT students' reflection.

A.   HEI intentions

The examination of HEI intentions supplements the brief and generalised references to reflection made when examining the conceptions of teaching intended to be promoted through the courses (see pp. 141*ff.* above). This more detailed examination of the HEI documentation facilitates comparisons of HEI *intentions* with the *practice* of participants on ITT courses, which was examined in terms of the foci of students' reflective work, and thereby supports the coherence of this study.

The lack of precision with which the term 'reflection' continues to be evident even in the influential *Dearing Report* (1997). Interviews with HEI course leaders showed that they were well aware that 'reflection' has often been used in an imprecise way, yet the clarity with which they understood the term was not matched by usage in the HEI documentation. This may be unsurprising in view of the time required to make the successive changes to the documentation necessary to meet external demands. Particular areas in which the HEI documentation might be developed to establish intentions more precisely, and

thus influence the form of teacher professionalism promoted, have been suggested below on the basis of the analysis of the documentation.

Paralleling the examination of respondents' experiences, the documentation was inductively analysed to establish the *foci* of students' reflective work at this level of HEI intention. It also proved possible to establish the *purposes* of this reflection, adding a powerful dimension to the data here. Interestingly, it was these purposes and foci of reflection which Ecclestone (1996) has said need to be more explicit in studies of reflection in contrast to the more usual emphasis on the process of reflection. Intentions have been established at the level of the key participants examined in this study (i.e., ITT co-ordinators, mentors, tutors, and students), as well as of the courses overall. This extends the understanding of expectations (and how they compare with experiences) established previously. It also proved possible to establish the intended means of support for students' reflection, which are not only an important part of course experiences, but can inform our views as to how courses may be developed.

Analysis of the categories of reflection in the HEI documentation indicated that it was appropriate to set them within the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching. Some may find the possible association of reflection with the technical conception to be problematic. Schon (1983), for example, explicitly set reflection in opposition to a technical-rational paradigm which limited teachers' development. However, while Schon is concerned with tacit and intuitive, rather than 'rational', forms of knowledge, it is suggested here that the personal dimension within which he sets reflection allows it to be associated with issues of personal effectiveness and, hence, the technical conception. This is a point which is discussed further when foci within the critical conception of reflection are examined below. There are also, of course, other analyses which refer to a technical conception of reflection (e.g. Van Manen, 1977).

Relating HEI intentions to this model of conceptions of reflection had the significant benefit of supporting the coherence of this study. A common framework and language are felt to add meaning to the analysis of the different aspects of the ITT courses examined here. This, it is believed, more than compensated for the inherent difficulties of reliability and validity involved in analysing the documentation in terms of a model of conceptions not used by those writing it. In addition to the usual checking and re-checking of the categorisation of particular phrases (greatly helped by using the NUDIST computer program), reliability and validity were supported by the data having to be re-coded and re-analysed so that the format of its presentation more precisely matched that used in other aspects of this study. Also, although the definitions of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching in the context of this analysis of reflection were already helpfully broad and robust, previous use of this

framework had helped develop the precise coding rules which Holsti (1968) emphasised are of prime importance in supporting reliability.

The emphasis placed on these forms of reflection at the level of the courses overall was established in terms of the number of HEIs which referred to particular *categories* of reflection rather than simply reporting the total number of references to those categories in absolute terms. This means of processing the data, similar to that used when examining the HEI documentation in terms of the nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students, supported the validity of the data by ensuring that the emphasis on a particular form of reflection was not due, for example, to the design of the documentation, some examples of which repeated particular aims and requirements when discussing each of the participant rôles.

As when examining the nature of partnership and of teachers' and tutors' work with students, the data will first be examined at the level of the courses overall, across all HEI-school partnerships and participant rôles, and then in terms of the responsibilities particular rôles had for supporting reflection by students. These HEI intentions will then be compared with the importance placed upon the foci of students' reflection in practice, as evidenced in responses to the questionnaires.

i.   The courses overall

The *purposes* of students' reflection will be examined first, before moving on to its *foci*.

a)   the purposes of students' reflection

As indicated above, the categories describing the *purposes* of students' reflective work were inductively derived from content analysis of the HEI documentation, and then set within the model of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions. Moving from the general to the particular, the purposes of reflection will first be set in the framework of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of *reflection* (as they are in this context). The composition of each of these three conceptions will then be examined in more detail.

(1)   the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection

On the basis of the literature review (see e.g. pp. 51*ff.*), the technical conception of these purposes of reflection was defined as characterised by a concern with '*improvement*' of students' teaching within a given context, set of objectives, skills, or techniques. The purposes of reflection within the interpretive conception were more open, that is they were concerned with *change*, with moving a student beyond practice set within a particular context or view of teaching. The critical conception here, as in the critical conception of teaching, was characterised by the purpose of *examining*

what was being reflected upon from different perspectives, of questioning the basis of its justification. Fuller details of the characteristics of each of these conceptions of reflection will be given when they are examined below.

Chart IV-A below describes the extent to which ITT courses, as represented through their HEI documentation, intended to promote the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of purposes of reflection. The bars in the chart represent the mean of the number of categories within each conception referred to by each HEI, with the technical conception of reflection clearly pre-eminent.

Chart IV-A:
The purposes of students' reflection within the technical,
interpretive and critical conceptions
HEI intentions for the courses overall
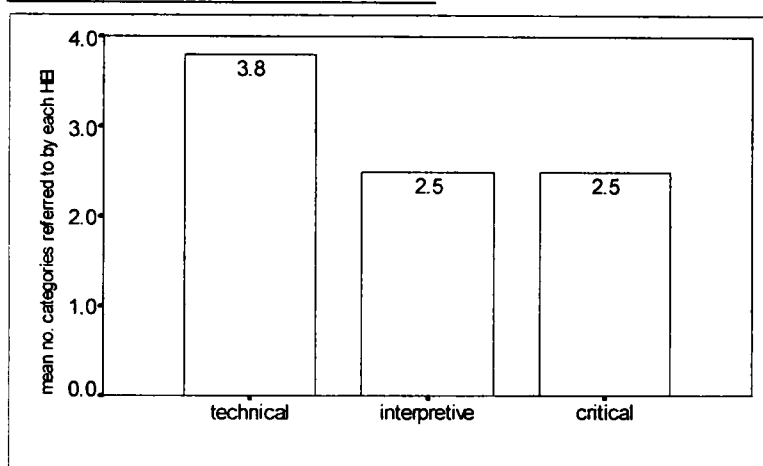
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The prominence of the technical conception here matches that found when examining the conceptions of teaching promoted in the HEI documentation (see pp. 140ff. above). This may seem surprising because reflection has often been associated with the rôle of HEIs rather than schools (e.g. Smith and Alred, 1993; Salmon, 1995). The evidence that HEIs intended ITT courses to promote a technical conception of reflection contrasts with the wider-ranging concern commonly accorded to HEIs' work (e.g. Hullfish and Smith, 1961; Calderhead and Gates, 1993b). It may reinforce the conclusion that reflection tends to have utilitarian concerns (Popkewitz, 1987), and even that sophisticated reflection is beyond the capability of students (e.g. Van Manen, 1995). On the other hand, the critical conception was more strongly represented in relation to reflection than it was to ideas about teaching. Reflection may, therefore, still have a relatively significant part to play in promoting a critical conception in ITT courses overall.

(2)   the technical conception of reflection
Examining the technical conception of reflection in more detail can inform our view of the extent to which this represents a restricted form of professionalism. The categories

derived from inductive analysis of the HEI documentation indicated that the purposes of reflection within the technical conception were concerned with:

- *self-evaluation,* i.e., encouraging and stimulating students' evaluation of how well they had taught in the classroom
- *effectiveness,* i.e., of students' teaching performance, often described in terms of skills
- *targets,* i.e., expressed in terms of intended outcomes, or of particular strategies to be tried out, as a means to improve students' teaching
- *competence,* i.e., of the student in the classroom
- *identifying strengths,* i.e., as part of the process of analysing students' teaching, and establishing a basis to develop this
- *knowledge of a context,* i.e., to improve students' teaching performance
- *the next lesson,* i.e., to establish what the student could do better next time

The emphasis on these categories in the HEIs' documentation is shown in Chart IV-B below, with self-evaluation and of effectiveness. referred to most often

Chart IV-B:
The purposes of students' reflection within categories of the technical conception
<u>*HEI intentions for the courses overall*</u>
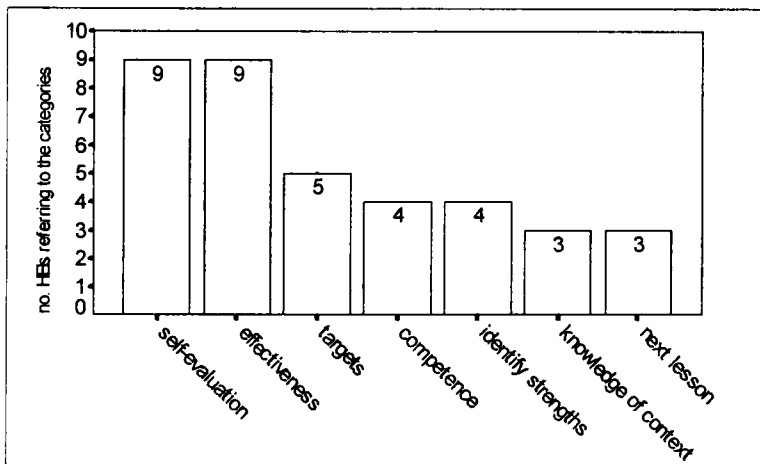
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The extent of the references to self-evaluation may support Shaw's (1995c) emphasis that this is crucial to the development of reflective practice. Alternatively, they may be perceived to be a warning indicator of students' limited experience, which constrains the breadth and depth of their reflection (McIntyre, 1993; Hayward, 1997). There is some dispute about the implications of this personal focus in reflection. Wilson (1989) sees it as de-intellectualising, while Quicke (1996) disagrees, arguing that such reflection may transcend the immediate context by developing an understanding of the tacit. It may be significant, therefore, that references in the documentation to self-

evaluation were associated with the language of effectiveness, with outcomes rather than processes. References to the other categories of purpose (i.e., 'targets', 'identify strengths') underline the association of the technical conception of reflection with a bureaucratic, even managerialist approach, while the immediacy of the demands of a *training* course may also be evident in the references to 'competence', the 'next lesson', as well as 'effectiveness'. Reflection here, therefore, seems associated more with 'training' than 'education'. This raises some doubts about whether a commitment to 'reflection' can be accepted as an unproblematic indicator of an ITT course which promotes an extended form of teacher professionalism, as implied by the ubiquitous advocacy of reflective practice. One response may be to see technical forms of reflection as representing an early developmental stage which can move on up to higher levels of reflection (e.g. Fish, 1995b; Pultorak, 1996; Shaughnessy, 1996). An arguably more positive view may be to challenge the notion of a linear, one-way progression from the technical up to more valuable forms of reflective work. Technical conceptions of reflection may be of continuing, complementary value, as well as a necessary basis for the professional development of students. Moreover, technical forms of reflection may still be a challenging form of practice, just as it has been suggested that elements within the technical conception of teaching and the notion of 'good practice' in teaching may be complex (see pp.161*ff.*, p. 169 above).

(3)   the interpretive conception of reflection

Turning to the *interpretive* conception of the purposes of reflection, these were concerned with:

- *changing practice,* i.e., teaching in a different way
- *professional development,* i.e., extending practice into new, qualitatively different, areas of practice
- *openness to ideas,* i.e., of ways to teaching, understandings of how pupils learn
- *understanding a range of contexts,* i.e., that what 'works' in one context may not be so effective in another
- *the experiences of others,* i.e., recognising these as valid, providing a different view or context of teaching

Chart IV-C below shows the extent to which these purposes of reflection were represented in the sets of HEI documentation. There is a notable emphasis on categories which are pluralistic in terms of practice ('changing practice', 'professional development') rather than those which are pluralistic in terms of knowledge ('understanding contexts' and the 'experiences of others').

Chart IV-C:
The purposes of students' reflection within categories of the interpretive conception
<u>HEI intentions for the courses overall</u>
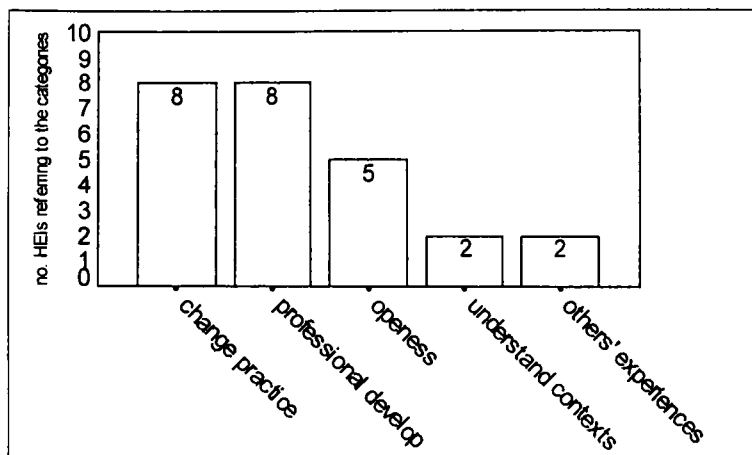
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

This emphasis on practice may indicate a commitment to establishing a reflective process which *visibly* changes what teachers do, possibly in response to external pressures for increased emphasis on outcomes in ITT courses. The more educative concerns of knowledge seem to be given a lower priority. A more positive interpretation is that this represents a determination to ensure that broad-based practice breaks the boundaries of rhetorical good intentions, which have not always been realised. The continuing concern to increase the interrelationship of theory and practice (e.g. Renshaw, 1971; Hellawell, 1985; Drever and Cope, 1999) exemplifies this.

There was also some indication of an intention to affect students' attitudes. This was evident not only in the references to the category of 'openness to ideas' (seen as an important part of the reflective process by Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989), but also in the contexts in which references to 'professional development' were made. The precise meaning of this latter term remained unclear, despite its similarity to one of the headings used in *Circular 9/92* and there being over twenty references to it across eight HEIs. Nevertheless, four HEIs went beyond the somewhat eclectic mix of categories set out in *Circular 9/92* in the ways they related professional development to student *attitudes*.

(4)   the critical conception of reflection
Within the critical conception of reflection, the purposes of reflection were found to be concerned with:

- *relating theory and practice,* i.e., using theory to examine practice, and *vice versa*
- *analysing contexts*, i.e., transcending an immediate experience/context, involving different value positions or perspectives
- *frameworks of principle,* i.e., developing and using these to examine practice
- *educational issues,* i.e., transcending particular classrooms or schools
- *examining theory*, i.e., from different theoretical positions or perspectives

It is in the nature of the critical conception to go beyond the *particularities* of practice, but the practical concerns evidenced in the technical and interpretive conceptions of reflection were also apparent in the contexts within which the critical conception of reflection was set, as Chart IV-D below shows.

Chart IV-D:
The purposes of students' reflection within categories of the
critical conception
<u>HEI intentions for the courses overall</u>
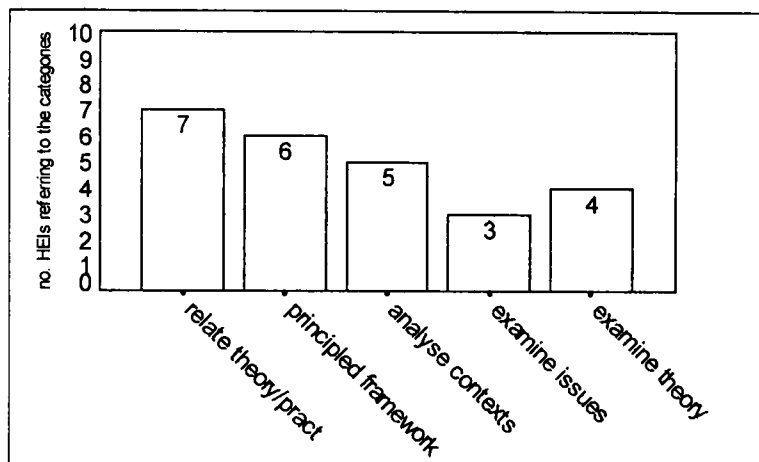
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

This emphasis on the practical dimension is reinforced by the many references to using frameworks of principle to structure reflection on practice, while reflection at the societal level of educational issues was less common. This concern with the practical dimension may not be due only to the focus on course outcomes highlighted above. As McIntyre (1993) has noted, there is a lot of evidence that students do not make use of theory unless it is directly related to practice. Thus, it makes sense to use reflection as a means to relate theory and practice, as suggested by Griffiths and Tann (1992).

Finally, the association of theory with this critical conception of reflection needs to be commented upon. Theory may, as Carr (1995b) has noted, be used as a means to objectively assess experience, and so relate to the technical conception, but it was clearly not viewed in that way in the documentation examined here. The expectation that theory should guide practice (e.g. Hirst, 1966), may not have been realised, but the data here suggest that it has a continuing rôle if the commonly expressed aim of promoting critical reflection is to be achieved. HEIs committed to this may, in view of the predominance of the technical conception here, want to review their documentation to clarify this purpose and the means by which it may be achieved

b)   the foci of students' reflection

The categories of *foci* of students' reflective work were similarly inductively derived from the HEI documentation and related to the technical, interpretive and critical

conceptions of reflection. Examining the focus of reflection here usefully builds upon our knowledge of the purposes to extend our understanding of the intended effect of reflection upon students and their ideas about teaching. As when examining those purposes, the foci of students' reflection will first be related to the model of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection as a whole, before turning to examine the composition of each of these conceptions in turn.

(1)   the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection

The technical conception was represented by a focus on practice at the level of the *individual,* whether that be of a form of practice, a student, a teacher, or a context. This contrasts with the *pluralist* perspective representative of the interpretive conception, in which there is an the openness to alternative views and ways of working. The critical conception of reflection was again characterised by *examining* the nature of what was focused upon. Fuller details of the characteristics of each of these conceptions of reflection will be given below when they are examined below.

Chart IV-E below shows that the foci of students' reflection were most often characterised by the interpretive rather than the technical conception of reflection, with the critical conception again having the lowest profile.

Chart IV-E:
The foci of students' reflection within the technical, interpretive,
and critical conceptions
HEI intentions for the courses overall
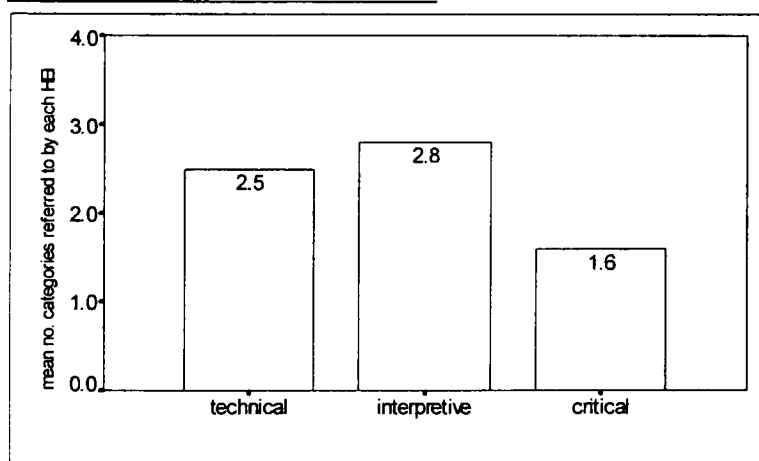
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The primacy of the interpretive conception of reflection here contrasts with the pre-eminence of the technical conception evident when examining the purposes of reflection. This may be due partly to differences between these two forms of reflection. Within the interpretive conception of reflection, identifying forms of reflection which are pluralist in their *foci* is less complex than showing how such reflection exemplifies the *purpose* of moving a student beyond practice which is set within a particular context. It may be surprising, therefore, that the critical conception of reflection was referred to

more often in relation to the purposes than to the foci of reflection. This may be because the traditional association of HEIs with a critical approach to knowledge encouraged support for a critical purpose of reflection, but operationalising this by identifying the foci which would support this critical practice was as problematic here as others have found previously (e.g. Barnes 1992; Hill 1996c).

(2)   the technical conception of reflection

The technical conception of reflection was here seen to be concerned with practice at the level of *individual* student, teacher, or classroom, and represented a focus on the:

- *student's teaching*, i.e., of the reflective student
- *school experience*, i.e., set within a school treated as a single context of experience
- *student's competence,* i.e., in terms of the prescribed criteria
- *HEI course*, i.e., input or organisation of the HEI course designed to support a particular form of practice
- *observation of a teacher,* i.e., regarded as a model of practice
- *student's knowledge,* i.e., of the reflective student
- *research,* i.e., within a single context or perspective

Chart IV-F below shows, unsurprisingly, that all HEIs intended reflection by students would focus on their *own teaching* - it was referred to far more often than any other focus. This reinforces the association between the technical conception and a focus on teachers' work in the classroom which was established when examining the conceptions of teaching promoted through the course (see p. 161 above).

Chart IV-F:
The foci of students' reflection within categories of the technical conception
<u>HEI intentions for the courses overall</u>
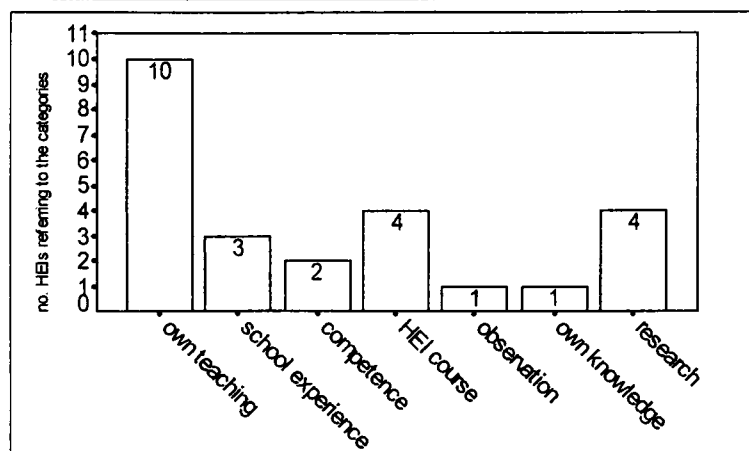
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

Reflection focused at this individual level did not necessarily involve a simplistic process. It was quite often characterised by a focus on research or on aspects of university-based work, as Chart IV-F above shows. Again, this supports indications that the

technical conception may be complex, as suggested when examining the conceptions of teaching promoted through courses (see p.162 above). However, many of its categories were referred to only occasionally, less often than those within the interpretive conception, as will be seen below.

(3)   the interpretive conception of reflection
Foci within the interpretive conception of reflection were set at the broader level of practice across a *range of contexts*, and were thus concerned with the experience of teachers at the general rather than the particular level. The categories here were:

- *school experience*, i.e., across different schools, or treating contexts within a school as distinctive
- *observation of teachers,* i.e. representing different forms of practice
- *pupils' learning,* i.e., as well as teaching
- *other students*, i.e., sharing their experiences
- *assignment,* i.e., as a means of access to other contexts and forms of practice
- *varied contexts,* i.e., in different classrooms etc.

These contexts included a focus on the teaching of students and/or teachers, but were more often set at a broader level than this concern with classrooms, just as the interpretive conception of *teaching* was found to transcend the classroom-based concerns of teachers (see p 164 above). Chart IV-G below shows these categories are well represented in the HEI documentation.

Chart IV-G:
The foci of students' reflection within categories of the interpretive conception
<u>HEI intentions for the courses overall</u>
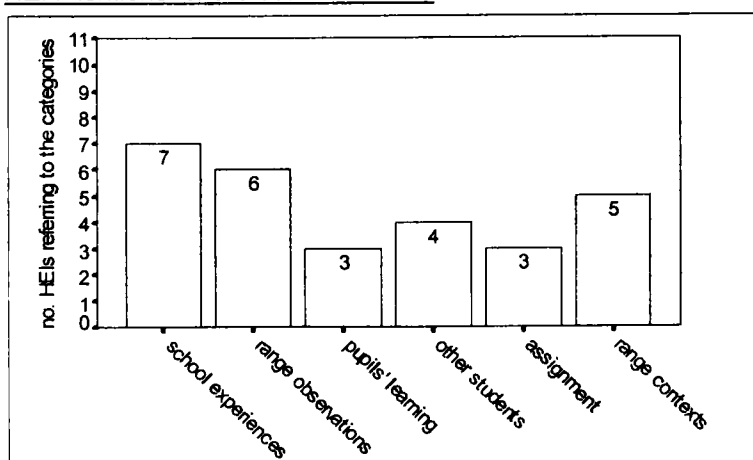
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The variety of foci represented in Chart IV-G above reinforces the importance placed upon reflection across a range of contexts which was evident in the strength of the interpretive conception of reflection overall (see Chart IV-E, p. 239 above). At the

same time, this variety suggests that while there was a common emphasis on reflection which transcended particular contexts, there was no agreement about the precise areas into which this reflection should be extended. No single context was referred to by all HEIs.

The data here may again indicate how the HEI documentation could be developed to extend support for the interpretive conception of reflection. For example, even though schools invariably worked with a number of students, discussions between students were usually not promoted as a focus of reflection nor as a means to support it. Facilitating these discussions would seem to be a cost-free means of supporting students' development and professionalism. Indeed, it would reinforce the principle of independent student learning supported elsewhere in the HEI documentation.

The relatively few references to a reflective focus on pupils' learning may indicate another area where HEI documentation may be developed to maximise support for students' development. This concern with the experience of pupils has been seen as a developmentally advanced stage of students' learning (Fuller, 1969; Tann, 1994; Furlong and Maynard, 1995), so directing participants to this form of reflection has the potential to extend students' progress through ITT courses.

(4)   the critical conception of reflection
Moving on to examine the critical conception of reflection, broader concern with schooling and education characterised the foci. These were:

- *theory*, i.e., theory in which these broader concerns are of material importance
- *beyond school*, i.e., educational events and issues set in contexts beyond schools, e.g. education policy issues
- *assignments*, i.e., examining theories/events/issues focused on such broader concerns

The relatively few categories of foci set within this critical conception of reflection parallels the difficulty of operationalising the critical conception, as discussed above, though references to them were reasonably common across the HEIs, as Chart IV-H below shows.

Chart IV-H:
The foci of students' reflection within categories of the critical conception
HEI intentions for the courses overall
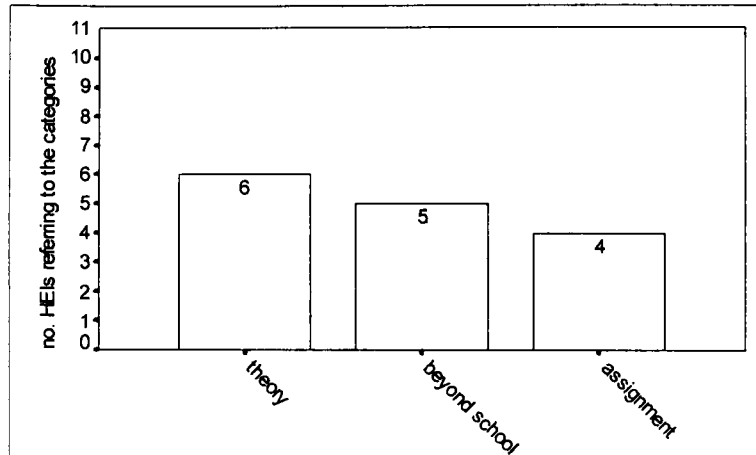
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

These data may, however, underestimate the extent to which theory was a focus of reflection. Those HEIs which did not refer specifically to reflection upon theory did set reflection in contexts beyond the school, or upon assignments, which were likely to have involved examining theory.

The documentation was also notable for foci to which it did *not* refer. Thus, while the purposes of reflection included examining issues such as equal opportunities, these purposes were not explicitly translated into references to the foci of students' reflection. This seems to indicate another area in which it may be possible to develop HEI documentation to extend students' learning through the courses, one which is particularly interesting in view of the difficulty of translating critical intentions into practice.

The relatively limited references to the critical conception of reflection here may also have been influenced by the literature. The work of Schon (1983, 1987), was referred to more often than any other in the HEI documentation, which is a fair representation of Schon's influence over this literature a whole. For Schon, the reflective dialogue is essentially internal, whether the reflection be *on-* or *in-* action. In this conception of reflection, no one other than the person reflecting need be involved in the process, which may be limited to the direct experience of that person. The *process* of reflection as a means to promote experiential learning receives more attention than its *focus*. Indeed, a number of HEI course leaders explicitly their concern with the reflective process of individual students. However, the critical conception of reflection involves an examination of *alternative* forms of action and thought, which are likely to be stimulated by the involvement of outsiders (Elbaz, 1987), especially when the reflection is by students who, inevitably, have a relatively narrow experience of teaching. The influence of Schon evident in the HEI documentation may, therefore, have limited the references to reflection at the complex level of the critical conception.

Our understanding of the forms of reflection supported in the HEI documentation may be extended by examining the intended involvement and responsibilities of the key rôles in ITT. This may also fill out our picture of their contribution to ITT courses.

ii.   The intended contribution of teachers, tutors and students

As when examining intentions at the level of the overall course, the intended contribution of teachers, tutors and students will be analysed in terms of the purposes and then the foci of students' reflection. These contributions will be examined in relation to the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection as a whole rather than the categories within these conceptions, because the data were not extensive enough to retain sufficient validity at this more detailed level of analysis. The data have been reported in terms of the mean values rather than the number of HEIs involved to facilitate comparison with the profile of the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection at the overall level (see Chart IV-A, p. 234 above). The concern here to differentiate between the intended contributions of different rôles means that the design of the HEI documentation did not affect the profile of the data. To focus on potentially significant areas of variation, and to avoid unhelpful repetition, the perspective of students is, as before, examined separately and contrasted with the contribution of teachers collectively (rather than ITT co-ordinators and mentors) and tutors.

a)   the purposes of students' reflection

The HEI documentation referred most often to *mentors'* contributions to purposive reflection and less frequently to ITT co-ordinators and tutors - although the latter were expected to make a more significant contribution than teachers to purposes within the critical conception of reflection, as is clear in Chart IV-I below.

Chart IV-I:
Responsibility for developing students' purposive reflection within the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions
<u>HEI intentions for teachers and tutors</u>
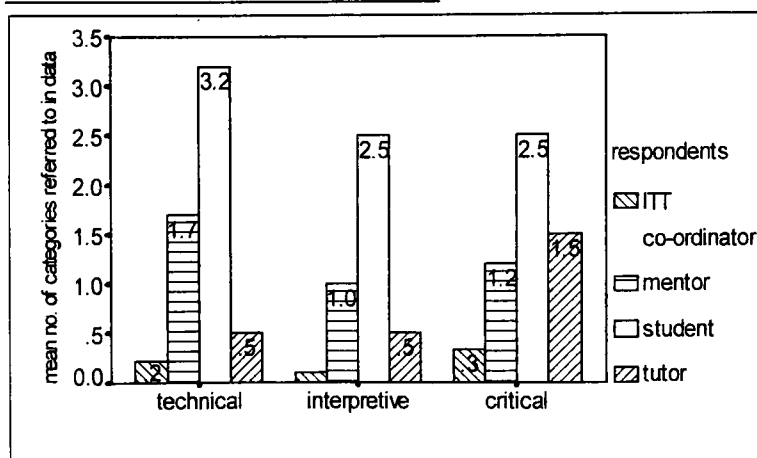
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The extent of mentors' responsibility for technical purposes of reflection stands out, complementing the intention, also evidenced in the HEI documentation, that mentors be involved in particular with *training* forms of work with students. However, mentors had a prime rôle in developing students' reflective practice, a key educational aim of ITT courses, and one which some doubt their capacity to support (e.g. Bennett, 1995). This reinforces previous suggestions that mentors' contribution was expected to transcend the characteristics of a restricted professionalism. The minimal association of ITT co-ordinators with the purposes of students' reflection, confirmed in Table IV-A below, may be seen to have a further constraining effect on the form of teacher professionalism promoted through school-based ITT courses.

Table IV-A:
Statistical significance of variation between teachers' and tutors' responsibility for developing the purposes of students' reflection
<u>HEI intentions for teachers and tutors</u>

purposes of students' reflection	statistical significance of variation between			
	all rôles	ITT co-ordinators &		mentors & tutors
		mentors	tutors	
technical conception	.0001	.0122	.2049	.0844
interpretive conception	.0001	.0108	.3012	.1156
critical conception	.0018	.0264	.0328	.6355

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

ITT co-ordinators' low profile here may partly be explained by the nature of their responsibilities - which were focused more on the course as a whole than on the work of individual students (see p. 367 below). The purposes of students' reflection were characterised by concerns at the *individual* and *classroom* levels where ITT co-ordinators had relatively little contact with students.

Despite the common association of reflection with HEI-based work, tutors were ascribed less involvement in supporting the purposes of students' reflection overall than were mentors (who worked most closely with students in their classroom-focused work), but more than ITT co-ordinators (who tended to be concerned with whole-school rather than classroom-based issues, and who were responsible for managing the course as a whole rather than the development of students in particular). As this implies, it seems institutional location was seen as orientating the nature of reflection which participants were best placed to support. Tutors' contribution to the critical conception of reflection, and thus an extended form of professionalism, complements their relatively extensive responsibilities for theory-related work as set out in the HEI documentation (see p. 367 below). This reinforces the validity of these sets of data.

More detailed analysis of the data indicated that mentors contributed to the critical conception of reflection largely through relating theory to practice. This contrasts with the limited involvement mentors were expected to have in work involving theory (see p.

213 above). It may be conjectured that students were intended to be able to relate theory to practice through a reflective process supported (rather than led) by mentors. Stones (1994) has argued that theory needs to be tested, not listened to, while Furlong (1990) reported that linking practice and theory was seen as one of the main potential advantages of school-based ITT courses. The involvement of mentors may, therefore, have facilitated students' integration of theory and practice, as advocated by Griffiths and Tann (1992). Certainly students have been reported to appreciate mentors' contributions to linking theory and practice (Mardle, 1995b). While Furlong *et al.* (1988), writing before HEI-school partnerships had been developed by *Circular 9/92*, felt *tutors* were responsible for relating theory and practice, the data here suggest mentors were expected to be more prominent here than has traditionally been the case. As Table IV-A above shows, the intended contribution of mentors did not differ significantly from that of tutors. This highlights just one of the areas in which the rôle of mentors has been extended and become more demanding in school-based ITT.

