**Chapter 1: Introduction**

It is no light task to educate our children aright (Erasmus, 1529, p.494)

Menter (2011) argues that there is a disarticulation of the theoretical and intellectual foundations of professional and pedagogic knowledge. This thesis examines aspects of this ‘disarticulation’ as evidenced between the publication of The White Paper – *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) and *The Carter Review* *of ITT* (2015). What is revealed and explored is the seemingly fragile state of teacher education through a close examination of expert and practitioners’ views of the roles and responsibilities universities and schools should have for effective initial teacher preparation (ITP) in England.

* 1. **Problems and Issues**

The White Paper: *The Importance of Teaching* (2010)outlined a clear vision for the coalition government wherein outstanding schools were given a much greater role in the training of teachers. A direct consequence of this was that the role, purpose and place of the university in initial teacher preparation (ITP) experienced significant changes to what had come before. In order to reform ITP there was to be a ‘power shift to the front line’ (2010, p.4) increasing:

The proportion of time trainees spend in the classroom, focusing on core teaching skills, especially in teaching reading and mathematics and in managing behaviour (ibid, p.9).

The need for a broader base of ITP beyond training ‘on the job’ (2010, p.19) and the value of equipping prospective teachers with a deeper understanding of teaching and learning through initial teacher education on provider-led courses was significantly diluted by *The Importance of Teaching* (2010). With the role of the universities ever more peripheral and the appetite in schools for increased autonomy in providing teacher training, the issue under scrutiny is quite simply – what are the distinct contributions made by universities and schools to deliver effective ITP?

This research revisits the longstanding and dichotomous relationship between practice and theory in relation to effective ITP (see Korthagen, 2010 for example). It captures a triumvirate of perspectives on the future for teacher education: a comprehensive literature review, the sample of experts, the outstanding provider. Much of the debate, as explored fully in the next chapter, oscillates between the implications for *training* teachers and *educating* teachers which is in turn predicated upon one’s own philosophical perspective about what constitutes effective ITP (see conceptual framework p. 51).

Without a substantial rethinking of the whole of ITP, perhaps something to be undertaken by the stakeholders within this triumvirate, we can only expect contemporary perspectives to evidence the professional state described by Revell (2005):

Deprived of a real understanding of both theory and policy, teachers are simply parroting the latest curriculum directives. Teachers in name, but technicians in reality (p.3)

Revell’s remarks apply equally to teacher educators and conceivably to others defined as ‘experts’.

These problems and issues are recognised at an international level. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has identified and highlighted a climate of diminished professional trust that challenges the collegiate base of professional preparation in 2011. Additionally, there is an increase in international demands for innovation and realistic teacher education based on the principle of *practice first* (see Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf, and Wubbels, 2001).There are also strong indications that, in England, influence and power has shifted from universities to schools as providers of ITP due to a reassessment of the relationship between course work and field experience i.e. ‘a practicum turn in teacher education’ (Mattsson, Eilertsen and Rorrison (eds.), 2011, p.2).

As a consequence of this shift, the education systems of more countries have been drawn into forms of competitive marketization. Higher Education - including ITP - has become one more ‘tool’ to be used in achieving increased both local and global competitiveness. The implication of this for the professional identity of teachers now required in our schools and what jobs they are required to do, is fundamental to the focus of this thesis since their ITP is based on the shifting relationship between theory and practice. The subsequent contribution made by both universities and schools to effective ITP underpins the discussion throughout the thesis.

**1.2 The Broad Aim of the Study**

Teachers, not bureaucrats or Ministers, know best how to teach - how to convey knowledge effectively and how to unlock understanding (*The Importance of Teaching*, 2010, p.41).

This research aims to contribute to, extend and challenge the body of knowledge concerned with effective ITP in England. It is important and timely to research this issue following *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) in order to inform policy and secure a future for a theoretically informed model of ITP so that teaching is seen as both desirous and reputable as a masterly profession in line with high achieving international competitors. It also aims to propose a more amplified input from classroom-based practitioners in partnership with Higher Education Institutes (HEIs) who, *collaboratively*, can offer a unified and informed voice in response to any changes in educational policy driven by Government.

The main issues explored here include what constitutes the most effective ITP. Particular attention will focus upon the role of the university and the school; the relational tensions between initial teacher education and initial teacher training; the place for theory and of practice; what knowledge base is appropriate - both pedagogical and professional; the role of the Government and international perspectives and approaches to this global issue.

Adding to this knowledge base will go some way towards clarifying the roles of all those involved with effective initial teacher preparation in England. The focus of this research project is to investigate perspectives in and around ITP since the publication of *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) and the purpose of this study will be to elicit what constitutes the most effective means of preparing teachers for a career in 21st century classrooms.

The scope of this study indicates originality because studies of this aspect of teacher education tend to focus upon student perceptions of theory or career longevity after training. This study aims to explore a variety of options for the future of ITP from commercial packages and the removal of theory, to a more protracted period of preparation at masters’ level. It will contextualise the current landscape of ITP in England through a consideration of relevant historical, political and international factors.

It is important to note that the researcher is employed by a Higher Education Institute (HEI) and to acknowledge the potential for an HEI slant to the thesis. The adoption of an interpretivist approach to the research enabled the researcher to be aware of possible misinterpretations based upon personal and professional assumptions and values. This is reflected in the references to initial teacher education and initial teacher training as initial teacher preparation (ITP) throughout the thesis with neither being presented as preferable.

**1.3 The Research Questions**

The 3 research questions were born out of the review of the literature and specifically asked:

1. **What constitutes effective initial teacher preparation?**

Here, the word ‘effective’ is to be interpreted as appropriate and fit for purpose – whatever that purpose may be. The term ‘initial’ centres specifically upon all preparatory routes into teaching currently available. It may also include prospective alternatives to those being offered here in England.

1. **What future is there for a strong theoretical basis upon which to prepare teachers for their careers in the education profession?**

Here a ‘strong theoretical basis’ broaches a continuum ranging from the need for teaching to be a graduate profession; to a masterly profession; to a career of continuing professional development underpinned by enquiry-based learning.

1. **What impact is current governmental policy having upon the status of the profession as one which is informed through research and is theoretically based?**

Driven initially by the plans outlined in *The Importance of Teaching* (2010), an array of other historical-political perspectives is discussed to illuminate the impact of policy upon practice culminating in *The Carter Review of ITT* (2015).

* 1. **Justification for the Research**

This research project and its subsequent findings may influence stakeholders’ orientations to and vision of a future for ITP in England. The research has implications for wider audiences beyond schools and universities as it reveals how the needs and priorities of the teachers of tomorrow may best be met.

Despite the rhetoric evident in *The Importance of Teaching* (2010), claiming that there is ‘no calling more noble, no profession more vital and no service more important than teaching’ (2010, p.7). It also asserts that:

We do not have a strong enough focus on what is proven to be the most effective practice in teacher education and development. We know that teachers learn best from other professionals and that an ‘open classroom’ culture is vital: observing teaching and being observed, having the opportunity to plan, prepare, reflect and teach with other teachers. Too little teacher training takes place on the job (ibid, p.19).

Since then, we have witnessed a significant reconfiguration of provision across the country with many HEIs electing to end their ITE provision. London, for example, has experienced a notable reduction in the number of Higher Education places as a direct result of the introduction of School Direct (SD). This coupled with the rapid increase in the numbers of Teach First places from 2013; the emergence of ‘chains’ operating as providers for SD e.g. ARK (Absolute Return for Kids - an international children’s charity); Harris and also United Learning has had considerable impact on traditional routes into teaching.

This smorgasbord of provision is set to increase and so HEI ITE providers have been compelled to reconfigure, reshape or remove their provision. There are significant implications for increased partnership working with each new provider vying for position and business. Subsequently, the role and contributions made by the schools have become ever more important in the provision of effective ITP.

Professor Chris Husbands at the Institute of Education in London, for example, proposes three strands of a new and theorised landscape for teacher education - each interlinked through effective partnership working and collaborative ventures:

* **The Engaged University** – however, this suggests that Universities are currently not engaged as actively as they perhaps could be;
* **The Autarchic School** - in control of ITE, Continuing Professional Development and School Improvement;
* **Professional Practices** - changes in the role of the school and the academy in terms of knowledge generation.

(Presentation at University of Oxford, July, 2013).

However, this is predicated upon complementary cultures, not conflicting institutional interests so the viability of a future model that looks like this is questionable. It is in light of these seismic changes in initial teacher preparation that an identifiable gap in the literature is exposed - one that illuminates and even amplifies polemical perspectives with regard to the most effective preparation for teachers of the future. The justification for this research will be that the findings will enable and empower stakeholders to reflect upon their current practices in the preparation of teachers for our classrooms in light of international perspectives and alternative models. That through an informed approach, effective preparation for beginning teachers in England can be reformed to meet the diverse demands of the classroom, the continuing professional needs of the teachers and the economic expectations of Government in the creation of an enquiry-based profession.

* 1. **Context of the Research**

There exists a vast body of research knowledge about the topic of teacher preparation which has been drawn upon to inform both the research questions and the theoretical framework for the study. By positioning the research between The Importance of Teaching (2010) and *The Carter Review of ITT* (2015) the thesis is strategically positioned to both evaluate the historical context of ITP in 2015 and consider the current international perspectives that serve to frame policy here in England.

The new rhetoric of teacher preparation across the world has embraced a more combative approach to recruitment than has been seen previously. For example, *‘Teach for India – join the movement’; ‘Teach for Australia: ambition and conscience’* and ‘*Teacher for America’*. Calls to rectify the ‘injustice’ of underachieving children lie at the core of these new, direct routes into teaching. Equally, the positioning of these new providers stands as testimony to an increase in teacher preparation as a commercial venture. The rapid growth in the Teacher Education/ Training industry has seen the birth of businesses such as Relay/GSE for example. They lay the blame for failure in the education system almost entirely at the door of university based ITE programmes and market themselves as the salvation of the educationally disaffected, calling on top graduates to ‘make a difference.’

To contextualise what happened in England between *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) and *The Carter Review of ITT* (2015), it is important to consider wider international responses to teacher preparation. The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) offers an insightful international comparison for all 65 countries who participate in the triennial survey which seeks to evaluate educational systems worldwide (OECD, 2012). With more than 70 countries registered for 2015, this on-going evaluation system allows them to compare their students' performance over time and assess the impact of education policy decisions – including those related to ITP.

The International Summit on the Teaching Profession (2013) was especially useful in capturing and disseminating a plethora of responses to the changing educational landscape from across the world. A brief cameo of each country’s position in relation to ITP, issues of recruitment and educational achievement was shared and a sample is outlined below to illustrate the prevailing international context and its relevance to the study. For example, the Finnish and German approaches contrast markedly with those of Slovenia and reinforce the lack of consensus in relation to models of effective ITP. Key words and phrases most pertinent to the study are italicised for emphasis:

* **Belgium:** The Flemish Education Council and teachers’ organizations are working on a range of policies to make teaching a more attractive career choice - initially, addressing the shortage of primary school teachers, and in the longer term, *examining future teacher competencies as a basis for new professional qualifications and training.*
* **China:** In September 2012, the Chinese government held a national conference on the teaching profession to create an overall plan for the development of the teaching profession. It included *a comprehensive system of standards for teachers and improvements in initial teacher training.*
* **Denmark:** The Danish government is seeking to raise academic achievement in public schools by strengthening instruction in key subjects, *allocating significant new funds to strengthen professional development and career paths for teachers and school leaders and to increase their access to relevant research, and increasing autonomy for municipalities and schools.*
* **Finland:** In Autumn 2012, a review of the curriculum for basic education began. *All basic school teachers must hold a Master’s degree to become permanently employed; Primary school teacher preparation was converted from a three-year programme at teachers’ colleges to four or five year university programmes in the late1970s.* Hence, *most primary school teachers today possess higher university degrees; preparing teachers for a research-based profession has been the central idea of teacher education developments in Finland.*
* **Germany:** is moving away from its traditionally bifurcated education system, and *the federal government and the states are working on how to improve the quality of teacher-education programmes, how to raise their status within universities,* and how to gear them to be more effective with the requirement for inclusion in all types of school.
* **Iceland:** accelerated collaboration between governments, teachers’ associations, and universities to develop *a new framework for teacher education, teachers’ lifelong learning, and professional development.* A Professional council has been established; its function is to develop and supervise teachers’ continuing professional development.
* **Indonesia:** Indonesia has been engaged in a major effort to improve the quality of its more than two million teachers. *This includes raising the initial qualifications of teachers; instituting a certification system; and, in 2013, implementing an annual teacher appraisal based on observations by principals and teachers.*
* **Ireland:** *Increased length of courses: BA (Ed) to 4 years, PGCE to 2 years; Greater focus throughout courses on pedagogy - especially in literacy and numeracy; Movement of all teacher education into research led universities.*
* **Netherlands**: two key priorities were *the creation of a professional body to define the requirements for professional competence, and the introduction of peer review as the main quality-control instrument for teachers.*
* **New Zealand:** *A pilot of Teach First NZ has been initiated; and discussions are taking place on teacher preparation for 21st century learning environments and on improving the clinical experience of trainee teachers.*
* **Singapore:** continuing to revamp its teacher education in line with 21st century skills and is *strengthening its ongoing professional development for educators through the Academy of Singapore Teachers, established in 2010, and a new teacher-growth model, introduced in May 2012.*
* **Slovenia:** *the professional development system has changed from a centrally designed system to one in which teachers and school heads can select what fits their needs.*
* **Sweden:** has been *focused on efforts to attract more top students into the teaching profession, and to introduce career steps to keep talented teachers in the profession.*
* **Switzerland:** recent *emphasis has been on recruiting high-quality candidates into the profession,* including attracting experienced people who would like a second professional career. *Coordination among the cantons (member states) has also led to common standards and a national quality assurance mechanism for teacher education.*
* **The United States:** In May 2012, the Secretary of education, the two teachers’ unions, state school officers, district school boards, and school administrators signed a joint vision statement, *‘Transforming the Teaching Profession’* which lay the foundations for ‘A blueprint forRESPECT’(2013),which identifies the core elements of a transformed profession on which they will all work:

We must support the programs that prepare highly effec­tive educators and offer *high-quality and substantive curricula and clinical preparation experiences*. We should expand the most successful programs, help other programs improve, and close down the lowest-performing programs if they fail to improve after receiving support. *Preparation should include signifi­cant clinical opportunities that involve highly effec­tive teachers or principals to oversee, mentor, and evaluate aspiring educators (preferably in the school environments in which the candidates will ultimately work)* (p.5).

Internationally, a common feature that determines teacher quality is raising the quality of teacher education programmes themselves and exercising punitive authority over those programmes that are under-performing. There also seems to be consensus in terms of acknowledging the significance on the growth of more clinical practice approaches to ITP:

Across the board, the best-performing countries are working to move their initial teacher-education programmes towards a model based less on preparing academics and more on preparing professionals in clinical settings, in which they get into schools earlier, spend more time there and get more and better support in the process (OECD, 2011, p.236).

Where there is less consensus, lies with the contribution theory and research make or do not make to that practice. Yet Gove outlined the coalition government’s aspirations by aligning England with Finland:

Every university offering Education Sciences in Finland is closely linked to a school,in which prospective teachers undertake classroom teaching practiceunder the constant guidance and supervision of experienced teacher trainers. These schools act as a link between teaching and the latest academic research and innovation. He also cites the Jyväskylän Normaalikoulu (the Jyväskylä Teacher Training School) in central Finland. According to Jyväskylän Normaalikoulu’s head Kirsti Koppi, ‘by training highly motivated and skilled teachers who are able to make educational decisions based on theory and research - in addition to intuitive argumentation - we best fulfil our duty towards Finnish pupils and students (*The Importance of Teaching*, 2010, p.24).

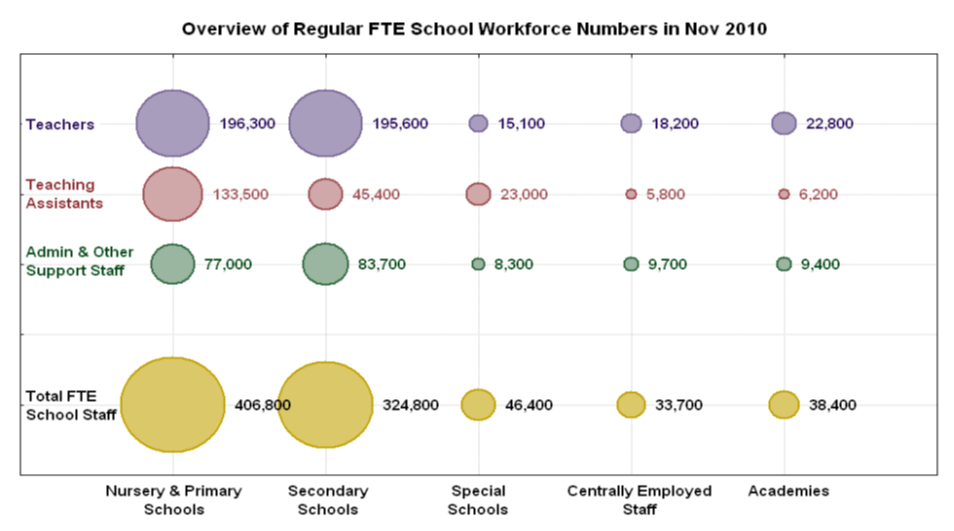
Moreover, The Donaldson Report: *Teaching Scotland’s Future* (2010) found that the most successful education systems do more than seek to attain particular standards of competence and to achieve change through prescription. They invest in developing their teachers as reflective, accomplished and *enquiring professionals* who have the capacity to engage fully with the complexities of education and to be key actors in shaping and leading educational change. A key objective of this research therefore was to interrogate this rhetoric in light of the reality.

The statistical first release of the *School Workforce in England* (D*f*E, 2013) provided a statistical basis to corroborate or refute some of the themes emerging from the wider literature review and also the respondents’ views. Its summary of key findings indicates that the deployment of the school workforce has experienced the largest increases since 2000 for support staff, with a much more gradual growth in teacher numbers. In 2000, teachers made up 71% of the total school workforce; by November 2010, the balance had shifted so that this share had reduced to just 53% due to the growth in teaching assistants (from 14% to 25%) and in other support staff (from 15% to 22%). And although the numbers of full-time equivalent teachers in service between spring 2000 and November 2012 has increased by 36,300 from 405,800 to 442,000 (an increase of 8.9%), teacher numbers have remained relatively flat - at around 440,000.

The number of FTE teaching assistants in 2012 stood at 232,300. This number has also increased to 243,700 in 2013. The numbers of other school support staff have similarly increased by over 55,000 (from 83,000 to 137,800) between spring 2000 and November 2012. Indeed, between November 2011 and 2012 FTE school support staff numbers increased by 3,900 (2.9%).

This is significant to the study as it reflects the changing contours in the landscape of education and has implications for what *type* of teachers are now required in our schools and what ITP would best suit their changing roles and remits. Figure 1 below highlights the growth of para professionals in schools to support teachers’ roles in schools:

**Full Time Equivalent (FTE) School Workforce Size by Sector and Role**

****

**Figure 1**

Set within this educational context, the implications for effective ITP are far reaching.

The *School Workforce in England Report* (November 2013) indicates some pertinent changes in our schools’ employee demographic (D*f*E, 2014). Between 2012 and 2013 there has been an increase in the number of teachers without QTS. Teachers without QTS now represent 3.8 per cent of all teachers in state-funded schools (compared with 3.3 per cent in 2012). A re-elected Conservative government pledges an increase of approximately 500 more Free Schools by 2020 (Prime Minister David Cameron, March 2015, West London). The number of teachers without QTS in free schools has risen to over 200 and represents 13.3 per cent of their 1.5 thousand FTE teachers. In 2013, 96.2 per cent of FTE teachers have Qualified Teacher Status down from 96.7 per cent in 2012. Whilst schools have always had the jurisdiction to employ staff without QTS, the need and indeed the demand *for* QTS seems ever more vulnerable in this new smorgasbord of personnel in our schools.

The report (updated 7 August, 2014) also outlined the range of qualifications held across the profession in relation to responsibilities undertaken and explored issues surrounding ‘Teacher Flows and Wastage.’

The ‘degree or higher’ group of qualifications was relatively more popular in maintained secondary schools (76%) and academies (73%) than in nursery and primary schools (59%) and special schools (51%). Bachelor of Education degrees (B.Eds) accounted for relatively larger shares of teachers in nursery and primary schools (23%) and special schools (20%) than in secondary schools and academies (both 8%). Interestingly, Leadership teachers were more likely to hold B.Eds (32% of head teachers, 24% of deputy/assistant heads compared to 14% of classroom teachers). The above statistics could suggest that an investment in a longer period of ITP does equate to a longer and more successful career path. This also seems to concur with the wastage figures:

Factors statistically associated with non-retirement teacher wastage (potentially cases of ‘burn-out’) included part-time working patterns, having less than 5 years of teaching experience, overseas or Teach First training, and being aged over 40 for male teachers or over 50 for female teachers (D*f*E, 2010, p.2).

Factors that made leaving less likely were work-based or undergraduate training routes. The least likely to leave seemed to come through the registered teacher programme (a non-graduate work-based route); teachers with this training route were one third less likely to leave than a teacher with post-graduate class-based training, all other factors being equal. Consequently, the need for theoretical underpinning, a strong pedagogical understanding and even a need for a masterly model of ITP seems somewhat defunct.

* 1. **How the Research was Conducted**

This qualitative research project was set within an interpretivist paradigm and employed a phenomenological approach. The research entailed a series of in-depth semi-structured interviews involving a small, reputational and diverse sample of experts from the field of education.

The interview questions were drawn explicitly from the literature review, often incorporating verbatim quotations to stimulate responses from the respective participants (see appendix 1). As identified by Charmaz (2006), the literature should be woven through the entire thesis; to be incorporated as data to identify areas of limited research and clarify what the research project adds to the field of enquiry. Ostensibly, the nine key questions were derived from a pilot study of 14 (see appendix 2) which broached all aspects of the historical, political and pedagogical debate. All nine cover the 3 cornerstones that form the basis for the research questions of the project.