Turning to what was expected of students, their contribution has been compared with that of teachers (by collating the references to ITT co-ordinators and mentors) and tutors - as when examining their perspective previously. This matches the form of the data of students' *experience* of reflection, and therefore supports comparisons between HEI intentions and the practice as experienced by respondents. There was a strong emphasis on student autonomy in the HEI documentation. This is evident across the conceptions of purposes of reflection, as Chart IV-J below shows, with students having greater responsibility for developing their reflection than teachers and tutors combined.

Chart IV-J:
Responsibility for developing students' purposive reflection within
the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions
HEI intentions for students
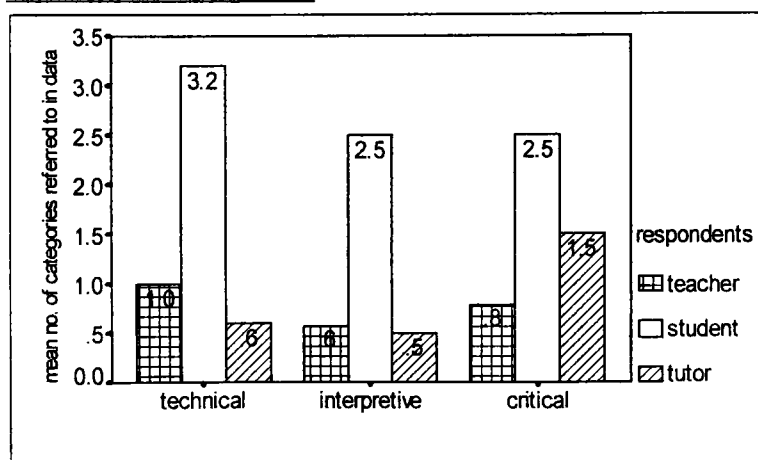
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

Part of the reason for this high level of student responsibility may be a reluctance to specify what teachers should do in prescriptive, possibly intimidating, detail. Interviews

with the HEI course leaders indicated that it was deliberate policy in two HEIs to not make too many demands upon teachers in what was perceived to be a period of delicate transition. In another HEI, mentors were not given specific guidance about their involvement in students' reflective work on the grounds that they would resent a "this is what you should do" tone. This is, of course, a political and diplomatic as well as a practical issue, and the form and extent of guidance in the HEI documentation is likely to change over time. The high level of student responsibility here also derives from the fact that they were held implicitly responsible for developing their reflective practice when neither teachers nor tutors were identified in the documentation as involved in the process.

It may seem especially appropriate that students take lead responsibility for their reflection within the technical conception. A natural concern with survival and passing the course is surely a powerful motor of students' involvement in such reflection, which is characterised by the purpose of 'improvement'. Yet students were also given prime responsibility for developing their reflection within the interpretive and critical conceptions. This raises the question as to where the appropriate balance between challenge of, and support for, students' development lies, a point which will be returned to when examining the foci of students' reflection.

Students' rôle in supporting the purposes of reflection is underlined by the statistical significance with which their contribution varied with that of teachers and of tutors, as reported in Table IV-B below.

Table IV-B:
Statistical significance of variation between the responsibility of students' and of teachers' and tutors' for developing students' purposive reflection.
HEI intentions for students

purposes of students' reflection	statistical significance of variation between		
	all rôles	students &	
		teachers	tutors
technical conception	.0004	.0007	.0004
interpretive conception	.0001	.0001	.0010
critical conception	.0024	.0005	.0835

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The single cell in which statistically significant variation is *not* reported draws attention to the fact that tutors still had a relatively extensive responsibility for supporting students' reflection within the demanding critical conception of reflection. This underlines the continuing value of tutors' support for an extended form of professionalism.

b) the foci of students' reflection

Mentors were also more often responsible for developing the *foci* of students' reflection than were ITT co-ordinators or, again with the exception of the critical conception, tutors. This is shown in Chart IV-K below.

Chart IV-K:
Responsibility for developing students' reflection upon foci within
the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions
<u>*HEI intentions for teachers and tutors*</u>
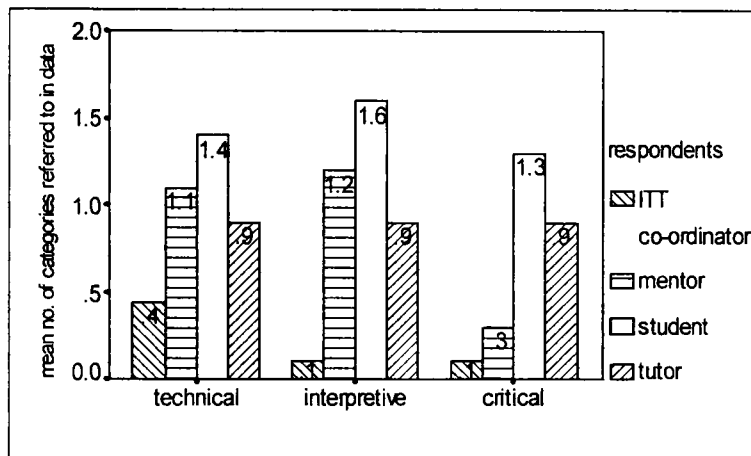
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

These data reinforce the point that mentors were expected to provide significant support for students' reflective work; indeed the level of mentors' support for the interpretive conception of reflection complements the previous finding that the educative nature of their work with students was emphasised more than was that of tutors (see pp. 213-214 above). Moreover, the contribution of ITT co-ordinators here highlights the extent to which teachers were expected to promote the reflective work valued so highly in ITT, although ITT co-ordinators' responsibility for supporting technical forms of reflection here contrasts somewhat with the limited extent to which the nature of their work with students was characterised as 'training' rather than 'education' (see pp. 213-215 above). Table IV-C below confirms that mentors and tutors were expected to provide significantly more support for students' reflective work that were ITT co-ordinators.

Table IV-C:
Statistical significance of variation between teachers' and tutors'
responsibility for developing the foci of students' reflection
<u>*HEI intentions for teachers and tutors*</u>

	statistical significance of variation between			
purposes of students' reflection	*all rôles*	*ITT co-ordinators &*		*mentors & tutors*
		mentors	*tutors*	
technical conception	.1659	.1667	.1546	.7500
interpretive conception	*.0003*	*.0010*	*.0108*	.3347
critical conception	*.0013*	.3263	*.0108*	.0537

N = 10 sets of HEI documentation

The limited contribution expected of ITT co-ordinators across all the conceptions, but especially the interpretive one, does suggest that the content of the HEI documentation could be developed. Certainly, ITT co-ordinators indicated in their questionnaire responses that they valued students' reflection (see pp. 254*ff.* below), indicating greater use could be made of the breadth of ITT co-ordinators' experience and responsibilities to increase support for students' work within the interpretive conception of reflection in particular.

The expected contribution of tutors to students' reflection is also interesting, because it was broad-based rather than limited to a discrete area, even more so than in relation to the intended nature of their work with students (see Chart III-B, p. 213 above). More significantly, perhaps, while there are differences in the forms of student reflection which teachers and tutors are expected to support, teachers do seem to have a larger and more firmly institutionalised rôle here than critics of teacher involvement in ITT have thought feasible.

As with the purposes of reflection, the HEI documentation again ascribed prime responsibility for supporting the foci of reflection to students themselves, as Chart IV-L below shows.

Chart IV-L:
Responsibility for developing students' reflection upon foci within
the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions
<u>HEI intentions for students</u>
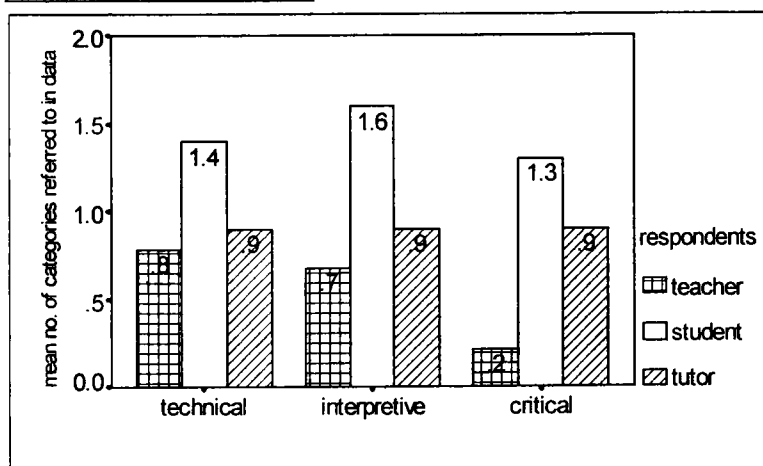
(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

The level of students' responsibility for the developing the foci of their reflection was, however, less distinctive than it was for the purposes of reflection. The rôle of students was particularly extensive within the interpretive and, in comparison with teachers, the critical conceptions of reflection, as Table IV-D below confirms.

Table IV-D:
Statistical significance of variation between the responsibility of students' and of teachers' and tutors' for developing the foci of students' reflection.
<u>HEI intentions for students</u>

foci of students' reflection	statistical significance of variation between		
	all rôles	students &	
		teachers	tutors
technical conception	.2229	.1042	.2157
interpretive conception	*.0010*	*.0035*	*.0324*
critical conception	*.0005*	*.0002*	.2966

(N = 10 sets of HEI documentation)

Students' extensive responsibilities for their reflection within the interpretive and critical conceptions highlights again the emphasis put upon student autonomy in the HEI documentation, but also raises the question as to where the appropriate balance of challenge/support for students' development lies. Student self-evaluation (important in relation to both the purposes and foci of reflection) has been valued by Elliott (1989b) as a foundation for the development of their competence, but Rothenberg *et al.* (1993) have warned that *external* challenges are required to ensure that students' development does not plateau. The analysis of respondents' *experiences* of the course below (pp. 260*ff.)* will inform a view as to where this balance of challenge and support should lie if course intentions are to be realised as fully as possible.

iii. HEI-school partnerships

The data have also been analysed at the level of the HEI-school partnerships, but the main finding is a negative one. There was no old/new university and college dichotomy in the number of categories of purposes of reflection to which they referred in their documentation, unlike those found when examining other course dimensions. One distinction which does seem interesting is that only the new universities and colleges referred to reflection in the context of target setting; this may have some importance because such processes can represent a restrictive bureaucratic approach, but exploring this possibility requires a separate study. This distinction was not evident in the interview evidence, although it was only course leaders in the old universities who volunteered the view that it had become difficult to maintain an emphasis on reflection due, they each said, to time constraints. The one exception to this was an old university which was distinctive in having maintained far more tutor visits to students on school experience than was the case elsewhere. The interview evidence may indicate, therefore, that tutors in old universities associated reflection with the rôle of HEIs, as is typical of the literature.

B. The experience of respondents

Intentions are not always realised however, and one of the strengths of this study is that it allows these course intentions to be contrasted with the experience of participants. Data from teachers, tutors and students about the importance of given foci of students' reflection were gathered through the questionnaire survey, and contrasted with HEI intentions. This comparison is strengthened by the continuing use of the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection, represented by six foci, as follows:

- the technical conception of reflection
    ◊ how to teach the content
    ◊ general teaching skills

- the interpretive conception of reflection
    ◊ the student's style of teaching
    ◊ how pupils' learn

- the critical conception of reflection
    ◊ values which underlie teaching
    ◊ the social, political context of teaching

In addition, it was decided to examine the importance placed upon reflection which focused on *theory*, because the reforms of ITT since the mid-1980s have been seen by Pring (1994) as threatening the place of theory in courses, while McLaughlin (1994) and Moore (1994) have suggested that reflection is a means to maintain the rôle of theory in these courses. These issues were addressed in the questionnaires by establishing the importance which respondents placed upon reflection which focused on:

- the adequacy of educational theory

It must be acknowledged that a representation of a conception of reflection on the basis of data relating to just two foci of reflection must be imperfect. The conceptions are *multi*-faceted. But the distinctions used in relation to the foci selected for use in the questionnaire were the same as those used when analysing the HEI documentation, and derive from core distinctions between the three conceptions. Thus, the technical conception of reflection is concerned with practice at the *individual* level, the interpretive conception is characterised by a *pluralistic* perspective, while the critical conception involves an examination of the *nature* of what is being reflected upon. Respondents also has the opportunity to nominate other foci of reflection used by respondents, which will be reported separately.

The data will be examined in the same way as was the nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students. That is, at the level of the contribution of ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors, while a distinction between students' work with teachers and with tutors is maintained when reporting the student perspective. First, however, the data will be examined at the level of the courses overall.

i.   The courses overall

The importance of the various foci of reflection in teachers' and tutors' work with students was represented on the same basis as the questionnaire data about other aspects of the ITT courses. The distortion associated with differential response rates was thus avoided by using the mean value for each rôle within each partnership to establish the data here. On that basis, the importance placed upon these foci of reflection are presented in Chart IV-M below. These foci have been set out in pairs which relate to the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection, respectively, with the focus on theory (not directly related to a particular conception) set at the far right of the Chart. In terms of the conceptions of reflection, the technical and interpretive were reported to play a more important part in the courses than did the critical.

Chart IV-M
The foci of students' reflection
<u>The overall perspective</u>
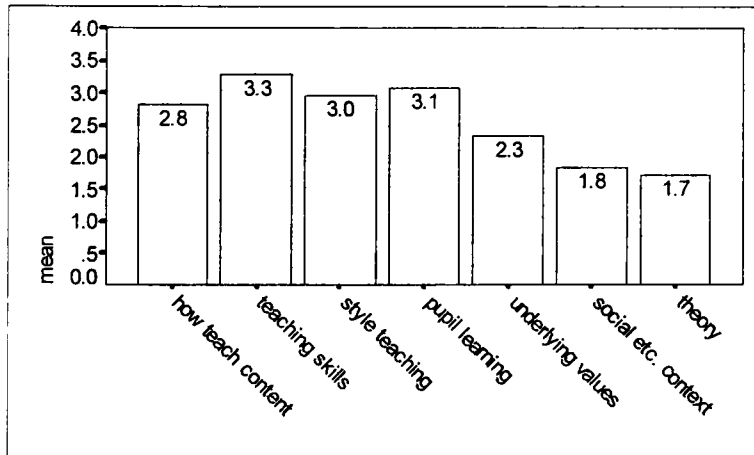
(N = 1045, 1047, 1048, 1049, 1041, 1037, 1045 questionnaire responses to the respective foci above)

The relatively low profile of the critical conception of reflection found here parallels that of the critical conception of *teaching* promoted through courses (see pp. 156*ff* above). This point is reinforced in Chart IV-M above by the limited importance placed upon reflection on the adequacy of theory. It is clear that the critical conception was generally referred to least often at the levels both of course intentions (including in relation to the foci of reflection), and of the course as experienced by respondents to the questionnaires.

The critical conception of reflection was, however, reported to be experienced as a *more* extensive part of the course than was intended in the HEI documentation, despite the difficulties of concretising this type of complex conception constraining the opportunities to learn from the process (Korthagen, 1999). Moreover, the importance placed here upon a critical conception of reflection seems greater than that experienced in studies of ITT in South Africa (Penny *et al.*, 1996), or the USA (Liston and Zeichner, 1991). Bearing in mind the contextual pressures constraining the development of critical conceptions in contemporary ITT courses in Britain, it is interesting to contrast the data described here with the shallow reflection found in a pre-*Circular 9/92* course by Calderhead (1987), especially as he also believed that the increased involvement of teachers in ITT would act as a conservative force upon the nature of students' learning (Calderhead, 1988a). The intention here is not to suggest that critical reflection has necessarily increased or is dominant in ITT courses. The data in this study depend upon a particular definition of the critical conception (slightly different from that used by, for example, McIntyre, 1993) and are also distinctive in being derived from a range of course participants. Doubtless the picture is mixed, as Hill (1996a) has found in a longitudinal study of students' development of critical reflection within one HEI-school partnership. Yet, for those who value the development of this critical approach, it is possible to be more positive than is envisaged in critiques of current ITT courses such as that by Moore (1994).

The technical conception of reflection was reported to play a slightly greater part in the course than did the interpretive conception of *teaching*, broadly matching the course intentions as expressed in the HEI documentation. The nature of the categories, as well as additional comments, re-emphasise a point already made however, that a technical conception may involve students in complex and thoughtful work.

Respondents also had the opportunity to nominate additional foci which were important in their reflective practice. Of the 72 responses, classroom management was most often identified, by 15 respondents. There were also 7 references to a focus on students' relationships with pupils, 5 to the self-evaluations of students, and 3 to discipline and to the aims of teaching; a host of other foci were identified by one or two respondents. These data are rather disparate, but do reinforce the suggestion that respondents placed more importance upon the interpretive and, especially, the technical conceptions of reflection than the critical one.

ii. The perspective of teachers, tutors and students

When examining the HEI documentation, there were interesting distinctions between the intended contribution of the participant rôles, and experiences of their contribution as established through the questionnaires. Turning first to ITT co-ordinators, their contribution was greater than the expectations set out in the HEI documentation, and most consistently distinctive in terms of the importance they placed upon the critical conception in their work with students. This is represented by a reflective focus on values which underlie teaching, and on the social and political context of teaching. Here, the contribution of ITT co-ordinators was greater than that of mentors, but less than that of tutors. The relative importance ITT co-ordinators placed upon reflection which focused on the adequacy of theory followed a similar pattern, as shown in Chart IV-N below[1]. The data here have a similar profile to those which describe teachers' and tutors' promotion of the critical conception of teaching (see p. 174 above).

Chart IV-N:
The importance placed upon the foci of reflection by teachers and tutors in their work with students
<u>*The contributions of teachers and tutors*</u>
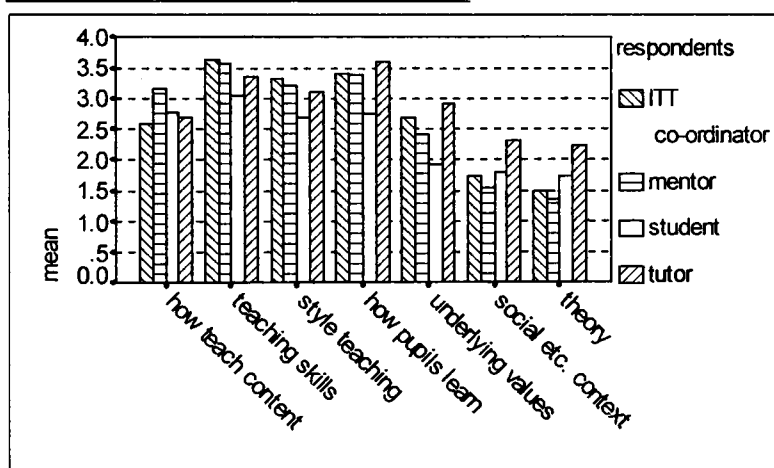
(N = 165-167, 363-366, 415-418, 96-99 questionnaire responses from the respective rôles)

In relation to the focus of reflection most clearly associated with the interpretive conception (i.e. on how pupils learn), ITT co-ordinators promoted this less than did tutors, and to an extent similar to that of mentors. ITT co-ordinators' greater emphasis on reflection upon the style of *teaching* reinforces the positive association of ITT co-ordinators with relatively broad, less context specific, concerns such as teaching styles. This matches the broader responsibilities ascribed to ITT co-ordinators in the HEI documentation, which related more to the course in general than to the work of students in particular classrooms (see pp. 367*ff.* below).

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[1] *The data from students have also been presented in this chart in the interests of transparency although, as before, their perspective will be commented upon separately because they represent a view of the courses as learners, which triangulates with the views of the teachers and tutors who taught the courses.*

The statistical significance of the variation between the data from all respondent rôles and, more specifically, between ITT co-ordinators and their teacher and tutor colleagues is shown in Table IV-E below.

Table IV-E:
Statistical significance of variation between the importance placed upon the foci
of reflection by teachers and tutors in their work with students
The contributions of teachers and tutors

foci of students' reflection	statistical significance of variation between			
	all rôles	ITT co-ordinators &		mentors & tutors
		mentors	. tutors	
how teach content	.0020	.0019	.7438	.0412
teaching skills	.0000	.1022	.0143	.0255
style teaching	.0002	.0864	.2047	.1735
how pupils learn	.0000	.3263	.0658	.0410
underlying values	.0000	.0275	.0500	.0082
social etc. context	.0009	.2207	.0042	.0025
adequacy of theory	.0000	.0199	.0004	.0002

(N = questionnaire responses from 165-167 ITT co-ordinators, 363-366 mentors, 96-99 tutors, 1043-50 from all respondents)

The data from all respondents rôles varied with statistical significance in relation to all foci of reflection, but it was tutors' contribution to students' development and professionalism which was particularly distinctive, when compared with that of teachers. Nevertheless, the positive contribution of teachers should not be underestimated. The importance which ITT co-ordinators placed upon reflective work with students was greater in practice than had been anticipated in the documentation (see pp. 244-245 above). This finding complements the relatively important place ITT co-ordinators gave to reflection as a means to support 'good practice' in teaching (see p. 190). This may highlight not only another area in which the HEI documentation could be developed, but that the contribution of ITT co-ordinators might be extended through the further support and stimulus that such development of the documentation could promote. The extension of teachers' involvement in types of work historically seen as the preserve of HEIs might even encourage the development of closer, more collaborative partnerships as advocated by Sikes (1994), in which ITT is itself a source of collaboration rather than the prelude to teacher involvement in the continuing professional development central to some other models of partnership.

Mentors also placed significant importance upon students' reflective work, but more on the relatively restricted technical, and less on the interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection than did ITT co-ordinators or, especially, tutors. This parallels their contribution to students' conceptions of teaching and work (see pp. 174ff. and pp. 220ff. above); the association of the technical conception with the particularities of teachers' work in classrooms is reinforced in the additional foci of reflection which mentors

identified in their questionnaire responses, reinforcing the reliability and validity of these sets of data. Similarly, mentors placed relatively little importance upon reflection on the adequacy of theory, paralleling their limited involvement in *work* relating practice to theory. This fits with mentors' association with the technical conception. Nevertheless, mentors provided more support for students' reflection than Harris (1994) found in the early days of the post-*Circular 9/92* courses, and made a greater contribution to the critical conception of reflection than indicated in the HEI documentation. This strengthens the possibility that developing the HEI documentation could support and stimulate greater promotion of extended forms of professionalism than is now the case. The challenge to the commonplace association of reflection with the HEI rôle may even been extended to those who say teachers offer little to the critical approach generally (Pring, 1994) and the critical conception of reflection in particular (Hirst, 1990).

Nevertheless, the evidence here suggests that tutors still have an important, even leading, part to play in extending the professionalism of students. Tutors placed more emphasis on reflection within the critical conception and upon the adequacy of theory than did ITT co-ordinators or mentors. Tutors' contribution to the critical conception was even greater relative to teachers in the context of students' reflection than of conceptions of teaching or support for students' development of 'good practice' in teaching (see pp. 174*ff.*, p. 188 above). Tutors were also notable for the extent to which they emphasised the importance of reflection upon the adequacy of theory, just as they were distinctive for the extent to which they referred to integrating theory and practice as supporting students' development of 'good practice' in teaching (see pp. 193-194 above). Theory may be implicit in the practice of all teachers, but the data here suggest that it was still perceived as a concern of tutors more than of teachers.

Moreover, although the importance tutors placed on the interpretive conceptions of reflection was relatively less than their promotion of the interpretive conception of *teaching* (see p. 175 above), their concern with *pupils'* leaning rather than *teaching* style may, following Furlong and Maynard's (1995) model, exemplify a developmentally-advanced form of practice.

As students were asked to distinguish between their work with teachers and with tutors, these data act as a form of triangulation with the data from teachers and tutors, as well as describing the experience of students themselves. To increase the precision of the triangulation of the data, the contributions of ITT co-ordinators and mentors have again been collated to create a category of 'teachers', with which the student perspective may be compared. Chart IV-O below thus delineates the students' perspective of the

importance placed upon the foci of reflection in their work with teachers and with tutors. The data from students positively triangulate with those from teachers and tutors in terms of who provided relatively more or less emphasis on a particular focus of reflection.

Chart IV-O:
The importance placed upon the foci of reflection by teachers and tutors in their work with students
The experience of students
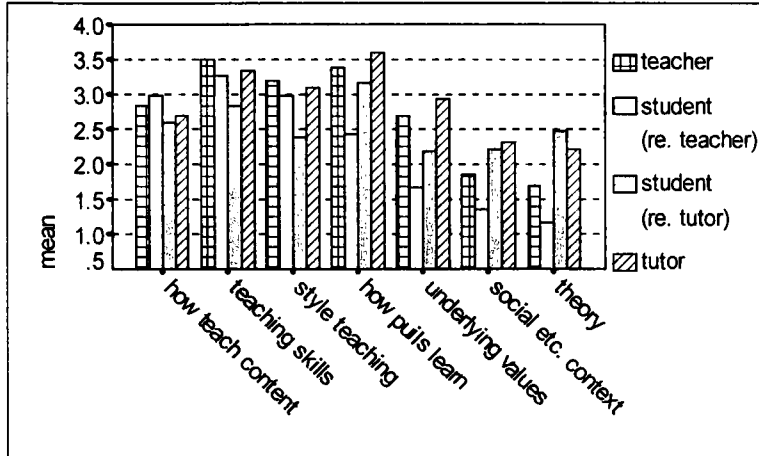
N = 418, 418, 417, 416, 415, 415, 417 questionnaire responses from students to the foci listed above)

With the exception of just two areas, students reported lower levels of emphasis upon the foci of reflection than did the teachers and tutors with whom they worked, as they had when reporting upon the nature of their work with these teachers and tutors. This may represent, as suggested before, a 'natural' gap between the perspectives of those responsible for a process and those experiencing it. It is interesting, however, that students confirmed the emphases reported by teachers and tutors respectively, i.e., teachers/how to teach content, and tutors/theory. Students reported that tutors emphasised the importance of reflection upon theory more than did teachers, which complements a similar, though less pronounced, finding established when examining the nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students (see pp. 213ff. above). Thus, while teachers may correctly be seen to play a significant rôle in students' development, including that of enabling students to interrelate theory and practice (Mardle, 1995b), the data here confirm that tutors continue to make a valuably distinctive contribution to ITT.

The data from students varied with statistical significance with those from teachers and from tutors in relation to most foci of reflection, as shown in Table IV-F below.

Table IV-F:
Statistical significance of variation between the importance placed upon
the foci of reflection by teachers and tutors in their work with students
The experience of students

foci of students' reflection	statistical significance of variation between	
	students re teachers & teachers	students re tutors & tutors
how teach content	.8544	.4961
teaching skills	*.0001*	*.0002*
style teaching	*.0003*	*.0019*
how pupils learn	*.0000*	*.0012*
underlying values	*.0000*	*.0032*
social etc. context	*.0038*	.4043
adequacy of theory	*.0150*	.0961

(N = 418, 418, 417, 416, 415, 415, 417 questionnaire responses
from students to the foci listed above)

Gaps such as these between the emphases on foci of reflection reported by students and by the teachers and tutors with whom they worked may present an agenda for the teachers and tutors whose work seems not to have been fully appreciated by students. For teachers, this agenda might include how to increase the impact of their contribution to students' reflection upon how pupils learn, and upon the values which underlie teaching. It may be significant that these foci can be associated with more advanced stages of student development, such as a concern with pupil learning (Furlong and Maynard, 1995) and with values (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1991). Although students also did not seem to be fully aware of tutors' emphasis on reflection upon values underlying teaching, as Table IV-F above shows, students did seem to recognise tutors' emphasis on reflection upon the social and political context of teaching. Overall, then, the data suggest that in terms of their reflective work with students, tutors did provide more support than teachers for the developmentally advanced stages of student leaning which may be associated with extended forms of teacher professionalism.

iii. HEI-school partnerships

The two previous Sections have revealed a distinction between the conceptions of teaching and nature of work which old and new universities/colleges *intended* to support. This was not evident in the focus or purpose of students' reflective work, apart from new universities/colleges being distinctive in associating reflective work with target setting, nor at the level of *experience* of the courses. There are, however, differences between HEI-school partnerships and SCITTs, complementing those discussed previously. This is apparent to some extent in the two technical conceptions of reflection, and more so in other aspects of courses. SCITTs placed more emphasis than any HEI-school partnership upon *general teaching skills* in students' reflective work, as Chart IV-P below shows.

Chart IV-P:
Importance placed upon reflection on general teaching
skills in teachers' and tutors' work with students
<u>*Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs*</u>
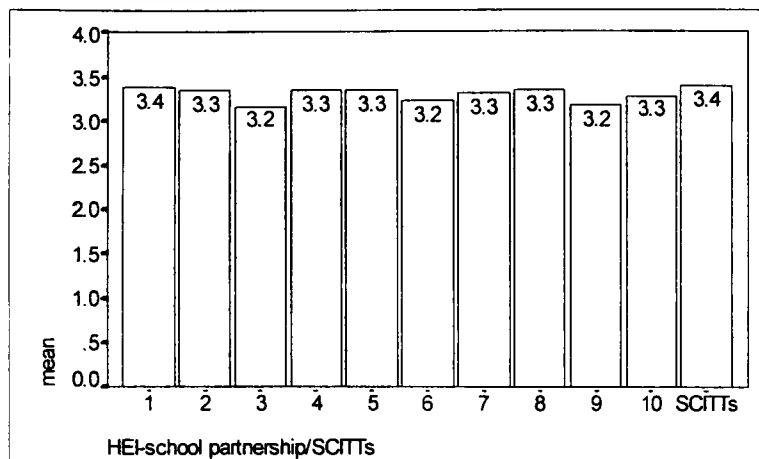
(N = 103, 60, 186, 121, 144, 100, 88, 69, 83, 91, 41 questionnaires
relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

The SCITTs also placed above average importance upon the other form of technical reflection, on *how to teach the content*, but not distinctively so. These limited indications that SCITTs may have supported a relatively restricted form of professionalism through the importance they placed upon technical conceptions of reflection (and of teaching and work, see p. 198 and pp. 215-216 above) are questioned by the emphasis they placed upon students' *style of teaching* in reflective work with students, as shown in Chart IV-Q below.

Chart IV-Q:
Importance placed upon reflection on the style of teaching in
teachers' and tutors' work with students
<u>*Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs*</u>
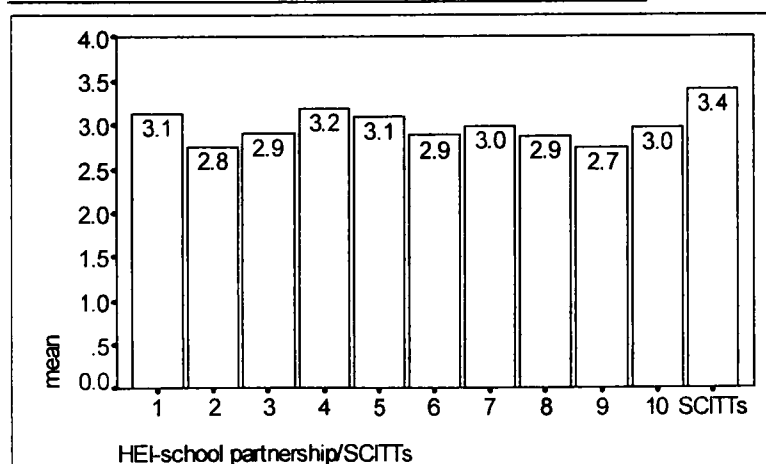
(N = 104, 60, 188, 122, 148, 102, 88, 70, 84, 95, 41 questionnaires
relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

The *style* of teaching is a relatively open concept, drawing upon the expressive, personalistic dimension of teaching (Zeichner, 1983; Diamond, 1991), which fits within the interpretive conception of teaching in that a teaching style can change in response

to pupils' learning (Elbaz, 1983). In that sense, therefore, the SCITTs may be seen as promoting students' development because such reflection does not treat teaching as a 'given' activity in which expertise is attained through practice and the acquisition of skills. However, in terms of students' development, a concern with *pupils* and how they learn is regarded as more advanced than a focus on the *teacher* (Tann, 1994). It may be notable, therefore, that the SCITTs placed less importance than most, though not all, the HEI-school partnerships did upon reflection on how pupils learn, as Chart IV-R below shows.

Chart IV-R:
Importance placed upon reflection on how pupils learn in teachers' and tutors' work with students
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs

(N = 104, 60, 187, 121, 145, 99, 88, 68, 83, 92, 41 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

Two HEI-school partnerships, 6 and 9, placed significantly less importance upon this focus of reflection than did the SCITTs and the other courses. One of these, partnership 9 (a college of higher education), placed less importance upon reflective work with students generally. The other, partnership 6, was an old university which, although it placed a relatively low level of importance upon this form of reflection with students, did emphasise critical conceptions of reflection associated with extending students' development, as well as reflection upon the adequacy of theory. As Chart IV-S below shows, SCITTs placed less importance upon this form of reflection than did the HEI-school partnerships, except partnership 9 again, strengthening indications that they worked with students in relatively restricted ways.

Chart IV-S: see over the page

Chart IV-S:
Importance placed upon reflection on the adequacy of theory in teachers' and tutors' work with students
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
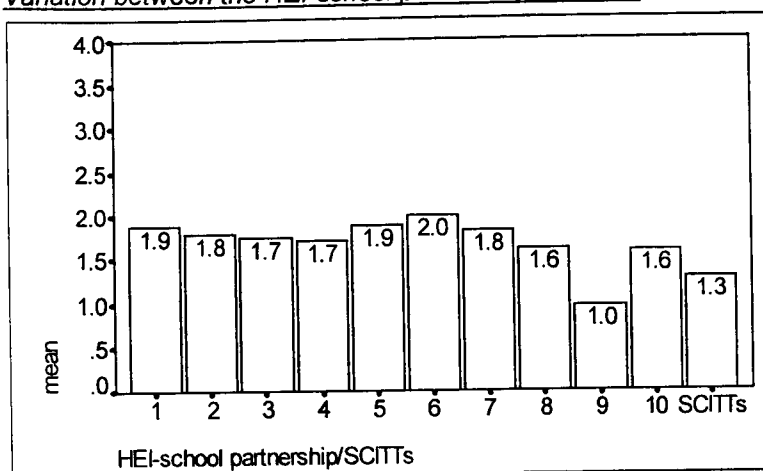
(N = 103, 60, 187, 120, 145, 99, 87, 68, 83, 90, 41 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

The distinctive position of HEI-school partnership 9 presses for an explanation. It may be conjectured that the limited reflection upon theory evident here (and in the nature of students' work more generally, see p. 227 above) was related to the fact that their General Professional Studies (GPS) course was taught in the HEI before the students had begun their school experience placement. When interviewed, the HEI course leader suggested that this restricted the integration of the course which, in turn, may have limited the impact on students of the theory introduced through this GPS course. Other data from students in HEI 9 may support this analysis because they indicated that students considered the integration of teachers' and tutors' work to be much less than did students on other courses.