The interviews were transcribed and coded revealing a corpus of key words. These words formed the 8 themes from which the resultant essences were extrapolated. In turn, these then formed the body of 8 questions for my work-based questionnaire which I analysed in light of the initial propositions arising out of the literature review and the 3 core research questions themselves.

As researcher in the field, I was aware of my own personal and professional values and beliefs and that they could compromise the trustworthiness of the project. Consequently, I adopted the ‘human as instrument’ stance offered by Maykut and Morehouse (1994, p.27) allowed me to experience myself as both enquirer and respondent, as teacher and learner Guba and Lincoln (1981) which is fully explored in chapter 3. Strategies such as those influenced by the work of Bassey (1999) concerning trustworthiness in research were employed to negate researcher bias and ensure objectivity. By adoptingphilosophical hermeneutics as a key component of an interpretivist approach, I also trusted in the potential of language (conversation, dialogue) to disclose meaning and truth (Gallagher, 1992; Smith, 1997) alongside and the idea that it is possible for the interpreter to transcend his or her contextual circumstances in order to reproduce the meaning or intention of the research participant. As an academic employed by a university this approach was quintessential to the success of my research.

With regard to ethical issues, BERA (2011) guidelines were followed. The permission of the participants was secured in order to obtain access. Likewise, the willing consent of the interviewees and questionnaires was gained and this was done initially by letter which explained the research (see appendix 3). The research project was explained to the interviewees and they were assured that their names and the names of their schools would not be disclosed. Permission to cite them directly was sought, and they were reassured that no quotations would be attributed to them in order to protect their identity - unless they wished for their views to be made public. The interviews were audio recorded and the transcripts analysed critically in accordance with the criteria outlined by the research questions. The questionnaires were saved electronically onto a personal pen drive, under coded pseudonyms as soon as they were received.

* 1. **Summary**

Framed by both The White Paper: *The Importance of Teaching (2010)* and *The Carter Review of ITT (2015)*, the purpose of this work-based project was to answer the central question regarding the contributions made by universities and schools to any future model of initial teacher preparation in England. Specifically, this entailed a rigorous review of the literature which included key areas of interest for the project such as educational policy-making; educational philosophy and pedagogical practices; a series of in-depth, semi-structured interviews with a small, reputational sample of experts from across the educational field as this would facilitate the collection of qualitative, rich data which, upon analysis, would enable the research questions to be answered; a work-based questionnaire to operate as confirmatory analysis of the above.

The following chapter gives a review of the current knowledge and understanding of this topic in the literature available. The literature relating to research design and methods is reviewed in the chapter 3 which also gives the justification for the methodology and methods selected. The fourth chapter presents the findings; the fifth analyses the findings before the subsequent discussion is taken up throughout the sixth chapter. Chapter 6 offers conclusions and recommendations by challenging, extending and hypothesising about the knowledge base of what constitutes effective initial teacher preparation. Finally, chapter 7 outlines the dissemination strategy for this project wherein the outcomes of the research can be seen to benefit key stakeholders.

**Chapter 2: Review of literature**

**2.1 Introduction and Rationale**

The rationale for the literature review is to explore and reflect upon the diverse theoretical issues that surround initial teacher preparation (ITP) both in England and internationally; to connect explicitly with relevant policy initiatives such as *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) and *The Carter Review of ITT* (2015) and to construct an argument about the educational relevance of this study.

The review of literature seeks to examine the multifarious and complex issues that are inherent within ITP in England. By attempting to construct a theoretical framework for the study, it was important first to provide a substantive basis from which key questions and issues could be identified. Indeed, such a basis should be seen almost as:

An explanatory device which explains…in narrative form, the main things to be studied - the key factors, constructs or variables - and the presumed relationship among them (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.18).

Changes in patterns of educational governance and in the cultural contexts of education are fundamental indicators of historical change. New forms of educational governance place new demands on all levels of education as the state commonly seeks ways to adapt education policy to meet the diverse needs of emergent domestic and international economic, political and social pressures. An historical perspective, therefore, was considered to be quintessential in contextualising the review as a whole.

The review is framed around three broad themes which together combine to provide contextual cornerstones of the study. Initially, the discussion will engage literature concerning the perceived tensions of the dichotomy between Initial Teacher Training (ITT) and Initial Teacher Education (ITE). Historical perspectives are then explored with the intention of better understanding the chronological series of events that have occurred to inform the current state of initial teacher preparation. This aspect, is intrinsically and inevitably linked to political perspectives, and as such, is critically reviewed within the same section. The review then turns to wider philosophical perspectives which are then analysed in light of the preceding sections before a wider and international consideration is afforded to global perspectives in the 21st Century.

The whole review and each of its three cornerstone sections reflect Rudestam and Newton’s (1992) metaphor of film-making to describe literature reviews noting that in film-making there are ‘long shots’, ‘medium shots’ and ‘close ups.’ It is important to provide a panorama of perspectives first, before critically and analytically honing in on the macro detail. Influential writers in the field drawn from that panorama include Ian Menter, Andrew Hobson, Linda Darling-Hammond, Fred Korthagen and Anne Edwards. Each has a strong, published academic profile and each offers diverse, national and international perspectives on the matter under scrutiny.

**2.2 The Dichotomy of Effective Initial Teacher Preparation: Training or Education?**

This phenomenon is particularly relevant to the problem driving this research because the connotations of ‘training’ and those of ‘education’ carry distinct differences which serve to segregate perspectives on what constitutes effective initial teacher preparation. This divide in the concept of just what it is that makes for effective ITP lies at the very heart of the educational and philosophical debate and is reflected in the plethora of literature and research findings on the topic.

Through the literature, the notion of a dichotomy existing between initial teacher education and initial teacher preparation proved to be most contentious. More often than not the literature signposts this dichotomy as research versus practice presenting this tension as a combative relationship between universities – considered to be the locus of research, and schools - the arena for practice. Hoekstra, Beijaard, Brekelmans and Korthagen (2007) broach this problem and offer a helpful starting point to contextualise the debate and direct the review. Korthagen contends that the gap between research and practice seems to have increased rather than diminished during the second part of the 20th century.

Thus the purpose of the paper is to restart an in-depth analysis of the relation between educational research and educational practice by drawing upon six perspectives from various countries thus setting the findings in a global context. A dominant finding was of a gap between professional cultures and a need for much greater collaboration between researchers and practitioners. The absence of a culture of learning communities revealed an uneasy relationship not only in terms of where best to locate research, but what constitutes *relevant* educational research for teachers of the future.

Fundamental to this complex issue is teachers’ own preconceived notions of what effective teaching - and subsequently, ITP - should look like. Teachers’ own preconceptions show a remarkable resistance to change (Joram and Gabriele, 1998). This can in part be explained by their firm roots in the many years of experiences that teachers themselves have had as pupils within the educational system (Lortie, 1975). Equally challenging is the claim made by Stofflett and Stoddart (1994) that teachers’ beliefs about how a subject should be taught are strongly influenced by how they themselves learned the subject matter (see Huibregtse, Korthagen and Wubbels, 1994). Delpit also suggests that as human beings we each have our own ‘own cultural lenses’ (1995, p.151) which operate involuntarily, below the level of conscious awareness and to temper that, a commitment to open enquiry, the enlargement of perspectives, and the crossing of boundaries are critical features of the ideal of university education. Conversely, Clark and Lampert (1986) state that teachers:

Are expected to accomplish complex and even conflicting goals. Under these circumstances, *a priori* knowledge identified by researchers about the relationship among particular decisions or actions and their outcome is of limited worth (1986, p.28).

The very nature of teaching and the complexities inherent in the learning process means that teachers often have to respond to a range of situations and challenges each and every lesson of the day thus making the application of theory into practice far from straightforward. Indeed, the bearing that complex psychological and sociological phenomena can have upon educational processes invites a range of additional views that present further challenges in determining the nature of effective initial teacher training or education. The literature also revealed that educational experts too, hold diverse opinions as to how best use theory and that different theories may ultimately yield different perspectives on any one aspect of the teaching and learning process. Consider Carr’s notion espoused in *‘Education Without Theory?’* (2006):

That educational theory is simply an expression of a widely felt need to ground our beliefs and actions in knowledge that derives from some authoritative, external and independent source. Although this need cannot be denied, I am nevertheless going to argue that no such authoritative, external and independent source exists and hence that educational theory is nothing other than the name we give to the various futile attempts that have been made over the last hundred years to stand outside our educational practices in order to explain and justify them. And what I am going to propose on the basis of this argument is that the time has now come to admit that we cannot occupy a position outside practice and that we should now bring the whole educational theory enterprise to a dignified end (Carr, 2006, p.137).

There is still a lack of research relating to the beliefs, practices and pedagogical thinking of teacher educators (John, 1996). So these conflicting professional identities, coupled with broad disagreement as to the appropriateness of theory to the practicum seem to lie at the heart of the problem about effective ITP and in turn, raised the first key question for the interviews: what, *if any*, theoretical input is relevant and where is it best located to maximise its impact upon learning?

O'Hear (1988), for example, argued that the essence of good teaching is knowledge and love of the subject to be taught and mastery of the practical skills of teaching. Neither of these is best learned from the kind of theoretical study of teaching which dominates teacher training courses. Many candidates are already qualified to teach and they do not need a formal course of teacher training. The kernel of O'Hear's argument is that:

Teaching is a practical matter, one best learned by doing, under the guidance of experienced practical teachers (1988, p.6).

While he claims that a qualification at degree level is appropriate for secondary teachers:

It is debateable whether a degree rather than a good general education, perhaps not extending much beyond 'A' level, is really necessary for primary school teachers' (ibid, p.19).

For O’Hear, teacher training courses are characterized as being full of trivia and obsessed with questions of race and inequality. It is concluded that formal teacher training is unnecessary for most teachers. Equally, Simon articulates how:

Those who wished to teach, having the appropriate social origins including a degree at Oxford or Cambridge, could learn through experience, on the job. Certainly no special training was necessary […] The dominant educational institutions of this country have had no concern with theory, its relation to practice, with pedagogy (1981, p.13).

Whereas for Sykes, Bird and Kennedy (2010) progress in teacher training is triply troubled as it addresses the nature of teaching in schools, its own institutionalization in universities, and the relations between school and university. In their article, *Serving Too Many Masters*, Rosenberg and Sindelar (2000) discuss the proliferation of ill-conceived and contradictory policies and practices in teacher education and also suggest that teacher educators face contradictory demands, both inside and outside of their institutions e.g. having to address legislative mandates for curriculum coverage, restrictive institutional rules and regulations, and students' growing consumer orientation. Their most pertinent assertion is that all initial teacher preparation content is actually ‘political putty, ready to be shaped by decision makers in response to hot-button issues’ Rosenberg and Sindelar (2000, p.189).

Sleeter (2008) goes further and claims that:

External assaults that have their origins in global economic and political restructuring aim not only to deprofessionalize teaching by devaluing professional preparation of teacher, but also to undermine equity and democracy by restructuring education around corporate needs (Sleeter, 2008, p.1947).

This rather disparaging view is extended by Judge who called teacher education ‘a deeply institutionalized error’ (Judge,1982, p.34), claiming that the individual parts of teacher preparation – subject matter preparation lodged in the disciplines, educational coursework in the schools of education, and practice teaching in the schools – could not be made to cohere. McIntyre concurs by emphasising how:

There is not, nor can there be, *any* systematic corpus of theoretical knowledge from which prescriptive principles for teaching can be generated (1980, p.296).

Cohen and Moffitt called for the establishment of an ‘educational infrastructure’ (2009, p.465) and:

A common language with which to identify, investigate, discuss, and solve problems of teaching and learning – and thus the elements of common professional knowledge and skill (ibid, p.5)

This would facilitate a common vocabulary grounded in elements of such an infrastructure, without which they argue, it is difficult to build knowledge salient to practice.

The field of teacher preparation is littered with disagreements about appropriate methods for studying teaching and teacher education, is entangled by rival conceptual schemes involving training or education, yet this profusion of guidance seems to be derived from little if any, systematic enquiry(see Sykes *et al.,* 2010). Such perspectives seemed to suggest a need for some kind of shared, and even co-constructed codified knowledge base – a pedagogy for teacher education? However, there remains no clear, shared agreement as to what constitutes a suitable pedagogy for teacher education. So despite its ubiquity, it still suffers from considerable conceptual ambiguity and identifying a shared understanding of the term is far from straightforward. The implications for any effective model of ITP presents further challenge as a result.

The problem has been longstanding. Since the early 1970s there has existed a broad ‘inability to construct a unified body of knowledge from which educational practice evolves’ (Roth, 1972, p. 9) and even a decade later a similar point was made when it was argued that there was still ‘an absence of a universally accepted body of practitioner knowledge’ (Watts, 1982, p.37). So to what can we apportion the absence of any pedagogy for teacher education? For McNamara:

A critical problem facing teachers is that the formal knowledge-base for their professional practice is weak and this enables outsiders to intrude upon their work in the classroom (1993, p. 282).

Simon’s *‘Why No Pedagogy in England?’* claimed that one reason for this lack of a universally accepted body of practitioner knowledge might be due to the fact that:

Our approach to educational theory and practice has tended to be amateurish, and highly pragmatic in character (1981, p.125).

In response, Alexander (2004) suggested that it encompasses the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform or shape it. Loughran (2006, 2008) also proposes an effective pedagogy for teacher education should establish links between the knowledge *about* learning and teaching and the practical knowledge *of (doing)* learning and teaching.

The literature revealed a recurring void between those ideals espoused in programmes of preparation and the practices commonly found in school. Lortie (2002) and Sykes *et al.,* (2010) concur and posit that the generic training offered by universities is ‘decoupled from the specific challenges and affordances resident in schools’ (2010, p. 470) and that a system of in house training could bridge the gap between education and training.

Darling-Hammond (2000) identifies the two opposing approaches as being either one where university-based preparation is replaced by ‘on-the-job training that focuses on the pragmatics of teaching’ (2000, p.166) or else one where ‘professional training is expanded to prepare teachers for more adaptive, knowledge-based practice’ (ibid, p.166). Haggarty (2002) also captures the essence of this dichotomy:

On the one hand we have those who see teaching as sufficiently routine that they only see a need to find the procedures for practice: in situations like …x… put into place procedure …y… and the issue is resolved. In this conception of teaching, little rationale exists for substantial teacher education courses. If teaching can be routinised in this way then only modest training needs to be put in place to tell student teachers how to apply each set of routines (Haggarty, 2002, p.1).

If teaching is conceived in this way, then the emergent rise of more perfunctory and pragmatic routes into the classroom seem appropriate. If, however, one perceives teaching to be responding to the complex needs of individual learners and therefore making multiple decisions in far from routine situations, then this emphasises the *appropriateness* of teaching decisions which are informed by theoretical ideas, contextual demands, and values.

To regard teaching in this light, it an intellectually challenging task in which teachers continually examine and hone their practice. Whilst the former set of beliefs result in the need for a ‘training’ course, the latter result in the need for an ‘education’ course (Haggarty, 2002). Pring (2011) clarifies the conceptual differences between notions of ‘instruction’, ‘training’ and ‘teaching’ which are pertinent to the study, offering a notion of teaching that transcends current neo-managerial language. Critically appraising policy and practice surrounding effective ITP, Wringe (2011) too, questions the representation of teaching as a ‘craft’ in current policy discourse in England. He claims that there may be certain routine procedures, as well as role-specific skills, which teachers need and for which a workplace-based training led by practitioners might be most suitable. However, teachers must also be educated and should be able to appreciate that notions of education are contested, with some arguably of greater worth than others. Foreman-Peck (2012) also challenges the assumption that it is sufficient for ITP programmes to focus solely on the immediate conditions of learning and teaching in the classroom, claiming that it is necessary to nurture teachers so that they have the resources to sustain a career in the longer term.

These views led me to consider the level of influence one’s own educational philosophy has upon how you conceive effective teacher preparation. In terms of its status, many have argued that theory provides no clear cut prescription for practice. Ardent views define the literature encompassing extreme responses to this issue. For example, Pring (1996); Munby, Russell, and Martin (2001) speak of the arrogance of the teacher educators who posit that ‘all that our students need to do to develop professional knowledge is to practice what teacher educators have preached’ (Munby *et al.,* 2001, p.897). Whilst others such as the wide variability among teachers in their effectiveness, any model of preparation that relies substantially on long periods of apprenticeship could compromise the quality of teacher preparation and student longevity in the profession beyond the context in which they were trained. Indeed, Imig and Imig (2008) contend that:

Traditional routes to initial teacher certification, consisting of university-based coursework and supervised pre-service field experiences, have long faced public criticism for being ineffective in preparing teachers (Imig and Imig, 2008, cited in Kumashiro, 2010, p.56).

Whilst Feimen-Nemser (2001) claims that teacher educators typically overload student teachers with too much information that they might need in the future. Edwards, Gilroy and Hartley (2002) posit that the actual practical situations that teachers and teacher educators find themselves in are so pressing, varied and uncertain that, such professionals have to make use of what they regard as a ‘contextualist approach to knowledge’ (2002, p.51).

Through two studies of teacher education in Europe by Buchberger and Beernaert (1995) present two key assertions:

1. It is debatable whether (prospective) teachers may acquire problem solving capacity in those models of ITE which focus on the transmission of knowledge products or on recipes for practice (Buchberger and Beernaert,1995, p.402).
2. That static conceptions of teacher education have the hidden assumptions that initial teacher education has the ability to:

Equip prospective teachers with all those competencies that seem to be necessary to competently fulfil the tasks of the teaching profession over a life-long career, and at the same time to develop the problem-solving capacity necessary to meet rapidly changing tasks of teaching and the teaching profession (Buchberger *et al.,* 2000, p.403).

Equally, teacher candidates often become confused about what pieces of information are important, and they find that much of the information they are given is not directly useful when they undertake their teaching practice in schools (Hobson *et al.,*2006; Ure, Gough, and Newton 2009). Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005), Haggar and McIntyre (2006) and Kosnik and Beck (2009) suggest that these problems can be avoided if teacher educators *prioritise* what beginning teachers need to know. But exactly what kind of knowledge should be prioritised during initial teacher preparation remains contested.

Ure (2010) points to a more united possibility in her paper *Reforming Teacher Education through a professionally applied study of teaching.* Written in response to high numbers of qualified teachers leaving profession in Australia after three years, she cites State (Victoria Parliament Education and Training Committee 2005) and national (Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training 2007) reviews of teacher education conducted in 2005 and 2007 who found that graduate teachers needed to be more *classroom ready* and more able to address the learning needs of students.

The State Parliamentary review (Victoria Parliament Education and Training Committee 2005) concluded that the quality of teacher education would be strengthened if universities established closer partnerships with schools and increased the amount of time teacher candidates spent in schools. Academic discussion about these publications focused on how best to prepare graduate teachers who identified teaching as a *practice-based* profession and how to ensure they were able to use evidence-informed decision making processes in their practice. The conclusion was that the potential existed for the development for a new pedagogy for the study of teaching and learning that emulated a clinically based practice model of teacher education.

A key question for the interviews, therefore, would also be to ascertain views on where the most effective preparation for teachers should be if schools themselves are not yet ready to accommodate training adult learners ‘on the job’ and universities hold hard to a profession that should be underpinned by theory. This encouraged me to question the traditionally privileged position of theory over practice and the inherent tensions between theory and practice. Although there is widespread use of the language of ‘training’, ‘providers’ and ‘delivery’ and the common sense notion that almost anyone can teach, research from the United States paints a rather different picture:

The complexity of teaching and the variability of the context work together to help justify the view of the teacher as a thinking, decision-making, reflective and autonomous professional. Because teaching is complex, and contexts vary, teachers themselves need to make decisions and reflect on their situations and teaching in order to act appropriately in their classrooms. Training in particular practices is no longer the dominant approach to teacher education and staff development; training has given way to education, and the focus is on developing ways of thinking and exposing teachers to many different strategies (Richardson and Placier, 2001, p.914).

Furthermore, in her paper *How Teacher Education Matters*, Darling-Hammond draws on Dewey (1929) to defend initial teacher education notably in response to the rise of alternative teacher preparation programmes which she perceives as little more than emergency hiring options (Darling-Hammond, 2000). She asserts that by furnishing them with greater understanding of complex situations rather than controlling them with ‘simplistic formulas or cookie cutter routines’ (2000, p.170) teachers will be empowered.

Hatton (1988), drawing on the work of Lévi-Strauss (1966), takes this standpoint further and argues how such an approach to ITP would lead to teacher conservatism and ‘a tendency to accommodate rather than transcend’ (Hatton, 1988, p.340) She also argues that the process results in limited creativity: ‘a limited bag of tricks and reliance on concrete rather than abstract theory’ (ibid, p.340). She goes on to suggest that teachers’ use of theory is dominated by sensory rather than abstract concepts leading to ‘a ragbag of common sense or taken-for-granted beliefs and folk psychology’ (ibid, p.341).

A key role of the university is to provide a forum for students to reflect, empathise and hypothesise about their practice:

Command of scientific methods and systematised subject matter liberates individuals; it enables them to see new problems, devise new procedures, and in general, makes for diversification rather than for set uniformity (Dewey,1929, p.12).

The nature of initial teacher preparation programmes warranted further scrutiny due to the variety now available to prospective teachers. For instance, level of study – under-graduate or post-graduate, modes of study and delivery, duration of course, location of training and assessment only routes in the English education system. Darling-Hammond, Berry and Thoreson (2000) posed the question: *Does Teacher Certification Matter?* This paper offered a challenge to Dan Goldhaber and Dominic Brewer’s article in the Summer 2000 issue of Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis that claimed teacher certification does *not* matter for student achievement. The debate provided this study with an international perspective on ITP and offers some interesting hypotheses for the research project whose focus was the English education system.

Yet teachers who are well-prepared to face and meet the challenges of the classroom appear to be better able to use teaching strategies that respond to students' needs and learning styles and that encourage higher order learning (Hansen, 1988; Skipper and Quantz, 1987). The locus of this preparation is a contentious element of the discussion and forms a crucial component of this study. Darling-Hammond *et al.,* (2000) claim that teachers recruited through short-term alternate routes such as Teach First America, that have found that such recruits tend to have greater difficulties planning curriculum, teaching, managing the classroom, and diagnosing students' learning needs and that they tend to be much less satisfied with their training (Darling-Hammond, Hudson and Kirby, 1987; Jelmberg, 1996). This raised some questions about the current range of routes into teaching available here in England and any associated implications for this mode of preparation, for example Teach First.

Kumashiro (2010) articulates a cautious view by suggesting that support for any alternative routes into teaching signals not merely an increase in competition for teacher preparation programmes but and perhaps more significantly, a devaluing of teacher education altogether. This potential denigration of the profession seemed a central line of enquiry that required further scrutiny through the interviews particularly as Hammond *et al.,* claimed that a number of studies have found that principals, supervisors, and colleagues tend to rate recruits from such truncated programmes less highly on their instructional skills. However, the recruits tended to leave teaching at higher-than-average rates (Darling-Hammond, Hudson and Kirby, 1989; Lutz and Hutton, 1989; Stoddart, 1992; Shen, 1997).

Although this study is over 20 years old, their findings resonate with more recent studies such as Hobson, Malderez, Tracey and Pell:

The most successful offer a streamlined, carefully constructed curriculum that integrates courses on learning theory, development, teaching methods, and subject matter knowledge with an intensively supervised internship prior to entry. Because they are tailored to the specific needs of recruits and are undertaken in partnership with nearby schools, they can concentrate preparation within a 9-12 month programme and provide the additional mentoring that really prepares candidates to teach (Hobson *et al.,*2006, p.53).

Darling-Hammond *et al.,* (2000) conclude by stating that ‘programmes offering a few weeks of summer training before new hires are thrown into the classroom … have proven to be even lower in quality than the programmes they aim to replace’ (NCTAF, 1996, p.53) and citing a number of studies that found lower levels of effectiveness and retention for teachers trained in these programmes. She also cites four separate evaluations of Teach For America 3-8 week summer training programmes which found that the programme did not prepare candidates adequately (Grady, Collins and Grady, 1991; Popkewitz, 1995; Roth, 1993; Texas Education Agency, 1993).Moreover, 58% of those who started in 1990 had left before their third year leaving a two year attrition rate - three times the national average for USA for new teachers.

An important question to include in the interviews would be one that garners views not only about content and location of preparation, but also about the appropriate *length* of such preparation. Forde, Dickson and McMahon (2011) consider a revised model of professional education and development for beginning teachers. Their suggestion would be that for the professionalization of the workforce, teacher learning should be structured over the phases of a career long continuum (OECD, 2005; European Commission, 2007). This approach would reduce the pressures students experience during ITP allowing them to focus solely upon what is required during the early stages of their career. Teachers require time to learn; time to be able to articulate both what they are doing and why they are doing it (Hill and Crevola, 1999, cited in Fullan, Hill and Crevola, 2006). Continued professional development and learning would also lend itself to a masters’ level profession. Could this present a *train* first, *educate* later model of teacher preparation?

**2.3 A Place for the Ivory Tower? Theory Scepticism**

The relationship between theory and practice has remained the central problem of teacher education world-wide (Lanier and Little, 1986 cited in Korthagen 2010, p.408).

Through his discussion of the technical-rationality model Schön (1983) asserted that:

Professional activity consists in instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique (Schön,1983, p.21).

This is predicated on three fundamental assumptions:

1. Theories help teachers to perform better in their profession;
2. These theories must be based on scientific research;
3. Teacher educators should make a choice concerning the theories to be included in teacher education programmes.

If we are to subscribe to this notion, then the future for teacher education and the role of the university in this process seems secure. However, now in 2015, the landscape has changed markedly and there is a growing appetite from both Government and schools themselves for the profession to be more embedded in current, classroom practices in preference to what may be perceived as a disconnect between those courses which are university-based. This view of teaching necessitates more of an holistic judgement about what, when and how to teach in relation to a particular class, and that this is something for which it is hard to prepare teachers. Menter captures this issue concisely as:

A disarticulation of the theoretical and intellectual foundations of professional and pedagogic knowledge leading to a schism between professional and academic qualifications (Menter, 2011).

If regarded as an enquiry-based profession, he believes that there needs to be more rigorous research done *on* and *in* the field. Menter’s views seem to echo the successes in Finland and the 2005 review of teacher education in Finland reported by Niemi and Jakku-Sihoven (2006); (Sahlberg, 2014). They concur with the view that teacher candidates should learn to use evidence in teaching and learning. Three decades of continuous review of teacher education in Finland has established a framework for the accreditation of teacher education programmes that includes a capacity for research. All beginning teachers are required to know about recent advances in research in the subject(s) they teach and to have a general understanding of teacher education research. In addition, they are expected to develop an internalised research attitude toward the task of teaching and to learn to apply this knowledge through active processes in schools rather than through passive processes and on campus study.

Similarly, for Hargreaves (1995) research, enquiry, critical reflection and understanding are the essential qualities and comprise the `distinct’ social contribution of the university to teacher education. Yet, the:

Deinstitutionalization of teacher preparation appears at best to be replacing university-based marginality and irrelevance, with a diffuse utilitarianism that accommodates new teachers to the norms and standards of existing practice, instead of helping them elevate these standards to a higher plane (Hargreaves,1995, p.28).

This view, however, is juxtaposed by many, including Pring who confronts the role of universities in effective teacher preparation and criticises the:

Poor state of theory, the all-too-often peddling of personal values from a public position on the basis of theoretically questionable authority, the consequent separation of that theory and these values from the world of practice (1996, p.15).

A cadre of teacher education commentators also call for a rethink on teacher education (see for example Hattie, 2009; Dinham *et al.,* 2008; Korthagen *et al.,*2006). Most pointedly John Hattie, an educational researcher, argues: ‘the current teacher training model is bankrupt’ (2011, p.1). Key questions for the interviews would therefore need to elicit perspectives on the role Universities in light of these views and if Schön’s technical-rationality model has any resonance in twenty first century classrooms. If not, then can there ever be professional and academic consensus over what constitutes effective initial teacher preparation?

**2.4 Beginning Teachers’ Perspectives on Their Initial Preparation for the Classroom: Student or Trainee?**

Hobson, Malderez, Tracey and Pell (2006) conducted a six-year longitudinal study of beginner teachers’ experiences of initial teacher preparation (ITP) and early professional development in England.Themain findings are that in general, many student teachers enter ITP with an apprenticeship orientation to their own learning of teaching and with a number of concerns relating particularly to workload, pupil behaviour and personal finances.

Sugrue (1996) also contends that trainees’ prior beliefs can create barriers in their receptiveness to different aspects of ITP programmes, whilst Wubbels (1992) and Korthagen, *et al.,*(2001) have shown that student teachers’ preconceptions about teaching and student learning can impact on their experience of ITP and their early professional development. Feiman-Nemser, McDiarmid, Melnick, and Parker (1989) amongst others (Fosnot, 1996; Edwards and Ogden, 1998), have thus argued that:

Unless teacher educators help their students surface and examine initial beliefs and assumptions, these taken-for-granted ideas may distort the lessons taught and learned during teacher preparation (Feiman-Nemser *et al.,* 1989, p.1).

If this is the clientele of the future, then it suggests that initial teacher educators should radically change ‘what’ kind of knowledge is pertinent and indeed, place greater onus upon the ‘how’ and ‘why’. The university, with its broader frame of reference is perhaps better suited to facilitate this.

Any prevalent culture of anti-intellectualism or pressures of a marketplace economy are also felt in the classroom. Students increasingly regard themselves as consumers and their instructors as service providers. In the marketplace paradigm, consumers make demands on providers, and providers are expected to cater to consumer demands. These relationships invert the traditional values of higher education. Teacher-education students have long criticized the content of their curricula, and teacher educators have long countered with the idea that beginning teachers do not yet know what they need to know (Burden, 1986).

The wider literature also revealed a crucial difference in perceptions of initial teacher preparation between those pursuing either Primary or Secondary courses. Consequently, the nature of their preparation is different and can include quite disparate priorities. This would have significant implications for the interview questions if one size - or pedagogy - is attempting to suit all.

To address this concern, Grenfell (1996) suggested that fragmentation of theory and practice could actually be beneficial, on the grounds that through grappling with the different positions of, or contradictions between, the separate *fields* of schools and universities, student teachers come to develop their pedagogic understanding.

This view is challenged by Smith (2001), however, who contends that dissonance between schools and universities does not necessarily foster pedagogic development for all trainees, and may be unlikely to do so for those who fail to acknowledge the merit in one of the positions (for example, the university-based position) and thus, effectively, fail to engage with differences *between* the sites.

Research findings from Hobson (2002) would certainly corroborate this view.

He found that the majority of student teachers enrolled on four one-year secondary PGCE programmes in England expected to learn more from time spent in schools and with school-based mentors than from time spent in universities and with university tutors. Summarising various studies, Tomlinson highlighted three amongst a range of possible student teacher stances on the learning of teaching. He suggested that some trainees subscribe to ‘…a ‘behaviourist-didactic’ conception of initial teacher preparation (ITP) as being ‘told what to do’’ (Tomlinson, 1999, cited in Hobson *et al.,*2006, p.60), whilst some ‘…hold the view that one *only* learns to teach by getting into the action and ‘having a go oneself’…’, (ibid, p.60 ), and others come to their courses with ‘…a talent view of capability of the ‘teachers are born, not made’ kind’ (ibid, p.60).

Moreover, the respective priorities for beginning teachers on both phases are substantively different. Capel (2001) surveyed student teachers at different stages of a secondary PGCE programme and found that at the beginning of their programme, trainees were most concerned with *‘*maintaining the appropriate degree of class control’ whilst, over time, there was an increased need to know how to address wider teaching skills such as meeting the needs of different kinds of learners. Berry and Loughran (2002) note that student teachers are often concerned most, in the early stages of their ITP, with *what* they teach as opposed to *how* they might teach it or *why* they might employ different teaching methodologies in different contexts.

It was clear that the implications for the respective *content* of teacher preparation courses – whether it be theoretical, practical or enquiry-based – and the value placed upon it by the ‘customer base’, should be more fully explored through the interview schedules.

**2.5 Wider Contextual Perspectives**

It is only by carefully studying the past that we can come to anticipate the future and to understand the present (Durkheim, 1977, p. 9).

The field of education and the world of teaching are informed by and responsive to the needs of any given population at any given time. To explore fully the current landscape of ITP, critical consideration of the historical, political and philosophical perspectives that have and indeed continue to inform and shape the debate is provided below. This is important to the study as it reflects how susceptible ITP still is to the changing political priorities of the respective times.

**2.5.1 Historical Perspectives**

Some historical background was required to frame the debate surrounding teacher preparation and to offer some kind of context to the current landscape. If possible, I was keen to reveal at what point the seeming erosion of the profession began - to whom or to what can we apportion the demise of teacher education? A brief narrative follows to offer a simplistic chronology of events from mid nineteenth century leading to the landscape of the present day. The implications of this overview are synthesised with respondents’ perspectives and explored critically in chapter 5.

From the middle to the second half of the nineteenth century, universities began to provide courses specifically for teachers. Among the new universities and university colleges, Owens College, Manchester, seems to have been the first to take an interest in teacher education. It provided evening classes for working elementary school teachers as early as 1852 (Thomas, 1978). But plans for further developments did not seem welcome. A suggestion that the college should incorporate a teacher training college was rejected by the Senate on the grounds that it would introduce a number of young men of a ‘somewhat miscellaneous description’ (cited in Fiddes, 1937, p.170), and one historian saw the rejection of the scheme as a happy escape:

The Union of a Training School with the College would have brought down the latter to the level of the former (cited in Sadler, 1911, p.24).

Despite the universities' caution, a major development in the provision of teacher education in universities took place in 1890 as a result of the report of the Cross Commission, set up in 1886 to evaluate the working of the Elementary Education Acts. Until the report of the Cross Commission of 1888 suggested that universities should be involved with teacher training as a way of meeting the failings of the 'learning on- the-job' approach identified by the 1861 Newcastle Commission, most elementary school teachers ‘received only a minimum of training as pupil teachers’ (Patrick, Bernbaum and Reid, 1982, p.2).

The 1902 Education Act highlighted the inadequacies of traditional training and a closer engagement with the theory of education began to place stress on the pupil as an individual to be developed intellectually, physically, aesthetically, morally, and emotionally (Kandel, 1955, cited in Lester Smith 1957).

The late nineteenth and early twentieth century witnessed significant developments in the fields of both psychology and pedagogy. Clandinin (1995) calls this ‘the sacred theory-practice story’ (cited in Korthagen, 2010, p.32) and Carlson (1999) speaks about the ‘theory-to-practice approach’ (cited in Korthagen, 2010, p.33). However, the theory-to-practice model proved problematic, vulnerable to subjectivism and personal preferences leading to teacher education programmes in which experts in certain domains taught their ‘important knowledge’ to prospective teachers. As Barone, Berliner, Blanchard, Casanova, and McGowan (1996) argue the result was that many programmes consisted of a collection of isolated courses in which theory was presented with negligible connections to practice.

Furthermore, there were tensions between public and private school systems. Historically, there has been a clear divide between public and grammar school heads in their perception of teacher training, which they viewed as being:

Perhaps relevant and important for an elementary school teacher, but certainly not to someone taking up the gentlemanly profession of teaching in a public school ... no special training was necessary (Simon 1981, p.126).

Yet even then there were those who challenged this classism. Thring asked:

How can those who have never taught a child be authorities on teaching? Is teaching the only subject in which ignorance is knowledge? (Thring, 1899, cited in Lester Smith, 1957, p.154).

By contrast, the nineteenth century elementary school tradition assumed that teachers ‘should be trained but not educated’ (Lester Smith 1957, p.154). The essential qualities of an effective teacher were seen as the ability to maintain good discipline and to secure a limited proficiency in the 3Rs. Some of the more able elementary school pupils became pupil teachers and the best of these went on to training colleges, wherein they were taught ‘the tricks of the trade’ (Lester Smith 1957, p.155). This certainly resonates with current coalition governmental thinking as outlined in *The Importance of Teaching* (2010).

The McNair Committee was established in 1942 to consider problems of recruitment, supply and training of teachers. The challenges for this committee is a familiar one from a twenty first century perspective - to unify and ensure equity across the multifarious routes into teaching i.e. 83 recognised training colleges, 22 university training departments, and 16 specialist colleges for art teachers. The McNair Committee's Report, published in 1944, made various recommendations including a three year training course (not implemented until 1960) and salary increases. The Report, coupled with the 1944 Education Act, represented official acknowledgement of the professional status of teachers.

This gradual correlation between professionalism, a mass schooling, welfare and post-war reconstructionist ideologies and the making of a democratic society acknowledged the crucial position of teachers: as heroes of reconstruction, as pedagogic innovators, as carers, as partners of and within the public (Lawn, 1999).

Throughout the 1950s, teachers were regarded as ‘the bedrock of the new welfare society, as the founders of the reconstruction of the education system and as the guardians of the citizenry of the future’ (Lawn, 1999, p.102). Crucially, as professionals they were ‘partners in the deliberations of policy, able to influence the direction and control of the system’ (ibid, p.102).

The 1960s also witnessed significant developments in teacher preparation. Training courses were extended from two to three years in 1960 and in 1963 the *Robbins Report* *Higher Education* proposed the introduction of four year B.Ed degree courses consisting of education and two other main subjects. Yet that report, too acknowledged that:

We do not think that anyone can yet claim a monopoly of wisdom about the most constructive intermixture of theory and practice in the education and training of a teacher. The pattern should allow for experiment in this respect (1963, p,115).

In 1964 brought the establishment of the Schools' Council with the recommendations of the *Lockwood Report*, whose guiding principle was that:

The schools should have the fullest possible measure of responsibility for their own work, including responsibility for their own curriculum and teaching methods, which should be evolved by their own staff to meet the needs of their own pupils (cited in Watkins, 1993, p.81).

The 1972 James Report *Teacher Education and Training* examined course content, the different types of training institution. It proposed a radical reorganisation of teacher training into three stages: a) general higher education course - a degree, a new qualification, or a two-year Diploma in Higher Education; b) a year of professional studies followed by a year as a 'licensed teacher' (replacing the existing probationary year). Successful completion of these four years would result in a BA(Ed); c) in-service training which James recommended should amount to the equivalent of at least a term every seven years for all teachers in post.

The teacher unions strongly opposed the 'licensed teacher' proposal and little was done to try to implement it - perhaps reflecting the status of the voice of the profession at that time? But:

The principle of integrating teacher training into higher education was accepted by the government, and throughout the 1970s colleges of education merged with other further education establishments, such as technical and art colleges, to form colleges and institutes of Higher Education (Mackinnon and Statham, 1999, p.28).

1984 saw the establishment of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE), which laid down standards for initial teacher training courses. By 1985, *The Importance of Teaching: Better Schools* was published. The underlying implication here was that teachers were failing their pupils and that both politicians and parents must take control of the schools. Through the 1988 Education Reform Act, teachers input in the design or construction of the National Curriculum was severely reduced. It also prepared the ground for the establishment in 1992 of the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). An interesting polemic from just two decades earlier as it signposted the need to review the impact and influence of government and subsequent political change in relation to teacher preparation. Prime Minister John Major declared that:

Primary teachers should learn how to teach children to read, not waste their time on the politics of gender, race and class (9th October, 1992).

The curriculum was already entirely a matter for central government and the 1994 Education Act now enabled them to control pedagogy itself. For example, in 1999 the Moser Report *Improving Literacy and Numeracy: A fresh start* led to the introduction of the National Literacy Strategy and of National Learning Targets. The Conservatives had told teachers what to teach. New Labour now set about telling them how to teach it explicitly.

The Literacy Hour and later the Numeracy Hour - laid down exactly *what* was to be taught and *how* it was to be taught - even specifying how many minutes each activity within a lesson should last. By 2004, Wragg declared that, ‘Today state control is regarded as the norm’ (cited in Gillard, 2005, p.16) and asked:

How on earth have we reached a situation where every tiny detail in education is laid down by the state? (cited in Gillard, 2005, p.16).

The historical context as discussed above served to strengthen the conceptual framework by enabling the research to be located within a chronology that seemed to oscillate with the educational policies and philosophies of the time. Any consideration of prospective models of initial teacher preparation in the future, therefore, would be limited without giving due attention to political perspectives over this time.

**2.5.2 Political Perspectives**

The teacher is an absent presence in the discourses of education policy

(Ball,1993, p.98).

Building upon the significant historical changes from the 1980s and 1990s, discussed above, Gilroy (1992) captures the political move to withdraw the responsibility for teacher preparation from universities to schools. Referencing Kenneth Clarke's speech at the Annual North of England Education Conference early in 1992, he reports how schools would play a much larger part in initial teacher education, with schools being ‘handed the responsibility to train our PGCE [Post-graduate Certificate in Education, i.e. graduates on 1-year teacher-training courses] students in their classrooms’ (Clarke, 1992, p.10). He proposed breaking ‘the hold of the dogmas about teaching methods and classroom organisation’ (ibid, p.7) which higher education perpetuated. The subsequent consultation document later that month stipulated the following significant points:

* The whole process of teacher training will be based on a more equal partnership between school teachers and tutors... with the schools themselves playing a much bigger part (DES, 1992, p. 7). The ‘partnership’ is defined as:

One in which the school and its teachers are in the lead in the whole of the training process, from the initial design of a course through to the assessment of the performance of the individual student’ (DES, 1992, p.8)

* 80% of the secondary PGCE will be school-based (4 days per week)
* resources for teacher training will move from higher education to schools
* these schools will be identified by certain criteria (academic results, for example) and will include private schools
* the length of the B.Ed./BA will be reduced and these courses will also be subject to the 80% ruling for the school-based elements of their work (Clark, 1992)

By the late 1980s, the political control of teacher education had gained significant momentum with the emergence of right wing groups such as the Centre for Policy Studies, the HillGate Group and the Institute of Economic Affairs (see Hill (1989) for a response to this political shift). Higher Education Institutes were portrayed as inept providing ‘spurious and questionable studies’ with no ‘solid grounding in the real world’ (O'Hear, 1988, p.6). The course content and validity was derided and referred to as ‘the rigmarole of training’ (Cox, 1989, cited in Gilroy, 1993, p.7). Instead, teachers would require no training whatsoever in teaching their subject, with these skills being picked up during the first year of school experience, and so all certificated routes into the profession should be abolished (Lawlor, 1990).

The literature reflects how professionalism in teaching seems to have been reduced to:

Working effectively in any way the teacher is commanded to, using the skills validated and prescribed by the government and its agencies (Lawn 1999, p.109).

For politicians, teaching became ‘a form of flexible and reskilled competence-based labour’ (Lawn, 1999, p.104). Teachers would deliver an imposed curriculum, subject to an imposed assessment system, in an imposed school market. Every aspect of the education enterprise would be controlled through specification, target-setting, inspection and parental evaluation.

Wilkin (1996) claimed that ITE in England and Wales had been an important lever in various attempts by government to control classroom practices over the previous two decades. Indeed, teacher educators were derided while their work was placed under ever more stringent control by government agencies (Gilroy, 1992; Richards, 1998) and increasingly teacher educators would be required to focus less on a form of pedagogy which emphasizes how student teachers might support the development of young learners, and more on their capacity to deliver the prescribed curriculum (Richards, Harling and Webb, 1997). Sindelar and Rosenberg (2000) called for active engagement with the political debate around teacher education and the need to defend the profession thus building upon Menter’s beliefs outlined earlier in the chapter.

More optimistic than the above, Cochran-Smith (2000) suggests that despite education being a political enterprise, teachers and teacher educators have the power to shape the future of education. She argues that:

Teaching and teacher education are unavoidably political enterprises and are, in that sense, value-laden and socially constructed. Over time, they both influence and are influenced by the histories, economies, and cultures of the societies, in which they exist, particularly by competing views of the purpose of schools and schooling. Like it or not, more of us in teacher education and in the policy communities will need to engage in these public and political debates if we are to have a real voice in framing the questions that matter for the future of teaching education (2000, p.165).

Similarly, Edwards, Gilroy and Hartley highlighted the consequences of disengagement with the professional dialogue within and across teacher education when she wrote:

English teacher training is currently likely to create practitioners who have been trained in performativity against externally derived criteria rather than intelligently interpreting professional decision-makers able to respond to pupils as learners (Edwards *et al.,*2002, p. 98).