Similarly, the relatively limited importance placed on reflection upon the adequacy of theory in the SCITTs may have a pragmatic explanation. In the early phase of developing these schemes, it may have been natural for the teacher participants with whom students worked so closely to focus on those areas of educational practice with which they as teachers were most familiar. Teachers' involvement in SCITTs may itself follow a developmental pattern in which a focus on theory is established after more practical emphases have been consolidated. Moreover, OFSTED (1995b) reported that students in SCITTs often had limited access to good libraries, which may well have limited the ability of SCITT participants to reflect upon the adequacy of educational theory (although there were relatively extensive levels of work relating theory to practice in SCITTs). Possibly SCITTs promoted a form of training which was restricted in the sense that work involving theory tended to focus on practical issues rather than more general questions associated with 'adequacy'. Repeating a cautionary note already made, it should be

acknowledged that the undifferentiated school context of students in SCITTs may have encouraged participants to use a definition of 'theory' different to that used in HEIs.

The strongest evidence here that SCITTs supported a relatively restricted form of professionalism is the limited importance they placed upon critical forms of reflection, just as they promoted the critical conception less than HEI-school partnerships (see p. 199 above). Chart IV-T below shows this in relation to reflection upon the *values underlying teaching*.

Chart IV-T:
Importance placed upon reflection on the values underlying
teaching in teachers' and tutors' work with students
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
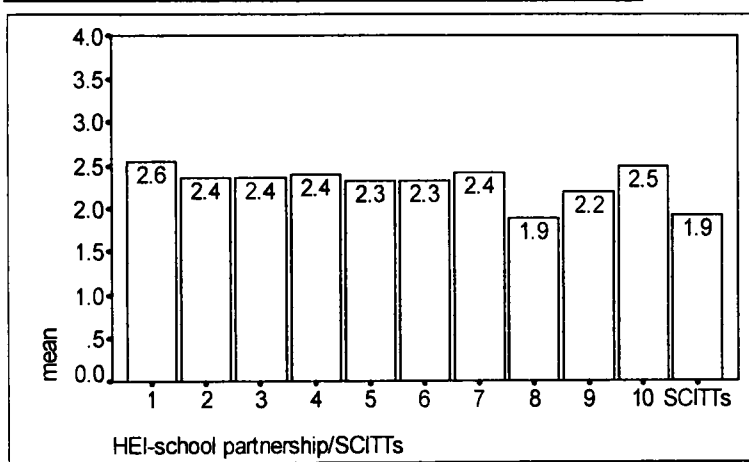
(N = 103, 60, 186, 120, 144, 99, 87, 69, 83, 89, 41 questionnaires
relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

As Chart IV-U below shows, the relatively limited importance placed in the SCITTs upon the critical conception of reflection was still more pronounced when focused on the *social and political context* of teaching.

Chart IV-U:
Importance placed upon reflection on the social and political
context of teaching in teachers' and tutors' work with students
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
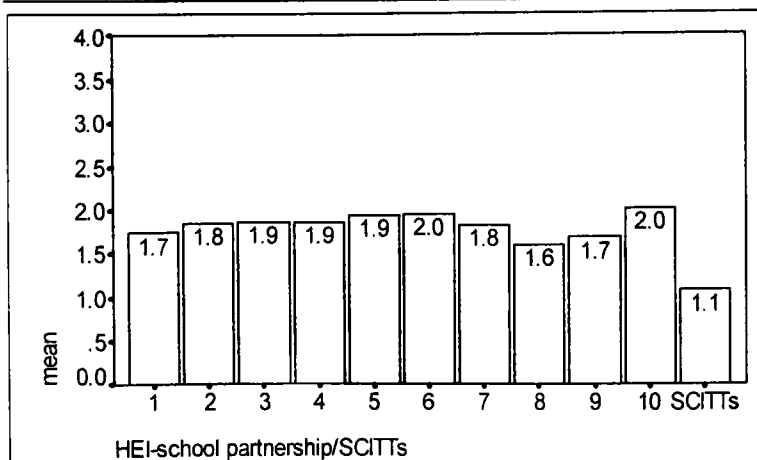
(N = 102, 59, 182, 118, 139, 98, 86, 68, 82, 85, 41 questionnaires
relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

In addition to the character of reflective work in the SCITTs, it is also notable that HEI-school partnerships 8 and 9 placed a relatively low level of importance upon the two forms of critical reflection overall. There is no evident explanation for this, though both partnerships were spread over a relatively large geographical area and, as shown in Chart I-D (p. 118 above), schools in both had a relatively high level of responsibility for course planning and organisation. The course leader in HEI 8 also noted that the geographical dispersion of the schools with which they were in partnership limited the extent of tutors' personal contact with teachers. A 'separatist' form of partnership may support a relatively restricted form of professionalism (and see Section V, pp. 272*ff.* below).

In relation to the SCITTs, the distinctiveness of the limited importance they placed upon critical conceptions of reflection supports suggestions that critical reflection is not easily practised in the school context (e.g. Liston and Zeichner, 1991; Barnes, 1992), although these have not been derived from studies of post-*Circular 9/92* ITT courses. Certainly the limited importance placed on critical reflection in SCITTs contrasts with the relatively great emphasis placed there upon the technical conceptions of reflective work with students, as described in Chart IV-P (p. 259 above). This is highlighted in Chart IV-V below, which describes the balance between the importance placed upon the technical and the critical conceptions of reflection in each HEI-school partnership and the SCITTs. These data were established by summing the values ascribed by respondents to the two technical conceptions of reflection, and subtracting from this total the values representing the importance placed upon the two critical conceptions of reflection. As, overall, more importance was placed upon technical than critical conceptions of reflection, the higher values in Chart IV-V below represent a greater emphasis on the *technical* relative to the critical conception of reflection.

Chart IV-V:
Balance of importance placed upon the technical less the critical
conceptions of reflection in teachers' and tutors' work with students
Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs

(N = 102, 59, 182, 118, 139, 98, 86, 68, 82, 85, 41 questionnaires
relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

The SCITTs were clearly distinctive in the extent to which they placed importance upon technical rather than critical conceptions of reflection. This reinforces the evidence that they supported a relatively restricted form of teacher professionalism. In relation to the comparisons between the HEI-school partnerships, it may also be significant that 4 of the 6 old universities placed more importance upon critical relative to technical reflection than did new universities/colleges.

Across the HEI-school partnerships, tutors have been found to place more importance upon reflective work with students than did teachers (see pp. 254*ff.* above). It is not surprising, therefore, that all but one of the HEI-school partnerships placed more emphasis on this reflective work than did the SCITTs. This indication of the *overall* level of importance placed upon reflective work with students has been established by summing the responses to each of the seven foci of reflection surveyed here, and is presented in Chart IV-W below.

Chart IV-W:
Overall importance placed upon reflection in teachers' and tutors'
work with students
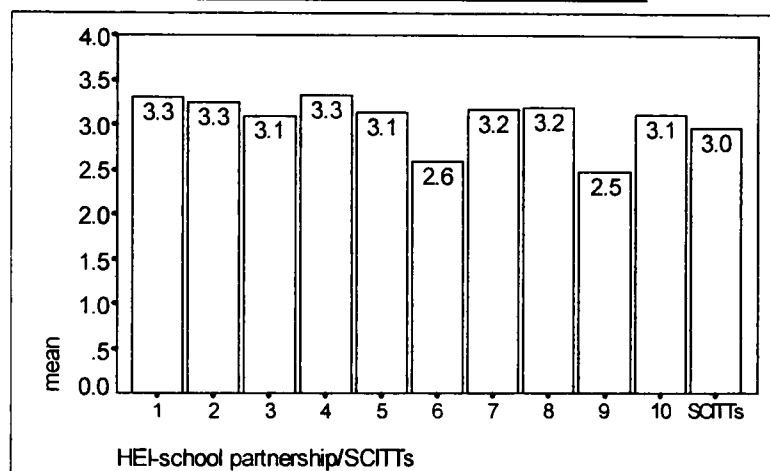*Variation between the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs*
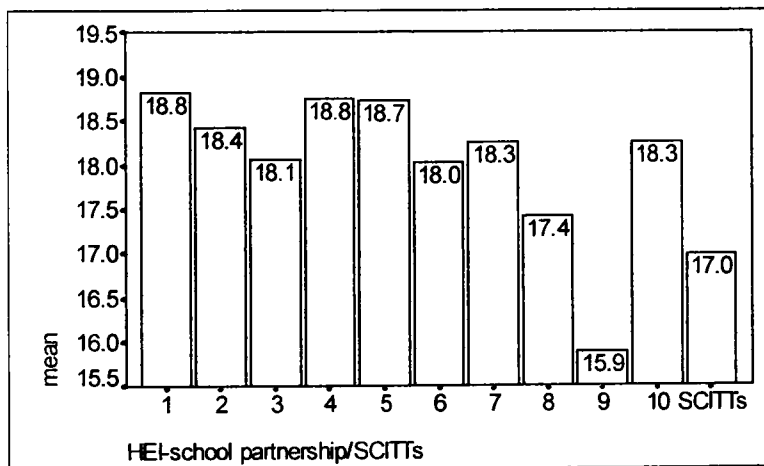
(N = 102, 59, 182, 118, 139, 98, 86, 68, 82, 85, 41 questionnaires
relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

The relatively low emphasis in SCITTs on teachers' reflective work with students correlates with OFSTED reports which found that SCITTs provided insufficient encouragement for students to go beyond the superficial when evaluating their own teaching (OFSTED, 1995, 1996). However, Chart IV-W above also shows that the SCITTs did not place less importance upon reflection than *any* HEI-school partnership, and this point is expanded upon below when discussing the contributions of the ITT co-ordinators, mentors, and tutors in each of these courses.

Examining the nature of respondent rôles across courses confirms previous indications in this study that these varied, and that generalisations about the nature of

particular rôles in ITT need to be made cautiously. In the context of reflection examined here, Chart IV-X below shows that tutors in HEI-school partnerships 2 and 8 placed more importance than did mentors upon a technical form of reflection on *how to teach the content* of a lesson, despite this not being the case generally.

Chart IV-X:
Importance placed upon reflection on how to teach the content in teachers' and tutors' work with students
Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
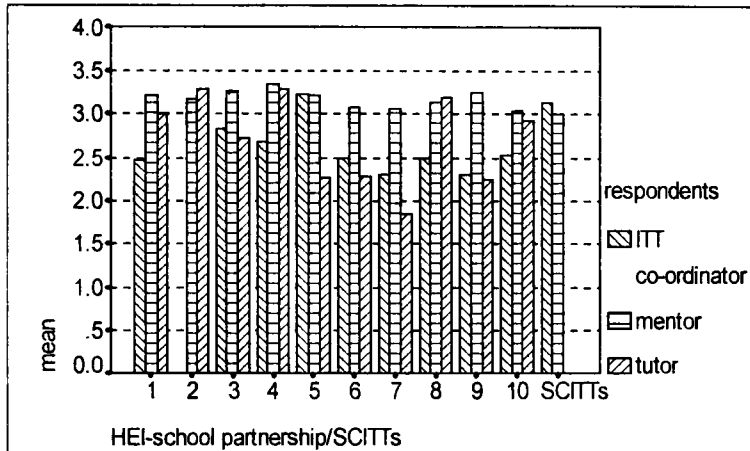
(N = 104, 60, 186, 121, 144, 99, 88, 68, 83, 90, 42 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

The emphasis placed on technical conceptions of reflection by tutors in partnerships 2 and 8 is reinforced when reflection upon general teaching skills is examined at this level of practice within individual courses, shown in Chart IV-Y below. The contribution of ITT co-ordinators relative to mentors also varied across the courses.

Chart IV-Y:
Importance placed upon reflection on general teaching skills in teachers' and tutors' work with students
Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs
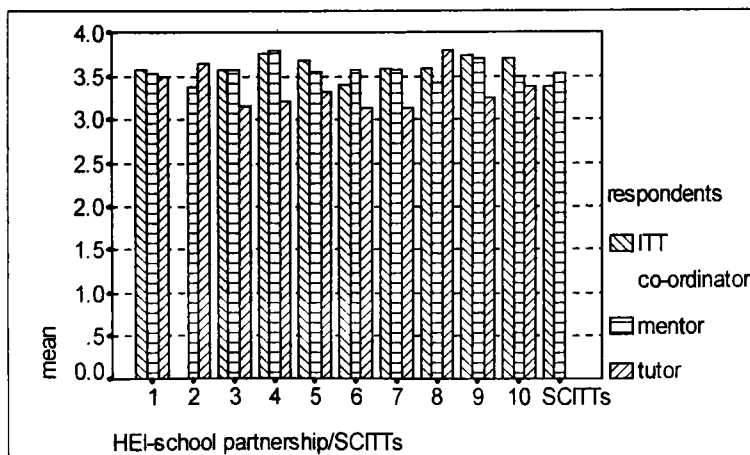
(N = 103, 60, 186, 121, 144, 100, 88, 69, 83, 91, 41 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

These data also extend our understanding of the differences between HEI-school partnerships and SCITTs. Although students' work in SCITTs was restricted in that less importance was placed upon reflection on the adequacy of theory than was the case in HEI-school partnerships, this was not because the teachers in SCITTs emphasised this form of reflection less than their counterparts who worked in partnership with HEIs. Indeed, as Chart IV-Z below shows, mentors in the SCITTs placed *more* importance upon this form of reflection than did mentors in HEI-school partnerships.

Chart IV-Z:
Importance placed upon reflection on the adequacy of theory in teachers' and tutors' work with students
<u>*Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs*</u>
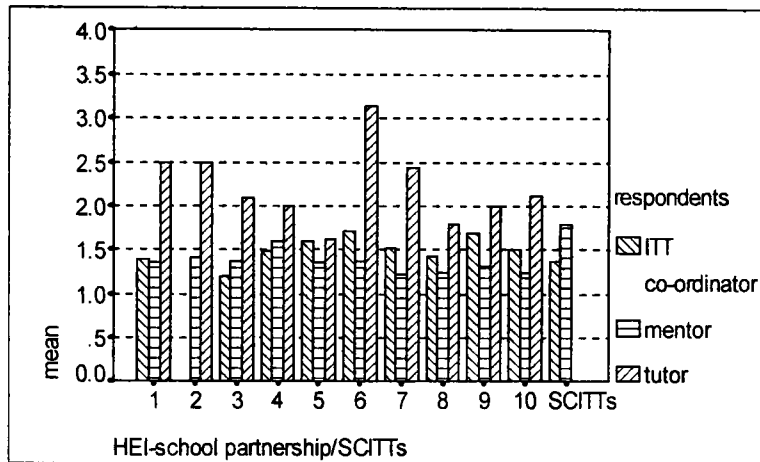
(N = 103, 60, 187, 120, 145, 99, 87, 68, 83, 90, 41 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

As when examining conceptions of teaching and the nature of students' work, it seems, therefore, that such distinctions as there are between SCITTs and HEI-school partnerships rest upon the contribution of tutors to the latter, working in a partnership with tutors does not seem to have a clear impact upon the nature of teachers' work with students.

This evidence that teachers in particular courses placed more emphasis than tutors on the critical conception of teaching is reinforced by examining the importance that teachers and tutors placed upon critical reflection in their work with students. Chart IV-AA below shows that ITT co-ordinators and mentors in partnership 8 placed more importance than did the tutors with whom they worked upon the critical conception of reflection on the values underlying teaching. In partnerships 9 and 10 this was emphasised more by ITT co-ordinators than by their teacher and tutor colleagues. There was also variation in the relative contribution of ITT co-ordinators and mentors. ITT co-ordinators generally placed more importance upon this form of reflection than did mentors, but not in HEI-school partnerships 1, 3, and 7, or in the SCITTs.

Chart IV-AA:
Importance placed upon reflection on the values underlying teaching in teachers' and tutors' work with students
<u>Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs</u>
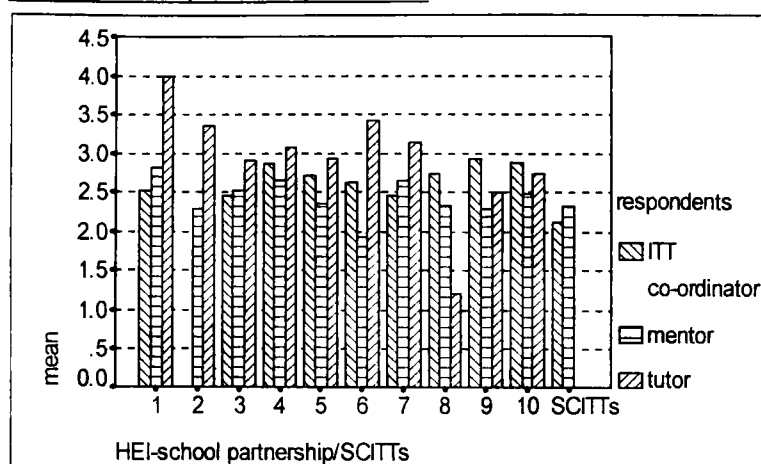
(N = 103, 60, 186, 120, 144, 99, 87, 69, 83, 89, 41 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)

Although these data show that within particular courses teachers contributing to an ITT course placed more importance than did tutors on critical forms of reflection, Chart IV-AA above confirms that the association of tutors rather than teachers with critical conceptions of *reflection* is more pronounced than that with the critical conception of *teaching*. This is not surprising in view of the fact that tutors placed more emphasis on the educative process of reflection overall than did teachers (see p. 256 above). It is also notable that teachers in the SCITTs did *not* place markedly less emphasis on this critical form of reflection than did teachers in the HEI-school partnerships generally.

A similar degree of variation is evident in the importance placed upon the other form of critical reflection, focusing on the social and political context of teaching. Here, again, tutors in partnership 8 emphasised this critical form of work to an atypically limited extent, as can be seen in Chart IV-BB below. This reinforces the point that even within a particular course, tutors did not *necessarily* support critical forms of work to a greater extent than did teachers.

Chart IV-BB:
Importance placed upon reflection on the social and political context of teaching in teachers' and tutors' work with students
<u>*Variation between the contribution of the respondent rôles across the HEI-school partnerships/SCITTs*</u>

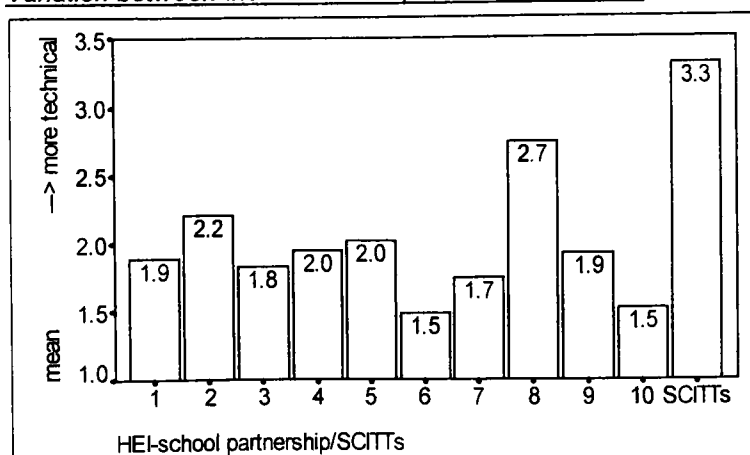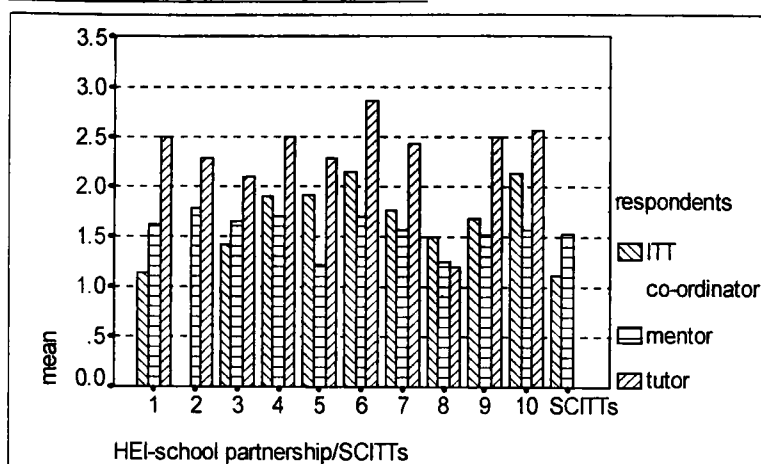*(N = 102, 59, 182, 118, 139, 98, 86, 68, 82, 85, 41 questionnaires relating to the respective partnerships/SCITTs set out above)*

As in Chart IV-AA (p. 267 above), ITT co-ordinators here generally placed more importance than mentors upon this form of critical reflection, but not in HEI-school partnerships 1 and 3, or in the SCITTs again. The data here also reinforce the point that the teachers in SCITTs did not differ significantly from teachers in HEI-school partnerships in the way they worked with students. Clearly, the nature of participants' contributions to, and experience of, courses is complex. While this study has worked towards establishing some generalisations about the nature of courses, and the work of the mentors, ITT co-ordinators, tutors and students involved, it has also valuably shown the presence of local variation which threatens some common assumptions about, for example, the differing nature of teachers' and tutors' contributions to ITT. Even within SCITTs, where there is evidence of a relatively restricted form of training, the picture is a complex one which deserves to be more closely examined through qualitative studies.

C.   Summary

The HEI documentation was examined to establish the intended purposes and foci of reflection, and the means by which these were to be supported through the ITT courses. These purposes and foci were set within a framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection, thereby supporting the coherence of this study by extending the examination of the courses in terms of the conceptions of teaching promoted into the area of reflection.

The findings suggest that the intended purposes of reflection were more often characterised as within the technical than the interpretive or critical conceptions of

reflection, reinforcing the pre-eminence of the technical in the conceptions of teaching HEIs intended to promote. The purposes referred to most often within this technical conception were those of student self-evaluation and improving the effectiveness of students' teaching. References to target-setting, competences, and identifying students' strengths indicated, it has been suggested, that the technical conception of reflection was associated with a bureaucratic process of training rather than education. This challenges the common belief that reflection in itself extends professionalism.

The critical conception of reflection was supported as fully as was the interpretive, i.e., to a greater extent than elsewhere in this study. An emphasis on 'practice' rather than more abstract 'knowledge', characterised both the interpretive and critical conceptions of reflection. This practical dimension was reflected upon across a range of contexts, and the interpretive conception of reflection was the one which was most extensively supported in terms of the intended foci of reflection, while the critical conception of reflection was referred to least often. The nature of the foci within the technical conception of reflection reinforced the indication, established when examining respondents' experiences of the conceptions of teaching promoted through the course, that the technical conception of reflection should not necessarily be regarded as a simplistic one.

Although examining the documentation has revealed differences between old and new universities/colleges in other aspects of the course, the only distinction evident here was that the former associated reflection with the HEI rôle, while the latter were distinctive in setting it in the context of target setting.

When respondents' experiences of the courses were examined, the critical conception was reported to be promoted less than were the other conceptions of reflection, as had been the critical conception of teaching. The extent of this support for the critical conception of reflection was, however, greater than that indicated in the HEI documentation or, arguably, in previous studies of critical reflection in ITT courses in England and elsewhere. Respondents placed similar emphasis on the technical and the interpretive conceptions of reflection, and it seemed again that the technical conception may involve a more thoughtful and demanding process than some have suggested. This reinforces previous indications in this study that school-based ITT may promote a more extended form of professionalism than many critics have argued.

The HEI documentation was also examined from the perspective of each of the participant rôles. It was envisaged in the HEI documentation that mentors would be most extensively associated with the interpretive and, especially, the technical conceptions

of reflection. This complements the association in the HEI documentation of mentors with *work* which may be characterised as 'training' rather than 'education', but also reinforces the indication that mentors' work with students was foreseen to be relatively complex and demanding. The critical conception of reflection was related most closely to the rôle of tutors in terms of both the purposes and the foci of reflection. There was, however, an expectation that mentors should support students' attempts to integrate theory and practice through reflection, thereby complementing tutors' pre-eminent involvement with theory and the critical conception of reflection. ITT co-ordinators were rarely referred to in the context of reflection. The autonomy ascribed to students was evidenced in the extent of their responsibilities for their reflective work.

The questionnaire data from respondents indicated that tutors placed more importance on the foci of reflection overall in their work with students than did ITT co-ordinators or mentors. This was particularly so in relation to foci within the critical conception of reflection, and upon the adequacy of theory. Thus, the contribution of tutors was not only distinctive, but may be characterised here as providing most support for extended forms of teacher professionalism.

Yet the contribution of teachers was also reported to be notable. Mentors placed significant emphasis on the technical and interpretive conceptions of reflection, and more on the critical conception of reflection than had been indicated in the HEI documentation. The contribution of ITT co-ordinators to students' reflection also seems to have been underestimated in the HEI documentation. ITT co-ordinators placed far more emphasis on students' reflection in practice than had been anticipated. Indeed, ITT co-ordinators placed more importance upon foci of reflection within the critical conception of reflection and upon the adequacy of theory than did mentors.

When examining variation across courses, this was again evident between HEI-school partnerships and SCITTs, although less between old and new universities/colleges than in the other aspects of the courses studied here. There is some evidence that SCITTs support a relatively restricted form of professionalism, notably through their limited promotion of critical conceptions of reflection. This conclusion is, however, supported less strongly here than in previous Sections. There is further evidence that in particular partnerships teachers may promote a critical conception more than tutors, while conversely tutors may place more importance on a technical conception of reflection that do teachers. Nevertheless, the distinctive contribution of tutors has been highlighted as being why HEI-school partnerships may provide courses which are different from SCITTs'.

Undoubtedly, however, this study does not do justice to the complexity of the forms of students' reflection. Subtle differences between reflection upon one aspect of a conception rather than upon another were evident when examining conceptions of *teaching*, and deserve more attention in this context of *reflection*. In addition to the delineation of students' reflection as intended, supported and experienced in ITT courses, analysis of the data also suggests some ways in which HEI course documentation may be developed to enhance the quantity and quality of students' reflection in future courses. First, the term 'reflection' itself may be more precisely defined in the HEI documentation. Also, the means by which students' reflection may be stimulated and supported could be described in more detail by, for example, drawing out the potential benefits of peer support. In particular, the critical conception of reflection could be more effectively supported, if that were desired, by more detailed and specific references to appropriate foci in the HEI documentation. Similarly, fuller acknowledgement of ITT co-ordinators' potential contribution to students' reflection could extend the amount and depth of students' reflection, and increase the consistency of support for it. Developing the HEI documentation thus has the potential to increase participants' collective understanding of their respective contributions to ITT, as well as to guide and challenge their involvement in ITT. This would create an opportunity to strengthen HEI-school partnership, both in terms of the quality of courses provided and how closely the partners can work with each other.

V. Relationships between course characteristics

Many facets of the nature of secondary PGCE courses have now been examined. Key elements, such as the conceptions of teaching and reflection have been studied because of their contribution to our understanding of the changing nature of the formation of teacher professionalism. Others have been included in this study because as well as helping expand our understanding of how teachers and tutors work with students, it has been hypothesised that they interrelate with other course characteristics. It would be possible to examine innumerable relationships between these variables; but it is the association between the balance of HEI-school responsibilities and the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions which is central to this study. The relationship between these conceptions and other course characteristics was also analysed to increase our understanding of the factors in ITT courses which may be associated with restricted and extended forms of professionalism. These characteristics included those of participants' subject specialism and gender, the additional responsibilities of the teachers involved in ITT, and the class of students' undergraduate degrees (see Figure I, pp. 70-71 above, for why these factors were identified). This concern with the form of professionalism promoted through ITT has guided the selection of which data to report, i.e., decisions were made on the basis of significance in terms of *meaning* rather than statistical measures alone[1]. The age and length of teaching experience of the respondents was *not* found to be a significant factor, whether examined in terms of the age of the respondents or, for teachers and tutors, the year in which they qualified as a teacher, or the number of years for which they had taught. Data establishing the ethnicity of respondents was also gathered, although again this did not prove to be associated with differing forms of respondents' involvement in ITT.

Examining experiences on the basis of respondents' subject specialism proved to be of particular interest. For example, greater importance was placed upon reflective work, and greater involvement in various other types of work was experienced, by English than by science specialists. Overall, the involvement of mathematics specialists tended to be similar to that of scientists, while the experiences of participants on history courses were closer to those of English specialists; geographers were typically placed on the mid-point of subject-based continua. There was also interesting variation *within* these subject-bounded perspectives.

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[1] *Of course, it will be associations between these categories that are discussed rather than causal links, and the breadth of the discussion is constrained by the nature of the data; further, especially qualitative, studies are necessary in many areas to explore the issues raised.*

A. The association of the balance of HEI-school responsibilities in partnerships with other course characteristics

This study focused initially on the nature of HEI-school partnerships and, more specifically, where the balance of responsibility lay in terms of course planning and organisation, the assessment of students' teaching, and the assessment of students' other work. As established in the literature review, (especially pp. 8*ff.* and pp. 35*ff.*) HEI-school partnerships have been examined in terms of their management and development, and the rôles and experiences of those involved, as well as from the perspective of particular courses. No sustained attention, however, has so far been paid to how the balance of HEI-school responsibility for their partnership interrelates with other course characteristics. The following analysis will therefore seek to begin to address this gap.

HEI-school partnerships may be categorised as HEI- or school-led, or they may share responsibilities equally. It seems possible that the experiences of participants in shared partnerships may be qualitatively different, because this form of partnership may by its very nature provide greater opportunities for teachers to develop a closer appreciation of the distinctive perspective of tutors, and *vice versa*. This, in turn, could develop the practice of both sets of participants. The greater mutual understanding of teachers and tutors may, it was originally hypothesised, support course integration. This shared partnership may be contrasted with ones in which either the school or the HEI are the dominant partner. The analysis of the data here, therefore, will be organised into three sections, in which HEI-school partnerships are categorised as 'shared', 'HEI-led' or 'school-led'

Because it was hypothesised that shared partnerships may be qualitatively different from HEI- and/or school-led ones, the data describing the balance of HEI-school responsibility have been treated as not having a linear nature. It was not, therefore, appropriate to use even robust statistical methods such as Spearman's test of correlation. Rather, the Kruskal-Wallis test of the distribution of a variable has been used in relation to these categories of partnership, as it has in relation to the other variables examined in this study.

Probably the most significant finding here is that concerns which are commonly associated with HEIs, such as encouraging a critical approach to education (Hirst, 1990; Pring, 1994) and the examination of educational theories (Furlong *et al.*, 1988; Devlin, 1995), were most fully experienced where responsibility was perceived to be *shared* rather than resting primarily with the HEI. In view of the perceived significance of these data, it is the characteristics of shared partnership and the nature of practice

with which they are associated which will be examined first. Each dimension of shared partnership will be examined in turn, that is in terms of the responsibility for planning and course organisation, the assessment of students' teaching, and the assessment of students' other work. School- and HEI-led partnerships in each of these three dimensions will then be examined.

i.   Shared partnership

The positive impact of shared partnership found here seems of particular interest because many thought the introduction of school-based ITT through *Circular 9/92* would lead to a reproductive form of training (Elliott and Calderhead, 1993), constrain the longer term development of teachers (Tann, 1994), and threaten the professionalism of teachers (Moore, 1994). This common concern with the extent to which ITT courses challenge and extend the professionalism of students will provide the theme for examining the course characteristics and practices with which shared, school- and HEI-led partnerships were associated.

a)   shared responsibility for course planning and organisation

A shared responsibility for *course planning and organisation* was associated with higher levels of promotion of the *critical* conception of teaching, as shown in Chart V-A below. As in previous charts, the extent to which this conception was promoted through the courses is described in terms of a percentage of the three conceptions overall. Due to the nature of the data, a distinction between moderate and fuller HEI responsibility for course planning and organisation has been maintained in Chart V-A below; this latter level of greater HEI responsibility is represented by 'HEI+'[2]. The statistical significance of the variation shown here is .0181.

Chart V-A: see over the page

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[2] *The data representing the HEI-school balance of responsibility for course planning and organisation were established from responses to a simple Likert scale, and showed that courses were perceived to be HEI-led (see p. 107 above). Very few respondents reported that schools were primarily responsible for the course planning and organisation of partnerships. When examining the association of this dimension of partnership with other course variables, there were typically just 20 cases in the category representing the greatest level of school responsibility. This level has therefore been merged with the one 'below' it, which indicated more moderate school responsibility for course planning and organisation.*

Chart V-A:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the extent to which the critical conception of teaching was promoted by teachers' and tutors' work with students
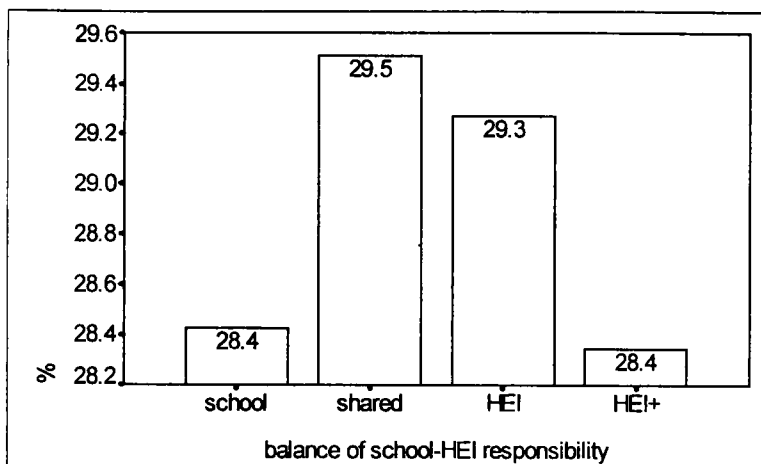
(N = 974 questionnaires)

It has been suggested that although tutors did promote the critical conception more than did teachers, the latter's contribution was greater than some critics of school-based ITT have feared (see e.g., pp. 180*ff.*). The data here reinforce this conclusion by suggesting that support for the critical conception of teaching was maximised *not* when the HEIs dominated partnerships, but where responsibilities for course planning and organisation were *shared* between HEIs and schools. This finding is particularly significant because the critical conception has been found difficult to promote in ITT generally (Liston and Zeichner, 1991), and in school placements in particular (Zeichner, 1981-82; Furlong *et al.*, 1988)[3]. This may in part be due to the inherent complexity of a critical conception which some believe is beyond the capacity of most students (e.g. Calderhead and Gates, 1993b), but the difficulty of promoting the critical conception is often ascribed to the narrowness of teachers' concerns (Avis, 1991b; Bames, 1992; Tippins *et al.*, 1993; Kerry and Farrow, 1996). This adds another layer of significance to the finding that shared responsibility for course planning and organisation in ITT was associated with increased support for the critical conception of teaching.