Moreover, the absence of a shared pedagogy, she warned against a system that would create teachers who are being socially constructed in teacher training are likely to become expert in the following of predetermined lesson plans (Edwards and Ogden, 1998a). Educational research and theory then should be the vehicle for change and universities – possibly in collaboration with schools. In this light, theory is a vehicle for thinking otherwise (Ball,1990). Heavily politicized forms of discourse, dominated by the measurement of concrete outcomes, need, therefore, to be undermined in order that we should think otherwise.

In this regard, it seems that educational philosophy together with notions of the child and of learning has been superseded by various political agendas. It is not difficult to see where Tooley’s call to reclaim education came from in 2000. A closer consideration of educational philosophy might elicit a deeper understanding of any prevailing rationales behind policy decisions. It may also act as a macro lens for the content of teacher preparation courses, teacher professional identity and status.

**2.5.3 Philosophical Perspectives: The Notion of Teaching**

A genealogy is a hypothetical construction - a story that offers a plausible account of how something originated. According to Bernard Williams, it is a:

Helpful fiction . . . an imagined developmental story, which helps to explain a concept or value or institution by showing ways in which it could have come about (Williams, 2002, p.21).

McEwan (2011) proposes two genealogies of teaching that serve to illustrate the perceived dichotomy of initial teacher preparation. One deriving from the sophist, Protagoras, in which teaching is viewed as a technical skill employing methods of instruction; the other, deriving from Plato, in which teaching is seen fundamentally in terms of a special relationship between teacher and pupil. In this simplified concept, teaching could be construed as a philosophical dichotomy between two fundamentally different traditions of thought about teaching which, in turn, reflects the debate about training or education discussed at the start of this chapter.

Protagoras viewed the mind or soul as an analogy with the body as something that could be shaped like a piece of sculpture (Jaeger, 1971a). Teaching, like sculpting, is an art of shaping: an art in which the teacher employs methods to shape the soul of the pupil. There are echoes here of the notion that teaching is a ‘craft’ from *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) and also of a more Socratic approach to instruction.

Conversely, Platonic conceptions of the teacher focused upon facilitating learning through affinity, a reciprocal relationship. Teaching in Plato’s view involves dialogic engagement with pupils. McEwan captures the distinction:

It is not a matter of doing something to someone - of putting something in that was not there before. Platonic teaching is a form of preventative care, of engaging pupils in such a way that the obscuring effects of the physical and sensual world are neutralized or removed so that the intellect and reason are allowed to operate unhindered. It is a bit like brushing away the dust from a lens so that the eyes of the soul may see more clearly (McEwan, 2011, p.131).

The two genealogies proposed by McEwan and the potential philosophical dichotomy that lies at the very heart of teaching are clearly key determiners in one’s own conception of what constitutes effective initial teacher preparation.

**2.5.4 Knowledge**

For Edwards, Gilroy and Hartley (2002) there is philosophical uncertainty in teacher education. They examine the possibility that philosophical approaches to understanding the *nature of knowledge* itself might provide the answer to the question, what constitutes effective initial teacher preparation? They also contend the view that there exists, ‘an objective knowledge-base to teacher education has not been, and cannot be, justified’(Edwards, *et al.,* 2002, p.35).

In this sense, critics of university teacher educators such as Lawlor (1990) may enjoy some affirmation as there is no knowledge-base for university teacher educators to work from. Equally, Schön’s argument that professionals work with a tacit form of knowledge which he terms *‘knowing-in-action’* and which surfaces through a process he terms ‘reflection-in-action’ (Schön, 1983, p. 54) also dilutes the potency and even the need for university-based knowledge in initial teacher preparation. Furthermore he advocates a disengagement with the creation of a new theory of knowledge to explain the nature of professional education, as there already exists a theory of knowledge that can accommodate the ‘situations of uncertainty and uniqueness’ (Schön, 1983, p.61) which Schön claims typify professional practice.

It may be useful consider teacher education, which is for *the practice of teaching*, on the one hand, and teacher education, which is about *the institution of education,* on the other. It is the psychology of education which has attended most to the former *for teaching* issues, whilst the history, philosophy and sociology of education have provided the disciplinary basis for matters *about education*. In the reforms of teacher education in the 1980s and 1990s discussed earlier, these *about education* issues have been given short shrift, whilst the *for teaching* issues have gained prominence. This could reflect a shift in educational philosophy here in England.

Edwards *et al.,* suggest there it is a ‘double fallacy’ that one has to choose between two alternatives:

Where either the disciplines or reflective practice can on their own provide the single knowledge-base to teacher education. The second is to assume that the context within which teacher education operates is a simple one so that there is a single answer to the question, *What is teacher knowledge?* (Edwards *et al.,* 2002, p. 46).

Ultimately, they conclude by arguing that philosophy can lend support to current forms of teacher education only if it is perceived as a modernist, non-contextualist, enterprise since contextualism’s acceptance of ‘the essential fluidity of knowledge’ (ibid, p.50) is a philosophy that argues against the very certainties that the current form of teacher education relies upon.

The debate is contested internationally. In the United States, Stanley highlights:

The periodic failure of critical educators to develop a consensus regarding the direction educational reform take has also been a major problem (Stanley, 1992, p.3).

He suggests that the analysis of earlier radical educational reform efforts can help to provide a rich source of knowledge and examples to inform current attempts to construct a theory of critical pedagogy. Too often, the anti-intellectual, ahistorical, and narcissistic temper of our present culture has tended to undervalue or ignore the past (Lasch, 1979).

So as Durkheim advocated in the preceding section, a strong grasp of the historical context to the debate, coupled with a clear philosophical understanding of what constitutes effective teacher preparation in relation to pedagogy, knowledge and so forth might better serve to illuminate the future path of teacher education. Stanley (1992) sought to reverse more traditional and formalistic approaches to education, believing that these approaches tended to promote more regimented and normative outcomes. Instead, he wanted to create free thinking and spirited citizens capable of problem solving. The appropriateness of a more critical pedagogy would inform the basis of subsequent interview questions.

The challenges that lie at the heart of teacher preparation extend from philosophical debate to institutionalised tensions. Mayer, Reid, Santoro, and Singh (2011) suggests we are ‘in a political moment where teacher education is increasingly being framed as a ‘policy problem’ (2011, p.80). Consequently, the policy debates around teacher education governance have become increasingly polarised:

Posing on the one hand, the deregulation and marketization of university-based teacher education (often combined with calls for increased centralised control of curriculum and pedagogy) against a defence of professionalism grounded in the academy and academic qualifications on the other (Mayer, *et al.,*2011, p.82).

Those promoting deregulation argue for regulatory standards and performance indicators over and above more traditional teacher education pathways; those calling for increased professionalism argue for policies and practices that promote professional self-regulation and semi-autonomy. The latter position highlights the complexity of teaching where challenging curriculum expectations and more diverse learners mean that teachers have to be more sophisticated in their understanding of the effects of their teaching and learning context in response to diverse learner needs. Rather than implementing set routines, teachers need to become increasingly more skilled in their ability to evaluate teaching situations and develop teaching responses that can be effective under different circumstances and in different contexts.

* **2.6 Conceptual Framework**

To conceptualise the findings born out of the literature review and to provide a tool to guide the enquiry, a conceptual framework was conceived. It provided:

A structure for organising and supporting ideas; a mechanism for systematically arranging abstractions (Weaver-Hart, 1988, p.11).

The conceptual framework also facilitated a means of testing the theory by informing the construction of the interview questions, whilst adding my own unique perspective to the field of ITP. The framework is illustrated below in figure 2:

**Conceptual Framework**

**HISTORIO - POLITICAL CONTEXTS**

**ECONOMIC CONTEXTS** (National & International)

**School-based and largely school led routes:** GTP\*; School Direct; Teach First; SCITTs and Assessment only routes

**Techno-Rationalism:**

Teaching as craft / on the job

**Training**

**PHILOSOPHICAL BELIEFS**

**Caught Between Theory & Practice: What future for Teacher Education?**

Commercial packages including CPPD

**HEI led and University-based routes:** B.Ed; P.G.C.E.

**Constructivism**

Teaching as informed enquiry

**Education**

* **2.7 Summary**

The literature review illustrates the historical, political, philosophical and epistemological challenges that enshroud teacher education both here in England and internationally. The conceptual framework is conceived by thorough engagement with the literature. It serves to illustrate the polemic, to contextualise and to frame the study.

The inherent complexities highlighted by each of these perspectives form the basis of the interview questions and subsequently, the questionnaires. How the research was undertaken is now illustrated in the next chapter.

**Chapter 3: Methodology**

**3.1 Introduction**

This chapter seeks to outline, articulate and justify the methodological approach to the study. It will provide a clear rationale for the research design including an evaluation of the theoretical framework devised and through which the project was undertaken (see appendix 4)**.**

To reiterate, through deep and critical exploration of the current educational landscape in relation to the teaching profession, the study seeks to determine what constitutes effective initial teacher preparation (ITP).Specifically through the following key research questions:

1. What constitutes effective initial teacher preparation?
2. What future is there for a strong theoretical basis upon which to prepare teachers for their careers in the education profession?
3. What impact is governmental policy having upon the status of the profession as one which is informed through research and is underpinned by theory?

A critical and focused review of the pertinent literature relating to methodological issues or tensions inherent in the research design will also be explored. Particular emphasis will be afforded to the analysis of the notion of researcher in practice and reflexivity in relation to the research methods adopted.

The philosophical underpinning for this study is closely evaluated before a justification for both the methodological paradigm selected and research approach employed is presented. A critical rationale for the sampling process is then provided followed by a critical evaluation of the selected methods of data collection.

Ethical considerations are discussed in detail ahead of evaluating the validity and reliability of the research project. This informs the subsequent section concerning the process of data analysis in light of the conceptual framework, together with any emerging issues that arose out of the processes described above.

Finally, a concluding reflective commentary on the strengths and limitations of the research design is presented in seeking to determine answers to the key research questions that pervade the whole thesis.

**3.2 Location of the research**

There is a necessary inter-relatedness about the first three strands of this section whose mutual dependency underpins the trustworthiness of the methodology. Insider researcher ⭢ reflexivity and epoche ⭢ power relations and authority. These are now discussed in turn.

**3.2.1 Insider Researcher**

As researcher in the field, I was aware of my own personal and professional values and beliefs and that they could potentially compromise the validity and reliability, or trustworthiness of the project. Strategies such as those influenced by the work of Bassey (1999) concerning trustworthiness in research were employed to negate researcher bias and maximise objectivity and are explored in more detail below.

Whilst reflexive questions were constructed to facilitate triangulated enquiry, there are inherent problems in adopting a reflexive position raising issues over authenticity and trustworthiness.

The methods employed were in-depth, semi-structured interviews and work-based questionnaires; I was not a ‘methodological omnivore’ LeCompte and Preissle (1993, p. 232) – instead, I adopted a reflexive stance throughout; the objective was not to produce any description or analysis of recursive patterns of social interaction and so data collection would be neither prolonged or repetitive. Rather, each informant’s responses would be captured verbatim in terms of both time and context. Patton (2002) captures process effectively in the figure 3 below:

**Figure 3**

*Content removed for copyright reasons*

Patton (2002, p.66)

The subjectivity of the researcher remains, as in all sciences, a potential influence on the knowledge claims that are made (Oakley,1998). To negate these I undertook an explicit reflexive stance with respect to authorship of the text. The ‘authority’ of the textual account is critically linked to the methodological stance and it was through the text that critical reflexion was mediated:

In the absence of positional benchmarks for the researcher to align with, reflexivity is a critical element of the methodology (Drake and Heath, 2011, p.45)

Such a stance may be considered to be very relativist as it inevitably leads to a position of research in relation to practice, which is academically compromised by significant power relations. However, I would contest this and support the hypothesis proposed by Clough and Nutbrown (2012) who ask if it is intellectually honest to separate our *selves*, to silence our voices as researchers within our research processes and reports.

Adopting the ‘human as instrument’ stance offered by Guba and Lincoln allowed me to:

experience myself as both inquirer and respondent, as teacher and learner, as the one coming to know the self within the process of research itself’ and with the multiple identities that represent ‘the fluid self’ within the processes of research (Guba and Lincoln,1981, p.183).

Moreover, Reinharz, contends that we not only ‘*bring* the self to the field…[we also] *create* the self in the field’ (1997, p.3). She suggests that although we all have many selves we bring with us, those selves fall into three categories: research-based selves, brought selves (the selves that historically, socially, and personally create our standpoints), and situationally created selves. Each of those selves comes into play in the research setting and consequently has a distinct voice. In this sense, reflexivity demands that we interrogate each of our selves regarding the way in which research efforts are shaped (Reinharz, 1997). As such, the ‘informed researcher’s voice no longer provides an authoritarian monologue but contributes a part to dialogue’ (Mitchell, 1993, p.55) and so concurs with Clough and Nutbrown (2012) above.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) cite studies that indicate how in a range of contexts race, religion, gender, sexual orientation, status, social class and age can also be potent sources of bias in any research project. Lee, (1993) and Scheurich, (1995) both discuss interviewer effects in relation to bias and so a central principle of this research was to be acutely self-aware of my role as researcher in the field. Both interviewer and respondents have the potential to bring experiential, biographical and professional baggage with them into the interview situation. As researcher in the field, I was extremely cognisant of the degree to which I did or did not compromise the process - consciously or otherwise - or succumb to personal bias for example, through my own personal philosophy about effective ITP or in my position as an employee of an HEI.

Patton (2002), building on the reflexive screens illustrated above, provides an insightful account of the perspective of *epoche*, which he believes to be ‘a primary and necessary phenomenological procedure’ (2002, p. 485). Here, the researcher looks inside to become aware of personal bias, to eliminate personal involvement with the subject material, that is, eliminate, or at least gain clarity about, preconceptions. He cites Katz (1987):

Epoche is a process that the researcher engages in to remove, or at least become aware of, prejudices, viewpoints or assumptions regarding the phenomenon under investigation. Epoche helps the researcher to investigate the phenomenon from a fresh and open viewpoint without prejudgement or imposing meaning too soon. This suspension of judgement is critical in phenomenological investigation and requires the setting aside of the researcher’s personal viewpoint in order to see the experience for itself (Katz, 1987, p.36-37).

It is important to regard this as an ongoing process rather than a fixed, individual event so that research findings can be collated before any judgements made or conclusions drawn thus strengthening the trustworthiness of the study.

**3.2.2. Reflexivity**

Both Patton and Katz’s discussion of *epoche* point to the need for the researcher to adopt the reflexive stance as outlined above. Shacklock and Smyth (1998) argue that reflexivity is an attempt to identify, do something about, and acknowledge the limitations of research in terms of the location, subjects, process, theoretical context, data and analysis. Reflexive accounts also recognise that the construction of knowledge takes place in the world and not apart from it and that data can function generatively as a springboard for interpretations.

Such generative capacity is conceived by Gergen as:

the capacity to challenge the guiding assumptions of the culture, to raise fundamental questions regarding social life, to foster reconsideration of what is ‘taken for granted’, and thereby to furnish new alternatives for social action’ (Gergen, 1978, p.1345).

Both *epoche* and the notion of generative capacity as outlined above were central to the effectiveness of the reflexive stance required during the interview stage of the research.

**3.2.3 Power Relations and Authority**

As a female researcher in the field, interviewing a diverse range of participants who are both powerful and influential, I was keen to acknowledge my presence within the dialogic interactions and so endeavoured to establish as non-hierarchical research relationship as possible and function as ‘co-equals’ who are ‘mutually relevant’ during the whole interview process (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, p.354).

Minimizing status differences between interviewer and respondent, and developing a more equal relationship based on trust that includes both self-disclosure by the researcher and reciprocity, can avoid the ‘hierarchical pitfall’ enabling greater openness and insight, a greater range of responses, and therefore richer data (Reinharz, 1992, p.44).

The significance of power relations should not be dismissed as an inconsequential detail that may be ignored in research questioning. Indeed, Neal (1995) explores the notions of powerlessness that can be experienced when there is a power differential (perceived or otherwise) between interviewer and interviewee. e.g. a low status female researcher and an internationally recognised leading academic from a prestigious university. The suggestion here is that the outcome of the dialogue may have been different were the interview held between two co equals from the field. However, the project sought to identify experts in the field and so actively encouraged knowledgeable and arguably more influential individuals to contribute to the study. In this sense, and in line with Foucault’s perspective, the project concurred with what Limerick, Burgess-Limerick and Grace understood power to be:

fluid and is discursively constructed through the interview rather than being the province of either party (1996, p.12).

Järviluoma, Moisala, and Vilkkohold the view that‘analysts need not and indeed cannot, step outside the practices they are investigating’ (2003, p.28). Mitchell (1993) builds on this and claims that the researcher’s relationships with those he/she studies are of the heart and of the mind: they are inseparably and simultaneously both cognitive and affective:

Researchers may fail fundamentally to meet the most crucial of fiduciary responsibilities, the responsibility for informed reporting of members’ perspectives. In insisting on expressive distance, in conducting work from positions of convenience, in relative power of control, researchers may achieve only incomplete understandings… In order to understand, researchers must be more than technically competent. They must … open themselves up to their subjects’ feeling worlds, whether those worlds are congenial to them or repulsive. They must confront the duality of represented and experienced selves simultaneously, both conflicted, both real (Mitchell, 1993, p. 54-5).

Ultimately, as Peshkin claims:

To become forthcoming and honest about how we work as researchers is to develop a reflective awareness that … contributes to enhancing the quality of our interpretive acts (2000, p.9).

The multilayers of social interaction and complexities inherent in the seeking understanding of the respondents’ perspectives provided fertile ground for the adoption of an enquiry paradigm. Within this, however, an interpretivist position was identified as the most appropriate research method for the project as this readily facilitated a phenomenological approach to interrogating the given perspectives. These are each now discussed in the next section.

**3.3 Philosophical underpinning for this study**

The knowledge that this study sought to discover is located in the field of teacher education. In the confused landscape of ITP in 2015, I felt it necessary to elicit the meanings people bring to situations and behaviour, and which they use to understand their world (O’Donoghue, 2007). Consequently, the dominant paradigm for this research project was Interpretivism. A fuller, critical appraisal of this paradigm is offered below together with a rationale for its selection.

Some consideration of social constructivism, for example, might be applicable to the project, given that constructivism is characterised by realities that are local, specific and constructed; they are socially and experientially based, and depend on the individuals or groups holdings them (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).Further critical evaluation of these notionsafforded me the opportunity to examine what Denzin and Lincoln offers up as three epistemological stances for qualitative enquiry:Interpretivism, Hermeneutics and Social Constructivism (Denzin and Lincoln (eds.) (2000). Respectively, these are discussed below in relation to the project undertaken.

**3.3.1 Interpretivism**

In seeking authentic data from the interview knowledge itself, it was important to understand and appreciate what Schutz (1962, 1967) proposed were the two dimensions of *Verstehen* that relate to interpretivism. Notably:

The complex process by which all of us in our everyday life interpret the meaning of our own actions and those of others with whom we interact (Bernstein, 1976, p.139).

Schutz focused his analysis on the notion of intersubjectivity believing that people draw on a shared set of social concepts, symbols and meanings and this could certainly be true of teacher educational professionals. Whereas symbolic interactionism shows how shared definitions are built up through communication in interaction, Schutz’s theory is that individuals share a stock of common knowledge of taken for granted assumptions about society, other actors and the world – for the purposes of this study, initial teacher preparation. For Schutz, the basic structure of the social world rests upon acts of establishing or interpreting meaning, and while interacting with each other people assume reciprocity of perspectives. The research project would endeavour to explore and analyse the validity such beliefs whilst aiming to reconstruct the self-understandings of participants engaged in specific actions such as interviews and through the questionnaire data.

The challenge for this research project, in role as practitioner researcher, was to maintain the interpretive tradition whereby the interpreter objectifies that which is to be interpreted whilst remaining unaffected by and external to the interpretive process itself. The meanings and interpretations of the participants constitute the primary interest whilst recognising that these are complex, variable and multi-faceted. In this sense, the epistemological premise is that these can only be understood from within, through the authentic voices of the participants, embedded in their contexts. The need to adopt a reflexive position was key to eliciting such voices.

Arguably, the cornerstone of interpretivism focuses upon *understanding* rather than explanation (Schwandt, 1999). While subjectivity and interpretation play their part in any enquiry, reflexive research practice as advocated by Lee (2009) offers a form of transparency around these issues. Burton, Brundrett and Jones (2008) demonstrate, non-positivist research such as my project emphasises internal over external validity. Thus the credibility of qualitative research depends on the ability and effort of the researcher (Golafshani, 2003) and so internal validity refers to what Gerring (2007) called the ‘causal effect’ of the research, that is whether or not the conclusions drawn are plausible (2007, p.44). It focuses on the way that the research findings from the data are ‘grounded in the constructions of those being researched’ (Gray, 2009, p.190) founded in the self-reflected criticality of the researcher.

The positivist ideal of value-free research would seem to be untenable in a study involving one’s own practice. Every aspect from selection of literature, identification of potential respondents and choice of research question is inherently value-laden. Moreover, as noted by Lincoln and Guba (1985), the choice of paradigm itself represents a value choice and so not even positivism can be devoid of this inherent tension.

By subscribing to interpretivism, I acknowledge the explicit recognition of being engaged in the act of interpretation from the beginning of the research process to the end. Resnick (1991) contends that:

The empiricist assumption that dominated many branches of psychology for decades, the assumption that what we know is a direct reflection of what we can perceive in the physical world has largely disappeared. In its place is a view that most knowledge is an interpretation of experience (1991, p.1).

The intention herein is for the interpretive educational research to elicit illuminating insights into the participants’ respective views and beliefs about what constitutes effective ITP.

These views could be analysed by applying the IMP model of **infiltration** (of the respective participants’ contexts), **mediation** (of the data drawn from interviewing those individuals) and **promulgation** (of my research findings) (Hardman, 2009 unpublished). Professionals - researching or otherwise, in the education system construct personal meanings when they grapple with interpreting the social world of educational policy and making meaningful the implementation of that policy in their workplace environments.

Consideration was also given over to functionalism whereby society is portrayed as being essentially integrated and cohesive, with a common set of norms and values that lead to overall consensus. In relation to the field of ITP, this largely uniform approach jarred with the disparate findings that formed the conceptual framework and left no scope for the diverse routes into teaching that were explored through both the interviews and the questionnaires. There did not appear to be any concrete consensus between the two data sets and Durkheim’s notion of ‘true education’ as being a certain number of ideas, attitudes and practices that everyone should have was not corroborated.

It could be said that the present UK government has a functionalist perspective on schooling by virtue of the National Curriculum - transmitting the same knowledge expectations and associated assessments across a wide spectrum of society. It is as if, as individuals, we ‘learn how to function’, we follow a ‘script’ of reasoned behaviour so that our behaviour is fairly predictable’ (Radnor, 2000, p.18).

It is likely therefore that teachers’ and educators’ interpretations of issues are culturally, socially and professionally constructed depending upon our orientation to the issues concerned. This may manifest itself in terms of how individuals were themselves trained to teach or what path of ITP they chose – thus confirming the research findings by Ashby, Hobson, Tracey, Malderez, Tomlinson, Roper, Chambers and Healy (2008).

A point of interest for my study and also a challenge to such a structuralist-functionalist position as this, is the fact that it places a real emphasis on the view that society is a solid entity, that the education system is reified, existing outside of those individuals that make it up and as socially and culturally defined in a set of rules that we have to follow. In essence, ‘it paints a picture of conformist actors in a deterministic social world, living within constraints’(Radnor, 2000, p.19).

A deeper understanding of interpretivism, provided by Denzin and Lincoln (1994) was helpful in distinguishing distinct differences in the philosophies of interpretivism and also *between* interpretivism and philosophical hermeneutics. Ostensibly, both these approaches share the notion that it is possible for the interpreter to transcend his or her contextual circumstances in order to reproduce the meaning or intention of the research participant (See Guba and Lincoln (1981) and Reinharz (1997) above). The tensions of trustworthiness that surround the researcher in practice would certainly seem to be alleviated by adopting such an approach and so the concept is explored below.

**3.3.2 Philosophical Hermeneutics**

Philosophical hermeneutics proffers that understanding is not, in the first instance, a procedure but more a condition of being human and that understanding *is* interpretation. Moreover, that socio-historically inherited bias or prejudice is not regarded as a characteristic or attribute that an interpreter must strive to get rid of or manage in order to come to a clear understanding. To believe this is possible is to assume that the traditions and associated prejudgments that shape our efforts to understand are easily under our control and can be set aside at will. Gallagher (1992) asserts that ‘despite the fact that traditions operate for the most part ‘behind our backs,’ they are already there, ahead of us, conditioning our interpretations’ (1992, p.91). Thus the implications of and resultant data from adopting this methodology would inevitably be determined by personal perspectives which ‘shape what we are and how understand the world. Any attempt to step outside of the process of tradition to obtain the desired authentic data would be like trying to step outside of our own skins’ (p.87).

The understanding Gallagher speaks of above requires the researcher to engage *with* ones biases rather than ignore them and is something that should be produced through dialogue, with participants rather than something that is reproduced by an interpreter. By acknowledging this, the choice and format of the semi structured, in-depth interviews and questionnaires was designed to elicit deeper levels of authenticity from the respondents and this was further supported by the deliberate use of open questions. Yet, this was not easily achieved as it is heavily reliant upon mutual trust and respect to uphold the process. Whilst I held the interviewees in high regard for their beliefs about education, not having met any of them before meant that trust had to be established swiftly from the initial point of contact. By interviewing each of them at their place of work, it was hoped that they did not feel at all inconvenienced or ill at ease during the process.

Indeed, for the purposes of the project philosophical hermeneutics’ endorsement of the notion that there is never a finally correct interpretation sits well with the employment of semi-structured, in-depth interviews as a qualitative data gathering tool. I was only able to interpret what was offered in response to those questions by those individuals on that day and at that time. However, that is not to say that the research project simply adhere to a representationalist epistemology either as this could serve to denigrate the views of the participants by suggesting that a descriptive utterance is socially made to appear stable, factual, neutral, independent of the speaker, and merely mirroring some aspect of the world (Potter, 1996). Due to this consideration, a strand of social constructionism such as perspectivism was deemed worthy or closer evaluation and now follows.

**3.3.3 Social Constructivism - Perspectivism**

A pertinent facet of perspectivism is its opposition to an empiricist epistemology that holds that there can be some kind of unmediated, direct grasp of the empirical world and that knowledge simply reflects what is out there (Fay,1996). By adoptingphilosophical hermeneutics as a key component of an interpretivist approach, the researcher trusts in the potential of language (conversation, dialogue) to disclose meaning and truth (Gallagher, 1992; Smith, 1997).

Consequently the selection of semi structured, in-depth interviews as the methodological driver for the project was considered to be the most fitting as this permitted some degree of flexibility for respondents whilst retaining a core commonality across all interviews undertaken.

**3.4 A Justification for the Methodological Paradigm Selected**

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) claim that enquiry paradigms address three fundamental questions: The ontological question; the epistemological question and the methodological question. These three questions would help to frame the research enquiry by offering three key perspectives on the research process.

Respectively: what is the form and nature of reality and as such, what can be known about it?; What is the relationship between the knower and what can be known?; How can the inquirer approach what can be known?

Miles and Huberman (1994) offer a summary of recurring themes in qualitative research that tessellate with what I hoped to realise through my project. That as researcher, I would attempt to capture data on the perceptions of participants from the inside and that through a process of ‘deep attentiveness, of empathetic understanding, and of suspending or ‘bracketing’ preconceptions about the topics under discussion’ (p.5), I would be able to elicit key themes about the substantive topic under scrutiny. Themes which I may isolate and expressions that can be reviewed with informants, but that should be maintained in their original and authentic forms throughout the study. Importantly, whilst many interpretations of this material will be possible, some may be more compelling for theoretical reasons or on grounds of internal consistency. Crucially, I was the ‘main instrument’ of the study and the analysis is done with words which can be:

Assembled, sub-clustered, broken into semiotic segments. They can be organised to permit the researcher to contrast, compare, analyse and bestow patterns upon them’ (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 6-7).

Semiotics would also facilitate closer analysis of narrative structures. Indeed, given its focus on linguistics structures and categories, it can be used to elicit deeper meaning, taking text analysis beyond quantitative content analysis (Berelson, 1952) Ultimately, this constituted a distillation process whereby essences may evolve.

The array of literature scrutinised for the review reflects the contradictions and disparity of views held for decades by academic and professionals alike with regard to issues surrounding ITP. As such, phenomenology as a principal methodological approach was reviewed and a rationale for the chosen approach is offered below.

**3.5 Research Approach**

This qualitative research project was set within an interpretivist paradigm and employed a phenomenological approach. The adoption of a phenomenological approach was informed by the need for my research to discover the research participants’ ‘life worlds’, to infiltrate them, and to understand personal meanings constructed from their immediate life experiences or what Edmund Husserl (1936/1970) termed their *‘lebenswelt.’* This in turn might afford me further insight into the participants’ consciousness and experience of the given phenomenon – in this case the informants’ responses -and present the opportunity to investigate individual interpretations of experiences (Pring, 2004).

This, however, is predicated on the assumption that there is some commonality in human experience, and as a researcher I would seek to identify and understand this commonality or ‘essence’. The distillation process mentioned above would then be applied to try and reduce the statements to a common core of significant data as described by the research participants. The diverse nature of my sampling presented a problem as there were no guarantees that any commonality could be drawn at the start of the research process. Indeed, Denzin and Lincoln contest that:

The field of qualitative research is defined primarily by a series of essential tensions, contradictions and hesitations. These tensions work back and forth among competing definitions and conceptions of the field (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, p.9).

The research entailed a series of semi-structured interviews involving a small, reputational and diverse sample. The interview questions were derived directly from the literature review and informed the exploratory approach to data collection. They were transcribed and coded revealing a corpus of key words. These words formed the 8 themes from which the resultant essences were extrapolated. These then formed the basis of the confirmatory approach to the study through questionnaires circulated to school-based partners and work-based colleagues (see appendix 5).

The literature was the locus for the research – the interview questions were embedded within it and the respondents’ transcriptions synthesised back to it.

**3.5.1 Justification for Methodological Approach Adopted**

Close examination of a range of literature about interview methods led me to reconsider my role as researcher within that dialogic process. Indeed, Holloway and Jefferson (2000) challenge social researchers to review their assumptions about the nature of their respective research subjects and that by so doing, their research practices should be adapted accordingly. Implications for one’s own gender, culture, ethnicity and age for example, cannot be ignored as factors that may contribute to the nature of the data produced during the interview. It would be naïve to assume that the interviewers are ‘telling it like it is’ (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000, p.2). As Riessman claims:

we cannot give voice’ since we ‘do not have direct access to another’s experience. We deal with ambiguous representations of it – talk, text, interaction and interpretation (1993, p.8).

So in pursuit of authentic data and to do justice to the complexity of the subjects involved, it was decided that a phenomenological approach was most appropriate for this research project. This approach, however, is not without tensions and limitations. Centripetal to the debate about this approach was the notion that there is no end to the interpretative process – what Denzin (1989) termed the hermeneutic circle.

He posited that if experiences can only ever be ambiguously represented, is interpreting these various representations, rather than the experiences themselves, the only possible activity for researchers.

Conclusions drawn directly from the conceptual and theoretical framework born out of the literature review, reflected how much Higher Education Institutions operate in intensely political climates. As research practitioner, I was cognisant of any prevailing ideologies which may dominate the cultural contexts of the respective research settings creating hegemonies for ITE in particular that could be analysed in terms of the distribution of power through various networks. It is also important when researching one’s own workplace or field of expertise, to acknowledge that one is necessarily positioned by these prevailing political ideologies, as are one’s research respondents, colleagues and associates. Thus people’s behaviour is - to a greater or lesser degree - driven by these ideologies. Consequently, the research I undertook is unlikely to ever be what Drake and Heath (2011) call ‘clean’, ‘neutral’, or ‘objective’ (p.35).

Indeed, Whitehead and McNiff (2006) discuss the possibility of practitioner researchers at doctoral level creating ‘living theories’ that arise out of their explicit and particular circumstances and which, unlike the propositional knowledge that usually dominates, seek to challenge the status quo of knowledge itself. Given the disparate and increasingly more controversial developments in ITP, challenges to the status quo would not only be inevitable, but welcome. However, it should be noted that despite this research having insider researcher features, it did not engage with grounded theory as a research strategy since the outcome of data analysis was not to generate theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1987) but to focus on understanding.

In this sense, the research could perhaps be considered to adopt an ethnographic approach as the intention was to immerse myself in the detail of a few respondents and elicit ‘thick descriptions’ from their responses so as to ascribe some significance to the observations without gathering broad, statistical information (Geertz, 1973; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). But rather than attempting to capture a shared set of meanings or common cultural perspective, the project sought to identify individuals from a common but wider professional body who were likely to represent disparate views in response to the interview questions. The interviews were conducted in the respondents’ own environments, and I was ‘sensitive to the meanings that behaviour, actions, events and contexts have, in the eyes of those people involved’ (Spindler and Spidler, 1992, p. 73). Ultimately I strove to acquire insider accounts (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989).

By approaching a small number of disparate experts from the field of ITP, I intended to gauge the extremes of the current educational landscape before turning to the work-based element of the study. A critical rationale for that sample now follows.

* 1. **Sampling: a critical rationale**

Purposive sampling was the core methodological approach of the project for two key reasons: it is information rich and illuminative; it offers useful manifestations *of* the phenomenon in question rather than a numerical recount of it by means. For example, of quantifying the number of instances where a participant may or may not have said specific key words or phrases. Purposeful sampling then, is aimed at insight *about* the phenomenon, not empirical generalization from a sample to a population. In this sense, a sample of six individuals formed the group of participants for the small, rigorous study.

Their particular role and reputation in the field of ITE currently combined with meeting the set criteria as outlined in the sampling framework below made them suitable respondents for the purposes of the project:

1. At least 20 years’ teaching experience in England or elsewhere in the UK
2. At least 20 years’ experience of involvement with teacher preparation
3. Holds a prominent position in an HEI
4. Holds an influential educational post in local authority or government
5. Widely acclaimed through national and or international publications on teacher preparation
6. Involved in alternative routes to teaching in England, elsewhere in the UK and or internationally
7. Available and prepared to engage with the study

**Figure 4**

The above criteria reflected aspects of the selection process that was considered to lend increased credibility to the study. The criteria were also drawn from recurring topics highlighted by the literature review.

The research participants, in their own respective professional capacities were selected as their reputation and experience mean that they offered a strong representation of the wider profile of ITP provision within England. Notably, the sample encompassed senior academics, including professors, from the field of Initial Teacher Education; educationalists from alternative provision and experienced practitioners with a wealth of national and international knowledge in developing beginning teachers. A cameo of each participant can be found in appendix 6. As a whole, they formed the sample for the research project. The nature of the sample, the rationale for it and indeed the justification for adopting this method is explored in detail below.

A small-scale, interview-based project can go into considerable depth with a small sample and that was the intention of this project. A crucial strength of using a small sample in this case, was that there was no dropout rate. Equally important was the notion that the key individuals were well-placed to address the complexities of the issues born out of the secondary data set - the literature itself. A rigorous, small sample study afforded me the opportunity to capture deeper and more critical perspectives rather than using high numbers which could arguably have diluted the discussion. Sandelowski (1995, p.179) argues that the key issue is ‘the quality of information obtained per sampling unit, as opposed to their number per se.’

Indeed, Polkinghorne (1989) recommends that researchers interview 5-25 individuals who are all familiar with and have experienced the phenomena whilst Campbell, McNamara and Gilroy (2004) highlight how small scale projects make important contributions to teachers’ professional development with their respective findings informing larger projects. The intent of the project was not to generalize the information as much as to elucidate the particular and the specific aspects of the data in light of the research questions (Pinnegar and Daynes, 2007).

To be clear, the research did not subscribe to positivism nor did it strive to develop nomothetic knowledge. It is, however, important to recognize the potential vulnerability the data collected due to the sample size. Yet it is the rival perspectives offered through the literature review coupled with the rigour of the investigation itself that validates the research design.

Equally, the responses to the interview data generated by this small, reputable sample were then put to work-based colleagues and school-based partners for cross-referencing through questionnaires.

The intention is to describe the sample in the most specific terms relative to the largest population it might represent. In this instance, the individuals are in a credible position to influence policy decision-making, to inform a broad scope of educational professionals and to enact change. This still permitted me to be able to include enough narrative to picture the sampling strategy and participants ‘without sacrificing the parsimony prized by empiricists’ (Petersen, 2008, p.139).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison consider non-probability samples to be:

The selectivity that is built into a non-probability sample derives from the researcher targeting a particular group, in the full knowledge that it does not represent the wider population; it simply represents it (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p.155).

Although this suggests that generalizability would seem to be compromised, a non-probability sample, or purposive sample, was adopted since the project deliberately, purposively, selected a key individuals regarded as experts in the field of ITE to form the research sample.

Indeed, Cresswell (2007) cites examples from phenomenological studies such as Dukes (1984) where the recommended number of participants was 3 to 10 subjects. Gray (2014) also claims that phenomenological research involves working with between 5 and 15 participants. This notion of a small, reputational sample is captured concisely by Kvale who states that:

If the purpose is to understand the world as experienced by one specific person, this one subject is sufficient (1996, p.102).

Thus this research sampled the extremes of the current landscape in ITP – including negative case sampling - to garner diverse and disparate views which were then drawn in to the work-based element of the project.

Under the auspices of non-probability sampling, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) proffer several subsidiary sampling types that were evaluated in relation to the aims of the research project: convenience, quota, purposive and snowball. Any sampling approaches that were not fit for purpose and would not achieve the aims of the research project were rejected.

Despite the obvious attractions of ‘convenience sampling’, it was rejected for the interview stage of the project on the basis that the relative insularity of adopting such a sample caused a tension in the breadth of responses and perspectives the project sought to elicit. Whilst the researcher is located in an outstanding HEI provider for ITE, with a strong national and international reputation, the sample desired was one of breadth and diversity. Whilst at least one individual could have been approached for interview from my own HEI, I decided that this convenience model was not fit for the purpose of the interviews as it could also make the parameters of generalizability negligible. Convenience sampling was, however, adopted for the subsequent questionnaires that followed up from the interviews as the project sought to confirm or refute the views of the experts in an HEI recognised for outstanding ITE of which there are only 8 nationally and to substantiate the work-based element of the thesis.

Although initially the project was keen to capture the ‘voice’ of the wider ITE Primary partnership in relation to the key research questions and to give proportional weighting to those responses (the strata which reflects their weighting in which they can be found in the wider population), this almost survey style approach or what Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) refer to as ‘quota sampling’ was rejected in favour of an approach that would yield a far deeper investigation of the phenomenon under study.

In an attempt to increase the trustworthiness of the data, negative case sampling was integrated into the methodology. Within the purposive sample, the researcher deliberately sought out individuals who might disconfirm the theories being advanced thereby strengthening the theory if it survives such disconfirming cases. Indeed, this negative case sampling was informed initially by what Anderson and Arsenault, 1998: call ‘*maximum variation sampling*.’ The researcher identified cases from as diverse a population as possible (Anderson and Arsenault, 1998) in order to ensure strength and richness to the data, their applicability and their interpretation. However, with a comparatively small sample size, this variation of sampling was actually deemed to be less appropriate in practice. In an attempt to synthesize the various sampling approaches, I derived my own typology – that of *‘diverse or disparate variation sampling’****.***  Such a sample would represent a targeted set of individuals in possession of outwardly divergent views born out of comparatively disparate professional contexts and perspectives.

This builds upon work from Teddlie and Yu (2007) and Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) whereby a typology of several kinds of purposive sample was provided in order to achieve representativeness or comparability. Whilst they offer six types of purposive sample, just three were pertinent to the aims of the research, nominally:

***Maximum variation sampling*:**

As with Anderson and Arsenault (1998) above, since the respondents were selected as they possess or exhibit a very wide range of characteristics or behaviours respectively, in relation to the research focus. Although similar to ‘*Intensity sampling’*in that the participants were all drawn broadly from the same professional field and could provide clear examples of the issues in question, this selection approach was rejected in the hope that the selected sample would provide more diverse data in response to the research questions and showcase the breadth of the issues that surround effective ITP.

***Reputational case sampling*:**

This approach was centripetal to the project since it identified the key informants against criterion outlined in the sampling framework and through published work studied in the literature review. I also knew of their reputation from across the wider field of ITE. Whilst this approach shares some similarities to *homogeneous sampling* as the participants were chosen for their shared knowledge of and experience in ITE, the sample was not made up solely from Professors of Education or head teachers, for example. Indeed, rather than using their responses for contrastive analysis or comparison with other maximum variation groups, the interview stage of the research sought to analyse and compare from within the reputational case sample itself.

***Extreme or deviant case sampling*:**

By endeavouring to capture the contours of the current ITE landscape, examples of the most diverse perspectives were sought out in order to provide the most outstanding examples in relation to the research focus, rather than a polemic perspective. This afforded the study the opportunity to then expose issues facing ITE at the time of the research such as the implications of the potential fragmentation of ITE provision, that might not otherwise have presented themselves Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009). This approach was chosen over and above ‘*Typical case sampling’* as the participants were deliberately not selected to provide any representational or typical cases. Nor did the project seek to adopt *‘Dimensional sampling* or identify various factors of interest in any one population or obtain at least one respondent from every combination of those factors such as a quota sampling approach may have necessitated.

*‘Snowball sampling’* was considered closely as this approach involves the use of social and professional networks, informants and contacts in order to gain access to further individuals or groups that may be of use to the study (Noy, 2008). In snowball sampling, interpersonal relations feature very highly (Browne, 2005), as the researcher is reliant on: (a) friends, friends of friends; (b) acquaintances, acquaintances of acquaintances, acquaintances of acquaintances of acquaintances; (c) contacts (personally known or not personally known), contacts of contacts, contacts of contacts of contacts. Given the nature of ITP and its networks this could have yielded some interesting contributions. However, I had responsibility for the study and felt that reliance upon others’ perceptions of who would be good to interview compromised the rigour and challenged the sampling framework criteria.

In one sense, working within ITE and by adopting an insider researcher stance, this sampling approach could have had significant benefits to the project had the entire sample been selected through these means. However, cognisant of deviating towards a more respondent-driven sampling approach, I elected to target individuals whose views were often at odds to one another in relation to the research focus. This was intended to frame the sample as a whole and to provide some breadth as well as depth to the voices of those participants. Such an approach provides a more idiographic stance by trying to understand their *lebenswelt.*

Moreover, snowball sampling can be prone to biases of the influence of the initial contact as these drive the subsequent contacts and, indeed, can lead to over-sampling of cooperative groups or individuals (Heckathorn, 1997).

Given that the primary sampling method selected was that of purposive sampling, I identified each participant to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought in relation to the sampling framework. This approach enabled me to build up a sample that is characteristic to their specific needs as whose respective professional positions are outlined above. In this sense, purposive sampling could justifiably be regarded as ‘deliberately and unashamedly selective and biased’ (Teddlie and Yu (2007, p.157). Conversely, this method of sampling does provide scope for greater depth to the study than probability sampling and could increase the trustworthiness of the data as all participants were experts in their field and so are well-placed to contribute the depth of their knowledge and experiences to the study in an informed manner.

Purposive sampling was best suited to the research over random sampling, for example, since a random sample may be largely ignorant of particular issues and unable to comment on matters of interest to the researcher. My concern was to acquire in-depth information from those who are in a position to give it (Ball, 1990).

What Farquharson (2005) refers to as ‘reputational snowballing’ did offer the project an effective amalgam of the sampling approaches discussed above. The result was identification of significant others within the ‘micro-network’ of ITE (Farquharson, 2005, p.349), who were not always known to those outside of the field. As Farquharson remarks, ‘policy networks’ (ibid, p.346) are groups of interconnected institutions and/or people who are influential in the field, perhaps to advance, promote, block, develop or initiate policy. Consequently, the desired disparate sample could be better accessed. The opportunity for future meta-analyses was also possible as the research questions put to the small sample remained aligned to the knowledge base. A confirmatory approach to data analysis would then be used to ‘test out’ the views of this expert sample via a questionnaire informed by the responses of those experts.