Moreover, the importance placed upon critical forms of *reflection* in students' work with teachers and tutors was also greatest when responsibility for course planning and organisation was shared between schools and HEIs. This was so of reflection upon the social and political context of teaching, where the variation is not statistically significant, and of reflection upon the values which underlie teaching, where the variation has a statistical significance of .0337. These latter data are presented in Chart V-B below.

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[3] *The first two of these references refer to experience in the USA, there has been little British-based research into the extent to which the critical conception of teaching is promoted*

Chart V-B:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on the values which underlie teaching in teachers' and tutors' work with students'
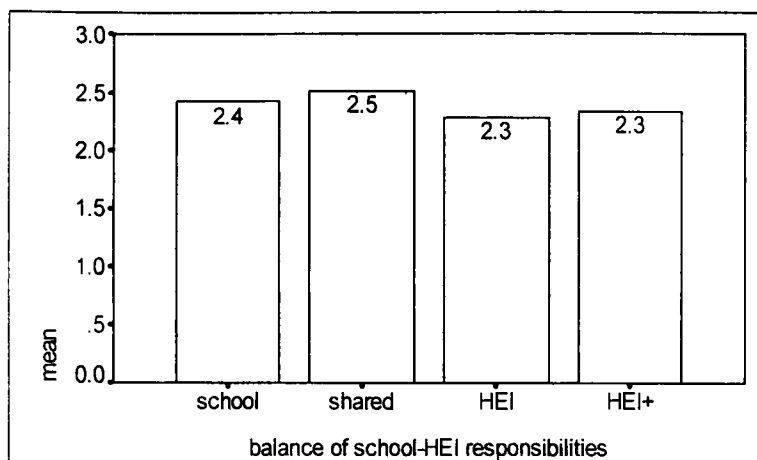
(N = 997 questionnaires)

Again, the data suggest that students in a shared partnership experience something extra, that critical approach which has been found to be notoriously difficult to achieve in ITT. An explanatory hypothesis which may deserve further examination is that the process of sharing responsibilities creates a positive conflict, or synergy, which enables teachers and tutors to promote a critical approach with students more fully than they are otherwise able to do. It is also notable that not only was the importance placed upon this form of critical reflection greatest when responsibility for course planning and organisation was perceived to be shared, but that it was (as may be seen in Chart V-B above) greater when the balance of responsibility tipped towards schools rather than HEIs.

The hypothesis that the process of establishing a shared partnership is positively associated with critical forms of work with students may also be applied to the extent to which students examined *educational theory* in their courses. Educational theory has, like the critical conception, been associated with the work of tutors rather than teachers (e.g. Kerry, 1997); but the data again indicate that the importance placed upon this form of reflection in students' work with teachers was greatest when HEI-school responsibilities for course planning and organisation were shared, as shown in Chart V-C below. The statistical significance of the variation evident here is .0003.

Chart V-C:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on the adequacy of educational theory in teachers' work with students
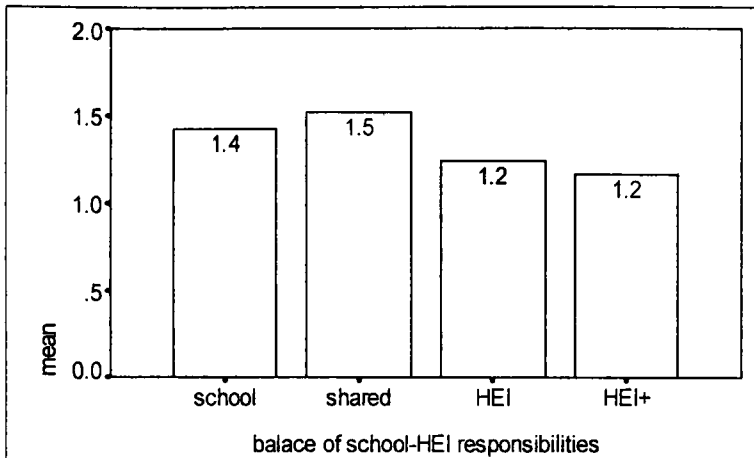
(N = 908 questionnaires)

Again, shared responsibilities in partnership are associated with a form of students' work which is commonly associated with the HEI rôle. This effect was also evident when the level of students' reflection with teachers and tutors was established as a single composite variable[4], though the effect was stronger upon students' work with teachers than with tutors. The extent of students' work with teachers and tutors which involved *relating practice to theory* was also greatest when these responsibilities were shared, as indicated in Chart V-D below, where the statistical significance level of the variation evident is .0472.

Chart V-D:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation with the extent of teachers' and tutors' work with students which related practice to educational theories
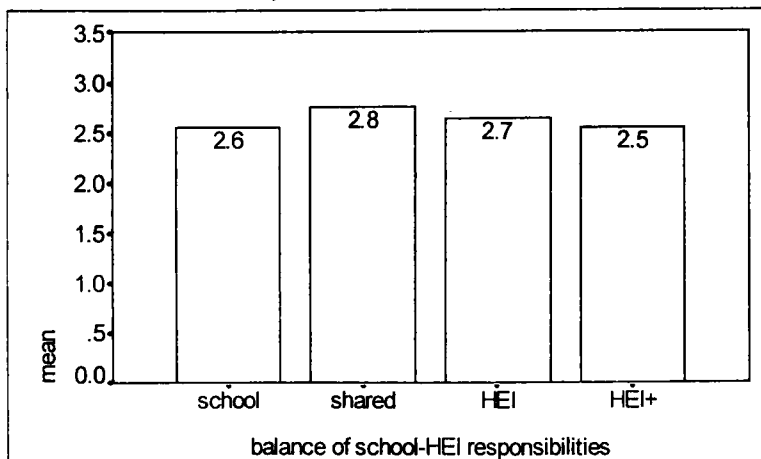
(N = 1027 questionnaires)

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[4] *Students provided two sets of data, describing their work with teachers and with tutors respectively. The composite variable was established by averaging the two sets of data from each student, and then combining this with the data from ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors.*

Again, a form of work commonly associated with HEIs (and extended forms of professionalism) was found to be most fully supported when HEIs were perceived to work *with*, rather than in splendid isolation from, schools in planning and organising courses. Of course, our concern here is with educational theory which was related to practice, not the study of theory alone. But this focus seems appropriate: there is a long history of course critiques and commentaries which strongly suggest that theory studied in isolation from practice is not perceived as meaningful by, and has little effect upon, students (e.g. Browne, 1969; Judge, 1994b). This is the context in which it has been proposed that school-based ITT courses might lead to more effective examination of theory, because it increased students' access to the practice which could be used to test theory (Booth, 1993; John, 1995). The data here add another layer of complexity to this issue, and reinforce the suggestion that shared partnership may be a distinctive form of relationship, not merely a mid-point between the extremes of school- and HEI-led courses.

Complementing the evidence that shared responsibility for planning and organising courses promoted critical conceptions of teaching, reflection and work which related practice to theory, is the finding that this form of partnership was positively associated with other forms of reflection and work which extended students' development. Thus, the importance placed on reflection upon how *pupils learn* in students' work with teachers and tutors was also greatest when responsibility for course planning and organisation was shared between HEIs and schools. This is shown in Chart V-E below, where the statistical significance of the variation is .0243.

Chart V-E:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on how pupils learn in teachers' and tutors' work with students
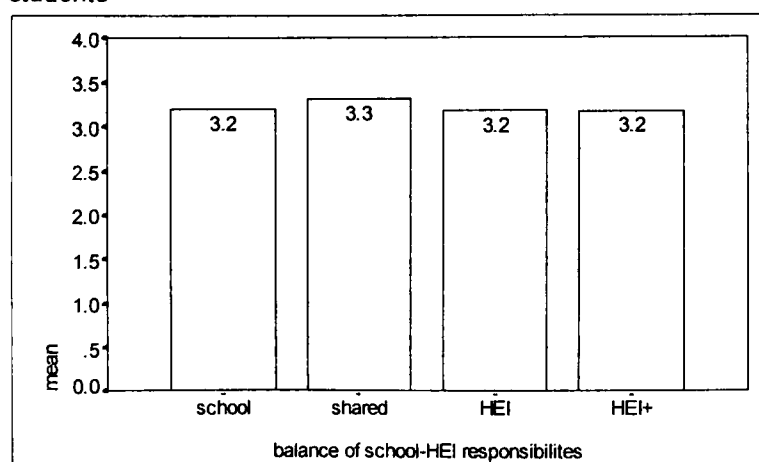
(N = 1003 questionnaires)

This interpretive form of reflection may be seen to represent a relatively advanced stage of students' learning in its focus on the response to, rather than the action of, teaching (Tann, 1994; Furlong and Maynard, 1995). Teachers' involvement in course planning and organisation may, therefore, be seen as increasing the effectiveness of ITT courses, as well as extending another dimension of professionalism.

The importance placed upon other forms of reflection in students' work with teachers and tutors was also greatest when responsibility for course planning and organisation was shared. Reflection on the students' style of teaching, general teaching skills and the social and political context of teaching were all emphasised most fully when responsibilities for course planning and organisation were shared, though the variation in these cases was not statistically significant. It may be suggested, however, that these data indicate that a perception that responsibilities are shared may encourage an emphasis on reflection generally, as well as upon the specific foci discussed above.

Similarly, in addition to work which related theory to practice, other forms of students' work with teachers and tutors were also reported to be most fully experienced when partnership responsibilities were shared. Work which involved telling students how to deal with particular situations (although the variation here was not statistically significant) and work which *provided students with information about the schools* were both experienced most fully when responsibilities for course planning and organisation were shared. These latter data are shown in Chart V-F below, where there is a statistically significant variation of .0308.

Chart V-F:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the extent of teachers' and tutors' work with students which involved providing information about schools
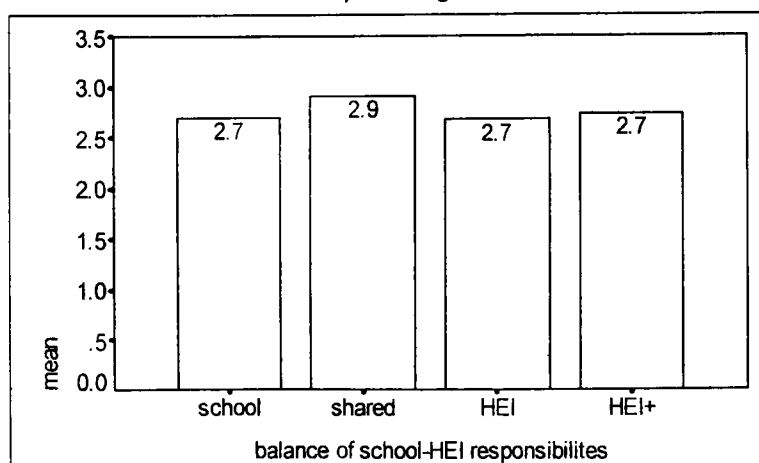
(N = 1028 questionnaires)

Work which built up the confidence of students by encouraging them was also positively associated with shard responsibility for course organisation and planning. This is evident in Chart V-G below, where the variation has a statistical significance of .0062.

Chart V-G:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the extent of teachers' and tutors' work with students to build their confidence through encouragement
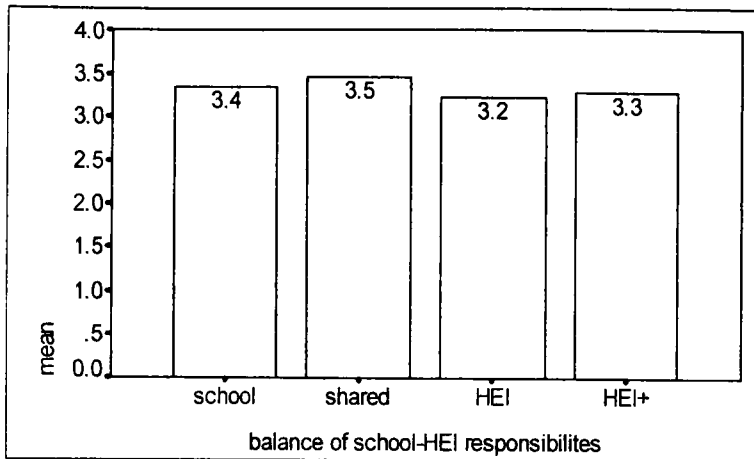
(N = 1032 questionnaires)

The two categories of work represented in Charts V-F and V-G may characterise a relatively restricted form of professionalism, but it is interesting that shared partnership is associated with these as well as with more challenging types of work. Of course, such work can still make a positive contribution if it is not developed at the cost of more challenging practice. It may even serve an enabling function. Extended forms of professionalism may, therefore. be associated with higher quantities as well as qualities of work. The different foci of reflection and natures of work experienced by students' in their work with teachers and tutors have each been summed to create two composites, which represent the overall level to which these forms of reflection and of work were experienced by students. Chart V-H below shows that the importance placed upon reflection overall was greatest in teachers' and tutors' work with students when responsibilities for course planning and organisation were shared. The statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data here is .0000.

Chart V-H:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the importance placed upon reflection overall in teachers' and tutors' work with students
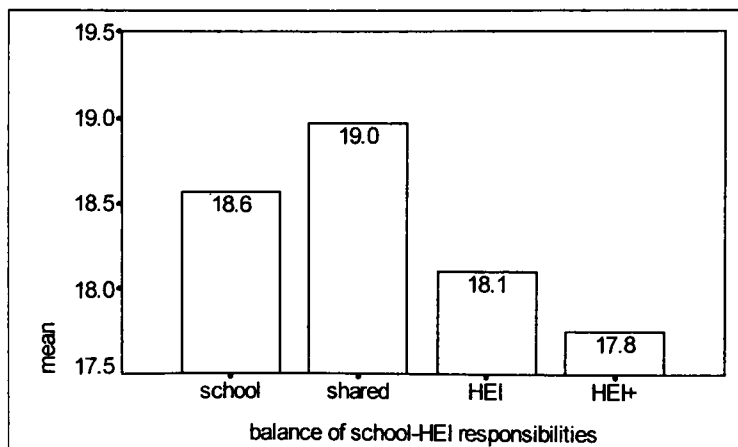
(N = 976 questionnaires)

Reflection is, of course, widely accepted as representing an extended form of professionalism. The way it is examined here is particularly interesting because previous discussions of reflection have focused on processes rather than institutional structures and relationships. Thus, reflection has been described as being promoted by positive interpersonal relationships (Korthagen, 1985), dialogue with others (Edwards and Brunton, 1993), merging rational and intuitive thought (Goodman, 1991), and micro-teaching (Proctor, 1993). It has also been associated with work in particular locations, including school experience (Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989), and work in an HEI (Smith and Alred, 1993; Salmon, 1995). The focus in this enquiry on the balance of school-HEI responsibility for partnership, may complement these studies by indicating a *structural* factor which may maximise the impact upon students' reflective practice through teachers' and tutors' involvement in course planning and organisation.

Similarly, the varied forms of teachers' and tutors' work with students examined here were experienced most fully when responsibilities for course planning and organisation were shared. These data are reported in Chart V-I below, in which the statistical significance of the variation of the data is .0294.

Chart V-I:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the extent of teachers' and tutors' work overall with students
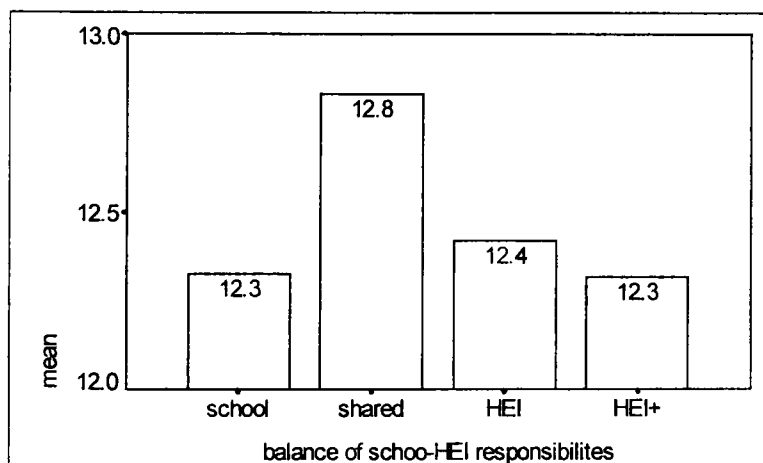
(N = 1016 questionnaires)

Although the conservative statistical tests used here cannot show causal links, the possibility that shared responsibility for course planning and organisation maximises the overall level of teachers' and tutors' work with students seems worth examining, especially as it complements an established perspective on the management of change (Fullan, 1994).

Another positive characteristic of shared responsibility for course planning and organisation is that it was strongly associated with greater *integration* of students' work

with teachers and with tutors, an aspiration of all courses. This is evidenced in Chart V-J below, which reports variation which is statistically significant at a level of .0000.

Chart V-J:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the level of integration of teachers' and tutors' work with students'
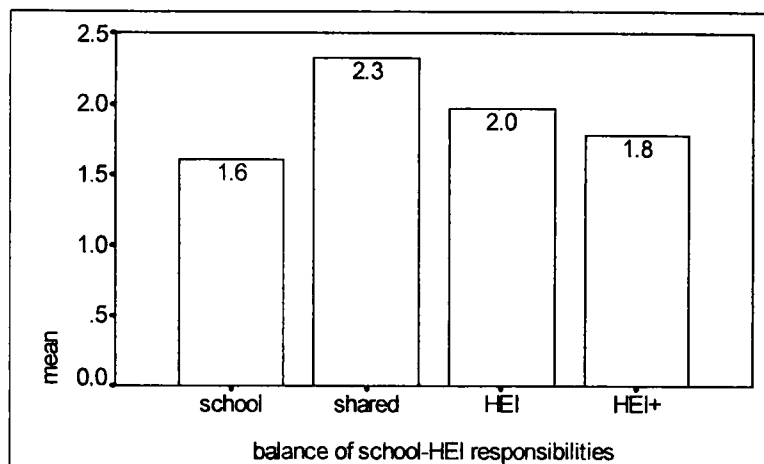
(N = 983 questionnaires)

One might, of course, expect shared responsibilities for course organisation and planning to be associated with high levels of course integration but, as has been discussed already, attempts over the years to increase such integration have met with mixed success. Anticipated benefits are not always achieved. Course integration may also be seen as an indicator of extended professionalism in that it is one way of making theory (and practice) meaningful to students. Shared responsibility for course organisation and planning is, therefore, associated with the achievement of some positive course characteristics, as well as with forms of students' experience of courses which may be beneficial as well as distinctive.

This shared responsibility may be supported by joint planning and HEI documentation, but the data indicate that it was also associated with other aspects of tutor-teacher contact. Both the 'educational' and 'delivery' forms of training and guidance for teachers which were examined in this work were positively associated with shared responsibility for course planning and organisation, as was the time which tutors spent working with students on school experience. Chart V-K below reports the association of shared responsibilities for course planning and organisation with 'educational' training which was designed to enable teachers to be aware of, and talk about, their knowledge of teaching, with variation here evident to a statistical significance of .0071.

Chart V-K:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the level of training for teachers which focused on enabling them to be aware of, and talk about, their knowledge of teaching
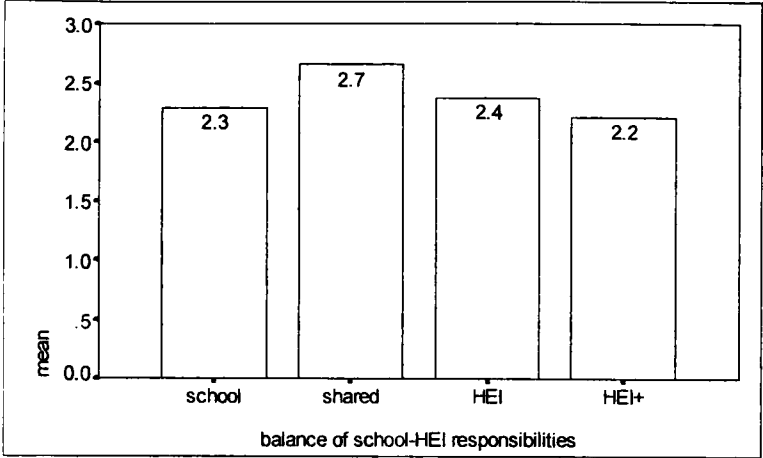
(N = 612 questionnaires)

The association of shared responsibility for course planning and organisation with an educational form of training for teachers may be expected in view of the links of shared partnership with the promotion of other characteristics of an extended form of professionalism, such as a critical conception of teaching, students' reflection upon (and work involving) theory, and other forms of reflection. But this shared partnership was also associated with a narrower form of training and guidance for teachers involved in ITT, that which was designed to enable teachers to *deliver* the requirements of the training programme. This is shown in Chart V-L below, where the statistical significance of the variation is .0477.

Chart V-L:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the level of training for teachers which focused on enabling them to deliver the course
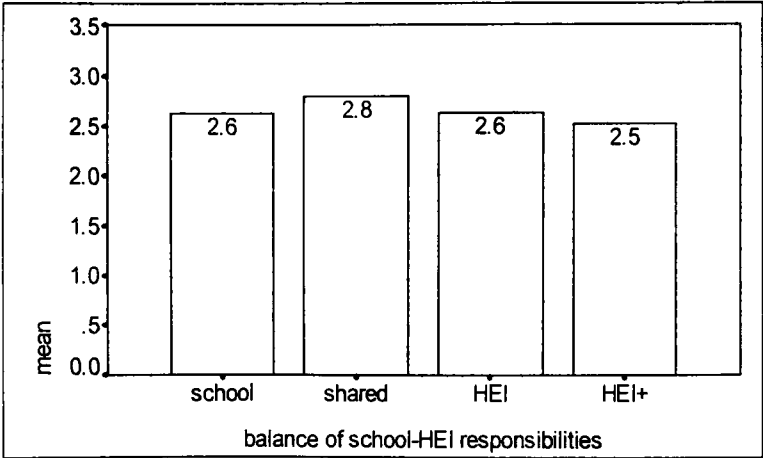
(N = 612 questionnaires)

The fact that both forms of training were positively associated with this shared partnership may indicate that the level of training for teachers generally, rather than

specific forms of training, was related to shared partnership. Training for teachers was one way in which contact (and potentially partnership) between teachers and tutors was developed. Another, was tutors' visits to schools. The data show that there was also a positive relationship between shared responsibilities for course organisation and planning with the amount of time which tutors were reported to spend working with students during their school experience placement. These data are presented in Chart V-M, and the statistical significance of the variation here is .0129.

Chart V-M:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the amount of time for which tutors worked with students on school experience placement each week
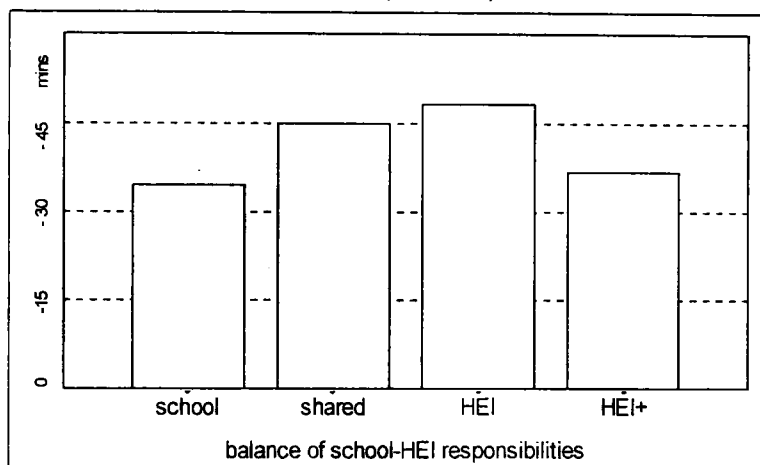
(N = 767 questionnaires)

This may suggest that tutors' visits supported a perception that responsibilities for course organisation and planning were shared. From this, and data about the training provided for teachers, it may be concluded that shared responsibilities in partnership were supported by continuing contact between teachers and tutors, as well as by the joint planning and consultation referred to in the HEI documentation and by HEI course leaders.

b)   shared responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching
Moving on to *assessing students' teaching*, responsibility for this lay more heavily with schools than with HEIs (see p. 107 above). Where these responsibilities were perceived to be shared, however, some forms of *tutors'* work with students were reported to be supported to a greater extent. In terms of reflection, this was so (although not to a statistically significant extent) of the importance placed upon a focus on how to teach the content of a lesson, on how pupils learn, and on the values which underlie teaching. It was also true of reflection on *general teaching skills*, where there was a statistically significant variation of .0014, reported in Chart V-N below. Because there were so few responses reporting that the HEI had primary responsibility here, the two categories representing HEI responsibility were merged,

mirroring the treatment of the data representing course organisation and planning (i.e. 'school+' represents greater responsibility ascribed to the school than 'school').

Chart V-N:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on general teaching skills in tutors' work with students
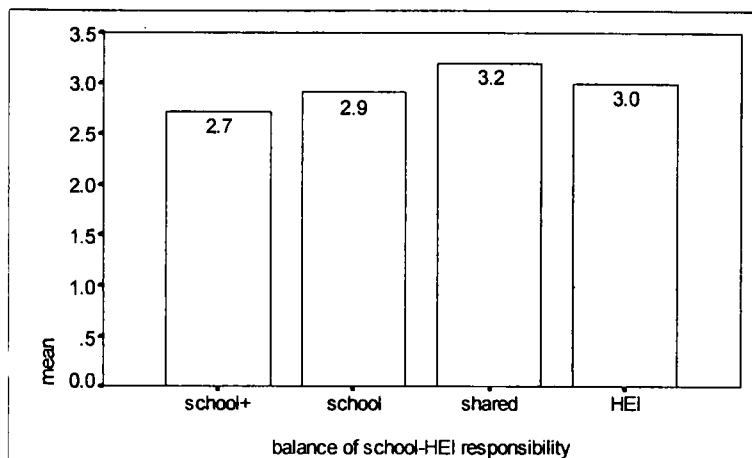
(N = 500 questionnaires)

That reflection upon general teaching skills had a more significant place in tutors' work with students when responsibility for assessing students' teaching was shared rather than lay with the school is not surprising. An increased focus on students' classroom practice is virtually bound to include reference to general teaching skills. More notable is the fact that the importance placed upon this form of reflection in tutors' work with students was greater when responsibilities were shared than when the HEI had lead responsibility for assessing students' teaching. This may indicate that this dimension of shared partnership had (or at least was an indicator of) a form of 'value added' effect on tutors' work with students.

This 'value added' effect may also be seen in the extent to which students' work with tutors related practice to educational theories. The examination of theory is commonly associated with HEIs, but it is notable that the extent to which tutors *interrelated theory and practice* was greatest when responsibility for assessing students' teaching was shared. These data are presented in Chart V-O below, where the variation has a statistical significance of .0158.

Chart V-O:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the extent of tutors' work with students which related practice to educational theories
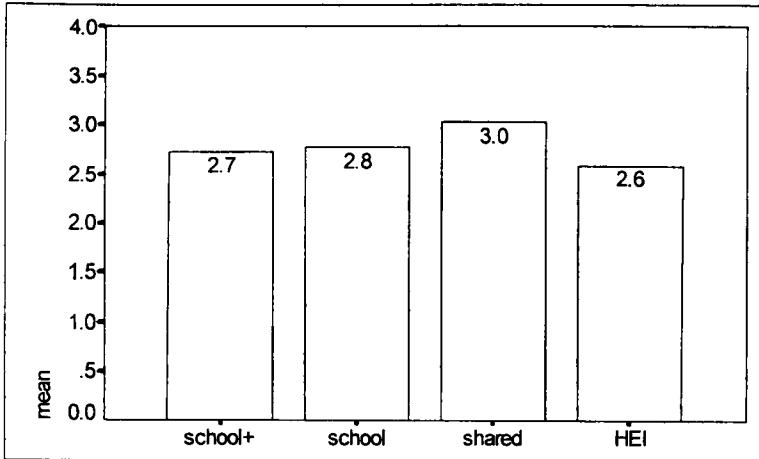
(N = 515 questionnaires)

Similarly, this dimension of partnership was associated with the highest level of integration of *students' work with teachers and tutors*, and hence work likely to extend professionalism by challenging students' existing knowledge and assumptions. This is shown in Chart V-P below, in which the statistical significance of the variation of the data was .0141.

Chart V-P:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the extent of integration of students' work with teachers and with tutors
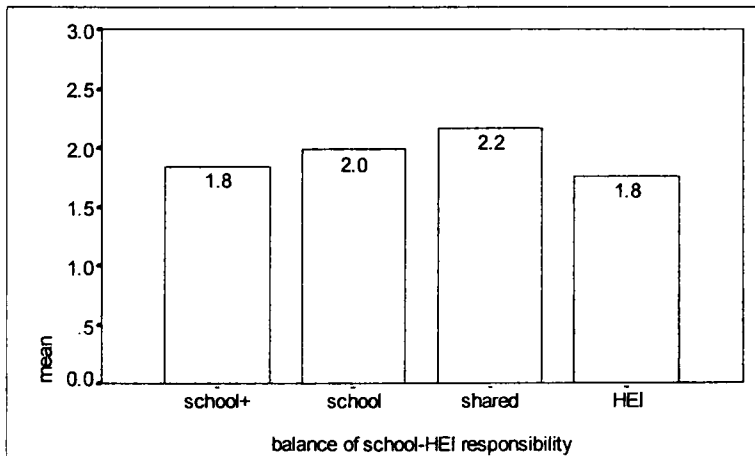
(N = 1006 questionnaires)

Shared responsibility for assessing students was also associated with extending tutors' work with students in quantifiable terms. In tutors' work with students, the importance placed upon *reflection overall* (calculated by summing the importance they placed upon each of the foci of reflection examined in the questionnaires), was greatest when partnership here was shared. Chart V-Q below reports the distribution of these data varied with a statistical significance of .0394.

Chart V-Q:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the importance placed upon reflection overall in tutors' work with students
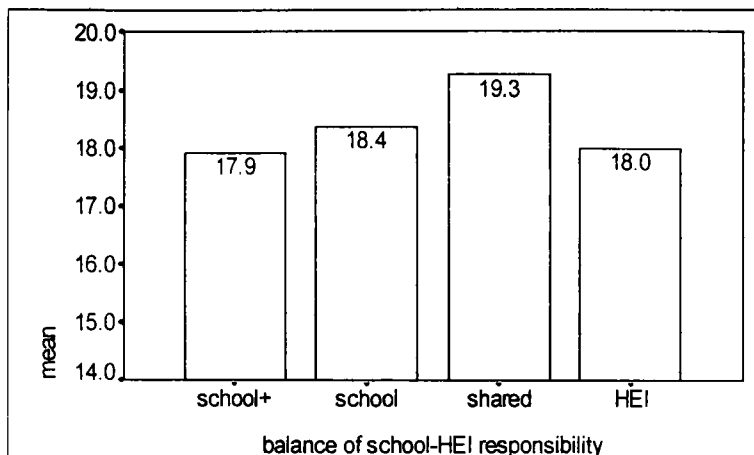
(N = 491 questionnaires)

This reinforces the challenges developed above to the common view that reflection is an HEI rather than a school responsibility. Moreover, the varied nature of tutors' work with students overall was also greatest when responsibility for assessing students' teaching was shared. These data are reported in Chart V-R below, where the statistical significance of the variation is .0021.

Chart V-R:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the extent of tutors' work overall with students
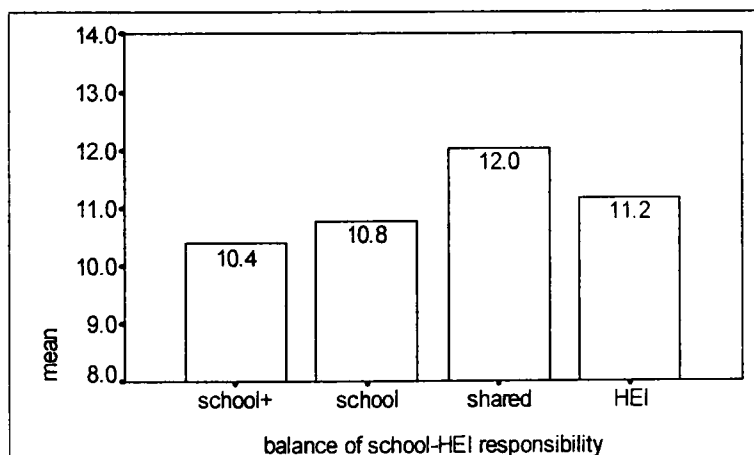
(N = 511 questionnaires)

Shared partnership is therefore again seen in a distinctive and positive light as associated with courses which were most effective in terms of the amount of tutors' work with students. The fact that responsibility in this dimension of partnership more usually rested with schools may indicate that sharing responsibilities had an especial importance for those who would otherwise have had a minor share of this responsibility. Certainly this was true in that it was also associated with greater amounts of *time for*

which tutors worked with students. These data are presented in Chart V-S below, where the statistical significance of the variation of the data is .0009.

Chart V-S:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the amount of time for which tutors worked with students on school experience placement each week

(N = 789 questionnaires)

Again, the level of training (by tutors) designed to support teachers' contribution to ITT courses was positively associated with shared responsibilities in this dimension of partnership; but here that was so to a statistically significant degree (.0240) in relation only to training designed to support teachers *delivery* of the course. These data are presented in Chart V-T below.