* 1. **Pilot Studies**

**3.7.1 The Interviews**

Yin’s (2009) emphasis on piloting in order to refine both the content and procedures used was of most relevance to my study as it allowed me to maximise the validity of the data by testing the lines of enquiry and specific questions. Given the very specific nature of the target sample for these interviews, I undertook two interviews during the pilot with key individuals who fulfilled the criteria outlined in the sampling framework and whose responses would permit me to reflect upon the appropriateness of my questions in terms of number, content and purpose. The pilot also enabled me to practise the role of interviewer and hone those associated skills required to be successful notably in relation to probing, prompting and handling momentary silences (Fielding and Thomas, 2008).

A number of issues became apparent at this juncture relating to how I had structured and sequenced the questions (Kvale and Brinkman, 2009) and this permitted me to see how the early questions should be ‘less probing, sensitive and direct’ than those towards the end of the interview (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p.84). This may prove to be more beneficial for the participants’ willingness to open up and for me to harvest richer data as a consequence. Five questions were removed following the pilot that prompted repetitious responses or did not support the research questions, Charmaz (2006).

The in-depth nature of these interviews provided high quality, detailed data but to facilitate triangulation between the literature, the expert sample and implications for the work-based study, a questionnaire was constructed and piloted to staff within an East Midlands HEI considered by Ofsted to be outstanding provider of ITE.

**3.7.2 The questionnaires**

The questionnaire was piloted with a small number of participants from across the partnership. The pilot revealed that there were some issues with the first questionnaire posed including:

1. An assumption that all respondents would have a good understanding about the specific points pertaining to ITE within *The Importance of Teaching* (2010);
2. Lack of clarity regarding the difference (if any) between participants’ conception of training and education of beginning teachers;
3. An assumption that all participants would possess adequate knowledge about effective ITP beyond the participants own qualification and/or the programmes on which they teach.

De Vaus (2002) proposes that evaluation is important at this stage to check for particular design consideration such as the ability of a question to discriminate and redundancy. Consequently, the questions were refined to accommodate the above (see Appendix 7).

Additionally, this enabled me to refine the methods to be used as both processes generated some tentative outcomes, albeit based on limited data. In turn, they also instigated recursive reflections on the literature thus focusing attention on pertinent themes during data analysis and to rehearse aspects of dissemination which is in itself an important part of the piloting process.

* 1. **Methods of Data Collection**

**3.8.1 A Phenomenological Approach**

An integral element of my qualitative research design was phenomenological since this concept focuses upon trying to understand social phenomena from the interviewees’ own perspectives and then describing the world as experienced by those individuals. The assumption here is that reality is what people perceive it to be. Merleau-Ponty (1962), go as far as to claim that what matters is to *describe* the given as precisely and completely as possible rather than to explain or analyse. The research process in this case, therefore, would need to do both: first listen to, capture and describe the interviewees’ responses before the second phase of distilling that data through close critical analysis.

Indeed, as Weber states:

Without the investigator’s evaluative ideas, there would be no principle of selection of subject matter and no meaningful knowledge of the concrete reality. Without the investigator’s conviction regarding the significance of particular cultural facts, every attempt to analyse concrete reality is absolutely meaningless (Weber, 1949b, p.82).

By subscribing to phenomenological philosophy, the goal of the research process would be to arrive at an *investigation of essences* by shifting from describing separate phenomena to searching for their common essence. These essences would, in turn, be drawn back to the themes that emerged from my literature review at the outset of the process. It is noteworthy that the iterative nature of the distillation process yielded findings at each of the respective phases. Consequently, this section will critically illustrate corresponding findings pertaining to the respective benefits and limitations the methods adopted at each of the given phases.

Within this philosophy, consideration had to be given to *phenomenological reductions* which call for a suspension of judgment as to the existence or nonexistence of the content of an experience offered by the interviewees. As the approach was largely interpretivist, it was important that I endeavoured to arrive at an unprejudiced description of the phenomena. Kvale and Brinkman challenge Wright-Mills’ theory above by claiming that the issue of quality goes beyond the ‘craftsmanship of the individual interviewer and raises epistemological and ethical issues of pursuing interview knowledge’ (Kvale and Brinkman, 2009, p.168). To that end, further critical analysis of the approach was required.

There are several accounts of how the traditional interview format has been adapted so that it is fit for purpose (see Mishler, 1986; Berg and Smith, 1988). Yet, the idea that an interviewee can ‘tell it like it is’ still remains the locus of much debate about authenticity for most qualitative, interview based research.

Current theories of language and communication stress that any kind of account especially the meaning of events for respondents is taken into account can only ever really be a *mediation* of reality and that the role of the interviewer is a central mediation in the making of meaning. Linell for example, claims that ‘the self and others are profoundly interdependent’ and that when one views the world dialogically, it comes out as ‘dynamic, multi-aspectual and with potential for different interpretations’ (2009, p.17). Indeed, for Berg and Smith:

The complex emotional and intellectual forces that influence the conduct of our enquiry … are at once the source of our insight and our folly (1988, p.11).

As researchers, therefore, we cannot be detached but must examine our subjective involvement because it will help to shape the way in which we interpret the interview data. This approach is consistent with the emphasis on reflexivity in the interview, but it also understands the subjectivity of the interviewer through a model which includes unconscious, conflicting forces rather than simply conscious ones:

The process of self-scrutiny is central…because it can yield information about the intellectual and emotional factors that inevitably influence the researcher’s involvement and activity, and at the same time provide information about the dynamics of the individual or social system being studied. The self-scrutiny process is difficult and complex precisely because both the researcher and the ‘researched’ are simultaneously influencing each other. Since this is occurring in ways that initially are out of the awareness of the parties involved, scrutiny is an absolutely necessary part of social science research (Berg and Smith, 1988, p.31).

The significance and influence of unconscious dynamics in the research interview should not be underestimated nor can the wider contributing factors cited above. Further critical evaluation was required to ascertain precisely what type of research interview I would be undertaking since how I regarded it would determine how I approached it. The model offered by Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell, and Alexander, (1990) below illustrates where my in-depth interviews and questionnaires are positioned in relation to the wider gamut of interviewing options.

**Figure 5**

*Content removed for copyright reasons*

Kvale and Brinkman (2009) offered three approaches to interviewing for research purposes: Interviewing as a craft (therefore contrasting with a methodological positivism in the social sciences with its conception of research following the rules of predetermined steps of specific methods) this I embraced as the nature of the data I hoped to acquire would be much more qualitative from being less constrained by pre-determined steps beyond the questions drawn from the literature review.

Secondly, they offer interviewing as a knowledge-producing activity (joint construction of knowledge and understanding. Rather than facts to be quantified, it is contextual, linguistic, narrative. This perception seemed to tessellate most effectively with my chosen method of interviewing, facilitating sufficient flexibility for the research interviewees to make genuine and authentic responses to the questions posed whilst also affording the interviewees the opportunity to articulate and substantiate their responses in a mutually respectful environment.

An iterative design as advocated by Rubin and Rubin (2005) for each interview was rejected as I did not feel that continually adapting to new circumstances in the field, changing the selection of subjects and questions throughout would provide me with the responses I sought from the bedrock of literature used to compose the questions. Equally, in this form of responsive interview, the research questions are generally open and if hypotheses are stated at the beginning, they may be modified or dropped as the project proceeds and that was not the purpose of the study.

The constant shifting of sands in this way would also present challenges when it came to data analysis. So although the interview schedule remained the same for each respondent, each interview brought a new perspective to the study and so the insights elicited throughout the interviews, ameliorated deeper understanding through iterative engagement with the literature.

The IMP model I devised provided a vehicle for this process in relation to the interview process, as it involved **infiltration** (of the respective participants’ contexts), **mediation** (of the data drawn from interviewing those individuals) and **promulgation** (of my research findings) facilitated assimilation and reflection effectively throughout the process with the researcher seeking authentic data in the field and amongst the participants.

This process is illustrated in figure 6 below:

**Figure 6**

*Content removed for copyright reasons*

Additionally, the flexibility of semi-structured interviews did permit me to capture any ‘off piste’ statements the participants may have tendered. So that the richness of the data was preserved, these were also recorded and transcribed; coded and analysed in light of the questions posed.

Whilst not subscribing to the heuristic enquiry approach for reasons discussed below, this model would certainly adhere to a broader phenomenological approach to the study as is sought to ‘grasp the qualitative diversity of [the participants’] experiences and to explicate their essential meaning’ (Kvale 1996, p. 53)

**3.8.2 In-depth, semi-structured interviews:**

In order to understand other persons’ constructions of reality, we would do well to ask them…and to ask them in such a way that they can tell us in their terms (rather than those imposed rigidly and *a priori* by ourselves) and in a depth which addresses the rich context that is the substance of their meanings (Jones, 1985, p.45-55).

Powney and Watts (1987) claim there are broadly two styles of interviewing: informant and respondent. I would suggest that not all interviews will fit into these tidily and if we consider interviewing to be ‘a cyclic and interactive process’ as they claim, then it seemed appropriate to apply what they call ‘methodological pluralism - the thoughtful selection of methods matched to articulated principles’ (Powney and Watts, 1987, p.180) to capture that data.

Closer critical evaluation of this as a data gathering tool led me to reappraise my understanding of the notion of an interview as a verbal interaction by comparing it with that of a conversation. Kvale and Brinkman explain how:

The research interview is not a conversation between equal partners, because the researcher defines and controls the situation (2009, p.3).

Whereas the philosophy that underpins Kelly’s Personal Construct Psychology (1969) goes some way to challenge this viewpoint and is a strongly humanistic stance perceiving the researched and the researcher very much on an equal footing:

Research as I see it, is a co-operative enterprise in which the subject joins the (researcher) in making an enquiry (Kelly, 1969, p.18-19).

In turn, these definitions then raised potential issues of validity and reliability for and of my research as I would be the instigator of the questions and controller of the whole process. Once secure in my understanding of what I believed constituted an effective semi-structured, in-depth research interview, I felt far better equipped to engage and realise my role within it.

The choice of interviewing as the primary research tool was determined by my pursuit to capture authentic data and genuine perspectives on the given phenomena. The selection of a semi-structured approach afforded the respondents the relative freedom to expand upon the set questions more fully and in-depth than a structured approach would permit.

The potential constraints of the latter were regarded as inappropriate for eliciting the desired data even though this would have made data analysis a little easier semi structured interviews were also deemed to be more favourable than a wholly unstructured approach due to the manageability of the qualitative data emerging from the interviews and the necessary absence of the focus questions born out of my conceptual framework.

In response to the suggestion that qualitative interviews do not test hypotheses and that they are only explorative and thus not scientific, it should be noted that the design herein is at once discursive and exploratory. In fact, contrary to the criticisms levelled at this approach, an interview may also take the form of a process of continual hypothesis testing. Simply observing and interviewing do not ensure that the research is qualitative; the qualitative researcher must also interpret the beliefs and behaviours of participants (Janesick, 2000).

Critics of the interview as a valid method may contend that is not sufficiently scientific as it is, by its very nature, too person dependent. Advocates conversely, would regard the research interview as flexible, context sensitive, and dependent on the personal interrelationship of the interviewer and the interviewee. Rather than attempting to eliminate the influence of the personal interaction of the interviewer as the primary research instrument for obtaining knowledge, this method embraces it placing strong demands on the quality of the interviewer’s craftsmanship. Yet that is the real challenge here requires diligent consideration of potential bias.

Prus (1996) however, defends the view of the inquirer as one who:

Attempts to minimize obtrusiveness of the researcher in the field and in the text eventually produced…a researcher who is more chameleon-like…who fits into the situation with a minimum of disruption, and whose work allows the life worlds of the other to surface in as complete and unencumbered a manner as possible (1996, p.196)

As such, the importance of reducing perceived or real power relations and establishing the roles of ‘co-equals’ cited above is crucial. Qualitative interview results are reliable and trustworthy if one subscribes to the philosophy proposed by Jones above. Of course, unacknowledged bias may entirely invalidate the results of an interview enquiry, but as Kvale and Brinkman state:

Recognized bias or subjective perspective may, however, come to highlight specific aspects of the phenomena investigated and bring new dimensions forward, contributing to a multiperspectivist construction of knowledge (2009, p.170).

Indeed, this has the potential to enrich the data provided rather than dilute it. A multi-perspectivist construction of knowledge may well be viewed as subjective given that different interviewees may find different meanings in the process. Mindful of this, it would be important to distinguish between an unacknowledged biased subjectivity, to be avoided, and what Kvale and Brinkman (2009) call a perspectival subjectivity. Several various interpretations of the same text need not necessarily be a weakness, but could in fact be a strong point of the interview research.

Rather than its validity being questioned, the subjective impressions derived from the interview data needed to be interrogated critically and analysed objectively to negate any inauthentic findings. I would contend that a plurality of interpretations actually enriches the meanings of the everyday world and strengthens the data collected. Indeed, Kvale and Brinkman highlight how:

The explorative potentialities of the interview can open to qualitative descriptions of new phenomena. Validating and generalizing from interview findings open up alternative modes of evaluating the quality and objectivity of qualitative research (2009, p.170).

Consequently, the nature and depth of such idiographic responses potentially strengthened the process.

**3.8.3 Questionnaires to School-Based Partners (SBPs) and Work-Based Colleagues**

The purpose of the questionnaire was twofold: to obtain detailed descriptions of what an outstanding HEI ITE team believes constitutes effective initial preparation of student teachers; to triangulate the expert sample findings within a work-based context.

The HEI concerned is one of only 8 institutions in England, graded as outstanding for ITE courses by Ofsted (2015). This institution offers 3 routes into teaching the B.Ed under-graduate 3 or 4 year programme with approximately 400 students; the Core Primary P.G.C.E. one year programme with approximately 125 students based at the university and the School Direct P.G.C.E. one year programme either in Primary or Secondary teaching with 117 students across 6 Teaching School Alliances. With a teaching staff of 25 and the scope for wider engagement of approximately 500 partnership schools, I felt it was well-placed to test out the themes distilled from the interview data provided by the expert sample. However, I was cognisant of making assumptions about respondents’ knowledge base and levels of interest in the topic areas simply because they work in an HEI on ITE programmes.

Subsequently, the questions were crafted carefully so that the language and concepts fell within the respondents’ understanding and offered no threat to their professional status or attack on their self-worth. Payne (1951) explains how vocabulary difficulty can result in non-substantive or incorrect answers from respondents rather than admitting they cannot understand the question or are so poorly informed that they have never heard of the topic.

Each of the 8 themes emerging from the interview transcription data formed the basis of the questionnaire. The questions were presented in a semi-structured format that set the agenda but did not presuppose the nature of the response (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Indeed, unlike questionnaires who offer closed questions to the respondents, these participants were encouraged to add remarks, explain and qualify their own beliefs but fell short of being open ended questions.

By having only 8 questions, I also felt that the response level would be stronger than a more lengthy questionnaire and the risk of bias would be reduced given how busy all potential participants are. That way, school based partners (SBPs) including those schools operating as University Schools and HEI ITE academic staff would feel able to contribute to the process by providing responses that were salient to their understanding of effective ITP.

Gillham (2010) provides a useful steer in the design of the questionnaire and how this tessellates with the interview structure and format. The dark sections in the continuum below locates where both the questionnaire and interviews are located within what he calls the verbal data dimension:

**Figure 7:**

*Content removed for copyright reasons*

Although as the researcher I determined what questions would be asked, drawn from the interview data, I did not, as Gillham suggests can happen, frame the questions so rigidly that I also determined the range of responses that could be given as this could compromise the validity of the responses. Whilst a strength of using questionnaires could be perceived to be the descriptive information they provide, they may not always elicit deeper explanations and so the data can be ‘thin’ (Braun and Clarke, 2013). However, the depth of response first from the interview data meant that the questionnaires could now provide a broader and still deeper working example of the expert views collected in relation to effective ITP as they further interrogated that interview data.

Munn and Drever (1990) assert that information gathering by using questionnaires can also be superficial as there is no interviewer or interpreter to probe the responses. By employing the questionnaires after the interview data had been analysed and by using the words and phrases provided by the participants, this potential limitation was overcome. Additionally, the nature of the questions themselves also allowed participants to respond to another’s’ viewpoint rather than feeling they had to engineer the ‘right’ answer from a blank canvas (see appendix 8).

**3.9 Ethical Considerations**

The selection and adoption of specific ethical research procedures was designed to anticipate any ethical issues arising from the research project *before* it began. However, the nature of the research and chosen methodology meant that the researcher had to be necessarily involved with several ethical stances simultaneously, all of which must be managed with integrity.

Simons and Usher (2000) argues that this requires a different concept of ethics than that offered by modernist epistemology – predominantly one recognizes that subjectivity is created out of the conditions of the context, as well as by the people within it. Subsequently, ethical considerations at the outset of the project served as a foundation upon which to forge a strong ethical basis as decisions regarding the research activity would necessarily build upon ethical dimensions that had to be taken into account at every stage, continually, negotiated and re-negotiated with reference to participants, power relations, professional practice and institutional politics (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995).

An issue closely allied to my role as insider researcher related to that fact that I was both colleague and researcher and that any responses could be perceived to be an exposure of views that may or may not otherwise have been shared. A commonly held principle, stressed by Simons (2009) for example, is that consent should be informed and given without coercion. A letter of consent in which all relevant ethical details were explained was shared with all prospective respondents ahead of any emailed returns with special emphasis placed upon anonymity due to the potential sensitivity that surrounded some of the questions posed.

Moreover, as researcher from and within the field, ethical considerations largely centred on the position of being an insider researcher. Drake and Heath (2011) outline key challenges and dilemmas that face the insider researcher. At institutional levels, ethical practices and processes may be formalised and conventional, as indeed may be professional codes of conduct. The researcher, however, is in a position of developing an ethical perspective that is situated in and arises from the research in context. Importantly this is informed by the personal ethical values that researchers bring to their studies, as well as by the various ethical codes and practices that are in place (Drake and Heath, 2011).

As the primary data tool, I carried a significant amount of ethical responsibility. The dilemma of wanting as much knowledge as possible, while at the same time respecting the integrity of the interview subjects, is not easily achieved or solved. The search for interview knowledge of high scientific quality, with the interviewees’ answers critically probed and alternative interpretations checked out, may in some cases conflict with the ethical concerns of not harming the interviewee (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2006). Consequently, considerations of ethical issues encountered through the research process were drawn in line with the tenor of BERA’s own clauses, including:

* Confidentiality and anonymity were respected;
* Interpersonal interaction occurred in a natural, unobtrusive and non-threatening manner;
* Interviewing the participants in their own settings;
* Collaboration in building mutual trust and understanding;
* Description of potential benefits on both sides;
* Right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decide on the degree of self-disclosure, without any personal prejudice or consequences.

(BERA, 2011).

Johnson and Christensen deconstruct ethical implications of interpretive research further into three strands. What they refer to as the ‘deontological approach’ holds that ethics must be based on some universal code that is both understood by and shared with the participants. The participant consent agreement ensured that the obligations and right to withdraw were shared, signed and retained by each party. The second strand, however, suggests that:

Concrete and inviolate moral codes cannot be formulated. An ethical decision must be a matter of the individual’s conscience (2004, p.99).

This ‘ethical scepticism’ as they call it points towards a potential vulnerability in the authenticity of any data collected by almost inviting subjectivity through the researcher’s own personal methodological lens. It was vital not to be drawn into a position where validity would be compromised and the trust of the participants lost.

This led to a consideration of ethics from the perspective of situatedness. Rather than from a perspective that endorses the notion that ethical positions reflect objective or universal truths, such ethical considerations from an insider’s perspective are informed by the researcher’s social, cultural, historical, personal and professional circumstances. Additional consideration was also devoted to the fact that all of these circumstances are likely to change over time and throughout the course of the project. This subscribes to the ethical issues of the seven research stages as conceived by Kvale:

Thematising; designing; interview situation; transcription; analysis; verification and reporting (1996, p.111).

A possible way to accomplish this is through self-regulation which will include making professional as well as research judgements and acknowledging the conflict and tensions between the two. Indeed, the tensions between identity as practitioner and role as researcher could result in negative outcomes for the project. For example, Stacey (1988) claims that betrayal of trust is recognised as a potential outcome of multiple ‘roles’, and Gorman (2007) asserts that in all practice based research, complications can arise if there are conflicts between researcher roles and practitioner responsibilities. Further critical evaluation was required to ascertain precisely what type of semi-structured research interview I would be undertaking since how I regarded it would determine how I approached it.

Kvale and Brinkman (2009) offered three approaches to interviewing for research purposes: Interviewing as a *craft* (therefore contrasting with a methodological positivism in the social sciences with its conception of research following the rules of predetermined steps of specific methods) this I embraced as the nature of the data I hoped to acquire would be much more qualitative from being less constrained by ‘pre-determined steps’ beyond the questions drawn from my literature review.

Secondly, they offer interviewing as a *knowledge-producing activity* (joint construction of knowledge and understanding. Rather than facts to be quantified, it is contextual, linguistic, narrative. Providing a more phenomenological approach that focused upon hermeneutics and subscribing perhaps more closely to post-modern thought.) This perception seemed to tessellate most effectively with my chosen method of interviewing, facilitating sufficient flexibility for the research interviewees to make genuine and authentic responses to the questions posed whilst also affording the interviewees the opportunity to articulate and substantiate their responses in a mutually respectful environment.

Their final stance is to regard interviewing as a *social practice*. My interpretation of this would mean I needed to be cognisant of the wider social context of the interview and the cultural dynamics within which it would be set. This approach would also call for me to be mindful of how I performed my role as interviewer. This stance, in particular, presentsethical issues which permeate interview research. The knowledge produced by such research would be determined by the social relationship of interviewer and interviewee, which in turn would rest on my ability to create an environment where the interviewees were free and safe to talk openly and recorded verbatim for later public use. Sennett claimed:

Unlike a pollster asking questions, the in-depth interviewer wants to probe the responses people give. To probe, the interviewer cannot be stonily impersonal; he or she has to give something of himself or herself in order to merit an open response. …The craft consists in calibrating social distances without making the subject feel like an insect under a microscope (2004, p.37-38).

Yet to regard interviewing as a craft, means it should be appreciated for its inherent complexities as a craft does not involve a mere reliance on personal intuition or an anything goes approach. Wright Mills refers to interviewing as intellectual craftsmanship, claiming researchers should:

Avoid the fetishism of method and technique. Urge the rehabilitation of the unpretentious intellectual craftsman…Let every craftsman become his own methodologist; let theory and method again become part of the practice of a craft (2000, p.224).

Interviewing is a personal craft, the quality of which depends on the craftsmanship of the researcher. Here validation becomes a matter of the researcher’s ability to continually check, question, and theoretically interpret the findings (Kvale and Brinkman, 2009).

In this sense, the study could be conceived as an heuristic enquiry (Patton, 2002) as it would inevitably bring to the fore the personal experiences and insights of the researcher and with it, new levels of ethical consideration. If we are to concur with Patton’s viewpoint, both the researcher and the respondents must have personal experience with and intense interest in the subject under scrutiny in order to yield some shared understanding of the essence of the phenomenon in their mutual efforts to elucidate the nature, meaning and essence of their respective experiences (Patton, 2002). Douglass and Moustakas proffer that:

Heuristics is concerned with meanings, not measurements; with essence, not appearance; with quality, not quantity; with experience, not behaviour… (and that) the power of heuristic enquiry lies in its potential for disclosing truth (Douglass and Moustakas,1985, p.40-42).

Yet critical differences exist between heuristic enquiry and a wider phenomenological approach which limited its usefulness for the purpose of the project. Applying Douglass and Moustakas’ (1985) summary of differences, it became apparent that while initial heuristic enquiry held attractions for the project, the need to adopt a more detached phenomenological approach to analysing the data was more appropriate.

Equally, although heuristics would provide me with ‘depictions of essential meanings’ phenomenology would highlight ‘definitive descriptions of the structures of experience’ drawn directly out of the interview questions and so anchor the responses more helpfully when it came to the analysis stage of the project. Perhaps most significantly in terms of the research design itself, rather than have the data culminate in some sort of synthesis of experiences and tacit understandings, the phenomenological approach would present a distillation of the structures of those experiences which I sought in light of the questions born out the of literature review.

Crucially, however, the primary rationale for rejecting the heuristic enquiry approach is captured by Douglass and Moustakas who claims that:

Heuristic research epitomizes the phenomenological emphasis on meanings and knowing through personal experience; it exemplifies and places at the fore the way in which the research is the primary instrument in qualitative enquiry (1985, p.108).

Interpretive research could actually operate as *ethics-in-action* where dignity and respect for participants is established and sustained throughout the whole research process. In this capacity, with the researcher functioning as instrument transacting in the field is qualitatively dependent on the relationships initiated and developed by the researcher with the research participants. The IMP model was predicated on and around this notion with a significant emphasis placed upon building trust and demonstrating respect for all interviewees.

The key criterion for the process and the quintessential component of the IMP model applied is that of trust and this is addressed more fully in the next section.

The third and final strand proposed by Johnson and Christensen is that of ‘utilitarianism’. Within this strand, the ethics of the study depend on the outcomes and consequences the study has for the research participants together with any perceived benefits that might arise from that study. If the benefits are considered to be sufficiently large relative to the costs, then the study is ethically acceptable. Given that all of the interviewees gave freely of their time and their contributions were altruistic, the latter consideration had little if any impact on the data gathered.

**3.10** **Trustworthiness, Validity and Reliability**

Focusing on trustworthiness rather than truth displaces validation from its traditional location in a presumably objective, non-reactive and neutral reality and moves it to the social world - a world constructed in and through our discourse and actions, through praxis (Mishler, 1990, p.420).

There are a multitude of definitions about what constitutes validity. Hammersley holds that it is:

An account is valid or true if it represents accurately those features of the phenomena that it is intended to describe, explain or theorize (1987, p.69).

With regard to the project, the use of interviewees’ transcripts verbatim strove to negate any scope for inaccuracy in representing the views of those involved. Issues surrounding the very nature of what verbatim means between transcribers was negated by having all interviews audio taped (McLellan-Lemal, 2008). I then listened to the interviews with the transcriptions in front of me to ensure authentic oral accounts were captured given that the transcriber was not from the field of ITE and various acronyms and references were unfamiliar to them.

Anonymity extended to the storage of the data: for the interviews, transcripts and audio files, which were on password protected computers accessible only by me and which did not include participants’ names in any form, written or spoken; for the questionnaires, names were recorded only on consent forms, which were stored securely and separately.

Equally, the questionnaire respondents had their written views collated verbatim and coded stringently in line with the research questions themselves. High levels of accuracy were therefore maintained throughout the two processes. To ameliorate this further, the adoption of a reflexive stance enabled me to test the emerging meanings from the data, against the focus of the research questions, for what Miles and Huberman refer to as their plausibility, their sturdiness, their ‘confirmability’ – that is, their validity (1994, p.11).

The notion of generalizability, however, is potentially more problematic here. Despite the parity of questions drawn directly from the literature and the strict analytical tools employed, the nature of the data elicited through the study is really too variable and context bound to permit very significant empirical generalizations.

As Cronbach posits:

Generalizations decay. At one time a conclusion describes the existing situation well, at a later time it accounts for very little variance, and ultimately is valid only as history (1975, p.122).

Therefore, any generalizations stemming from this study would be better regarded as working hypotheses rather than any definitive conclusion.

Even though my sampling strategies were devised with the desire for extrapolation in mind, these can only really be modest speculations on the likely applicability of findings to other situations under similar, but not identical, conditions. Rather they are insightful, reflective and case derived than statistical and probabilistic. However, heeding what Shadish offers as ‘The Principle of Explanation’ it would be possible to generalize more confidently if future studies were able to:

Specify completely and exactly (a) which parts of one variable (b) are related to which parts of another variable (c) through which mediating processes (d) with which salient interactions, for then we transfer only those essential components to the new application to which we wish to generalize. The strategy here is breaking down the finding into component parts and processes so as to identify the essential ones (1995, p.426).

That process of data analysis is now discussed.

**3.11 The Process of Data Analysis**

**3.11.1 Interview Data**

Burgess supports the notion that:

Transparency in terms of how you both collect your data and apply the lenses that you choose to explain your findings is an essential component of valid educational research (2009, p. 81).

Before data analysis began, I gave due consideration to potential biases that might affect interpretation of that data. Early recognition of such biases sought to enhance the overall validity of the project. Given my reflexive stance and locus at the heart of the study, I also needed to engage in what Patton (2002) refers to as a ‘mental cleansing process’ (2002, p.553) prior to analysing anything.

Moreover, the specific research questions were constructed directly from the literature to elicit respondents’ views on the given topics. Those topics were selected by me to harvest the diverse respondent’s views from the same premise. The commonality of each participant responding to the same questions afforded me the opportunity for some levels of comparability, reliability and generalizability. However, having deliberately targeted such a disparate sample it was reasonable to anticipate I would receive an equally disparate range of views.

Initially, a corpus of key words and or phrases were highlighted from each of the respondents’ transcripts during the pilot stage of the study that bore relevance to the integrity of the questions themselves and formed an initial thematic base from which to drive the research process. This process of inductive to deductive analysis forms the basis of the distillation model.

As Pole and Lampard (2002) suggest, analysis is both integral to and an inevitable aspect of the entire research process with a different level or form of analysis necessary at every stage of the research. Finch and Mason (1990) contend that analysis is constantly taking place and forms the decisions about strategies linked to a particular theoretical perspective decided at the beginning of the research process. In order to scrutinise the process and the data, I therefore adopted a recursive reviewing of findings at particular junctures throughout the process breaking down the data into manageable chunks to categorise and sort.

I applied three stages of exploratory comments to the analysis of each of the transcriptions in order to elicit the authentic voices of the participants and to extrapolate any recurring themes or topics. Respectively, these were descriptive comments whereby I would note what Braun and Clarke (2013) would call any free associating; linguistic comments which would highlight any particular uses of language for meaning and effect; and lastly, abstract or conceptual comments from which I would step out of the semantic level of interpretation and apply a critical understanding of what has been shared.

These were coded using the terms definition (D), linguistic (L) and abstract/conceptual (A/C) respectively from the pilot transcriptions through to the final stage of analysis (see appendix 9). This is process can also be illustrated through Husserl’s ‘bracketing’ model in figure 8 below:

**Figure 8: Husserl’s Bracketing Process**

*Content removed for copyright reasons*

Once the data was bracketed, all aspects of the data were treated with equal value or horizontalized (Patton 2002). They were then organized into meaningful clusters based around the corpus of 8 words, with any repetitious or overlapping data eliminated. Any data considered to be irrelevant to the focus of the research questions was also rejected.

Stroh (2000) suggests that this is usually done through a procedure in which chunks of text are labelled, or coded, and then stored by these codes. Content analysis in this sense is:

Learnable and divorceable from the personal authority of the researcher. As a research technique, content analysis provides new insights, (and) increases a researcher’s understanding of par­ticular phenomena’ (Krippendorf, 2013, p.24).

My primary task therefore was to extract something meaningful from the information gathered. The knowledge categories (McCormick, 1997)were determined by the research questions drawn from the literature review.

Data collection is inescapably a selective process, that you cannot and do not ‘get it all’ even though you might think you can (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.57-8)

Having employed semiotic analysis as a supplementary approach in conjunction with using ideas from knowledge literature on semantic chains (Cobb, Gravemeijer, Yackel, McClain and Whitenack, 1997) it was actually emergent theme analysis (see Rubin and Rubin 1995, p.10; Mason 1996, p.7) that presented the most effective means of eliciting substantive data from the interview transcripts in this case and it explained more fully below.

Akin to Miles and Huberman’s framework for qualitative data analysis as cited in Punch (2006), this approach is predicated upon:

Tracing out lawful and stable relationships among social phenomena, based on regularities and sequences that link these phenomena (1994, p.4).

The three components that form their analysis, map directly into the distillation model: **data reduction** (phase 1), **data display** (phase 2), **drawing and verifying conclusions** (phase 3). (This process is exemplified through appendices 10 and 11).

After getting the data, the major task in qualitative research is to ‘get rid of it’ [sic] (Wolcott, 1990, p.18) by using data selectively to exemplify, illustrate, or illuminate the story the writer wants to tell. The data presented is drawn from iterative reductions that occurred throughout the analysis as an integral component of the process. This allowed the data to be organized and summarized at each respective stage permitting close scrutiny for further analysis.

Researchers have different assumptions and principles of analysis - about systematicity, verification, accessibility and so on. It is therefore important that the analysis is as focused as possible: key or primary questions are of utmost importance for analysis; some questions do not deserve analysis at the same level, while others may be eliminated, as they simply set the background for the discussion (Litosseliti, 2003, p.91).

The use of annotations, in the form of topic coding from the transcription memos for each participant as described above, enabled me to undertake a ‘sifting’ process of selection and elimination as appropriate (see appendix 12). The coding process is explored more fully below.

***Coding***

At the outset of the process, the codes adopted were pre-specified codes comprising tags of either single words or phrases drawn directly from the literature review in line with the key research questions. These ‘topic’ codes were elicited verbatim from the respondents’ transcripts and labelled pieces of the text according to specific areas of interest for the study (Richards, 2005): University, school, theory, knowledge, training, education, pedagogy and government.

The same key topics were then used to frame the analysis of the questionnaire that was subsequently circulated to work-based colleagues (WBC) and School-Based Partners (SBPs). This stage of the research is discussed more fully in chapter 5. However, coding in this light need not necessarily be regarded as simply reducing data to some general, common denominators. Rather, I used it to expand, transform and even reconceptualise the data thus opening up more diverse analytical possibilities (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996).

These initial ‘data-derived’ or ‘semantic’ codes yielded a succinct summary of the explicit content of the data as they are based in the semantic meaning of the transcript and mirrored participants’ language and concepts (Braun and Clarke, 2013) rather than as a more quantitative indicator of frequency.

The codes employed differed during phases 2 and 3 of the distillation process. For phase 2, they took on the guise of what Miles and Huberman (1994) call ‘descriptive’, low inference codes which enabled the research to ascertain a ‘feel’ for the data being produced from across the diverse participants’ responses (1994). Through applying *memoing* Glaser (1978), during this phase, I was able to move from the descriptive and empirical to the conceptual level of interpretation and analysis which in turn, provided the basis for higher order coding later in the process for both the interviews and indeed the questionnaires (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Glaser 1978).

For phase 3, the codes were more inferential as they identified patterns of responses bringing together less abstract and more descriptive codes from phase 2. At this stage, the codes were developed into what Braun and Clarke call researcher-derived or latent codes (2013). This process facilitated closer analysis, beyond what the data-derived and semantic data presented, invoking implicit meanings and assumptions from each of the respondents’ transcriptions.

***Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis***

Analysing the data in this way reflected a methodological shift in the process. The initial focus upon thematic analysis (TA) - whereby the researcher is striving to identify themes and patterns of meaning across a dataset in relation to a given research question could only take me so far. Both inductive TA and experiential TA yielded limited results due to the focus on patterns across datasets as neither was able to provide any sense of continuity or contradictions within individuals’ accounts and it felt as though the voices of participants were compromised or even lost. Given the interpretivist paradigm of the study, TA alone held limited interpretative power and so I engaged with what Braun and Clarke (2013) refer to as ‘Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis’ (IPA).

The core (prescriptive) features of IPA have been described as: idiographic analysis balancing experiential claims against more overtly interpretative analyses; drawing from small samples; and focusing on verbatim accounts (Larkin, Watts and Clifton, 2006, p.118).

IPA is both a thematic approach and concerned with the specifics of the individual, or more commonly small samples and was therefore ideally suited to my reputational sample. IPA was also better suited to the analysis as it generates themes across a small group of participants (Smith, Flowers and Larkin, 2009) it is best suited to experience-type questions and is achieved through interpretative activity on the part of the researcher which keyed into both my choices of phenomenological approach and enquiry paradigm.

However, IPA acknowledges that a researcher cannot access a participants’ world directly. Instead, researchers make sense of the participant’s world using their own interpretative resources. IPA involves a dual interpretative process referred to as a ‘double hermeneutic’ i.e. researcher making sense of the participant making sense of their own world (Smith *et al.,* 2009).

Critically, IPA also entails a dual analytic process first by remaining faithful to the participant’s account of their experiences, and representing their experiences in a way which is ‘true’ to the participant’s understandings. This ‘insider’ stance has been described as a ‘hermeneutics of empathy’. Secondly, by stepping back from the participant’s accounts as described above and viewing the data through a critical lens. This ‘outsider’ stance has been described as a hermeneutics of suspicion (Ricoeur, 1970). Employed together, the validity and reliability of the findings should be maintained. Yet it would be naïve to accept authentic voices alone since it is imperative to recognise:

The problematic analytic status of interview data which are never simply raw but both situated and textual (Mishler, 1986, p.445).

Moreover, as Coffey and Atkinson (1996) observed:

The generation of ideas can never be dependent on the data alone. Data are there to think with and to think about (1996, p.153).

The important ideas will not be ‘in’ the data themselves, no matter how ‘obsessively’ they are ‘scrutinized’ (1996, p.154 -155). I was also mindful of falling victim to ‘analytic excess’ (Lofland and Lofland, 1995, p.164) by being so preoccupied with establishing the credibility of the findings, too much emphasis would be placed upon the mechanics of analysis (multiple word lists and data displays) without ever presenting a coherent rendering of the events or individuals studied.

As a qualitative researcher in the field, I had to make choices about what to emphasize in writing up the findings and how this would fit the research purpose and methods. By adhering to this premise, I would allow the data to star (Chenail, 1995) since I would not stray far from the data and the data are allowed, through both the phenomenological approach and the interpretivist paradigm, to ‘speak for themselves’ (Wolcott, 1994, p.10).

**3.11.2 The Distillation Process: Eliciting Authenticity**

The process of distilling respondents’ transcripts into meaningful data is captured in the model offered below. This content analysis facilitated closer exploration of any key themes that may be found to recur or dominate. Subsequently, those themes were used to form a framework for further analysis in relation to the research questions posed. Patton explains that:

Content analysis is used to refer to any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings (Patton, 2002, p. 452).

This process can itself be further distilled to include both inductive and deductive analysis.The former involves discovering patterns, themes and categories in one’s own data. Whereas the latter extends the analysis of the data according to a framework, in this instance derived from the key themes themselves.

This diagram below captures this distillation process to exemplify how the data was analysed:

**PHASE 2**

**PHASE 3**

**PHASE 1**

**Figure 9: Distillation Process - From Inductive to Deductive Analysis**

**(Hardman, 2014 unpublished)**

In the model above, phase 1 involves inductive analysis; phase 2 encompasses deductive analysis and phase 3 yields the data required to elicit any substantive significances.

Phases 2 and 3 of this process would seek to identify recurring patterns of responses along with any evidence of convergence in coding and categorising the essences. This latter stage is perhaps the most data rich as it builds upon aspects of the responses already established through the process whilst making connections between different aspects within the responses under scrutiny. Once the data are bracketed, all aspects of the data are treated with equal value i.e. it is *horizontalized* Patton (2002). Thereafter, the final stage of this process would involve ‘surfacing’ i.e. proposing new information that ought to concur with what has been established and ultimately constitute anything of substantive significance.

This process also resonates with Hycner’s Explication Process:

1. Bracketing and phenomenological reduction
2. Delineating units of meaning
3. Clustering units of meaning to form themes
4. Summarising each interview, validating and where necessary modifying it
5. Extracting general and unique themes from all the interviews and making a composite summary (1999, p.161).

According to Hycner (1999), the term analysis is avoided because it usually means a breaking into parts whereas explication suggests investigation of the constituents of a phenomenon, while retaining the context of the whole. Since phenomenology is concerned with the essence of an experience from the perspective of the participant, keeping the whole in tack should not be rejected as inconsequential to the process.

Yet determining substantive significance is in itself challenging and prompts key questions surrounding the solidity, coherence and consistency of the evidence in support of the findings; the degree to which understanding of the research topic is increased and deepened through the findings; the evidence of confirmatory significance in relation to what the literature reflects and ultimately the extent to which the findings may be useful for some intended purposes such as informing policy.

In order to procure substantive significances from the data, the IMP model was employed to facilitate Moustakas’ (1990) 5 basic phases of heuristic enquiry, namely: Immersion, incubation, illumination, explication, creative synthesis.

In heuristic analysis, the insights and experiences of the analyst are primary, including drawing on ‘tacit’ knowledge that is deeply internal (Polyani, 1967 cited in Patton, 2002, p.487).

The purpose of this kind of analysis is to elucidate the essence of experience of a phenomenon for an individual or group and so was most appropriate in this study.

**3.11.3 Questionnaire Data**

By contrast to the more exploratory approach of the interview stage of the study, the questionnaires offered a confirmatory approach to the research. Although both thematic, there are distinct differences between the two. Guest, MacQueen and Namey propose that for an exploratory study, the researcher reads and rereads the data, looking for key words, trends, themes, or ideas in the data that will help outline the analysis, *before* any analysis takes place. By contrast, a confirmatory, hypothesis-driven study is guided by specific ideas or hypotheses the researcher wants to assess (2012, p.8-9). In this case, the questionnaires issued to the work-based colleagues and school-based partners sought to verify or otherwise the findings from the interview data.

As such a triangulated approach to the investigation was applied and is illustrated in the model I devised below:

**Figure 10: A Triangulated Approach to Data Analysis**

The questionnaire data was collated question by question and coded to reflect the foci of each of the 8 questions and then in relation to the 3 research questions posed. For example, question 1:

*The Importance of Teaching (2010) advocates a craft model of teaching which doesn’t really need the university. To what degree would you say that there is the need for an intellectual base to initial teacher preparation?*

The code here would be derived from ***n****eed for* ***i****ntellectual* ***b****ase* - NIB - and noted where there were instances of agreement. Where there was disagreement, (NIB) would be used so that the researcher could see at a glance where the challenge to the proposition lay. In terms of the **r**esearch **q**uestions themselves, the codes: RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3 were employed as an effective means of highlighting how the data served to answer the questions posed by the 3 research questions (see appendix 13).

An additional section was also created to accommodate unanticipated and or miscellaneous responses to ensure all participants’ views were captured authentically. Content analysis was employed to determine concurrence or refutation in respect of the findings from the expert sample.

Essentially, the procedure adopted subscribed to Seidel and Kelle’s conception of coding as a three staged process:

Noticing relevant phenomena; collecting examples of those phenomena, and ultimately analysing those phenomena in order to find commonalties, differences, patterns and structures (1995, p.55-56).

An overall summary of the data analysis process is illustrated in the table below:

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **PHASE 1** | **PHASE 2** | **PHASE 3** | **CONCLUDING PHASE** |
| **Interviews** | Data-derived and/or semantic coding | Data-derived and/or memoing | Researcher-derived and/or Latent Data extrapolated from transcripts | **Data then analysed in relation to the 3**  **Research Questions** |
| Against interview questions | Against interview questions | Against corpus of 8 themes  Topic coding from memos  Coded exploratory comments |
| **Questionnaires** | Researcher-derived and/or Latent Data extrapolated from questionnaires | Topic coding from questionnaires against each question | Confirmatory Extrapolations |

Table 1

**3.12 Concluding Commentary**

‘Interviewer neutrality is a chimera’ (Denscombe, 1995, p.146)

In order to mitigate the potential dangers of researcher bias during the interview stage in particular, reflexivity or:

The conscious process by which the researcher actively engages in critical self-reflection about his or her own potential biases and predispositions (Johnson and Christensen, 2004, p.265) was employed.

The skilled process of interpretive validity was also selected to accurately portray the meaning given by the participants to what is being investigated. This would facilitate access to the interviewees’ respective worlds via the infiltration and mediation aspects of the IMP model.

The use of both audio recordings and verbatim transcription ensured low inference descriptors. This process prevented me from erring towards textual positivism and placing a narrow focus upon statements which are described in as much detail as possible and risking not being able to discern anything of interest outside the confines of a very narrow field (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009).