Chart V-T:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the level of training for teachers which focused on enabling them to deliver the course
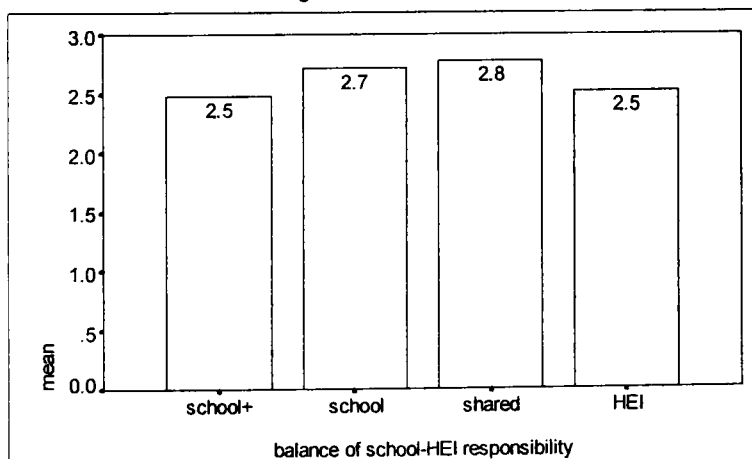
(N = 617 questionnaires)

Shared responsibilities here were more strongly associated with what may be regarded as a managerial approach to training, concerned with 'delivery' rather than a more educational perspective. This does not sit easily with the notion that shared

responsibilities indicate a partnership in which there is mutual respect amongst those involved, and is not easily explained. This may be contrasted with the representation in the HEI documentation,[5] where the perception of shared responsibility in this dimension of partnership is associated with *least* emphasis on the bureaucratic process of managing students. These data are shown in Chart V-U below, in which the statistical significance of the variation is .0013.

Chart V-U:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the emphasis in the HEI documentation on managing students
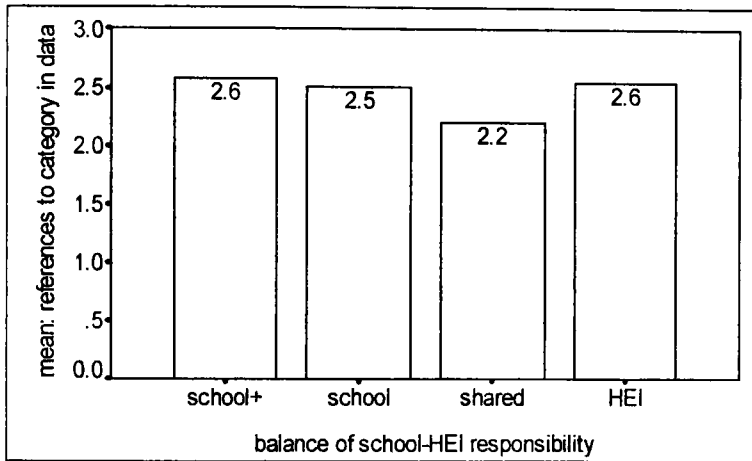
(N = 694 questionnaires, 10 sets of HEI documentation)

An emphasis on managing students, on providing them with information and with closely structured experiences, may indicate a relatively closed rather than open course. The association between shared responsibilities and educative aspects of courses is not simple or complete. This should not be taken to mean that students' development was constrained where *school* responsibility was greater. An emphasis on managing students may be *appropriate* when schools have more responsibility for assessing students' teaching, because teachers are well-placed to carry out this rôle. This may even act as a form of pressure and extend students' development, as well as enabling teachers to exercise their responsibility as effectively as possible.

The association of shared partnership with educative work is restored in the context of an emphasis on theory. The non-linear (but statistically significant at .0111) association is shown in Chart V-V below.

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[5] *These relationships need to be interpreted cautiously, because the data derived from a given set of HEI documentation have been treated as a variable which has been applied equally to all the appropriate respondents working within that HEI. These were the teachers and tutors when examining aspects of management of the course, and all respondents when examining the nature of the work involved in the course*

Chart V-V:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the emphasis in the HEI documentation on work involving theory
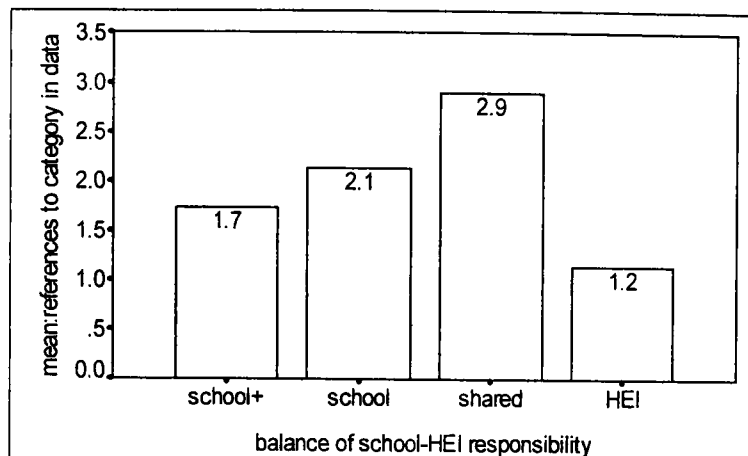
(N = 673 questionnaires, 10 sets of HEI documentation)

This emphasis on theory may have been stimulated by a perceived need to draw teachers' attention to its importance, and it may be significant that shared partnership was associated both with this and types of work, such as promoting the critical conception, characteristic of an extended form of professionalism.

c)   shared responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching

Moving on to examine this third dimension of partnership, HEIs had greater responsibility than school for the assessment of students' work other than teaching. Shared responsibility here was associated with fewer course characteristics than other aspects of shared partnership, although the low level of support for the technical conception of teaching by respondents who perceived partnership to be shared seems notable. Chart V-W reports these data, in which the statistical significance of the variation is .0043.

Chart V-W:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, according to the extent to which the technical conception of teaching was promoted by teachers' and tutors' work with students
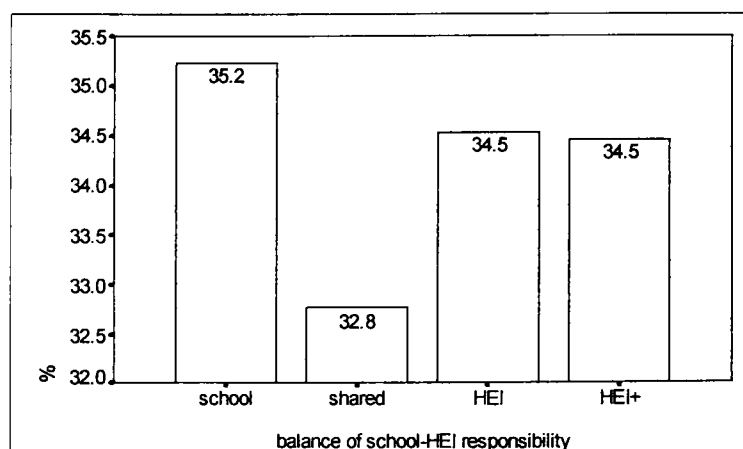
(N = 979 questionnaires)

These data thus show that shared responsibility here was associated with promoting conceptions of teaching which went beyond the technical. Both the interpretive and the critical conceptions of teaching were promoted most fully when responsibility in this dimension of partnership was perceived to be shared and, although the variation here was not statistically significant, the data do strengthen the indications that shared partnership was associated with courses which extended professionalism. This link is strengthened by shared partnership being associated with the highest level of importance placed upon critical forms of reflection (on the values underlying teaching and on the social and political context of teaching) in students' work with teachers and with tutors, and on reflection upon the adequacy of educational theory. Conversely, the importance placed upon the technical form of reflection on general teaching skills was lowest when responsibility was shared. The variation in each of these cases was, however, indicative rather than statistically significant. There was also a negative association with the *technical form of reflection* on how to teach the content of a lesson which was statistically significant (at the level of .0396), as reported in Chart V-X below.

Chart V-X:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on how to teach the content of a lesson in teachers' and tutors' work with students
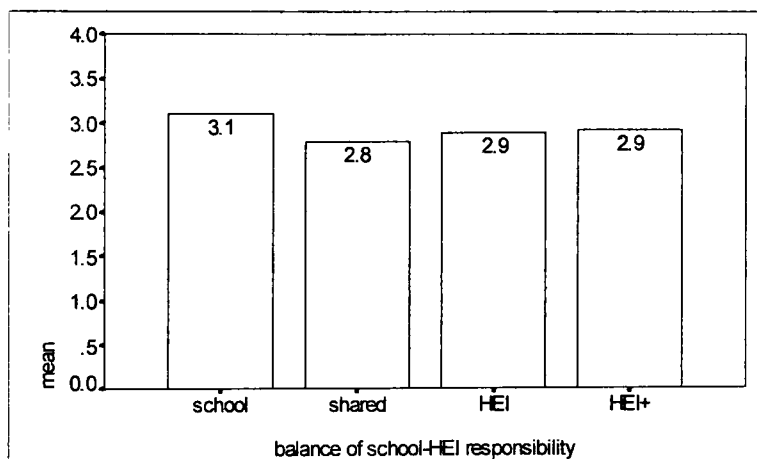
(N = 1006 questionnaires)

The data here therefore reinforce the evidence that shared partnership is associated with extended and educational, rather than narrow and restricted, forms of practice and professionalism on courses.

ii.   School-led partnership

Coming now to *school-led* partnership, we find, by contrast, that this was generally associated with less demanding forms of work and professionalism. The picture is not, however, an undifferentiated one, as evident in the dimension of course planning and organisation, which is considered below.

a)   school responsibility for course planning and organisation

High levels of school responsibility for *course planning and organisation* were associated with the educative process of reflection, although it was the technical one of *reflection on how to teach the content of a lesson*. Chart V-Y below describes this variation, which has a statistical significance of .0034.

Chart V-Y:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on how to teach the content of a lesson in teachers' and tutors' work with students
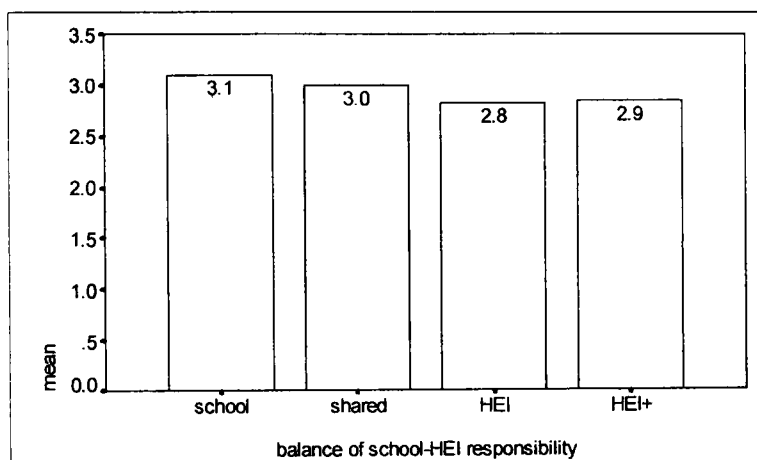
(N = 999 questionnaires)

This association with a technical form of reflection should not be used to support a generalised conclusion that school-led partnership provided the most restricted courses for students. Chart V-B (see p. 276 above) showed that the importance placed upon the *critical* form of reflection which focused on the values underlying teaching was greatest when responsibility for course planning and organisation was shared. But it also revealed that there was more emphasis on this form of reflection when responsibility for course planning and organisation was perceived to lie with the school than with the HEI.

However, school-led partnership was associated with limited forms of practice in that, the nature of *tutors' work with students* was quantitatively least when responsibility for course planning and organisation lay primarily with schools, as Chart V-Z below shows. The statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data here is .0082.

Chart V-Z:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the extent of tutors' work overall with students
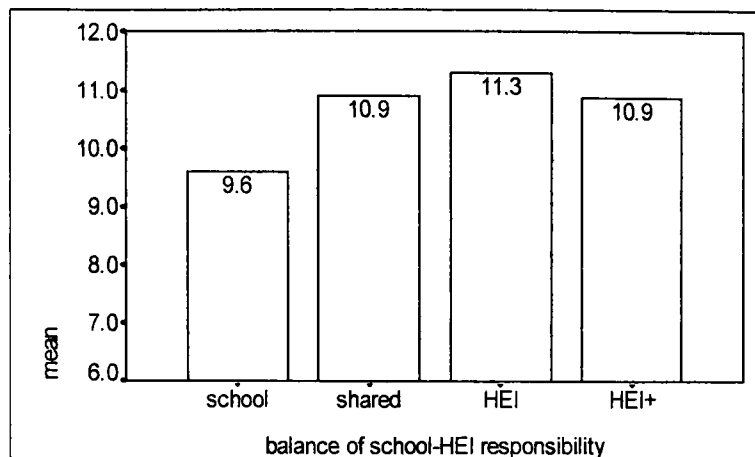
(N = 490 questionnaires)

School-led partnership may, therefore, be seen as restricting students' experiences in that these data suggest that it was associated with a limited contribution from tutors. This deficit was not compensated by an increased contribution from teachers, hence the contribution from teachers and tutors overall was also lowest when responsibilities for course planning and organisation lay primarily with the school, as Chart V-R (p. 287 above) has shown.

Experience of partnership can also be compared with the course intentions represented in the HEI documentation. How respondents interpreted this documentation, even whether they had read it, is unknown, so caution needs to be applied here. It may nevertheless be notable that where respondents felt that responsibility for course planning and organisation lay with the school, there were relatively more references in the HEI documentation to the *management* of students (i.e. providing information, inducting students into the school, see p. 365 below for more details of the nature of these categories). These data are presented in Chart V-AA below, and show a variation which is statistically significant at the level of .0004.

Chart V-AA:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the emphasis in the HEI documentation on managing students
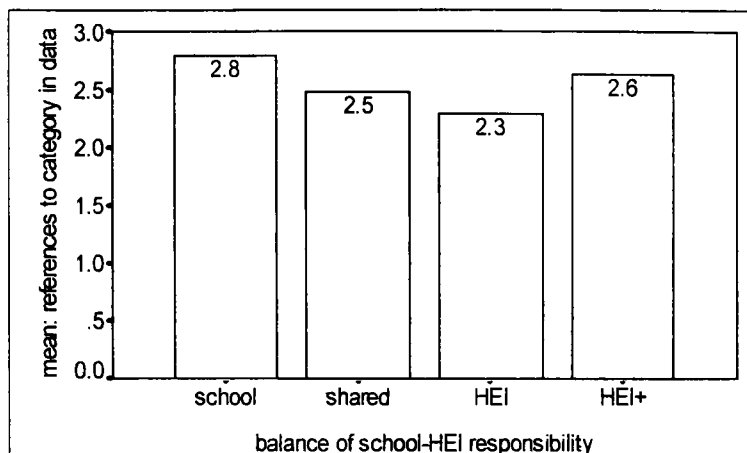
(N = 688 questionnaires, 10 sets of HEI documentation)

While the weight of these references in the HEI documentation may be seen as helpful rather than restrictive guidance to schools getting to grips with relatively new responsibilities, this association with a managerialist emphasis is complemented by an emphasis on a process of *training* (rather than education or theory) in the HEI documentation. This perspective is characterised, for example, by an emphasis on developing students' skills, coaching, and modelling (see pp. 211ff. for more details). These data are reported in Chart V-BB, and the statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data is .0030.

Chart V-BB:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the emphasis in the HEI documentation on training students
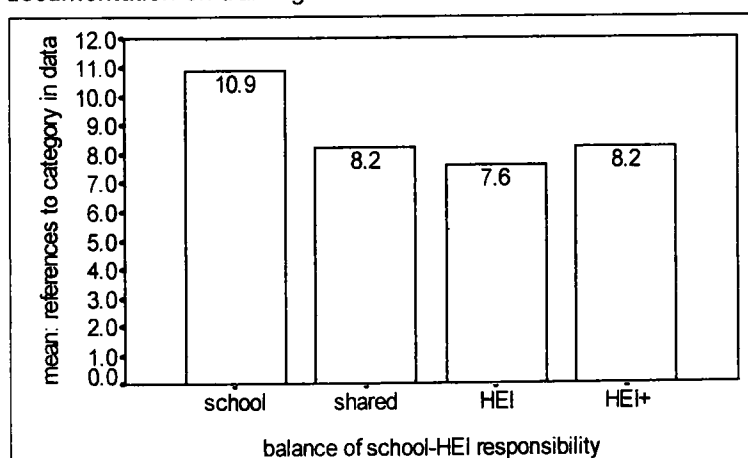
(N = 688 questionnaires, 10 sets of HEI documentation)

It is possible to infer from these data that school-led partnership was here associated with a relatively prescriptive, limited and controlling form of ITT. This conclusion is reinforced when examining the nature of the course characteristics associated with school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching.

b)   school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching

Thus a relatively restricted, technical, nature of work in which teachers and tutors *tell students how to deal with specific situations*, was most extensive when schools had greater responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching. These data are reported in Chart V-CC below, in which the statistical significance of the variation of the data was .0253.

Chart V-CC:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the extent of teachers' and tutors' work telling students how to deal with situations
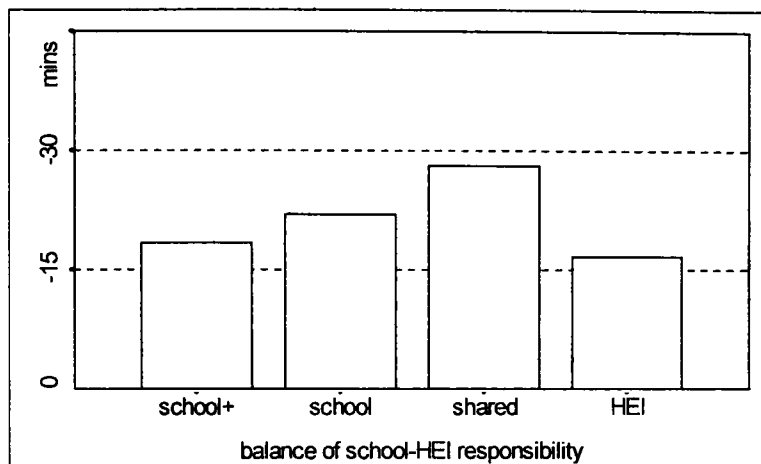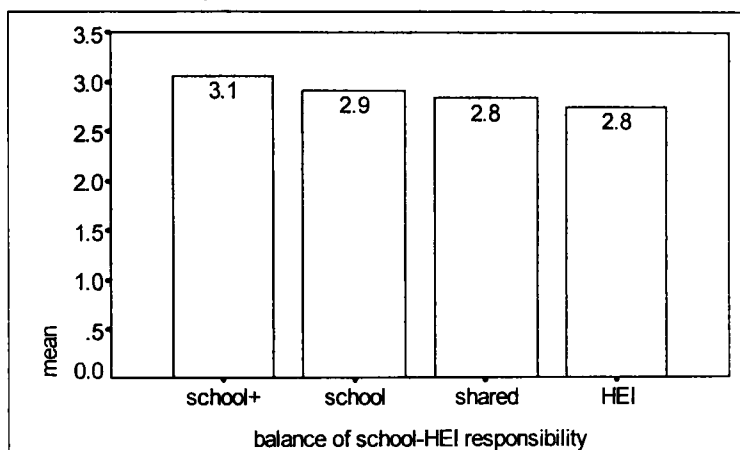

(N = 1055 questionnaires)

Even where school-led partnership was positively associated with the importance placed on reflective practice in the course overall, it was a *technical* form of reflection on how to teach the content of a lesson. Chart V-DD below shows this variation, which had a statistical significance of .0284.

Chart V-DD:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on how to teach the content of a lesson in teachers and tutors work with students"
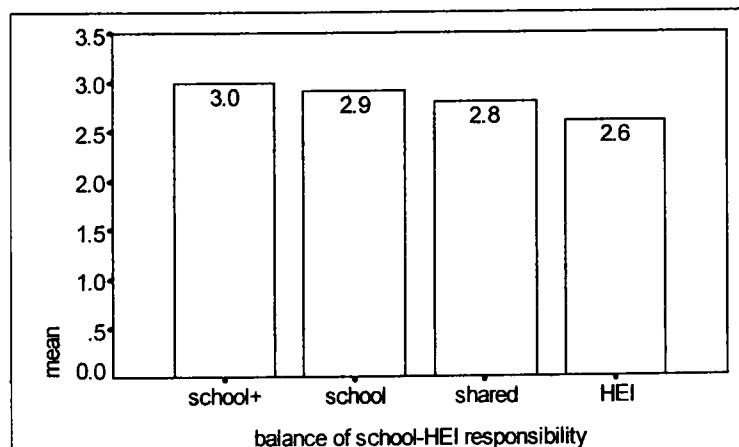
(N = 1026 questionnaires)

The association of school-led partnership with a relatively restricted form of ITT is reinforced by the fact that the traditional form of teachers' work with students, building up students' confidence by *encouraging* them, was also experienced most fully when responsibility for assessing students' teaching lay with schools. These data are presented in Chart V-EE below, where the statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data is .0010.

Chart V-EE:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the extent of teachers' work with students to build their confidence through encouragement
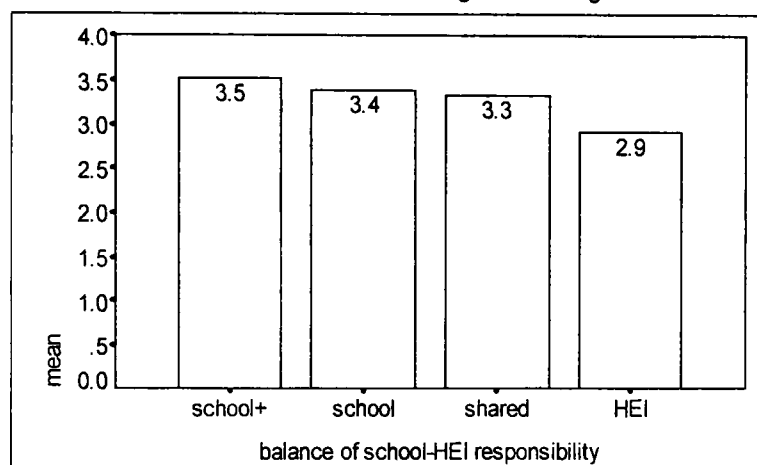
(N = 964 questionnaires)

A host of studies have shown that personal and professional support are important parts of teachers' work with students (e.g. Glover, *et al.*, 1994; Yeomans and Sampson, 1994), Some, however, have expressed concern that teachers are overprotective of students (Back and Booth, 1992), and offer support for, rather than challenge to, students (Elliott and Calderhead, 1993; Dormer, 1994; Field, 1994b). The positive association of school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching with work designed to support students might, therefore, be seen to indicate a traditional form of involvement in ITT, which did not greatly extend students' professionalism. The fact that ITT co-ordinators and mentors both supported the technical conception of teaching to a greater extent than did tutors (see Charts II-J, p. 174 and II-K, p. 178 above) may reinforce this interpretation.

This criticism of greater school responsibility for ITT should not be exaggerated, however. Although *shared* partnership has been shown to have had a relatively strong association with the critical conception of teaching, with reflection and work which involved examining theory, and with the level of importance placed upon reflection overall, there is some indicative evidence that school predominance in this dimension of partnership may be associated with work which challenges as well as supports students. In *teachers'* work with students, the importance placed upon reflection on

the values underlying teaching, and the extent to which practice was related to theory, were greatest when schools had the primary responsibility for assessing students' teaching, although the variation in the data here was not statistically significant. Moreover, a high level of school responsibility for assessing students' teaching was associated with greater importance in teachers' work with students being placed upon *reflection on how pupils learn*. These data, which show a statistically significant variation of .0036, are reported in Chart V-FF below.

Chart V-FF:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on how pupils learn in teachers' work with students
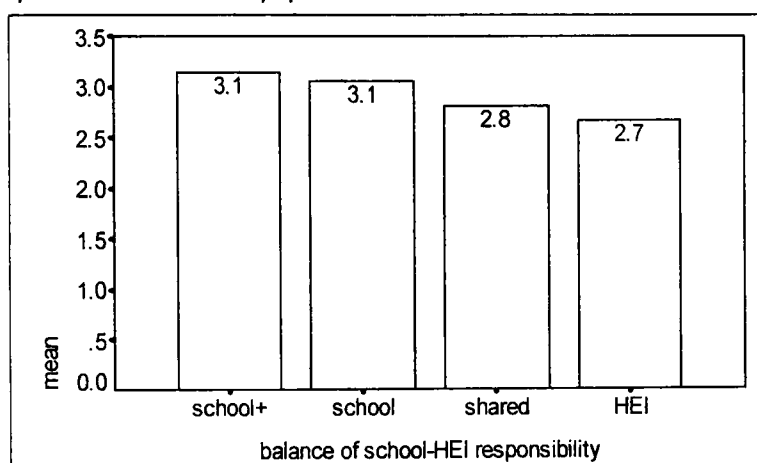
(N = 939 questionnaires)

Greater school responsibility here may, therefore, even have stimulated teachers to work in ways which, through an interpretive focus on pupils' learning rather than technical teacher action, relates to a relatively advanced stage of students' development (Tann, 1994; Furlong and Maynard, 1995).

This positive view of school-led partnership in the dimension of assessment of students' teaching is extended when the overall importance placed upon *reflection in teachers' work with students* is examined. This was greatest when responsibility lay with schools, as Chart V-GG below shows. The statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data here is .0044.

Chart V-GG:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching, according to the importance placed upon reflection overall in teachers' work with students
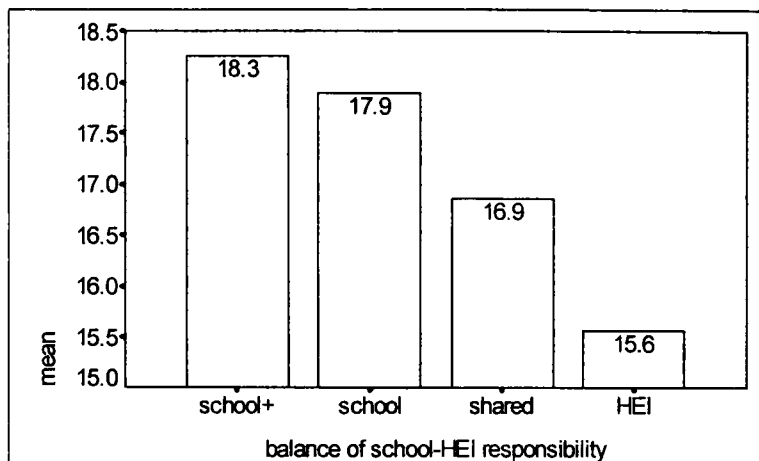
(N = 919 questionnaires)

These data draw attention to an important and positive characteristic associated with school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching. While shared responsibility for assessing students' teaching was associated with the highest levels of importance placed on reflection in tutors' work with students (see Chart V-Q, p. 287 above), the *teachers'* contribution here was greatest when they had primary responsibility for assessing students' teaching. This may be an important point to bear in mind when reviewing the work of those who suggest that schools are too concerned with practical issues for teachers to promote a reflective approach to ITT (e.g. Stephens, 1995). The data here suggest that the critical issue is whether school responsibility for *particular* aspects of ITT is appropriate, and that the assessment of students' teaching may be one such area. Moreover, If school responsibility for assessing students does encourage teachers to work in ways associated with an extended form of professionalism, it may be that this will become more prevalent as teachers gain experience and develop these forms of practice further.

A final positive point about high levels of school responsibility for assessing students' teaching is that it did seem to be taken seriously by teachers, as indicated by the amount of time for which mentors and ITT co-ordinators worked with students each week. The trend is particularly clear in relation to mentors who, as Chart V-HH below shows, spent most time with students when school responsibility for assessing students' teaching was greatest. The statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data here is .0002.

Chart V-HH:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students'
teaching, according to the amount of time for which mentors
worked with students on school experience placement each week
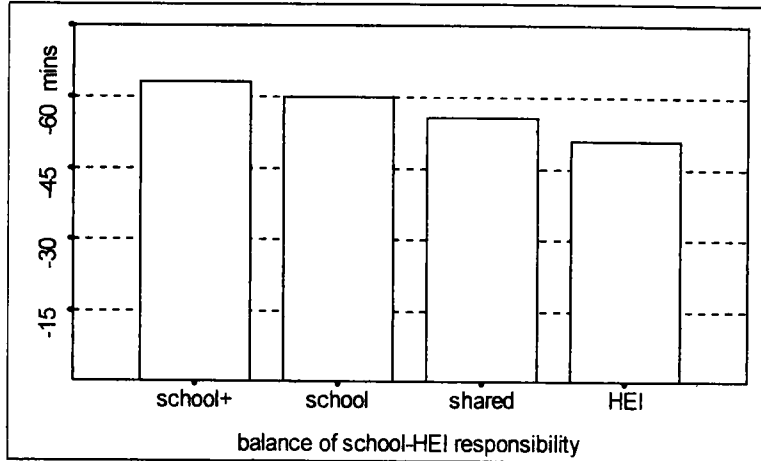
(N = 1027 questionnaires)

The same general point can be made for ITT co-ordinators' work with students, although the relationship is not so smoothly incremental. These data are shown in Chart V-II below, and the statistical significance of the variation here is .0063.

Chart V-II:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of
students' teaching, according to the amount of time for which ITT
co-ordinators worked with students on school experience
placement each week
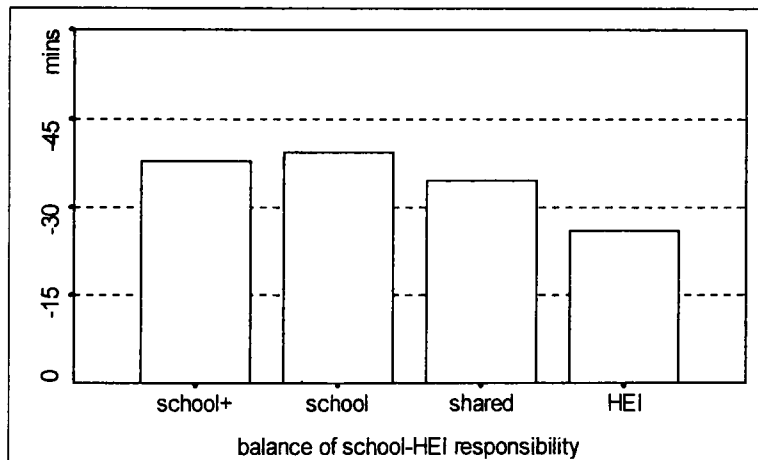
(N = 980 questionnaires)

Of course, one might expect a high level of responsibility for assessing students' teaching to require teachers to spend more time working with students, but such expectations are not always met. Robinson (1994) expressed concern about the limited extent to which tutors were able to visit schools to meet students and mentors. This could leave students and mentors not knowing precisely what to do, and so doing relatively little. But the data here reinforce the evidence that teachers do generally take their ITT responsibilities seriously by committing significant amounts of their time

to working with students. Students were found to work with teachers (i.e., ITT co-ordinators, mentors, and class teachers) for over 2½ hours a week

c)   school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching

When schools had the primary responsibility for assessing students' work other than teaching, greater importance was placed in teachers' and tutors' work with students upon the *technical* conception of reflection on how to teach the content of a lesson, as there had been when schools were reported to have the greater share of the responsibility for course planning and organisation. The association was not a linear one, as Chart V-X shows (see p. 291 above), but the variation in the data is particularly evident when moving from shared to school-led partnership. This perspective of school-led partnership supporting a relatively restricted form of ITT is reinforced by the association of school responsibility for assessing students' work other than teaching with HEI documentation which emphasised training (rather than a more open educational process). Chart V-JJ below reports the association with *training*, where the statistical significance of the variation is .0000.

Chart V-JJ:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, according to the emphasis in the HEI documentation on training students
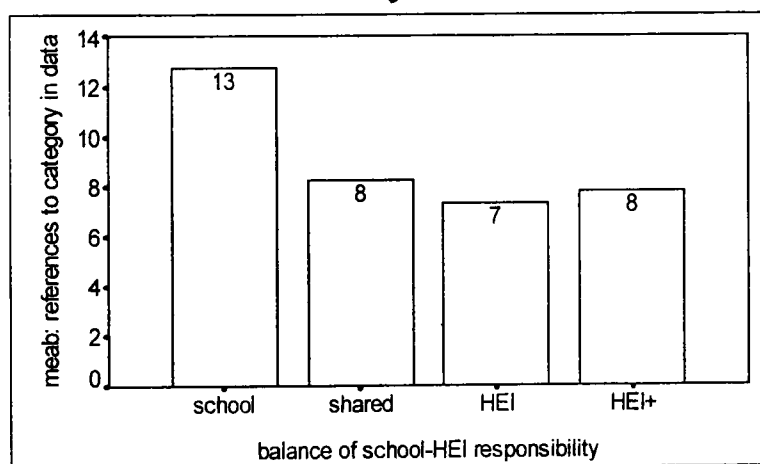
(N = 683 questionnaires, 10 sets of HEI documentation)

School-led partnership here was also associated with HEI documentation in which there were relatively *few* references to educational theory. Although theory may be technical in nature, in asserting what particular teaching methods most effectively ensure pre-specified assessment outcomes are met for example, the HEI documentation typically set theory in broader perspectives, including those set at societal levels and transcending the school context. The negative association with theory in the HEI documentation therefore strengthens the link between school-led partnership and restricted forms of professionalism. These data are presented in Chart

V-KK below. The statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data here is .0000.

Chart V-KK:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, according to the emphasis in the HEI documentation on theory
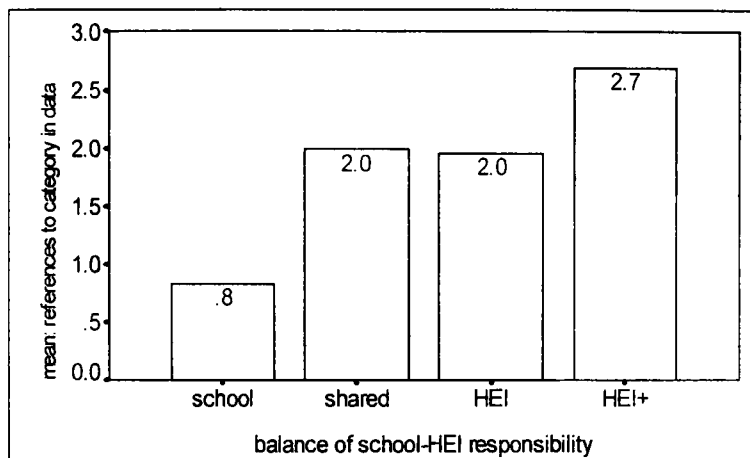
(N = 631 questionnaires, 10 sets of HEI documentation)

School responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching was thus clearly associated with the fewest references to theory in the HEI documentation. But, as when responsibility for assessing students' teaching lay with the school, a strand which represented the more developmentally advanced emphasis on pupil learning was also present. Chart V-LL below shows that in teachers' work with students, the importance placed upon *reflection on how pupils learn* was greatest when schools were perceived to have a high level of responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching. The statistical significance of the variation in the data here is .0055.

Chart V-LL:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, according to the level of importance placed upon reflection on how pupils learn in teachers' work with students
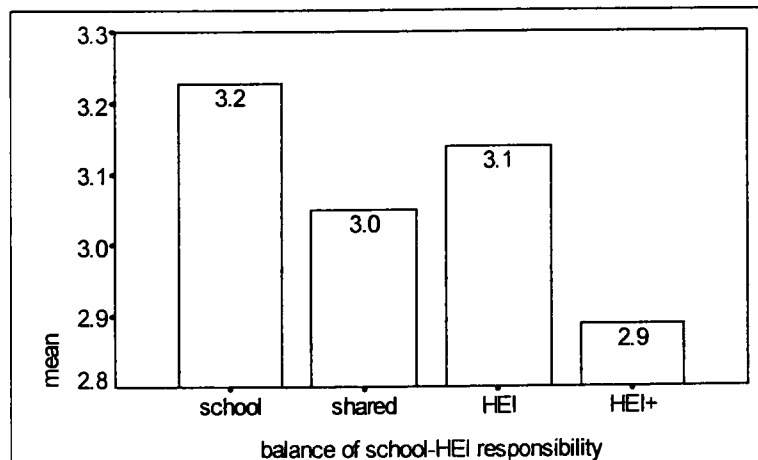
(N = 920 questionnaires)

These data therefore strengthen the interpretation made when examining other dimensions of partnership. While higher levels of school responsibility may be associated in some senses with a restricted form of ITT, there are exceptions to this. Thus, greater school responsibility for assessing students' work other than teaching is associated with a developmentally advanced form of student involvement in ITT, although the relationship is not a linear one.

Finally, as when examining the assessment of students' teaching, school responsibility for this dimension of partnership was associated with the greater importance placed by teachers on the various foci of reflection overall in their work with students. These data are presented in Chart V-MM, in which the statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data is .0144.

Chart V-MM:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, according to the importance placed upon reflection overall in teachers' work with students
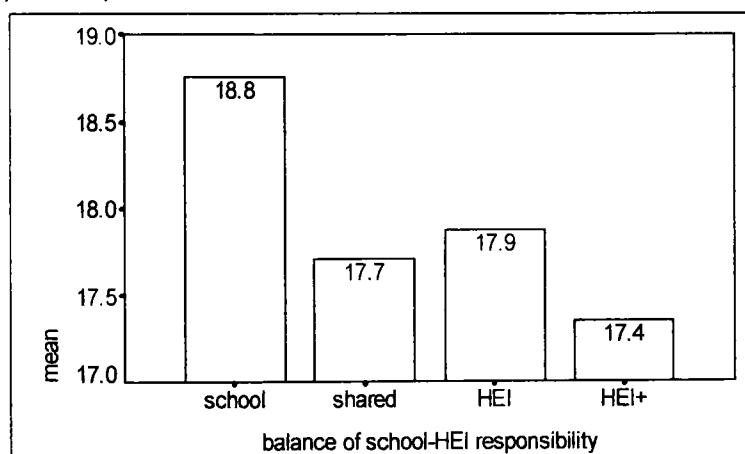
(N = 901 questionnaires)

It seems, therefore, that it is not just whether partnership is shared, school-led, or HEI-led that is important. While shared responsibility for course planning and organisation was associated with practice characteristic of an extended form of professionalism, higher levels of school responsibility for assessing students' teaching and other work was also associated with some positive course traits. These included the contribution of teachers to reflective work overall, and this emphasis is reinforced in the analysis of HEI-led partnership below. Two cautionary notes should be sounded, however. First, the focus on teachers' and tutors' reflective and other work with students at the overall level should not overshadow the finer analysis of particular foci of reflection and natures of work. Differing values and benefits may be ascribed to these by readers of this work. Second, responses indicating that responsibility for the assessment of students lay with the school may have indicated a high level of commitment to school involvement in ITT; it may be that it was this commitment (as well as the particular

balance of school-HEI responsibility) which was the key to an emphasis on reflection in teachers' work with students.

iii.   HEI-led partnership

HEI-led partnership may be characterised to some extent as a mirror image of its school-led opposite number. Thus, there is some evidence that HEI responsibility for the dimensions of partnership was positively associated with *critical* forms of students' work in ITT. This contrasts with the technical emphasis evident when schools had primary responsibility for partnership, even if this restricted concern was sometimes extended into other more developmentally challenging forms of ITT.

a)   HEI responsibility for course planning and organisation

In the HEI documentation, higher levels of HEI responsibility for course planning and organisation were associated with greater emphasis on theory and educative processes in teachers' and tutors' work with students. Chart V-NN below presents the data relating to the references to *theory* in the HEI documentation. The statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data here is .0019

Chart V-NN:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the emphasis in the HEI documentation on work involving theory
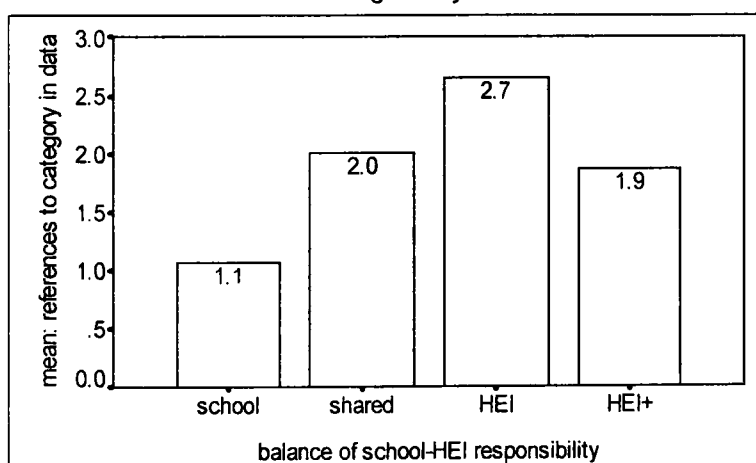
(N = 662 questionnaires, 10 sets of HEI documentation)

Involvement in theoretical work is, of course, a significant part of the rôle of an HEI, so these data have a face validity. It seems reasonable to expect that such core concerns of HEIs will be more fully represented in the HEI documentation when they have greater responsibility for course planning and organisation.

In terms of respondents' *experience* of the courses, greater HEI responsibility in this dimension of partnership was also associated with work characteristic of an extended

form of professionalism, but just the one form - that which examined teaching from a *moral, social or political* viewpoint. These data, which were provided by students only, are shown in Chart V-OO below. The statistical significance of the variation is .0020.

Chart V-OO:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation, according to the extent of tutors' work with students which examined teaching from a moral, social or political viewpoint
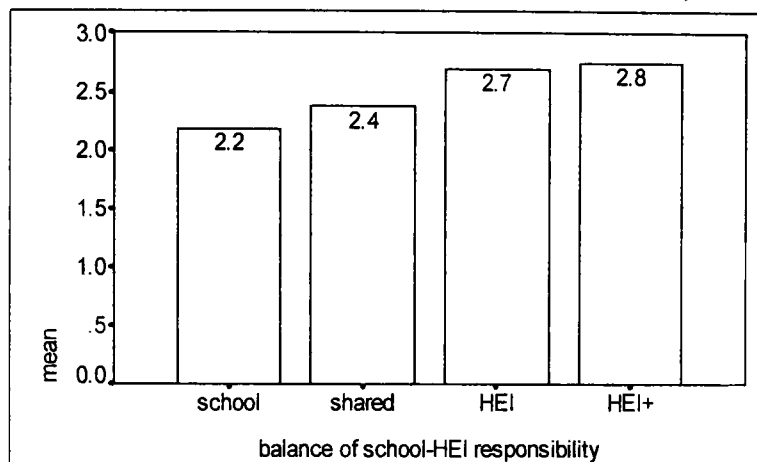
(N = 398 questionnaires)

While students reported that this critical form of work with tutors was promoted most fully when the partnership was HEI-led, it has already been seen that this challenging and complex conception of work was *overall* most closely associated with *shared* partnership. In any case, these data relate only to tutors. Teachers' involvement in such work was *less* when HEIs had the bulk of responsibility in this dimension of partnership. The variation here is not statistically significant, but there is also no clear trend when the data describing the work of tutors and teachers is combined. In terms of students' experience overall, therefore, HEI-led partnership was *not* positively associated with even this single critical form of students' work on the course.

Moreover, other forms of critical and theoretical work were experienced *least* fully when HEIs were perceived to have primary responsibility for course planning and organisation. Thus, in teachers' and tutors' work with students, the importance placed upon reflection on the values underlying teaching was greater when partnership was shared or school-led (see Chart V-B, p. 276 above). This was also true of the importance they placed upon reflection on the adequacy of theory (see Chart V-C, p. 277 above). The importance which teachers placed on *reflective work overall* with students was also least when HEIs were perceived to be primarily responsible for course planning and organisation. This is evident in Chart V-PP below, in which the statistical significance of the variation in the data is .0000.

Chart V-PP:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for course planning and
organisation, according to the importance placed upon reflection
overall in teachers' work with students
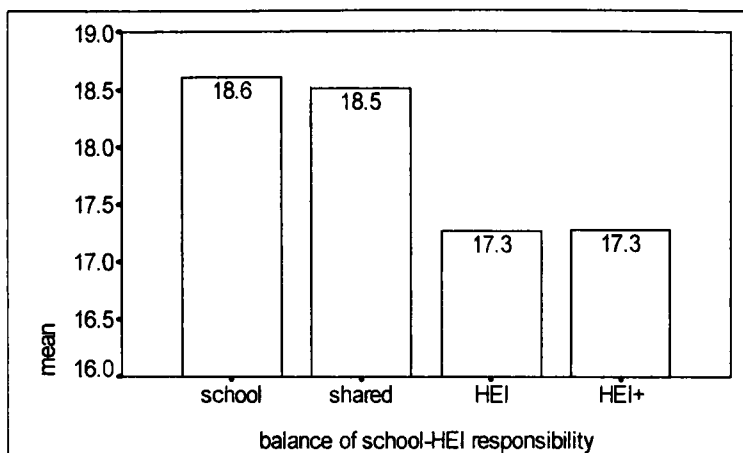
(N = 892 questionnaires)

HEI responsibility for course planning and organisation was, therefore, associated with the intention to challenge students and extend their development as well as, to an extent, with a critical emphasis in tutors' work with students, but this was more than balanced by a limited contribution from teachers.

b)   HEI responsibility for the assessment of students

A similar pattern is evident when the balance of responsibility for assessing students is examined. The association of greater HEI responsibility with HEI documentation which emphasised the educational nature of teachers' and tutors' work with students was again present, but not here to a statistically significant degree. A clearer example is evident when the students' perspective is analysed. Tutors' work with students which examined teaching from a *moral, social or political* viewpoint was most fully experienced when responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching lay with the HEI. These data, in which the statistical significance of the variation is .0316, are shown in Chart V-QQ below.

Chart V-QQ:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students'
teaching, according to the extent of tutors' work with students
which examined teaching from a moral, social or political viewpoint
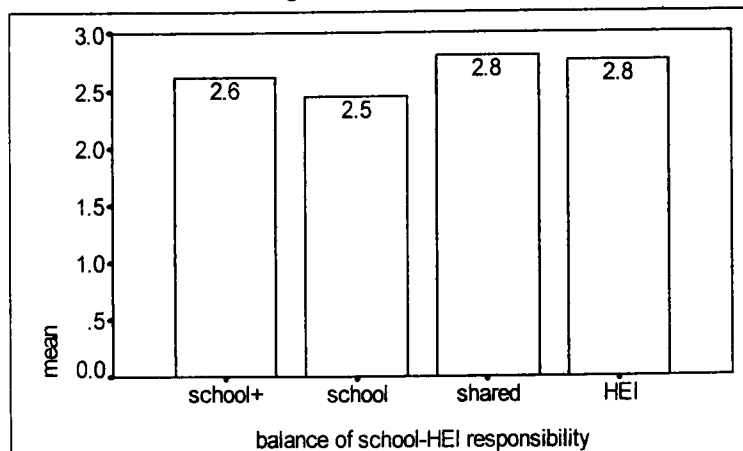
(N = 420 questionnaires)

These data apply to students' work with *tutors* and, as when examining the dimension of course planning and organisation, the opposite trend is evident in students' work with *teachers.* Again, combining the data relating to students work with teachers and with tutors shows that, overall, students' experience of this critical form of work was *not* greater when responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching lay with HEIs.

Moreover, the importance placed upon the various foci of *reflection overall* in teachers' work with students was also reported to be least when the HEI was perceived to be primarily responsible for assessing students, as shown in Chart V-GG (see p. 298 above). HEI responsibility in this dimension of partnership therefore seems to have been associated with a relatively limited contribution from teachers. This is also exemplified in the amount of *time* for which teachers worked with students. Higher levels of HEI responsibility for assessing students was associated with both mentors and ITT co-ordinators working for less time with students during their school experience placement, as is evident above in Charts V-HH and V-II respectively (see p. 299 above). This may seem a natural reflection of the balance of their responsibilities for assessment, but suggests that students working in those schools may have gained less than they could have done from the teachers with whom they worked with so closely in the locational, if not the professional, sense.

The association between HEI responsibility for assessing students' work other than teaching and HEI documentation which focused on approaches transcending a restricted form of professionalism in students' work has already been evidenced in the extensive references to theory (see Chart V-KK, p. 301 above), and the limited emphasis on processes characteristic of 'training' (see Chart V-JJ, p. 300 above).

In this dimension of partnership there was also a negative association with the extent to which students experienced structural and directive forms of work (characteristic of a restricted form of professionalism). Thus, teachers' and tutors' work with students involved providing information about the school *less* when responsibility for this dimension of partnership lay with the HEI. These data are described in Chart V-RR below, where the statistical significance of the variation is .0013.

Chart V-RR:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, according to the extent of teachers' and tutors' work with students to provide information about the school
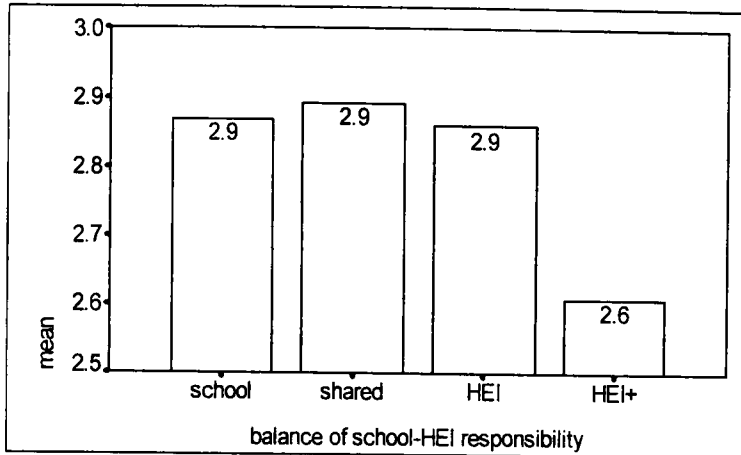
(N = 1035 questionnaires)

This form of work may enable students to teach more effectively, and even to interpret and respond to their school-based experiences. with greater sensitivity, but it is not inherently challenging or, of itself, likely to extend students' development. This is even more true of work which involves telling students how to deal with specific situations, an inherently restrictive approach to ITT. These data are presented in Chart V-SS below; the statistical significance of the variation in the distribution of the data is .0356.

Chart V-SS:
Variation in HEI-school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching, according to the extent of teachers' and tutors' work with students telling students how to deal with situations
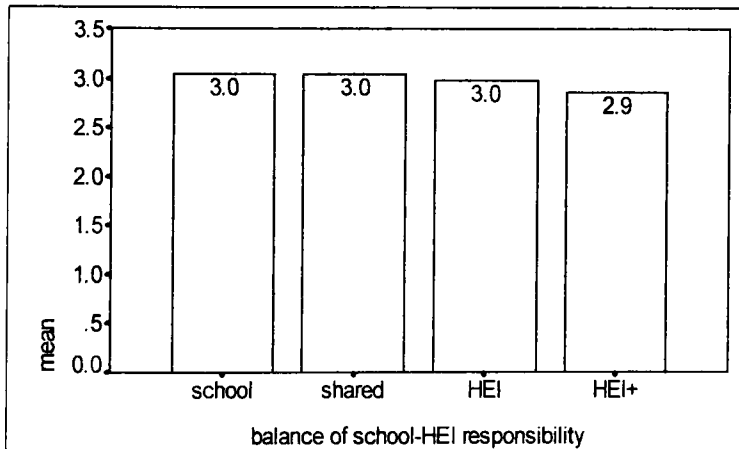
(N = 1035 questionnaires)

But this negative association with restricted forms of work in ITT does not mean that HEI responsibility in this dimension of partnership was positively linked to more challenging forms of work likely to extend students' development. As we have seen, these were more often associated with shared partnership. Rather, there is an indication that the overall level of teachers' and tutors' reflective and other work with

students was *lower* when partnership was HEI-led, although the variation in the data here was not statistically significant. Certainly HEI responsibility in this dimension of partnership has been seen to be associated with less importance being placed upon reflection in *teachers'* work with students (see Chart V-MM, p. 302 above). This force of this point is underlined by the association of HEI-led partnership with a restricted contribution from teachers across *all* the dimensions of partnership examined here.

B.   Summary

The primary concern in this section has been to examine the inter-relationship between the balance of responsibility in HEI-school partnership and the nature of respondents' experience of ITT courses. It was also hypothesised that the nature of this experience might be affected by the subject specialism or gender of respondents, or the class of degree held by students on entry to the course.

Arguably the most notable finding here was that the *critical* conceptions of teaching and reflection were most fully promoted when HEI-school partnership was perceived to be *shared*, rather than HEI- or school-led. This is of particular significance because the critical approach has commonly been associated with work in an HEI location, and it has been suggested that the move to school-based ITT threatens this critical perspective. In view of the long-standing concern about students' ability to inter-relate practice with theory, it is also significant that the extent to which classroom practice was related to theory, the importance placed upon *reflection on theory*, and the extent to which teachers' and tutors' work with students was *integrated* were all greatest when HEI-school responsibility for planning and organising the course was *shared*. Equally, the association of shared responsibilities in this dimension of partnership with the importance placed upon the developmentally relatively advanced reflective focus on how *pupils learn*, and on *reflection overall*, is also significant both in itself and for the implied potential to develop ITT which it reveals. It may be inferred that as those involved in HEI-school partnerships came to know the personnel and practices of their ITT colleagues more fully, so support for developmentally advanced forms of students' experience may have increased.

It has also been suggested that this shared partnership was positively associated with more prosaic forms of student experience, such as the extent to which they were involved in work which provided them with information about their placement school, and which increased their confidence through the encouragement they received from teachers and tutors. Indeed, the overall level of work by teachers and tutors with students in the areas examined in this study was greatest when responsibility for course planning and organisation was shared by HEIs and schools. While previous

research into such work has typically focused on the processes involved, the data here suggest that the *form* of HEI-school partnership deserves attention in terms of the course characteristics with which it is associated, as well as to establish an understanding of the structures underpinning ITT courses.

While shared partnership may have been developed through extensive initial HEI-school *consultation and planning*, it seems that such partnership needs to be maintained as well as established. Thus, higher levels of training experienced by the teachers and tutors working with students were positively associated with perceptions that responsibilities for course planning and organisation were shared.

Similarly, when responsibility for the *assessment of students' teaching* (typically the responsibility of schools) was seen to be shared, tutors were more involved in school-focused and school-based work. This meant that they spent more time working with students in schools and in school-focused work such as relating practice to theory, emphasising the importance of students' reflecting on teaching skills in particular, as well as of reflection generally. Shared HEI-school responsibility was again associated with students' work with teachers and tutors being more fully integrated.

Responsibility for the *assessment of students' work other than teaching* lay primarily with HEIs, but where it was felt to be shared the course was perceived to place greater importance upon reflection on critical conceptions of education, on the adequacy of theory, and on reflection generally. Shared partnership here was regularly associated with promotion of the technical conception of teaching.

School-led partnership was associated with contrasting forms of course experiences. Greater school responsibility for course planning was associated with lower levels of tutors' work with students, of teachers' and tutors' work with students overall, and with a technical form of reflection.

Where schools' responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching was greatest, important but relatively *traditional* forms of teachers' and tutors' work with students came to the fore. These included providing students with personal support by encouraging them, focusing on 'how to' approaches, and emphasising the technical conceptions of teaching and reflection. Higher levels of school responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching was also associated with an emphasis on a relatively limited form of technical reflection.

Overall, students' experiences of course seemed more limited when responsibility was perceived to lie with schools. It is also notable that school-led partnership was associated with HEI documentation in which there was a strong emphasis on *training*

and relatively little on theory or educative processes. Positive aspects of school-led partnership were the association of higher levels of school responsibility for assessing students' teaching and other work, with greater importance being placed upon reflection on how pupils learn, and upon reflection generally.

Conversely, *HEI-led partnership* was associated with HEI documentation in which theory and educative processes had a high profile. These emphases were not reflected in respondents' experiences of courses, however, except for the limited example of tutors' emphasis on a critical form of reflection. Overall, critical forms of work and reflection were *lower* when partnership was perceived to be HEI-led. Moreover, where HEI responsibility for assessing students' teaching was greater, ITT co-ordinators and mentors spent less time working with students, who also received less information about the school in which they were placed. This may reflect a limited commitment to ITT appropriate for traditional, pre-*Circular 9/92* courses.

Turning to the significance of respondents' *school subject specialism*, this did not affect respondents' contribution to, or experience of, the conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT. In general, greater importance was placed upon reflection, and greater involvement in the work of differing natures examined in this study, was reported by English specialists, and less by those working on science courses. Mathematics specialists tended to be more similar to those working in science departments, while history courses seemed more similar to English ones. There was, however, no consistent pattern of subject-based variation, as the case of geography shows. In some aspects of the course, geography was represented as on a mid-point of a continuum from mathematics-science to history-English. In others, notably in the overall importance placed upon reflection, geography was more similar to science. This inconsistency may represent geography's position on the cusp of the arts-science divide and, possibly, the nature and specificity of its representation in the NC. It has been suggested that the limited distinctiveness of the subject specialisms examined here may be due to the fact that these subjects are not homogeneous entities, and may be interpreted and taught in differing ways. English and history were taken as case studies to draw attention to the heated debate over the definitions of these subjects. The variegated form of these may also, it was further suggested, have been a product of the changing nature of these subjects over time and, possibly, of context specific factors such as the organisation of the curriculum in a particular school. Clearly this is a complex area to research, but the school-based variation in the nature of teachers' work with students was sufficient to suggest that further qualitative work here might well be illuminating.

Analysis of the *other school responsibilities* of the teacher respondents suggested that there may have been a move to separate responsibility for ITT across a school from

the Deputy Head rôle. Despite references to the already burdensome responsibilities of Heads of Department, however, this post was more commonly associated with the mentoring rôle than were those with narrower responsibilities.

For ITT co-ordinators, the level of other school responsibilities did not significantly affect the amount of time spent working with students. However, it was mentors who had some, but limited, departmental responsibilities who reported spending the greatest amount of time with students. Various reasons for this were suggested, including that these teachers valued opportunities for the professional development which would support their ability to be a mentor, while retaining sufficient control over the use of their non-teaching time to be relatively accessible to students.

Higher levels of other school responsibility affected the contribution of ITT co-ordinators more than that of mentors. ITT co-ordinators who were Deputy Heads placed more importance upon critical conceptions of teaching and reflection, upon reflection on the adequacy of educational theory, and upon reflection generally. There is, therefore, some evidence that Deputy Heads worked with students in ways which were particularly valued by HEIs.

Examining the *gender* of respondents revealed an imbalance between (primarily male) teachers and, especially, tutors, and (predominantly female) students. Women did, however, comprise the majority of the ITT co-ordinators and mentors who held the most senior school responsibilities, of Deputy Head and Senior Teacher respectively. Gender was also a factor relevant to the nature of respondents' involvement in ITT. Thus, women were associated with the critical conception of teaching, and with greater importance being placed upon students' reflective work generally. Female ITT co-ordinators showed a similar pattern of work, and the data suggested that they were involved more fully in the categories of work with students examined in this study than were their male counterparts. Female mentors placed more emphasis on building up students' confidence by encouraging them, as well as on reflection generally. Gender was a less significant factor in the practice of tutors, although the data tended to support the patterns of involvement found elsewhere, in associating women with the critical conception of reflection for example. The gender-based variation in students' experience of the courses further supports the validity of these data.

Finally, most of the students here were well-qualified (50% had 1st or II(i) class degrees). There is some evidence that students with higher classes of degrees perceived their course to promote the technical and critical conceptions of teaching to a greater extent, while their less qualified peers emphasised the presence of the interpretive conception of teaching within their course.

Part 3:

Overview

Having completed the analysis of the data, it may be useful to review the main findings, with a reminder of the context and aims of the study. Some of the areas where future research might be fruitful are also suggested below, whether to explore issues on the periphery of this work, to seek to deepen our understanding of the processes and practices described above, or to resolve some of the uncertainties still evident here.

The level of schools' involvement in, and responsibility for, training student teachers has increased significantly following recent legislative reforms which, with the contemporaneous introduction of outcome competences which students must achieve to complete their training successfully, has potentially affected the nature of students' work on ITT courses. These developments have been critically reviewed in the press and the literature, notably in terms of their implications for the form of teacher professionalism.

It is in this context that the study has extended existing work on HEI-school partnership, which has hitherto been largely undertaken from the perspective of HEI course managers. Formal course intentions have been established by analysing HEI course documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders; but the perspectives of the tutor, teacher and student participants in ITT have also been examined. A primary aim of the study has been to examine HEI-school partnership in terms of the balance of the respective institutions' responsibilities for course planning and organisation, and for the assessment of students in secondary PGCE ITT courses. The forms and levels of HEI-school responsibilities within a partnership may, it was hypothesised, also interrelate with the nature of tutor, teacher, and student participants' work and involvement in courses. Exploring this possibility was an important aim of the study.

A second aim of the study has been to explore other course characteristics in terms of their importance in supporting particular forms of teacher professionalism. These characteristics included the conceptions of teaching promoted through courses, the foci of students' reflection, and other forms of students' work with tutors, ITT co-ordinators, and mentors. The coherence and continuity of concern within this study has been promoted by setting the analysis of these characteristics within a framework of *technical, interpretive*, and *critical* conceptions of teaching. This framework has the additional advantage of relating well to forms of teacher professionalism, which may be viewed as 'extended' to a greater or lesser extent.

These two central concerns have been complemented by an examination of other factors which have been identified as affecting the form of teacher professionalism promoted through ITT. These include the ways in which ITT courses are perceived to help students develop 'good practice' in teaching, the forms of evidence accepted by teachers and tutors as demonstrating that students' have achieved the teaching competences set out in *Circular 9/92*, the purpose of the training provided to support teachers in their ITT rôles, and the reasons for teachers' contact with HEI tutors when they visit schools.

It was hypothesised that these course characteristics might vary with the balance of HEI-school responsibility for their partnerships, and this has been an important aspect of the study. It has also been recognised that other factors might affect the form of participants' involvement in, and perceptions of, courses. These include their subject specialism, their ITT-related rôles and, for teachers, their other school responsibilities, as well as such personal characteristics of participants', as age, gender and ethnicity.

This study is also felt to be distinctive in examining potential distinctions between practice in new universities/colleges of higher education and old universities and, an emerging area of enquiry, subject-based differences in mentoring. At least as significant, examining the contributions of participants in terms of their rôles has established the nature and extent of their distinctiveness, as well as building a triangulation of data into the study. Data triangulation has also been supported at the levels of course *intentions* and respondents' *experiences*, while the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods has strengthened the study through methodological triangulation. This, with the rigorous process through which the robust framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching was exemplified is felt to protect the validity of the key findings, which are reviewed below.

A.   Discussion of the key findings

There are continuing efforts to increase schools' responsibilities for ITT, evidenced most recently in the development of employment-based routes into teaching (TTA, 2000), as well as the gradual increase in the number of SCITTs. This study, however, confirms that schools continue to exercise less responsibility for courses overall than do HEIs; indeed, the range of partnerships and rôles examined here strengthens the findings of previous studies. Moreover, it may be significant that HEI course leaders considered that in practice schools had less responsibility than the HEI documentation indicated for structuring the course as a whole, and even for the school-based programmes. Schools do not seem to be keen to extend their responsibilities in these areas even when they seem to have the opportunity to do so.

However, while responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching was exercised even more fully by HEIs, schools did have greater responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching than the near equal division of responsibility outlined by the HEI documentation. This latter finding contrasts somewhat with the 'involvement in' (rather than responsibility for) this assessment, previously found by Whiting *et al.* (1996). It is possible that the lesser tutor involvement evidenced here may have been a pragmatic response to the inability of tutors to continue to observe students to an extent sufficient to support valid assessment, rather than a belief that teachers were the most appropriate people to make such judgements.

Interestingly, it seem that HEI-school partnership is typically somewhat restricted in depth and breadth. Thus, while school involvement in, and responsibility for, ITT is substantially greater than it was, course organisation and management remains the responsibility of HEIs. As teachers' responsibilities seem largely limited to students' teaching, it may be that the present system allows the traditional dichotomy of practice to continue except, possibly, where a collaborative partnership can be developed. Interviews with course leaders confirmed, however, that HEIs found it difficult to establish and maintain stable high quality school placements (another indication that schools do not want to extend their involvement in ITT), thus restricting the development and extension of partnership. This may be particularly significant because shared responsibilities for dimensions of partnership were found to be associated with critical conceptions of teaching and reflection.

Another problematic aspect of partnership was revealed by focusing on the experiences of the participant rôles. ITT co-ordinators and mentors were found to differ from tutors in the extent to which they ascribed responsibility for each of the dimensions of partnership to schools. There was some evidence that this variation may have reflected the locations and responsibilities associated with these rôles; but, this study suggests, such differences have the potential to become a political and diplomatic issue when HEIs and schools discuss their relative responsibilities and the level of resources to be delegated from HEIs to schools.

Just as structural aspects of courses were established and maintained more by HEIs than schools, so HEIs were primarily responsible for course monitoring and evaluation. This finding complements the increasing emphasis put on HEI-produced course documentation as a means of quality control (Furlong *et al.*, 2000). On the surface, the HEI-school relationship here seemed to be one of accountability rather than professional support. There was also evidence of this perspective in the forms of training provided by HEIs for participant teachers, and in the perceived purposes of

visits by tutors. Overall, however, the study has suggested that professional support predominated through the nature of personal and institutional relationships, and of well-established forms of pluralistic course evaluation. These attitudinal foundations may indicate a potential to develop collaborative partnerships. This would seem to require, however, time and resources not commonly available, and may be made still more difficult to achieve in a context in which accountability rests with HEIs far more than schools, and when there are increasing opportunities for schools to train students through employment-based routes.

How do the data inform our view of how partnership may develop? In addition to the complexity revealed when data from the documentation and the interviews were compared, two issues seem particularly significant. First, to what extent will schools want to extend their responsibilities to match the original intentions of *Circular 9/92*? These responsibilities seem more fully established in the principles as set out in the HEI documentation than in the reality as perceived by HEI course leaders, who saw themselves as protecting schools from an unwanted burden. The gap between course intentions and experience is emphasised in the data from respondents. Moreover, where there *has* been significant change in the balance of HEI-school responsibilities in recent years, it is suggested that this has been for reasons of pragmatism as well as principle. Indeed, the accountability model of quality assurance, in which less than satisfactory performance is punished by severe financial penalties, may well encourage HEIs to retain their greater responsibility over course planning and organisation. Significant changes in the future balance of these HEI-school responsibilities seem unlikely, in the short-term at least.

The potential for teachers to gain increased responsibility for other areas of courses seems greater. Teachers' responsibilities for students' professional development may be extended by various factors. These include the extent to which students are located in school, and the seeming breadth of teachers' involvement in the profiling of students. It would also be possible, in principle, for teachers' responsibilities for students' assignments to increase, though HEIs might not be able to find the financial resources to allow this even if the problem of quality assurance could be overcome. For now, however, significant changes here seem possible rather than imminent. Wilkin (1996a) has suggested that these may come as schools gain confidence and expertise in their rôles; school-based ITT is still a relatively new development. Yet only one HEI course leader suggested that schools were taking on more responsibility for the course as their experience of it increased.

A second issue influencing how partnership will develop is the extent to which current trends will continue until they become the norm. Futurology is an inexact science, not made easier by some current developments resembling rivers which have previously been diverted underground only to resurface. For example, an HEI-based course may be taught by teachers who are on part-secondment to the HEI, a model which, to take but one example, the University of London Institute of Education has used in the past and returned to recently. This may be an attractive option for HEIs already adapting to post-modern society by employing an increasing number of part-time staff on short term contracts (Bridges, F., 1996). Some within HEIs present this as a means to extend their partnership with schools, but whether it will significantly affect *most* respondents' perceptions of the HEI-school balance of responsibility overall is a moot point.

There are other developmental possibilities. In 1996-97, funding was provided through the TTA (1996c) for mentor training, and this has continued in subsequent years. One HEI-school partnership used this to allow mentors and ITT co-ordinators to work in cross-school teams to develop the school-based ITT programme, a strategy which may be extended to other aspects of courses. Developments such as these have the potential to increase the extent to which responsibilities are shared between HEIs and schools, but require continued external funding. Overall, it seems that partnership could move towards shared, even collaborative, practice if some money and imagination are available. The means by which this may be done will vary with particular contexts, with the distance of schools from their partner HEI being just one significant variable. Nevertheless, there may be greater potential for more success than early critics of the partnership arrangements required by *Circular 9/92* allowed. The importance of this issue rests not only in the need to ensure that there are sufficient places in schools to train the number of teachers needed but the impact partnership may have on the professionalism of participants in ITT. Prestage and Perks (1995) have suggested the development of partnership requires tutors and students to think more deeply about their practice than if schools are merely a site in which to practice forms of teaching developed elsewhere, a view which complements the interrelationship between the nature of partnership and the conceptions of teaching and reflection (and hence of professionalism) promoted through courses as discussed in Section V above.

On the other hand, the development of partnership seems to be already constrained by, amongst other things, tutors' ability to relate their work to school practice. The limited number of school visits tutors are able to make seems likely to exacerbate tutors' isolation from schools, and make a partnership characterised by mutual understanding still more difficult to achieve. There is some evidence that this is

particularly difficult in partnerships where schools are spread over a geographically wide area. Moreover, the turnover of mentors means HEI time and resources are used to continue to establish and maintain partnerships as well as developing them. The development of SCITTs and employment-based routes in teaching may further threaten the stability of HEI-school partnerships

B. Forms of professionalism promoted through ITT courses: conceptions of teaching, reflection and other work

Turning to the conceptions of teaching promoted through ITT, recent studies have tended to be set within the narrow context of a particular course, or the rather generalised one of policy studies. The breadth of this study is therefore, it is suggested, valuable, particularly as there is a continuing debate about the form of teacher professionalism in general, and the effect of changes within ITT courses upon this specifically. This study is also conceptually original in setting the survey within a framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching and reflection, and of other forms of work which can be related to this analytical model.

One notable finding is that the *technical* conception was found to be emphasised relatively more strongly in the HEI documentation than in the experience of participants. As the HEIs responsible for producing this documentation have generally been considered to want to transcend technical approaches to education, this was somewhat surprising. It does not seem to have been a chance eventuality either, for it was the technical purposes of reflection (characterised by a concern with 'effectiveness' and target setting) which were predominant in the HEI documentation. While this may in part be due to the nature of external pressures on this visible face of HEIs' contribution to ITT, it may also suggest that the contrast between the critically-based work of tutors and the narrow concerns of teachers may have been overdrawn.

Focusing on the experience of courses, the nature of the *Circular 9/92* competences and the sometimes technicist processes by which they were assessed provided some support for those who argue that teaching is being deprofessionalised. However, data from respondents showed that they constructed the technical conception of teaching as a relatively complex form of teaching which was, in any case, less dominant than some critics of contemporary ITT policy and practice have suggested. Indeed, this technical conception was promoted less than was the *interpretive* which, moreover, was characterised most strongly by an emphasis on what may be taken as a developmentally advanced emphasis on students' responsiveness to pupil learning. This complements the high level of concern for pupil learning recently found by Burns

et al. (2000), and suggests courses may support relatively extended forms of professionalism. This was reinforced in the HEI documentation by the emphases on students' reflection, autonomy and on students' personal qualities.

Still more notable was the place given to the critical conception of teaching. As it is notoriously difficult to translate the ideal of a critical approach into practice, it is particularly surprising and significant that respondents experienced it to be promoted more strongly than it was represented in the HEI documentation. Again, this seemed to be no chance finding, for the same was true of critical conceptions of reflection. This contrasts with expectations and experience reported in the literature and is an issue which requires more exploration, but it has been hypothesised that the location of mentoring may reduce the gap between theory and practice (and increase the communication between teachers and tutors); this may bring out the practical dimensions of critical approaches, enabling students to recognise their meaning and relevance, and promote, in Hirst's (1996) terms, a *practical* professionalism. This relative strength of the critical conception, the predominance of the interpretive conception and the complexity of the construction of the technical conception as experienced in ITT courses, indicate that the changing form of teacher professionalism is more complex than some critics of recent reforms have suggested, especially as the literature review for this study suggested that the extent to which previous courses promoted a critical conception of teaching may have been exaggerated

There were differences between the nature of the HEI and school contributions to courses. HEIs were associated in the HEI documentation and by respondents with 'education' (rather than 'training'), critical forms of reflection, educational theory (and relating this to practice) and with supporting students' understanding of relatively *broad* school issues. At the level of practice, they were also found to promote the critical and interpretive conceptions of teaching more, and the technical conception less, than did teachers. These are differences which are significant in view of the debate about the effects of the move to school-based ITT and the value of HEI involvement in ITT. These findings may, in broad terms, have been anticipated but, as Gage notes, the specifics of such data may be of value to theory and practice. Here, for example, it has been suggested that *differences in the contributions of HEIs and schools may be related to the respective rôles and responsibilities of teachers and tutors, rather than more permanent characteristics of the respondents*. Thus, the contribution of tutors was more similar to that of ITT co-ordinators (who had similarly broad ITT responsibilities and concerns) than of mentors (whose responsibilities and concerns were largely related to classrooms). Similarly, ITT co-ordinators were

distinctive in emphasising the value of a whole-school perspective in supporting students' 'good practice' in teaching, while mentors paid more attention to classroom-based experience, just as they promoted the technical conception of teaching to a greater extent than did ITT co-ordinators or tutors.

The distinctiveness of these rôles should not be exaggerated, however. It was not only teachers who were involved in forms of work which could be characterised as *training*. Tutors contributed more to the training (as opposed to the education) of students than was indicated in the HEI documentation, while mentors' work with students was not limited to instruction. Tutors and ITT co-ordinators, despite their greater distance from the classrooms in which students practised, provided students with similar levels of supportive encouragement to those provided by mentors. Conversely, mentors' work with students involved relating theory to practice to a greater extent than indicated in the HEI documentation and, through this work, they may even have helped to address this long-standing issue in ITT. Mentors also placed more importance upon the critical conception of reflection than was indicated in the HEI documentation. Similarly, while ITT co-ordinators clearly have an important place in the management of ITT, their contribution to students' development was greater than that implied by the HEI documentation; indeed, they placed more importance upon the critical conception of reflection than did mentors. This suggests that the breadth of the contribution of teachers to ITT may have been underestimated, a point which will be reinforced below.

Such findings indicate that it may be helpful for courses to review their HEI documentation. The contrast between the intended and reported contribution of teachers to relatively extended forms of professionalism suggests that their contribution could be extended further with more support, and possibly higher expectations, evident in the HEI documentation. Similarly, students themselves were accorded significant responsibility for undertaking a reflection which characterises an extended form of professionalism, but guidance in the HEI documentation was at the minimalist level of an expression of course aims, with references to student profiles, reading and, to a lesser extent, peer support and course structure. Including examples of the specific tasks doubtless set for students could increase the extent to which there was a shared understanding of course intentions and how these might be realised. Similarly, the critical conception of teaching was most often represented in the HEI documentation at the relatively broad level of aims of education and the nature of contemporary schooling; as previous studies have found translating this conception from theory into practice problematic, providing classroom-based examples of such work would surely be helpful. There were also other indications that

it may be helpful for HEI documentation to become more detailed as teachers increase their familiarity with the organisational characteristics of courses and are able to focus more productively on developing their work with students. Of course, getting the appropriate level of detail in the HEI documentation is made particularly complex by the continuing influx of untrained and less experienced ITT co-ordinators and mentors into ITT.

The move to school-based ITT has also supported course integration (and more extended forms of professionalism) by various types of links between HEIs and schools. The design of student assignments, profiles, and of the overall course were also seen as important here, as was the increased detail of the HEI documentation which had been developed to support teachers' work in ITT. Of course, as HEI course leaders indicated, integrating the work of students with teachers and tutors continues to be problematic. In addition to the inherent complexity of the task, they drew attention to the problems of communicating and maintaining contact with schools spread over a large geographical area, a difficulty exacerbated by the limited number of visits which tutors could make to schools and by the variation in teachers' (and tutors') practice. These difficulties were also reported by the questionnaire respondents, suggesting that there are structural factors to achieving course integration which may constrain some partnerships more than others. In terms of partnership, it is also interesting that mentors saw the means by which school-HEI communication was designed to support integration as more problematic than did the ITT co-ordinators and tutors who had broader rôles and responsibilities (and worked less closely with students). Some HEI course leaders also felt that a number of students could themselves make more effort to integrate the differing perspectives of teachers and tutors. The study has further suggested that differing beliefs about the nature of school subjects may add another layer of complexity to the process of course integration

Location, in the sense of tutors' distance from schools, may also be part of the explanation why their estimates of the amount of time which students spent working with mentors were far less than those of other respondents. The extent of the work of other school staff with students, particularly that of other departmental teachers, was also underestimated by tutors, and was rarely referred to in the HEI documentation. On the other hand, the contribution of ITT co-ordinators was, data from students indicated, less extensive than that indicated by the HEI documentation and other respondents. These findings therefore raise issues for the form and focus of the continuing professional development designed to support teachers' work in ITT. There was also little evidence that students worked regularly with their peers or with NQTs,

suggesting that these forms of learning could receive a higher degree of structural support in ITT courses; this would potentially strengthen the continuity of ITT and teachers' continuing professional development.

The extent of students' educational discussions with teachers and the nature of their involvement in school life may be interpreted as professionalising experiences, although it is notable that, as before, experiences varied with the rôle of the respondents. Explanations of this may again derive from the importance of participants' location and responsibilities in ITT, rather than of the more general factor of 'perspective'.

C.   The inter-relationship of partnership, conceptions of teaching, and other variables

The interrelationship of the balance of HEI-school responsibilities for partnership with course characteristics, notably those related to the framework of technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching, was a significant and, it is claimed, original concern of the study. The results have some inherent importance in that they relate to a new area of enquiry. The detail of the findings, especially those relating to course characteristics associated with shared partnership, seem particularly significant in view of their potential to extend critical forms of work which often are stronger at the level of aspiration than of practice.

The balance of HEI-school responsibilities in their partnerships has been found to have significance not only at the level of inter-institutional relations and politics, but for the quality of students' experiences. Work representative of extended forms of professionalism was associated with a 'shared partnership' which may, therefore, be justified by educational criteria rather than as a necessary response to legislative fiat. Contrary to the expectation generated by the common association of a critical approach with the work of HEIs rather than schools, *the critical conception of teaching was found to promoted to the greatest extent when HEI-school partnership was perceived to be shared*. Reflection upon the adequacy of theory, upon pupils' learning (indeed, the importance placed upon reflection overall) and the extent of course integration - which may all be accepted as supporting relatively extended forms of professionalism - were also positively associated with shared HEI-school responsibility for course planning and organisation.

Moreover, the *quantity* of teachers' work with students was also greatest when HEIs and schools shared responsibility for course planning and organisation, particularly work which involved providing students with information about their placement school and that which increased students' confidence by encouraging them. Shared HEI-

school responsibility in the context of the assessment of students' teaching was also associated with positive characteristics such as higher levels of course integration, as well as with higher levels of tutor emphasis on reflection and involvement in school-focused work such as relating practice to theory

Conversely, *school-led partnership was associated with a technical form of reflection and lower levels of tutors' and teachers' work with students.* Higher levels of school responsibility for the assessment of students' teaching were associated with the technical conception of teaching and relatively traditional forms of work which provided personal and practical support, but did little to promote extended forms of teacher professionalism. Higher levels of school responsibility for assessing students' work other than teaching was also associated with the technical conception of teaching. On this evidence, it would therefore be difficult to justify the increased numbers of students allocated to SCITTs and employment-based routes into teaching in terms of promoting the professionalism of teachers.

This study has also suggested that the nature of courses, and the form of teacher professionalism they promote, is influenced by a number of factors including the subject specialism of those involved. While the extent to which the technical, interpretive and critical conceptions of teaching were promoted did not vary significantly with the subject specialism of respondents, English specialists did place greater importance upon reflection, and were more fully involved in the differing natures of work examined in this study, than were science specialists. Respondents whose subject specialism was mathematics tended to work in ways similar to the scientists, while typically historians worked in ways similar to English specialists. Geographers generally took up the mid-point on this continuum, although sometimes they veered towards the profile of mathematics and science specialists, and at other times they had more in common with historians. One of the significant conclusions of the study is that the differences between the nature of subjects and, just as significantly it is suggested, *within* subject specialisms deserve further examination in this context of ITT.

The contribution to many aspects of ITT courses has, of course, been seen to vary with the participant rôle. An additional layer of subtlety is added by the finding that experiences also varied with the level of school responsibility held by teachers. Thus, mentors who had some, but limited, responsibilities within their subject department spent more time working with students than did mentors who were heads of department. For ITT co-ordinators, the critical conceptions of teaching and reflection were promoted more fully by Deputy Heads than by those in less senior positions.

There was, however, some evidence that the ITT co-ordinator rôle may be increasingly filled by Senior Teachers rather than Deputy Heads, which may have some implications for the nature of training experienced by students, and that provided for mentors and ITT co-ordinators.

Examining the gender of respondents revealed a predominance of male teachers and tutors, and of female students, although women ITT co-ordinators did most often fill the most senior posts of Deputy Head and Senior Teacher. The study also provides some support for the notion that knowledge has a gender-based orientation. Women were associated with the critical conception of teaching, with higher levels of importance being placed upon students' reflective work overall, and with a relatively extensive contribution in some areas of the course. Female ITT co-ordinators were more fully involved in the differing natures of work with students, while their mentor counterparts placed a similarly great emphasis on the importance of reflection, and on building students' confidence by encouraging them. Data from female tutors indicated an association with the critical conception of teaching, while the evidence from students provided triangulating support for these findings.

Finally, while the ethnicity of respondents was insufficiently varied in the sample to warrant detailed study, there is some evidence that students' class of degree had some impact upon their experience of the course. Students entering courses with a higher class of degree perceived their course to promote the technical and critical conceptions of teaching to a relatively greater extent, while other students perceived courses to place relatively great emphasis on the interpretive conception of teaching.

D.   Variation across the courses

It is well-known that the nature of practice varies across and within courses, although there are new points of detail evidenced here. Some of the strengths of this area of the study derive from the nature of the sample as discussed above, but the findings may be significant not just in themselves, but by revealing the potential for participants to retain, or increase, their control over ITT courses. Less positively, perhaps, the findings raise a question mark over the contribution of SCITTs to supporting extended forms of teacher professionalism, while acknowledging that this concept is a contested one.

In the HEI documentation, there was little variation across the HEI-school partnerships in the balance of their responsibility for the course. This finding was generally supported by the data from respondents, although there was some evidence that schools in partnerships which were geographically widespread had higher levels of responsibility for courses.

There is, however, some indication of the HEI documentation varying according to the *type* of HEI involved. Thus, old universities tended to promote the critical conception of teaching to a relatively greater extent than did new universities/colleges of higher education, which conversely placed relatively great emphasis on the technical conception. Similarly, the old universities placed relatively greater emphasis on theory-related work, and less on 'training' forms of work. The documentation of the older universities also tended to delineate a relatively 'hands-off' form of course management. This variation may, it has been suggested, have been influenced by historic and cultural factors, such as the relatively bureaucratic approach and greater involvement of teachers in courses previously validated by the former CNAA, with which the new universities and colleges of higher education were typically associated.

These data are interesting because, amongst other things, they show the limits of central control of ITT. The parameters relating to the organisation and practice of ITT courses may be experienced as a novel and unwelcome constraint by HEIs, and there has been some emphasis on this in the literature. It is clear, however, that the institutions and individuals participating in ITT are able to interpret this prescribed framework in distinctive ways. Although the subject-specific constraints upon the content of ITT courses are being tightened through *Circular 4/98*, HEIs may become more able to consciously establish their own means of satisfying externally-set course requirements, just as a number of schools have previously done in relation to TVEI and, more recently, the National Curriculum requirements.

Examining the contribution of ITT co-ordinators, mentors and tutors within particular courses was also fruitful because it revealed that the stereotypical differences in the nature of course contribution ascribed to these rôles are less absolute than is often thought. Thus, within one partnership some tutors promoted the technical conception of teaching, or other technical forms of work, to a greater extent than did ITT co-ordinators or mentors. Conversely, tutors in some partnerships promoted work within the interpretive, and even critical, conceptions to a lesser extent than did ITT co-ordinators and mentors. This is important because it cuts across the stereotypes which at times may imply a hierarchy of tutors (who work to extend students' development) down to mentors (who work with students in more limited, even limiting, ways). It also, and importantly, sounds a hopeful note for the potential development of courses. If the nature of participants' contributions to ITT is not inherent in their rôle, then it is more possible to support their continuing professional development and extend the practice of teachers and tutors. Again, *the institutions and individuals involved in ITT may be seen as having more control over their courses than a focus on legislative constraints implies.*

Of course, significant variation in mentoring practice is in some senses problematic. However, as Wilkin (1997) argues, it should be seen as a developmental rather than a structural problem. Mentoring, like partnership, is an evolving practice. Moreover, variation may be an inherent and positive aspect of mentoring. For example, classroom learning is typically interpreted in a variety of ways which, as Thomas and Wood (1996) suggest, presents an opportunity for fruitful discussion rather than a problem to be solved.

Variation due to differing forms of course structure may be more significant. SCITTs have been a high profile development in ITT, and have received continuing Government support as a (gradually) expanding route into teaching. The high levels of teacher and student involvement in the various forms of work examined in this study may indicate that teachers in SCITTs were committed to their ITT rôle. Other positive characteristics of SCITT courses were the relatively high levels of course integration achieved, and of provision to students of contextual information about the schools in which they were placed. However, it is significant that the SCITT courses supported what may be seen as a restricted form of teacher professionalism. Thus, SCITTs promoted the technical conception of teaching to a relatively greater extent, and placed less emphasis on critical conceptions of teaching and reflection, than did HEI-school partnerships. The SCITT data were limited in terms of size and response rate, but the validity and reliability of this finding, which is important in terms of the debate about the institutional structure of ITT, is supported by data from the HEI-school partnerships overall. High levels of school responsibility for course planning and organisation there were also associated with low levels of support for the critical conception of teaching.

It is also notable that the difference in provision of SCITT and of HEI-school partnership courses was *not* due to differences between the work of teachers within these courses. The distinctions in experience between these distinctive forms of course seems to derive directly from their differing structures, that is the presence and contribution of tutors in HEI-school partnerships.

E.   Some continuing questions

This study has drawn conclusions about many aspects of HEI-school partnership and the courses provided through them and SCITTs. A number of issues have, however, been raised rather than addressed. Some of these are set out below because one of the potential contributions studies such as this may make is to suggest areas which merit further research, as well, possibly, as stimulating responses to the findings of this particular study.

For example, the study has suggested that, in general, HEIs have the predominant responsibility for the course in their ITT partnerships with schools. However, HEI-school partnerships have been examined in this study at a particular moment in time. It may be, for example, that the balance of responsibility for course planning and organisation alters over time, even moving back-and-forth along a continuum of HEI-school responsibility as the identities of the individuals and institutions involved in the partnership change, or as changing Government requirements demand course development. Currently, some HEI-school partnerships resemble a patchwork quilt with an HEI's level of partnership with schools varying with the level of commitment to ITT which particular schools want to exercise. It remains unclear whether schools will be willing and able to extend their responsibility for courses, or will continue to want 'protection' from an unwanted burden. This, other problematic partnership issues, and possible responses have been referred to in more detail in Appendices 8 and 9 (see pp. 339*ff.* and pp. 344*ff.* below respectively).

The development of some dimensions of partnership may depend upon the level of resources available. Thus, while teachers in some partnerships assess students' assignments, the extension of this type of teacher involvement would seem to require schools receiving an increased level of resources. Data from HEIs suggest that their own funding difficulties mean that they are most unlikely to be able to increase the proportion of funds delegated to schools at the present level of overall funding.

This study has referred to 'developmentally advanced' forms of work with students, and the potential for the continuing development of teachers' (and tutors') work has been emphasised. But the impact of the turnover of teachers involved in ITT remains unclear. It is possible, for example, that the variation in the type and quality of provision in ITT will widen as some teachers become more experienced in contributing to ITT, while newcomers require induction and relatively basic training. How will quality be assured in this context? Moreover, the turnover of teachers involved in ITT means that there is a continuing need for training, but external funding for mentor training has hitherto focused on meeting new externally required developments. Will the funding necessary to maintain and develop the quality of participants' contributions to ITT be available? Similarly, it may be difficult to establish a type and level of detail in the HEI documentation which is appropriate for teachers with increasingly varied experience of involvement in ITT. Responsibility for course integration was perceived to lie with HEIs rather than schools, just as HEIs had responsibility for the course (and QA) overall. It may be that HEIs will have to pay increasing attention to such managerial aspects of partnership.

Of course, there are limits to the extent to which one can generalise from the findings of this study. Some may not be replicated in the differing organisational structures and contexts of primary PGCE courses, while undergraduate courses may have their own distinctive characteristics which merit examination. Moreover, some elements of this study deserve to be studied in greater detail. This is certainly true of the nature of HEI-school partnership generally (and specifically of collaborative, mutual and shared versions), but also of concepts such as 'reflection', 'competence', and 'good practice' in teaching. In particular, qualitative approaches may draw a more richly detailed picture of the processes involved and the impact of a range of context-specific factors; school and departmental cultures (including the nature of students' involvement and their interrelationships with teachers) may be a fruitful focus for study. More detailed research is necessary explore the nature of experiences in terms of conceptions of teaching, for example. This may reveal subtle distinctions between the work and understandings of teachers and of tutors. In time, it may also be possible to examine whether there are causal connections between some of the associations found in this study, such as that between partnership and critical conceptions of teaching and reflection.

While this study suggests that concern that recent reforms of ITT necessarily deprofessionalise teaching may be exaggerated, the precise form of teacher professionalism which will be dominant in the future is also uncertain, and may become contested in an increasingly visible way if centralised control over teacher training and education is increased. It may well be significant that while the DfEE (1988a, 2001) characterises professional teaching as basing decisions about practice on evidence of what works in schools, there is barely any reference to HEIs' rôle here. As with the literacy and numeracy strategies, there may be an expectation that teachers implement recommendations handed down via Government-sponsored agencies. For those committed to developing extended forms of professionalism associated with a critical perspective, the Government's determination to push through a managerialist form of performance-related pay based upon 'effectiveness' at the level of the individual teacher is hardly promising. Similarly, and more directly relevant to the nature of ITT courses, while the consultation process over the reform of the Circular 4/98 standards seems to suggest that outcomes will be prescribed in less detail, this seems to be a pragmatic response to specific complaints (notably by SCITTs) rather than a lessening of the Government's desire to make strategic decisions about the nature of ITT. Indeed, the continuing efforts to open teaching non-graduates may lead, as foreseen by Lawton (1990), to two tiers of teachers, with only one eligible for 'full' professionalism.

Finally, the nature of ITT courses may be influenced by innumerable factors. One such, which has not been examined, is the effect of there being one, a few, or a significant number of students in a school. Or the effect of a school being in partnership with more than one HEI, and the relative longevity of partnerships. The impact of the geography of partnership upon the amount and type of mentor training available, and thus upon partnership itself may be significant, but is unexplored, as is the impact of the turnover of teachers involved in ITT. At school level, culture is a complex area to research, but would seem to be an exceptionally rich vein to mine. For example, are school and departmental collaborative cultures associated with a critical conception of teaching, just as shared HEI-school partnerships have been found to be? Or will schools become increasingly managerial, with accountability regimes acting to promote 'safe', routine teaching? Research into such areas has the potential to stimulate and orientate the continuing development of ITT, as well as to contribute to knowledge at a theoretical level.

Appendix 1

Questionnaire response rate, by HEI-school partnership/SCITT and rôle

HEI-school partnerships		sent	response	%
1.	Student	105	51	49
	Mentor	92	37	40
	ITT co-ordinator	48	15	31
	Tutor	14	4	29
	Totals	**259**	**107**	**41**
2.	Student	91	22	24
	Mentor	68	24	35
	Tutor	16	12	75
	Totals	**175**	**58**	**33**
3.	Student	185	79	42
	Mentor	c.150	70	47
	ITT co-ordinator	50	20	40
	Tutor	c.40	22	55
	Total	**c.425**	**191**	**45**
4.	Student	196	58	30
	Mentor	c.160	20	13
	ITT co-ordinator	c.90	30	33
	Tutor	18	14	78
	Total	**c. 464**	**122**	**26**
5.	Student	130	65	50
	Mentor	120	46	38
	ITT co-ordinator	55	25	45
	Tutor	29	17	59
	Total	**334**	**153**	**44**
6.	Student	107	41	24
	Mentor	89	38	43
	ITT co-ordinator	35	17	49
	Tutor	21	8	38
	Total	**252**	**104**	**40**
7.	Student	127	28	22
	Mentor	76	37	49
	ITT co-ordinator	32	17	53
	Tutor	18	7	39
	Total	**253**	**90**	**36**
8.	Student	96	22	23
	Mentor	63	29	46
	ITT co-ordinator	33	15	45
	Tutor	6	5	83
	Total	**198**	**71**	**36**
9.	Student	103	22	21
	Mentor	90	41	46
	ITT co-ordinator	38	17	44
	Tutor	8	4	50
	Total	**239**	**84**	**35**
10.	Student	106	41	39
	Mentor	max 106	28	26
	ITT co-ordinator	34	20	59
	Tutor	14	9	64
	Total	**260**	**98**	**38**

SCITT schemes		sent	response	%
1.	Student	14	6	43
	Mentor	14	5	36
	ITT co-ordinator	8	3	38
	Totals	**36**	**14**	**37**
2.	Student	20	2	10
	Mentor	14	5	36
	ITT co-ordinator	4	1	25
	Totals	**38**	**8**	**21**
3.	Student	22	5	23
	Mentor	15	1	6
	ITT co-ordinator	5	3	60
	Total	**42**	**9**	**21**
4.	Student	24	7	29
	Mentor	17	6	35
	ITT co-ordinator	4	1	25
	Total	**45**	**14**	**31**

by role	sent	response	%
Student	80	20	25
Mentor	60	17	28
ITT co-ordinator	21	8	38
Overall Total	**161**	**45**	**28**

by role	sent	response	%
Student	1246	430	35
Mentor	1014	370	36
ITT co-ordinator	415	176	42
Tutor	184	102	55
Overall Total	**2859**	**1078**	**38**

A. The nature of your work with student teachers

Please tick the appropriate boxes

1. To what extent has associate university mentor <u>training and guidance</u> focused on enabling you to:

a)   be aware of and talk about your knowledge of teaching?

not at all ⟵⟶ fully

b)   deliver the requirements of the training course?

not at all ⟵⟶ fully

c)   other (*please specify*)

not at all ⟵⟶ fully

....

2. To what extent does your work with student teachers involve the following?

a)   providing student teachers with information about the school

none ⟵⟶ a lot

b)   building the confidence of student teachers through encouragement

none ⟵⟶ a lot

c)   relating classroom practice to assumptions/theories

none ⟵⟶ a lot

d)   telling student teachers how to deal with specific situations

none ⟵⟶ a lot

e)   other (*please specify*)

none ⟵⟶ a lot

....

3. Give a mark of 0-4 to each phrase according to their importance in your work with student teachers, where '0' represents 'unimportant' and '4' represents 'very important'.

When asking students to think about lessons they have taught, I focus on...

their style of teaching ☐   how pupils learn ☐   adequacy of educational theory ☐

how to teach the content ☐ general teaching skills ☐   values which underlie teaching ☐

other (*please specify*)_____ ☐   social, political context of teaching ☐

4. What do you accept as evidence that a student teacher has achieved a competency?

_____

_____

_____

B. Your work with colleagues in teacher training

1. In a typical week when students are on placement in your school, for how long do you meet colleagues (a) - (d) below, to discuss work with student teachers?
Please tick the appropriate boxes

minutes:	none	1-15 min	-30 min	-45 min	-60 min	60+ min
a) your associate university tutor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) other(s) in your department	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) university tutor(s)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) others (*please specify*)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

....

2. Do university tutors visit your school?   Yes☐ (*answer question 3*)   No☐ (*go to question 4*)

3. **Visits by university tutors are an opportunity for me to**

a) discuss professional or educational issues with the university tutor

not at all	←——————→	fully

b) show I am delivering my part of the training course

not at all	←——————→	fully

c) other
(*please specify*)_____

not at all	←————→	fully

4. **In a typical week when students are on placement in your school, for how long, so far as you know, do the following people in school and the university work with 'your' student teacher?**
Please tick the appropriate boxes for the people represented by a) - g) below.
When referring to people other than yourself, your view is bound to be approximate.

minutes:	none	1-15 min	-30min	-45min	-60min	60+min	no idea
a) yourself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
b) others in your school department	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) your associate university tutor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) other member of senior management	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e) others in school (*please specify*)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
....							
f) university tutors	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g) others (*please specify*)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
....							

C. The organisation of the training course

1. **What is the balance of responsibility between school and university for the content and organisation of the training course**

Please tick the appropriate space.

a) planning and organisation of the training course by

school	←——————→	university

b) assessment of students' teaching by

school	←——————→	university

c) assessment of students' work other than teaching by

school	←——————→	university

2. **To what extent does your work cover content of the training course different from content covered by a university tutor?**

not at all	←——————→	fully

D. Ideas about teaching promoted by the training course

1. **What is the most significant way in which the course has helped student teachers develop 'good practice' in teaching?**

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. What ideas about teaching are promoted through the course?

In each of the boxes below, there are three statements describing different ideas about teaching.
Please allocate a total of 9 points between the three statements.
Give each statement a 'score' of 0-9.
A high 'score' indicates you make a large contribution to developing that idea through the course.
Please allocate all 9 points.

a)

Planning for lessons should be determined by:

course objectives_____ __
what will challenge pupils' views_____ __
what will interest pupils_____ __

Total **9**

b)

The curriculum should be designed so that:

teachers can put it into practice effectively_____ __
it can be adapted to pupils' interests_____ __
issues are investigated from different viewpoints___ __

Total **9**

c)

Teaching is concerned with

the ideas pupils consider_____ __
how pupils learn_____ __
the knowledge pupils gain_____ __

Total **9**

d)

To support pupils learning, teachers should:

challenge, question_____ __
enable, facilitate_____ __
instruct, tell_____ __

Total **9**

e)

Teachers improve by developing their:

sensitivity to classroom events_____ __
awareness of which values the curriculum supports_ __
skills in classroom management _____ __

Total **9**

f)

Good teaching develops from:

knowing what teaching methods are effective_____ __
interpreting the experience of teaching_____ __
examining the nature of what is taught_____ __

Total **9**

g)

A teacher should think about their teaching in order to:

develop the techniques of teaching_____ __
clarify what happens when teaching_____ __
establish how far values e.g. justice are promoted__ __

Total **9**

h)

Education should:

enable pupils to get jobs_____ __
bring out pupils' potential_____ __
help pupils improve their lives_____ __

Total __9__

E.　Students teachers' experience of the course

For each question, put a tick in the appropriate space.
Views here are bound to be approximate, please make a 'best guess' and tick the 'no idea'
box only if necessary. Comments to add detail and explanation will be helpful

1. **To what extent is student teachers' work with tutors integrated with their work with teachers?**

   none ← → a lot ｜ no idea

   Comment _____

   _____

2. **To what extent is 'your' student teacher involved in school life in the ways that teachers in the school are?**

   none ← → a lot ｜ no idea

   Comment _____

   _____

3. **To what extent does 'your' student teacher discuss educational matters with teachers other than their associate university mentor or associate tutor?**

   none ← → a lot ｜ no idea

   Comment _____

   _____

F.　Finally, some questions about yourself

All answers are confidential and used only to classify responses. The information will help the research though, of course, you need not give any information you do not want to.

position(s) in school:	school subject specialism:	male/ female:	year of birth: 19_____

year qualified as teacher 19_____	no. years taught:	ethnic group *circle* *as* *appropriate*	ASIAN Indian Pakistani Bangladeshi Chinese
school in which teach:			BLACK African Caribbean
			WHITE Irish UK Other
			OTHER

Further comments will be most helpful, please add them below or separately

The time and thought you have put into this questionnaire is greatly appreciated.

❖　❖　　　　*Thank you very much*　　　　❖　❖

Appendix 3

An example of a Table used in the questionnaire testing process (focusing on conceptions of teaching). Selected 'boxes' below were cut out from the sheet, and given to respondents, who were asked to put them under the appropriate heading

educational views	technical	interpretive	critical
educational philosophy	neo-classical	liberal progressive	socially critical
characteristics of the perspective	education as applied science	interpretive	critical social science
	positivist; hypothetico-deductive		social process of critique
	provides body of scientific/research-based knowledge,	provides understanding of situation	provides, liberating self-knowledge,
	basis to evaluate new practices; objective	knowledge from experience; subjective, deliberative	reveals ideological illusions; dialectical, reflexive
educational values	'moulding' 'value-free'	'growth' realised through practice	'empowerment' the ends of practice
focus on	how to achieve aims effectively	understanding processes, subjective meaning,	examining distorted self-understanding/subjective meanings,
	explanatory theories	interpretive understandings	'praxis'
knowledge is	instrumental	problematic	dialectical, interest-based
curriculum planner seeks	objective solutions, curriculum packages	understanding	emancipation of learners
teacher as	implementer not autonomous planners	reconstructor, participator, understands practices	participant, action researcher; transformer of education
	implementer of (known) rules	uncoverer of social rules	ethically informed reasoner
place of theory	establish technical control	promote understanding of rules and assumptions; enlightens teachers	enlightenment informs action
lessons plans determined by	course objectives	what will interest pupils	what will challenge pupils' ideas
teachers learn by developing:	classroom management skills understanding experts' advice	sensitivity to events	awareness of how values affect pupils' learning
teaching is concerned with	what pupils know	how pupils learn	what beliefs pupils have
teachers actions should be based on	knowing what skill to use	previous classroom experience	how they will affect pupils' values
to support pupils learning, teachers	instruct	enable	challenge
curriculum should designed so that it	can be implemented effectively	can be made relevant to pupils	examines values and issues
good teaching	maximises pupil time on task	develops the individual pupil	enables pupils to become 'good citizens'
key teaching attributes are	skills:	experience, intuition, wisdom	values
teaching is concerned with issues that are	technical	practical	moral
education should	enable pupils to get jobs	bring out pupils' potential	improve society
effective teaching	puts plans into practice	responds to the classroom situation, responsive	affects the society in which we live
decisions justified by reference to	expert teachers research	personal experience pupils' reactions	belief about nature of ideal society
research should focus on	effectiveness	(nature of) events	a critical view, what ought to be done
teachers improve by	developing skills	understanding classroom events	action research reflecting on values

Appendix 4

An example of a pro-forma used in the questionnaire testing process to establish the language teachers use in relation to elements of teaching examined in this study

Dear Colleague,

I hope you will be able to help me by spending a few minutes jotting some words or phrases on this sheet.

My research into the nature of partnership in initial teacher training involves establishing teachers' ideas about initial teacher training. I therefore need to establish the words that as teachers we use to describe the nature of our work. I have chosen 14 statements and am asking you to complete them with a word or phrase that describes your ideas about teaching. It would be helpful if you also chose words you see as the opposite of your idea. Using a number of words or phrases for each statement would be particularly helpful.

Where a statement in the table is unclear, please circle the offending word or phrase.

situation	my view	an opposite view
Planning for lessons should be determined by		
Teachers become better teachers by developing their		
Teachers actions should be based on		
To support pupils learning, teachers should		
The curriculum should be designed in such a way that		
Good teaching is characterised by		
Teachers feel their most important attributes in teaching are		
The purpose of education is to		
Effective teaching is		
Teachers' decisions should be justified by reference to		
Educational research should focus on		
Teachers improve by		
Teachers can promote educational improvement and social change by		
Teachers can examine the nature of society critically by (e.g. focusing on equal opportunities)		

Please put the completed form in the envelope pinned on the board to the right of the pigeonholes

The time and care you have taken with this is greatly appreciated,

Thank You

Roger Levy

Appendix 5

The research protocol which accompanied questionnaires.

Research Protocol

1. **The anonymity of individuals and institutions will be protected**

2. **All information will be treated as strictly confidential and used for research purposes only**

3. Participants in the research will be informed about the purpose of the research

4. Participants will give their informed consent before they are involved in the research process

5. Researchers have a responsibility to be sensitive to gendered, ethnic, cultural and other significant differences between participants when planning, conducting and reporting their research

6. Research will not be designed so as to preclude particular outcomes of an enquiry

7. No group will be disadvantaged by the design of the research

8. In reporting the research results, the researcher will discuss the scope and limitation of the research design

9. Research will only be published after a quality assurance process involving the researcher's peers

Roger Levy
University of Greenwich

(Italicised elements indicate prompts to be used if appropriate. Questions might be introduced in somewhat different ways, depending upon the course of the interview).

I. Has the nature of the course, or its organisation, changed significantly this year compared with last?

2. a) Sometimes in the past, it has been possible to consult with teachers...

   check if response is in relation to ...
   i)   structure/organisation
   ii) content
   iii) at what stage of planning?
   iv) which teachers (Heads, ITT co-ordinators, mentors...)?
   v) how many?
   vi)how are they selected?

   b) How would you describe the balance of school-HEI responsibility for the course?

   c) To what extent has the balance been established for pragmatic reasons

3. a) What sort of teacher does the course aim to produce?

   b) ... in terms of the balance between practical, interpretive and critical conceptions?

4. One issue which many have referred to if the extent to which there is a common pattern of support (of time and/or money etc.) which ITT co-ordinators and mentors receive...

5. Consistency of student experience must be limited by the range of student needs and the types of schools they work in. To what extent is there consistency of student experience?
   a) who sets the tasks for students on placement?
   b) how do you ensure, as far as you can, that schools do what they should?
   c) time with students

6. Integration of the course in school and in the HEI has always been an issue. To what extent is it achieved?
   a) How is it supported?
   b) What makes integration difficult to achieve?

7. What difference has 9/92 made to the PGCE secondary course?
   a) school-based
   b) competences
   c) new strengths/weaknesses
   d) old strengths maintained/weaknesses addressed

8. What other factors have influenced recent course developments?
   a) National Curriculum
   b) partnerships schools - contractual issues, difficulty getting student placements
   c) Nature/characteristics of teachers/pupils

9. Are you able to say if the new course has changed
   a) the type of teacher the course produces?
   b) the school-HEI relationship?

10. What is distinctive about the HEI contribution?

Categories inductively derived from the HEI documentation: the example of conceptions of teaching

conceptions	HEI 1.			HEI 2.		
	T	I	C	T	I	C
Technical						
observation as model						
skill						
staged development						
objective-led: teaching pupils						
objective-led: student experience						
effectiveness.						
Interpretive						
nature of pupils						
pupil perspective						
what pupils bring to lesson						
teacher responsive to pupils						
pupil response						
context						
inter-personal relationship						
Critical						
historical perspective examined						
nature contemporary schooling						
examine values						
aims of education						
objectives of education						
EO issues						
EO change						
	T	I	C	T	I	C
conceptions	HEI 1			HEI 2		

Appendix 8

A discussion of factors, derived from the interviews with HEI course leaders and an analysis of the HEI documentation, identified as constraining the development of HEI-school partnership.

The problematic nature of partnership in practice

As it is the HEIs which have overall responsibility for the quality of courses, for which they are held accountable by OFSTED and the TTA, the problematic nature of partnership is, in the final instance, primarily a challenge for the HEIs. The interview data indicated that the problems HEIs faced had a common source in the difficulty of ensuring that students were placed in schools able to offer them a quality experience. The following list, derived from the HEI documentation and, primarily, interviews with HEI course leaders, summarises the factors which were found to problematise the practice of partnership, and gives an indication of the breadth of the challenge involved in establishing and maintaining these partnerships. The phrasing and emphasis of these problems tends to reflect the HEI perspective, which may be seen as appropriate in view of their ultimate responsibility for the courses. The problems reported here reflect the views of the HEI course leaders (and have a continuing relevance, which is why the present tense is used when appropriate) but have been set in the context of references in the literature to similar types of difficulties.

1. *Relative HEI-school commitment to ITT*

   - HEI-school partnership in ITT was seen as inherently unbalanced, as clearly more of a priority for HEIs than schools. HEIs were *obliged* to find partner schools; schools could *choose* whether or not to become partners in ITT. This affected the relative commitment of schools and HEIs to ITT generally and to students in particular. Edwards and Collinson (1995) have suggested that this limited commitment is exemplified by schools' lack of use of HEI course evaluations. On the basis of experience at the University of Leicester, Alpin (1994) suggests that successful partnership depends upon mutual trust and confidence developed over time, and contrasts this with the emphasis on formal structures and contractual relations embodied in Circular 9/92, which, he suggests, will lead to a culture in which compliance becomes more valued than development. This implies that the imbalance of responsibilities and commitment reported here may in time affect the quality of courses.

   - Responsibility for the course tends to drift back to the HEI over time. 'Genuine' partnership is difficult to maintain.

   - The natural desire of schools to focus on pupils rather than students tends to limit the consistency and challenging nature of students' experience in

schools, especially when unanticipated pressures develop at school level. This tension is widely referred to in the literature, e.g. Kagan *et al.* (1993).

- School involvement in ITT requires the commitment of experienced teachers who are then not working with pupils. Some headteachers have found it difficult to justify involvement in ITT to themselves and/or to Governors and parents.

- The belief many schools have that the money transferred to them is insufficient to balance the costs of working with students may limit the depth and durability of their commitment to ITT.

- Within particular partnerships, the relatively low amount of money transferred to schools relative to other HEIs (e.g. due to variable top slicing) creates tensions.

2. *Developing and maintaining partnerships with schools*

- Some schools do not want the increased responsibility for ITT given to them by *Circular 9/92* (DFE, 1992). Schools' involvement in ITT may therefore be half-hearted or short-term. In relation to the first of these points, Whitehead *et al.* (1996) found respondents in secondary schools felt schools had too much responsibility for ITT, though this was more true of National Union of Teacher representatives (77%) than ITT co-ordinators (55%).

- The move to school-based ITT is seen by some schools as an attack on HEIs. and as threatening the professionalism of teaching. They are therefore reluctant to 'co-operate' with this by becoming involved in partnerships. This view was supported by data from ITT co-ordinators and mentors, especially those working in the north of England.

- The unwillingness of schools to commit themselves to partnership for more than one year at a time means forward planning is more difficult and negotiations to place students in schools have to be repeated each year.

- Some formerly close school partners have set up SCITT schemes.

3. *Finding school placements for students*

- As there is no obligation on schools to be involved in ITT, finding sufficient placements for students in quality schools is a constant and time consuming pressure. The interview data indicated that the difficulty of finding sufficient school placements for students was a more extensive and (supporting the view of UCET (1994) and Whitehead *et al.* (1996)) *continuing* problem than the MOTE survey previously suggested was the case (Whiting *et al.*, 1996).

- It is not always possible to ensure that schools which want students in shortage subjects receive them. The department, even the school, concerned may not want to continue their involvement in such an uncertain partnership. Many HEIs also find it difficult to find enough schools willing to accept the responsibilities of being 'full' partners (Brooks, 1997).

4. *Quality Assurance*

- It is not possible to monitor ITT courses effectively across geographically and educationally diverse school contexts when resources are so limited.

- Managing the course and establishing with schools the rôles and responsibilities appropriate for the participants is problematic when there is variation in the quantity and quality of the time for which students work with teachers in schools, and in other aspects of students' school experience. The questionnaire data confirms that this concern is well-founded, as have earlier studies in relation to the time mentors spend with students (e.g. Brooks *et al.*, 1997) and the differing conceptions of teaching which underlie mentors work (Haggarty, 1995).

- The process of Quality Assurance can create tension in HEI-school relations, and is particularly problematic in the context of a shortage of placements for students - Comiskey and Cotson (1997) found tutors felt they had little power to change unsatisfactory situations

- Regulatory requirements, including Quality Assurance, are burdensome and discourage school involvement in ITT and draw the focus of the partners away from improving standards.

- Ensuring schools extend students beyond basic competence to higher levels of performance is difficult, particularly where tutors are able to visit schools only once or twice a term.

5. *Support for mentors*

- The turnover of mentors exacerbates the problem of developing a coherent, developmental mentor training programme.

- It is difficult in practice to ensure that all mentors receive the training to which their rôle entitles them. Some partnerships had built a requirement that teachers attend such meetings into their partnership contracts; others preferred to have an 'entitlement' which teachers could choose to take up. As noted above, some HEIs were sensitive to seeming to exert unwelcome pressure on schools.

- The centrality of the subject mentor rôle means problems in the quality of their work or relationship with students may have a disastrous effect on a student's development.

- Maintaining permanent partnerships is difficult because schools and/or mentors often want a break from partnership after a while.

6. *Level of funding*

- Post-*Circular 9/92* partnership arrangements are a more expensive system of ITT. This is a point made widely in the literature (e.g. Inman, *et al.*, 1994).

- The transfer of ITT funds to schools has encouraged an expectation that they be paid for responsibilities which they previously accepted without being paid. This may, in part, explain teachers' complaints that their contribution to ITT is under-funded (e.g. Barker *et al.*, 1994).

- The introduction of a cash-nexus has led to financial considerations taking precedence over the opportunities for teacher professional development created by schools' involvement in ITT. Auger and Odell (1992) have argued on the basis of experience in the USA that the mutual educational benefits of partnership may be reduced by attention focusing on costing elements.

- Funding for ITT is insufficient to enable more meetings etc. which bring tutors and teachers together. This threatens course coherence and continuity, and the developmental progression of students.

- It is increasingly difficult to get teachers released from school duties to be involved in interviewing prospective students, course reviews etc.

7. *Work with students in the HEI*

- There is a shortage of time for tutorials, discussion and reflection with tutors. Tutors have found that this has made it difficult to establish personal relations with students (Blake *et al*, 1996).

- Tutors are becoming distanced from schools and the experience of students there. This expression of fear by tutors has been reported by Blake *et al*, (*ibid.*).

8. *Administrative burden*

- Finding school placements for students requires administrative support which is more complex and of higher quality than was necessary for traditional ITT courses.

- TTA initiatives and consultation documents often have to be responded to very quickly, which creates internal pressures for which it is difficult to plan.

9. Management of change

- Participants in ITT may perceive the 'new' course as not requiring a commitment and type of work different from the pre-*Circular 9/92* course.

10. HEI rôle undervalued

- The denigration of HE involvement in ITT by the HMI Chief Inspector has been resented.

- The effort required to move the TTA from its early aim of significantly reducing HEI involvement in ITT has been a distraction.

- The lack of meaningful consultation about proposed changes has reduced their quality and effectiveness.

- The TTA sets constraints, yet it is out of touch with schools' attitudes to ITT.

The interviews with course leaders were a rich source of data, but difficult to use as a basis to generalise about the impact of these problems on HEI policy, practice and relationships with schools. Clearly the problems differed in the immediacy and force of their effect. Where a partnership had severe difficulties in finding placements for students, for example, all other concerns paled into insignificance.

The extent and the particularities of these problems also varied greatly according to a wide variety of contextual factors, including the HEI's geographical position in terms of the number of competing HEIs nearby, the geographical spread of partner schools, the amount of funding per student 'top-sliced' by the HEI centrally, as well as the nature and organisation of the courses before they had to meet the requirements of *Circular 9/92*.

It is also evident that HEIs have responded in different ways to the requirements of *Circular 9/92*, which include developing partnerships with schools. The degree to which change was required, the choice of differing strategies to address similar issues, and obstacles to effective management of the changes have all affected perceptions of, and responses to, the problems described above.

Appendix 9

A critical review of ways in which HEI-school partnership could be developed, derived primarily from interviews with HEI course leaders:

Developing partnership?

1. Sharing responsibilities more equally: the case of the teacher's rôle in theory-related work

Partnership can only develop so far without requiring a change in the rôles and responsibilities of the participants. The extent to which teachers may come to share responsibility for the theoretical dimension of ITT courses with the tutors is a good test of how possible this is because, as HEI course leaders recognised, the location of responsibility for theory has been a clear fault line separating teachers from tutors. The durability of some factors which underpin the continuing HEI responsibility for theory in ITT courses will therefore be examined.

First, it may be argued that the distinction between the rôles and responsibilities of teachers and tutors in ITT derives from a theory-practice dichotomy which has been overdrawn, because practice is a manifestation of at least implicit theory (e.g. Argyris and Schon, 1978; Barrow, 1990). Thus, when teachers are providing their complementary but distinctive perspective in the Oxford Internship model, they are involved with theory, but in a form different to that typical of tutors. This perspective allows teachers' thinking to transcend concerns with the 'merely' practical and be refined to form what Hirst (1983) termed 'practical principles'. The influence of this conceptualisation of theory may have been limited by the move to a skills-based training (Wilkin, 1987), but the move to school-based ITT has the potential to re-generate it through the rôle changes which extend to all participants.

If these rôle changes mean that tutor dominance over the presentation and examination of theory in general is weakened, it may become appropriate for teachers' responsibility for the assessment of students' work other than teaching to be increased. Pring (1996) has acknowledged that many tutors have poor foundations in educational theory, and this weakness is likely to have been compounded by the casualisation of HEI staff found in the MOTE survey (Furlong *et al.*, 1996a). In any case, other factors may act to reduce the references to theory in tutors' work with students. These include a change in the rôle of tutor as they become more responsible for guiding the work of ITT co-ordinators and mentors in schools, reported by Burton (1995) and evident in the documentation examined here, and the reversion by HEI tutors to a delivery mode of educating students because of their reduced time with students (John, 1995).

Does this mean the place of theory in ITT will be further reduced, or can teachers' work with students to examine the theories which underlie their practice? This depends partly upon perceptions of the nature of theory and practice, but also upon teachers' ability to lead such examination of theory. These issues will be discussed further when examining the nature of participants' work in the course below, but some points relevant to teachers' ability and willingness to increase their responsibility for this dimension of partnership will be addressed here.

Despite concern that *Circular 9/92* type competences discouraged the enquiry-based work associated with theory (Busher and Simmons, 1992), the related nature of theory and practice may be emphasised in a way that both enhances the rôle of theory in ITT and allows teachers to increase their responsibility for such work, including the assessment of assignments. Elliott (1989b) has argued that the practical problems which theory can help examine must come from personal experience, a perspective shared by Taylor's (1991) description of theory as very practical in its concerns and Stones' (1994), demand that theory must relate to school experience, and be tested rather than listened to. As theory is defined here, increased teacher responsibility for theory-related work by students (such as assignments) seems a natural development. Indeed, as Kemmis (1995) suggests, attempts to separate the analysis of theory and of practice soon become confused because people do not stay in impermeable rôles.

Nevertheless, even if this interrelationship of theory and practice is accepted, the involvement of teachers in assessing students' assignments would require them to have an expertise in explicit and abstract, rather than embedded and intuitive, theory (Hirst, 1990). The case that teachers *do* have such expertise is supported by the contention that the interests and understanding of n increasing number of teachers have been extended by, for example, their own HEI accredited further studies and/or school responsibilities (Bridges, D. 1996). This implies that many teachers have the wherewithal to assess students' assignments. The benefits of school partnership with an HEI often include improved access to such courses, which may develop teachers' expertise in theory further.

More important perhaps, because more generally applicable, is the nature of student-mentor and student-ITT co-ordinator dialogues which, by examining classroom and school practices, enable teachers to extend their knowledge of perspectives and theories of teaching. Similarly, there is the potential for teacher involvement in student assignments to stimulate research by teachers themselves although, despite the long-standing Teacher as Researcher movement associated with Stenhouse (e.g. 1975), there has been little impact through ITT courses (Elliott, 1993a).

The case that teachers have relevant expertise may also be made on the basis that the nature of students' assignments is changing. Data from the documentation and interviews with HEI course leaders indicate that these assignments were increasingly school-focused and even school-based. It is possible, therefore, that the appropriateness of teachers assessing the work may increase as the school-related nature of assignments moves to the foreground.

The rôle of students has also changed. The importance placed in, for example, the Oxford Internship Scheme on students as independent learners able to learn from the differing perspectives of teachers and tutors (Cranmer et al., 1997) was found in this study also. This independence has been extended to the focus of student assignments: as part of the move to school-based ITT, some HEIs have emphasised that this focus should be negotiated rather than set by the HEI, with assignment results reported to the school (e.g. Institute of Education, 1993). The potential for these assignments to support departmental and school development seems likely to draw teachers into a closer involvement with the assignments, which could lead to teacher assessment of them. The writer's personal experience of working with a group of teachers and tutors assessing such assignments suggests that the experience of teachers may have differed from tutors, but the reliability and confidence of their judgements was not less than that of the tutors. It may be that the responsibilities of teachers for ITT will continue at their current balance, but there is a real possibility that their responsibilities will increase as they gain more experience of working with students.

The third factor identifies above as limiting teachers involvement in assessing student assignments, was the individualistic nature of teaching. This has become a commonplace assertion, but its continuing validity may be questioned. To help us analyse this, it is useful to refer to Hargreaves', A (1994) typology, which distinguishes between constrained, strategic, and elective individualism.

Elective individualism describes a preferred way of working; this is distinct from strategic individualism, where isolation is a means to avoid distractions and focus on completing a diverse and endless range of tasks. Constrained individualism is caused by contextual factors, such as the difficulty of arranging for teachers to meet together. The relevance of these to the contemporary situation will be examined, in a necessarily brief and impressionistic survey, to consider their impact on a possible extension of teachers' responsibilities for ITT.

If elective or strategic individualism are norms for teachers, then they will tend to avoid extending their responsibilities for ITT which will, at best, be an irrelevance. Such forms of individualism may have historic strength and extend across virtually all

aspects of society (Peters, 1966; House, 1980), but there are now strong forces acting against them in education. The introduction of an externally prescribed National Curriculum (DES, 1989c), a line management model of appraisal (DES, 1991d), and assessment arrangements which extend accountability through results to individual teachers (Gipps, 1989) are just some of the diverse pressures against individualism and for a bureaucratic construct of efficiency requiring a whole school response in which teachers have to work together. These pressures also cut across any pre-existing tendency towards constrained individualism. In terms of teachers working together, the result may often be a 'contrived collegiality' (Hargreaves, A. 1994) in which teachers work together because they are required to do so rather than because they believe they will mutually benefit from sharing experiences.

This seems unlikely to encourage teachers to extend their responsibilities for ITT. On the other hand, involvement in ITT may serve as a relative haven in which time with students is set aside for work distanced from the tasks required to meet personal, departmental or school targets. Moreover, personal experience of working with diverse groups of teachers in schools suggests that once the barrier of traditional individualism is broken, even if the teacher is initially the unwilling subject of external requirements, the experience of changed experience can promote a change in attitudes. Thus, 'contrived collegiality' may be a staging post, a process which clears the way for teachers to willingly extend their involvement in, and responsibility for ITT, including the assessment of student assignments.

2. Specific Strategies

Some of the problematic issues in developing and maintaining partnership with schools cannot be addressed by HEIs through their work in a particular course. Analysis of the interviews with course leaders and of the HEI course documentation does reveal, however, a range of strategies designed to strengthen the quality of partnership. Improving partnership is, of course, a continuing process, and the list below reflects this by including planned as well as existing strategies; this also explains why the present tense has been used when describing these strategies.

The TTA (1996b) has established some principles and recommendations for partnerships, though the TTA was only referred to by course leaders or the documentation in this context in terms of its effect through establishing a 'National Curriculum for Training' (TTA, 1997). This development is common to all HEIs and so has not been included in the list below, except when related to changes in some other aspect of the course. Highlighting these proposed developments has the advantage of revealing trends as well as the existing situation in terms of work to maintain and

improve partnerships. In addition to the issue of consistency of students' experience across the course, which is examined separately below, three aims seemed to underlie the various strategies HEI course leaders referred to as means to improve partnerships. These were to:

i) Improve relationships with schools, particularly professional ones, e.g. so that partnership becomes mutually beneficial in a range of areas

ii) Develop documentation and other means of supporting teachers' work with students by sharpening its focus on the form and nature of students'/teachers' work and how the HEI supports it.

iii) Develop a closer relationship between subject tutors and mentors.

The various means to achieve these aims have been collated under the headings of: developing mentor training; course documentation; and course organisation and administration. The heading of course documentation has been sub-divided to reflect the range of ways in which this may be developed; opportunities for developing course documentation are virtually limitless, it is not time or resource-constrained in the ways that providing training and altering course organisation are.

In developing HEI course documentation, as with all support and guidance with partnership schools, HEIs faced the tension of providing sufficient detail to support 'good practice', while not seeming prescriptive and overly demanding. The judgement of where that balance lies is a compromise, the nature of which will vary according to the context and experience of the schools and HEI within a partnership.

The list below should therefore be interpreted as an indication of what HEI course leaders believed was possible rather than a checklist to measure the level of commitment of a particular HEI to improve partnership. It is evident that partnership is continuing to develop in a range of ways, there is no consensus as to precisely how partnership should be promoted, though the following list may form a useful reservoir and stimulus for those examining ways to develop it further. A brief critical commentary therefore complements the list collated from the interviews with HEI course leaders, seeking to draw out the potential impact of particular strategies. An overview is then taken to examine whether there are any trends across what may initially seem a disparate range of developments. This will include an assessment of their potential impact upon the structure of partnership through, for example, enabling one partner to exercise more responsibility for the course.

a. *Mentor training and development*

• Subject tutors may be involved in training which is designed to attend to the subject specific differences which have become evident as experience of mentoring in

different subjects has been extended. Generic training may be useful at the organisational and procedural levels, but may not focus effectively on enabling students to move beyond a basic 'pass' level of competence. When one gets to the subject specific detail, the vision of 'quality' varies with the nature of a subject.

- HEI support for teachers may extend beyond their work in ITT to the work of the subject teacher generally, not only their work as a mentor. This could include ideas of how to support differentiation in the classroom, departmental policy statements, and so on. Practical advice such as this has the potential to improve the quality of teaching by an individual and across a department as a whole and, thereby, to improve students' experience of being mentored. This view of HEI-school partnership transcending ITT may have been influenced by the well-known IT-INSET experience at the University of Leicester (Everton and Impey, 1989).

- Training can be designed to involve tutors and groups of mentors in interactive work. This enables participants to share existing good practice and thereby reduce differences in the quality of work of different mentors, as well as to develop new ways of working.

- To increase teachers' knowledge of the HEI course, one HEI is planning to provide each subject department with copies of the key texts used on the course.

- Support for school-initiated mentoring projects, developed in one school or across a small cluster of them, is being used as a strategy which both encourages varied means of course improvement to be tried, and actively involves a range of schools in the process.

- Providing opportunities for 'Mentor Development' rather than 'Mentor Training', reflecting the partnership basis of the course, that knowledge does not reside solely in an HEI which decides how it should be passed on to schools.

b.   *Course documentation*

Responsibilities of teachers

- Exemplar checklists for induction into the work of the department and of the school generally.

- A suggested agenda for school-based meetings of ITT co-ordinators with mentors.

- A rôle description for class teachers working with students. Fidler (1994) drew attention to the fact that class teachers were rarely given information about how they should work with students who taught their classes; the data here suggests that this continues to be so. It may be inferred that this suggested supplement to

the delineation of the more extensive responsibilities of mentors and ITT co-ordinators would be valuable because the questionnaire data showed that students generally worked with a range of teachers in a department. These teachers often observed and discussed issues with students yet, the documentary and interview data showed, were likely to have received training only if they had themselves been a mentor previously. It may not be surprising, therefore, that, as Carney and Hagger (1996) note, class teachers have not contributed as fully as they might to students' development.

- A rationale for, and description of, teachers' rôles for each phase of the course, including a description of tasks on a week by week basis. Some course leaders felt this level of specificity would daunt teachers, others suggested that teachers wanted all the information and suggestions the HEI could give. There did seem to be a trend towards providing more rather than less guidance about the focus and nature of work mentors with students.

The work of students and mentors

- an outline of tasks or, more specifically, the approximate time to be spent on various activities at different stages of the course, e.g. in relation to school policies, pastoral work, etc. This sometimes included details of the responsibilities each participant had to support the completion of the tasks. Again, partnerships differed as to how closely these tasks should be related to a particular week of the course

- A guide to the number of students' lessons to be observed per week, e.g. one in three, one of which should be written up. This clearly supports consistency in the level of support students receive in schools, but it may also be a means to extend the nature of that support. Responses to the questionnaires provided some evidence that a requirement for mentors to observe students a certain number of times per placement was sometimes interpreted as a requirement to observe a student merely until they were 'competent', i.e. coping. It may be inferred that the emphasis on continuing weekly observation of students may be one means to extend support for students and increase the quality of their teaching.

- Ideas about how, and what, students should observe - the guidance may be generic or differ with the subject taught. Students find it difficult to learn by observing teachers (Haggarty, 1995), a problem which may be tackled through the structure and sense of purpose provided by these ideas; some mentors have already been reported to want more specific guidance about supervising students (Duquette, 1996). Relating this guidance to a framework of student

development also provides concrete support for students to achieve, and go beyond, base-level competence.

- Guidance that the type of students' experience should vary throughout their school experience, e.g. continuing to include observation of teachers, and working with individual and small groups of pupils as well as whole classes. This is another opportunity to reinforce the developmental nature of students teaching and the support which may extend the quality of students' teaching.

- Suggestions for how mentors may work with students in the classroom, e.g. move from formative to summative assessment as students, who are teaching a class collaboratively with mentors, take increasing responsibility for classes. This may help to resolve a tension which Claughton and Lloyd (1995) perceive in mentors' responsibility for both formative and summative assessment.

- Suggested questions, or areas for discussion, following a mentor's observation of a student. As the interaction between mentors and students has a critical influence on the nature of students' development (McNally *et al.* 1994), this may be a key area of support for mentors' work with students.

Information about the whole course

- A week-by week outline 'diary' of what is planned for each week of the course, including the responsibilities of each of the course participants in relation to the tasks. This may not only increase participants' ability to do all that they should be doing, but also has the potential to support increased integration of their work on the course, as do the other examples of documentation in this section. This may reduce the communication gap found by Dart and Drake (1993).

- Provision of abstracts for each HEI-based lecture.

- Details of how lectures and other HEI-based work could be followed up in school by students. In some HEIs, these include planned outcomes, which may sharpen the support for this work. This latter point extends to the final examples in this section.

- Planned outcomes for each seminar with tutors.

- Details of course assignments, which could involve student negotiation with teachers to establish the focus for their work.

Competence framework

- Indicators provided to guide assessment of the competences required in *Circular 9/92* had the potential to both encourage a view of competence as transcending the behaviourist conception which some have associated with

such criteria (e.g. Busher and Simmons, 1992), and as a means to guide and moderate teacher assessment of students.

- A framework of levels of competence, to be used as a basis for formative and summative assessment. These might be related to particular stages or components of the course, or to the rôle of specified participants. Others criticised this approach as a bureaucratic constraint.

- Subject specific amplification of competences, and the nature of task/person likely to support their achievement. This approach is a new one, matching the view of mentoring as a subject specific process (Arthur et al., 1997). This may serve the functions of sharpening the focus on students' work, improving the precision and reliability of mentors' assessments, and strengthening the subject-based commonality of mentors', tutors' and students' communication with each other.

- Description of specific student tasks in universities and in schools to maximise the amount and coherence of support for students' work.

- 'Good practice' examples of summative reports of student attainment to be passed from school to the HEI.

Work of tutors

- Exemplification of the rôles and responsibilities of tutors when visiting schools. This may relate to contact with the mentor or the student, or both, according to how the course is conceived and organised.

- The purpose of, and a suggested 'agenda' for, tutor visits to schools. There is some evidence that a consensus is being established around the belief that tutor visits should provide support primarily, but not solely, for teachers rather than students.

Professional and school development

- Description of how student assignments may support departmental and school improvement. This has also been advocated by people in schools (e.g. Wynn, 1994). In the past, there have been cases of tutors supporting departmental and whole school development through, for example, leading INSET, but this aspect of the tutors' rôle has been undermined by the delegation of moneys to schools (Harrison, 1995). Various benefits of the current partnership arrangements have been anticipated at whole school (e.g. Bridges 1993), departmental (Brooks, et al., 1997), individual teacher (Benson et al., 1997) and pupil (Barker et al., 1994) levels. There are few reported examples of

these possibilities being implemented, possibly in part because schools have rarely clarified the contribution of mentoring to the whole school (Relf, 1995).

3.   *Course organisation and administration*

- Simplifying course organisation by combining subject method and general courses, in the expectation that this will improve the integration of the HEI course. This has the potential to improve HEI-school contact by reducing the number of tutors involved, and to support the integration of the course overall.

- Reducing the number of tutors who work with students, through combining courses as above, or through refocusing their work on liaison with schools.

- Organising the subject method and general courses so that on a week by week basis they focus on the same issues. This sometimes means the HEI *increasing* its responsibility for planning and managing the course overall, including the work students do in school with teachers.

- Establishing a consultative committees of tutors, teachers and, possibly, students to consider aspects of course content and organisation. The teachers tended to be ITT co-ordinators, though there is some evidence of a trend towards involving mentors as well - seemingly as their rôle comes to be perceived as of prime importance in the course.

- Setting up working groups of teachers and tutors to address issues which have a particular resonance in a course. Groups such as these were often established when changes necessary to meet the requirements of *Circular 9/92* were being developed. After an initial focus on implementing these changes, there is now a move in some partnerships to maintain such groups to examine future developments, rather than consider *ad hoc* responses to problems as they inevitably arise in developing courses

- The development of ICT networks is being considered as one means to maintain contact between participants in a situation in which funding, time, and possibly geographical constraints, limit personal contact.

- Collating subject mentor names for the HEI Partnership office to facilitate teacher-tutor contact.

- Facilitating teachers involvement in selecting students for the course by organising interviews in schools as well as at the HEI.

- Allocating one day of HEI staff time per student to support teachers' work in schools. The use of this time has to be negotiated, but possibilities include class teaching, consultancy, curriculum or staff development, and research.

- Reducing the assessment emphasis on student reflective journals as the school-based nature of the course changes the nature of the time constraints and other pressures on students.

- Emphasising the potential for mentor and student work to be accredited as part completion of a higher degree award. Extending the conception of partnership may serve as a means to strengthen HEI-school relations.

- Reduced charges for teachers in partner schools to attend INSET and other courses organised by the HEI, an additional way to extend the notion of partnership.

- There was a suggestion that the recent TTA (1997) requirement to emphasise subject knowledge in addition to skill competence, may shift responsibility for courses slightly back to HEIs, though in a form different from the pre-*Circular 9/92* formulation. It was suggested that here, HEI responsibility is derived from its expertise in subject knowledge rather than broader educational theory. This, highlighting the fact that HEIs do still have something distinctive and of value to offer, may protect the authority and credibility of HEIs in their partnership with schools.

- establishing three-year partnership contracts. Only one HEI, where student numbers were relatively low, was able to do this, but the stability it brought was perceived to encourage mutually supportive and positive HEI-school working relationships.

Although HEIs are using a range of developmental strategies, there does seem to be an increasing emphasis on the key rôle of the subject mentor. Initially, a number of HEIs moved to establish the ITT co-ordinator rather than the subject mentor as the key rôle in schools (e.g. Hickman, 1993), for professional as well as administrative reasons. The details of the responsibilities of subject mentors and ITT co-ordinators do still vary according to the histories and aims of different courses, but a trend towards raising the profile of subject mentors seems evident, whether in terms of their influence over course evaluation and development, the amount of support they receive from HEIs for their work, or the specialised nature of that work. This trend mirrors, and may be strengthened by, the provision by the TTA (1996b) of funding for mentor training. The responses of HEI course leaders, and recent publications such as (Arthur *et al.*, 1997), however, indicate that this trend is not wholly dependent upon the external pressure of the TTA.

There was also some indication that course documentation is becoming more detailed. This is not as obvious a development as it may sound, it was not simply a matter of

additions to documentation being made as the course developed, as practice became established. Indeed, a number of HEIs had started off with lengthy documentation which was edited down as it was found to be unwieldy and difficult to use. There seem to be two main reasons for documentation now becoming more detailed. First, as the school and HEI participants increase their understanding of each other's work, they are able to make more use of documentary descriptions of it. Second, it may be that school-based ITT is moving into a 'developmental' rather than a 'coping' stage; as knowledge of the nature of 'good practice' and what supports it develops, so focused additions to the course documentation are possible. Moreover, developing documentary guidance is one response to the increasingly insistent Quality Assurance pressure on HEIs.

These developmental strategies were designed to ease the process of establishing and maintaining partnerships, but they may also affect the *structure* of partnership. For example, supporting mentors' professional development and honing the specificity and appropriateness of HEI documentation may increase teachers' involvement in, and thereby enable them to exercise more responsibility for, an aspect of the course. Such support has the potential to increase teachers' understanding of the course and their ability to challenge and support students effectively. This may increase teacher responsibility for the course for two main reasons. First, doing a job well may promote the commitment required to exercise responsibility. Second, it is difficult to share responsibility for a course unless knowledge about the nature of the course is similarly shared; indeed, as teachers gain more knowledge of the HEI-based aspects of the course, they may even feel able to take the lead on how best they may be complemented by school-based work. They would then transcend the reactive rôle to which Devlin (1995) found mentors reduced. Similarly, working to utilise the potential but still often only partly realised professional development benefits of school involvement in ITT may attract teachers who are understandably cautious about developing their responsibility for a demanding rôle (Relf, 1995) which they may perceive as time consuming yet of uncertain benefit to pupils (Blake *et al.* 1996). Thus, increased support and opportunities for mentors as described above may counter the feeling found by Evans (1995) that there was no real partnership with HEIs at mentors' level of work.

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[1] Some authors have been referred to in this list by different initials for particular texts. Thus Anne Williams may be ascribed the initial 'A', 'A. E', or 'E.A.', according to those used in the original publication. It was felt that the consistency of using these initials was more reliable than attempting to impose a consistency, which might not be applied equally to all authors.

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