It is clear that coding and categorizing data in this way is indeed valuable in attempting to elicit understanding and conceptualize regularities. However, this approach does not saturate the data nor conclude all possibilities of it. Moreover, by subscribing to a culture of fragmentation (Atkinson, 1992) there was a real danger of decontextualizing the data and losing the very reason for researching the topic in the first place. Therefore I believed that it is not the words themselves or their frequency that has as much significance as the respondents’ choice of those words in that particular context. That choice is important for the researcher to be cognisant of and reflexive about when analysing the data provided. The same would apply to the interrogation of the questionnaire data.

Getting into the minds of research participants Maxwell (1992, 1996) called for accuracy in portraying this ‘inner content’ interpretive validity. To negate any charge of collusion being levelled at the researcher, the responses were recorded consensually, transcribed independently and analysed by the researcher objectively against the research questions.

A possible strategy for securing reliability would have been to employ highly structured interviews but even then you cannot guarantee that individual responses would not have varied enormously given the nature of the topic under scrutiny and the inherent complexities of social interactions. The selection of semi-structured, in-depth interviews ensured that the same format, sequence of questions and wording was applied to each respondent without constraining the potential depth of data each yielded.

The nature of the data gathered through the interviews was qualitative offering the project enquiry in depth. The interviews sought to capture direct quotations about people’s personal perspectives and experiences about the phenomena. The adopted strategy necessitated the researcher to have direct contact with and to get close to the people, situation, and phenomenon under study; That essence of personal experience and engagement enriched the process in terms of the data collected but my personal experiences and insights would also prove to be an important part of the enquiry and critical to understanding the phenomenon. Key to the success of this strategy would be what Johnson and Christensen refer to as:

Empathetic neutrality and mindfulness. By adopting an empathetic stance throughout the series of interviews, the researcher sought vicarious understanding without passing any judgement, by remaining objective and by exhibiting emotionally intelligent qualities such as openness, sensitivity, respect, awareness, and responsiveness (Johnson and Christensen, 2004, p.378).

All of which are quintessentially important for effective interpretivist research. The primary analysis strategy that would be employed was inductive analysis and creative synthesis which entails immersion in the details and specifics of the data to discover important patterns, themes, and interrelationships. Ostensibly it begins by exploring, then confirming and is guided by analytical principles rather than by rules. Ultimately, it ends with a creative synthesis of the responses proffered through analytical, reflexive interpretation (Johnson and Christensen, 2004).

There were two additional aspects that would supplement and ameliorate the above analysis strategy. Firstly, the whole phenomenon under study is understood to be a complex system extending beyond the sum of its parts. The research design sought to identify, explore and dissect any complex interdependencies and system dynamics that should not meaningfully be reduced to a few discrete variables and linear, cause-effect relationships. This would be a simplification of the process and inappropriate. The desire here was to achieve a much more holistic perspective.

Secondly, as the interviews questions were drawn directly from the extensive literature review, it was hoped that the data collected would place those findings in a social, historical, and temporal context. Moreover, great care was exercised in pursuit of the possibility or meaningfulness of generalizations across that time span with the desire to extrapolate patterns for possible transferability and adaption to new settings in the changing landscape of initial teacher education. This consideration of context of the interviews and associated sensitivity from the participants honoured the interpretivist paradigm as intended.

Johnson and Christensen posit that ‘a credible voice conveys authenticity and trustworthiness’ (2004, p.378) and lay significant onus upon voice, perspective and also reflexivity. They claim that:

The qualitative analyst owns and is reflective about her own voice and perspective; complete objectivity being impossible and pure subjectivity undermining credibility, the researcher’s focus becomes balance - understanding and depicting the world authentically in all its complexity and while being self-analytical, politically aware, and reflexive in consciousness (2004, p. 379).

The role of the researcher in this instance then carries substantial responsibility for the trustworthiness and authenticity of the data gathering process from its inception to any conclusions drawn. The results of implementing this design in an attempt to answer the research questions and indeed the impact upon the researcher through its implementation can be found within the presentation of findings in the next chapter.

**Chapter 4: Presentation of Findings**

This chapter will offer a summary of the findings from the third, final phase of the distillation process. At this phase of the process, the foci of each question were refined in relation to the eight key areas of research interest that formed the initial corpus for phase 1 of the data analysis process. Researcher-Derived and/or Latent Data were extrapolated from interviewees’ verbatim responses and any prevalent themes or patterns of interest provided the themed essences of each interviewee’s responses.

Wolcott (1990) contends that there is no one style for reporting the findings from qualitative research and that qualitative researchers must choose not only what story they will tell, but also *how* they will tell it. Qualitative researchers must select from an array of representational styles, formats, and ‘language(s) of disclosure’ (Thornton, 1987, p.27) those that best fit their research purposes, methods, and data (Knafl and Howard, 1984). As Tierney noted, ‘one narrative size does not fit all’ (1995, p.389).

Cognisant of the above, the findings herein are organized and presented by central tendencies and prevalence. This strategy is akin to a quantitative informed mode of re-presentation Chenail (1995), whereby the most prevailing or frequently occurring themes from the extrapolated data, against each of the initial corpus of words, are presented first and then any deviations or contradictions are explored and analysed more fully in the discussion chapter. This approach was deemed to be particularly appropriate for the study given its association with maximum variation sampling. Notably, the intention is to show the convergence and divergence of factors from a disparate group of people experiencing the same event or in this case, questions both for the interview stage and also through the work-based questionnaires.

The findings from the questionnaires follow and are presented question by question across all respondents and before a table captures how both sets of findings relate to the research questions themselves:

1. What constitutes effective initial teacher preparation?
2. What future is there for a strong theoretical basis upon which to prepare teachers for their careers in the education profession?
3. What impact is governmental policy having upon the status of the profession as one which is informed through research and is underpinned by theory?

This way they can be mapped into the triangulated approach as outlined by figure 10 in Chapter 3 above. Individual differences and outliers, however, are also acknowledged in a section at the end of this chapter. Participants throughout are referred to by pseudonyms and an attempt has been made to represent authentic voices. Direct quotations were chosen based on two criteria:

1. Where they were felt to represent the essence of their particular view;
2. To give a broadly equitable voice to each participant.

Individual differences and outliers, however, are also acknowledged in a section at the end of this chapter. To complete this phase, the data is reflected upon and explored more fully in chapter 5 permitting the study to draw and verify any conclusions from the research process.

**4.1 Findings from the semi-structured, in-depth interviews**

Using each of the initial corpus of 8 words as sub-headings, the findings are presented in turn below.

* + 1. **University**

Overall, there was a strong sense that university’s should hold hard to their unique contribution to ITP. Should Universities become no more than ‘instruments of Government’ then Universities are ‘nothing’ (Margaret). They could and indeed should have a role in addressing issues and debate around educational philosophy and that they should actually be stimulating critical thinking. Interestingly, the respondents broadly shared the view that the role and purpose of the universities has become ever more blurred. One suggested that universities have almost become schools and called for increased confidence levels amongst teacher educators in relation to their role and academic identity insisting that ‘there’s a place for the ivory tower actually’ (Sue).

Several participants saw the role of the university as ‘very important and crucial’ (Kate) in the development of potential teachers’ understanding of their role and in their thinking. She too called for a need to protect very strongly the academic aspect of teaching. Her belief was that one of the things Universities do extremely well is address gaps in subject knowledge which schools simply cannot do. That was considered by Jane to be one of the ‘huge weaknesses of school based training’. However, it was recognised that ITP courses could never equip students fully for the complexities they will face in any given classroom for the rest of their career and so there was a call for CPD to be better.

Although there seemed to be a general consensus that Universities do have *a* role in education although there was discord as to *what* that role might or needs to be. There was also a sense that some university input in teacher preparation can lack ‘relevancy for what is required to be an effective teacher’ (Daniel). Indeed he claimed that Universities were ‘a legitimate target of successive Governments’ and Margaret concurred with the quotation that regarded ITE courses as ‘full of trivia’ and that ‘formal teacher training is unnecessary’. Daniel concluded that, ‘There is a distinct possibly that there is no future for teacher education programmes’.

Jane considered there to be a notable difference in confident departments of education and less confident ones. She suggested that there is a respect by Ofsted for those providers who critically evaluate and challenge ideologies through theoretical perspectives and relayed a conversation she had had with a member of the Government recently who claimed that university Departments of Education were regarded by some as:

Hot beds of Marxist Radicalists where beginning teachers were taught training techniques with no effectiveness and his mission was to break their strangle hold on teachers (Jane).

John claimed that there is a need for research based knowledge which goes with university skills and experience:

I’m committed to idea of theorised practice and practical theorising but you can’t do that without a bit of theory being in there and so only the stripping out of the disciplines of education has left some provision as being under informed intellectually (John).

He also posited that now:

We not only have the removal of the intellectual base but what current policy is trying to do is undermine the partnership between schools and universities and turn it into an entirely craft model which doesn’t really need university (John).

The question for the work-based questionnaire derived from this section was:

***Q1: The Importance of Teaching (2010) advocates a craft model of teaching which doesn’t really need the university. To what degree would you say that there is the need for an intellectual base to initial teacher preparation?***

It sought to ascertain views about the role of the university in a future model of ITP.

* + 1. **School**

There was a strong suggestion that teaching schools, just as teaching hospitals should be ‘the way forward’ from Margaret, but then questions were raised about just how many schools are in a position to act as teaching schools. Issues around poor modelling in schools and current state of Primary schools were highlighted to demonstrate the challenges surrounding accommodating this model.

Sue claimed that there is now ‘a real ethos of conformism and compliance and formulaic teaching’ resulting in ‘good trained technicians’ in the classroom. She berated schools for adopting strategies completely uncritically, formulaically and without asking the questions about the relationship between process and content. Whilst there was an acknowledgement that schools have changed hugely in the last twenty years she still felt that:

We’ve moved much more into an era where, social training and credentialism have been what is seen as important and the education and knowledge, what should be intellectually transforming is absolutely lost (Sue).

Daniel made strong recommendations for the school based routes such as E Bit scheme and Teach First to be expanded at the expense of a conventional P.G.C.E. along with demise of both the B.Ed and BA ITE programmes. His rationale was that:

The best argument in favour of employment based, school based routes into teaching is that the training school is in an immediate position to see whether that trainee can actually command the respect of pupils.

However, he did not consider the education in schools to be ‘simplistic formulas’ and felt that teachers are doing a better job than the quotation suggested.

Kate raised concerns about the level of anecdote in amongst teachers at the level of ‘personal experience in terms of a simplistic understanding of how things are’ and how without outside influence, that would develop. She was also concerned about opportunities for professional development when teachers are isolated in the classroom all day everyday outside of contact with any other adults:

To have meaningful, useful, intelligent and academic questions you’ve either got to build space into it or you’ve got to use time more effectively and of course that costs more money (Kate).

Kate also called for a cultural shift in classrooms to alleviate the difficulties facing young teachers going into schools and trying to influence things and make changes or improvements. Such a cultural shift would facilitate the opportunity for schools to challenge what they’re doing and why they’re doing it and also to justify it to other people which is what never happens.

She also claimed that:

One of the difficulties particularly in Primary Education is that people have tried to do absolutely everything that has been slung at them and they haven’t had the room to prioritise the confidence to select and defend what they’re doing so well (Kate).

With an increase in school-based ITE, it was suggested that even excellent teachers can make poor mentors and a call for improved CPD opportunities for teachers.

Jane remarked how:

The whole model of the NPQH was ‘school is a business’ and we continue to fail to focus on developing teachers further than initial teacher training.

She also suggested that teachers rarely ‘identify themselves as learners beyond their qualification in the way that they should’ and blamed this on conforming to increased performativity in schools which drives teachers’ working lives.

There was a perception from several participants that schools are not currently researching institutions they are teaching institutions therefore there is insufficient breadth and depth of professional knowledge evident.

The question for the work-based questionnaire derived from this section was:

***Q2: In our schools some perceive there to be a real ethos of conformism, compliance and formulaic teaching resulting in good trained technicians in the classroom. Is this your experience in your respective setting?***

It sought to ascertain views about the readiness of schools to take on increased responsibility for ITP given that the Ofsted Framework for Inspection for ITT, still lies with HEI providers.

* + 1. **Theory**

All respondents were open to the notion that *some* enquiry should form part of any teacher preparation for the profession. However, the perspectives about the *nature* of that theory and the *amount* of it were far more divisive. Some acknowledgement was afforded to the university’s role in addressing issues and debate around educational philosophy by Margaret, for example, but these were counter-balanced with calls for the need to test educational philosophies for their relevance to teacher preparation from Daniel in particular.

The polarised perspectives ranged from those calling for a wholesale emphasis to be placed upon teaching the subjects not engaging with ‘crazy theories’ about self-esteem and what were viewed as ‘therapeutic theories’ (Margaret) to the recognition that:

Education, teaching isn’t just a practical matter there’s an intellectual project in there as well (Jane).

Daniel stated that:

An awful lot of teachers who are extremely good teachers would have a very hard time saying that any educational theory has really very much affected the way they work.

He did, however, acknowledge the need to have some sort of an understanding in cognitive theory, for example. A strong advocate of subject knowledge based curriculum, he suggested that teachers would then have time to actively engage with and seek out research findings – interestingly, failure to provide such opportunities he felt, was a ‘tragedy’.

Several respondents perceived there to be ‘almost a cult of anti-intellectualism’ (as articulated by Sue) at various levels of education and the hugely pressurised education system was blamed for teachers not being able to prioritise academic pursuits. Further claims were made about belief in knowledge being lost and how ‘we live in an anti-theoretical times and actually quite philistine times’ (Sue).

The call for theory as secure pedagogical understanding was also made:

It’s all very well knowing what to do in the classroom but if you don’t understand why you’re doing it then you’ve got nowhere to go (Sue).

Candid responses were recorded about the required qualifications to teach effectively and the suggestion that there is no need for a degree was considered to be ‘absolute and utter rubbish’ (Sue).

There was wide acknowledgement about the lack of engagement with teachers of all ages and experiences with current academic understanding of the professional’s role. There were concerns about any move to make teaching more utilitarian with a call ‘to keep the job as a profession’ (Kate) because:

The lack of understanding of the complexity of the job has made teachers very vulnerable to people who know better.

A strong sense of welcoming and encouraging research in schools to inform and improve practice was drawn out from the participants’ responses with Kate noting that, ‘…the lack of breadth of thinking of many teachers, I think, is probably the most alarming aspect of the education system.’ Specifically, there was a call for:

Creative, critical thinkers teaching children who interpret the Government’s policies and deliver in the context of the particular needs of the children in front of them rather than not being able to or feeling disempowered; If they don’t understand and they don’t question, they don’t think in terms of a very difficult process, if they don’t think intelligently with experience and understanding how can they possibly improve the quality of experience, learning experience of those children? (Kate).

Jane explained how in her view, there is currently:

No concept of a theory of learning or any concept of any understanding that teachers need more than the skills and abilities they can learn within a particular setting. There’s no respect for any underlying theory of pedagogy or knowledge acquisition.

Beyond initial teacher preparation, queries were raised about the existence of quality continuing professional development for the profession and that much of the educational research undertaken is small scale but there is a need for larger scale educational research that is more accessible to teachers. The rationale offered was that:

That theory you it allows you first of all to build practice and secondly it enables you to judge practice (Jane).

The view of teaching in *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) was discussed and John suggested that it leads you to the conclusion that school based part is the only important part of teacher education and juxtaposed this notion with the Finnish model of teacher preparation whereby you cannot become a teacher without a Master’s degree.

A key point to pick up through the discussion section would be perhaps be the nuances between *academic, intellectual* and *theoretical* understanding in relation to the three research questions as these terms appear to be used interchangeably.

The question for the work-based questionnaire derived from this section was:

***Q3: The hugely pressurised education system was blamed by some for teachers not being able to prioritise academic pursuits. Would you agree that there is no appetite, need or even respect for any underlying theory of pedagogy or knowledge acquisition in relation to the initial preparation of teachers in England?***

It sought to ascertain views about the need for any theoretical input in a future model of ITP, alongside the perceptions and value of academic pursuits from qualified teachers.

* + 1. **Knowledge**

Disparate views were voiced with regard to knowledge - a clear difference of opinion was apparent as to what constitutes *appropriate knowledge* for teaching. Significant emphasis was placed upon subject knowledge for teaching by several respondents whose view was ‘that the role of a teacher is to teach and there is this heritage of knowledge and culture that has to be transmitted’ rather than there being a need for ‘all sorts of barmy things’ (Margaret).

Some also advocated a strong emphasis on facts and knowledge whilst others accepted that ‘there is a certain amount of ‘know how’ as well as knowledge’ (Margaret).

Sue spoke of the ‘reductionism’ in subject knowledge and was keen to highlight the importance of ‘the knowledge base of teachers’ posing the question:

Do you throw the baby out the bath water or is it more a question of how you hold onto a knowledge base and that can be at school level or it can be at teacher education level and work out how we do it better?

There was a conviction was that:

The main requirement for teachers is a thorough understanding of the matter that has to be taught and the ability to command the respect of one’s pupils (Daniel).

He deplored what he deemed to be ‘the effective ban on any kind of didacticism within the approved OFSTED format’ suggesting that it made it ‘impossible for teachers to actually convey their knowledge and their enthusiasm for their subject.’ Equally, he stated that the knowledge base for Primary School teachers as generalist is ‘dead wrong’ and that ‘anyone who has an A or a B at Maths A Level should be allowed to go straight into teaching’ (Daniel).

The suggestion of offering teachers ‘a sabbatical every five to seven years’ was proffered by Kate who acknowledged that teachers:

Learn a huge amount talking to parents, children, talking to the children, talking to other professions, people in the communities, no doubt you learn enormous amount from that, but you need to engage with an academic understanding of that and a way of thinking about the sociology of the job as well as the academia of the structure of the job … to refresh your ideas, refresh your thinking and bring the quality of your approach up to date I think is a really good thing.

She believed that, in this way, teachers are better equipped to ‘control and interpret’ whatever policies may come from government. Failure to refresh and replenish your own knowledge base would negate her concern that:

If you only relate to what your teaching to the community that you’re working in then you’re isolating them as much in the education and social world as if you were delivering it from Whitehall anyway (Kate).

Caution was, however, raised by Jane claiming that ‘what should be emphasised far more is the *connections between subjects* rather than the divisions between them,’ and that there is ‘a real danger of teaching becoming real factual transmission without enabling children to really think’.

With particular reference to Q5, John regarded this as a ‘very simplistic and errant view of the nature of learning to teach’ and in fact, ‘really quite offensive.’ He also recognised that schools are not currently researching institutions rather they are teaching institutions and therefore there is currently insufficient breadth and depth of professional knowledge for schools to take on ITP wholesale.

The question for the work-based questionnaire derived from this section was:

***Q4: What knowledge base would you say is essential in the initial preparation of teachers for our 21st century classrooms? How would you define professional knowledge? How viable would you say it is for teachers to undertake a sabbatical every 5 years or so as an expected part of their cppd?***

It sought to ascertain views about what constitutes appropriate knowledge in a future model of ITP *and* throughout teachers’ careers

* + 1. **Training**

Margaret and Kate believed that current training models rely too heavily upon the questionable quality of the experiences students are subjected to on placements. Whilst Kate suggested that ‘too many people are learning bad lessons and bad experiences’, Margaret claimed that a degree to teach primary children was unnecessary, insisting that students are ‘getting a whole load of stuff which is destructive rather than helpful’.

The need for trainee teachers to plan lessons was dismissed outright by Margaret who claimed that humans have an ‘innate ability to teach’ and that with good text books:

All you’ve got to do is be an intelligent person you can read and impart things to children to engage them and you certainly don’t need a degree in geography in order to teach geography to Primary school children, you don’t need a degree in history to teach history to Primary school children, you really don’t.

Kate and Sue raised concerns over the length of time for training:

Get really to grips with research enquiry, critical reflection and understanding that can be done in the space, in the time, space that we have currently at PGCE and certainly cannot be done at all on a school based route (Sue).

Suggestions were made that there is an obsession with levels across all aspects of education ‘…and what mechanistically’ you need to do with/to a student ‘to get them through.’ There was a strong belief in the existence of levels of conformism and apportions that to that fact that trainee teachers are actually being ‘inducted into schooling’. This participant also agreed that 3 to 4 years for B.Ed preparation in Primary is a stronger model. However, Daniel claimed that:

A minimal sort of course like a 4-6 week course to give all the necessary knowledge they need to know about child protection and all the other sort of nonsense that goes on in schools.

He also applauded Teach First as ‘a huge way forward’ in terms of effective teacher preparation and was a strong advocate of human ability to use initiative and innate teaching skills believing that ‘good teachers are born not made’. He also considered the statement that teachers should be training on the job not in ivory towers to be ‘essentially correct’.

Conflicting perspectives included the view that short term ‘on the job’ training was ‘the basis of a lot of the difficulties that have emerged in schools over the years’ and ‘… some of the worst teaching practice perpetrated by people on the job’ (Kate).

Interestingly, concerns were raised about trainee teachers being ‘vulnerable to the ideas of the schools that they’re going into’ and that ‘students can also perpetuate *bad* practice’ (Kate).

Questions arose about the length of time afforded to preparation for teaching on the PGCE Kate:

You have not got time to cover the intricacies of a profession that is just so complex so a B.Ed purely in terms of time to think about issues, to look at them in practice, to come back to debate them as well as pursuing your own academic study I think is a good model.

The notion of a PGCE being spread over 2 years was regarded as an interesting development (Sue, Kate, Jane and John).

The suggestion was muted by Jane that the nature of developing a teacher is a complex, interrelated process and as such, to combine the practical experience of teaching classes and teaching children with wider perspectives on the subject is one of the huge weaknesses of a solely school based training model. They noted too that the ‘quality of training has just increased exponentially’ and that teaching should be viewed as, ‘a profoundly moral activity’ (Jane).

John was adamant that:

It seems to me that it’s wrong to think we can let people straight into classrooms without some preparation and study.

Whilst recognition was afforded to the fact that each individual brings ‘certain skills, qualities, dispositions potentially into teaching, unless they are refined and developed through a structured process of professional learning’ John felt that it is hard to see how you can have:

A guarantee that a) that they’re really equipped to teach now and b) that they’re equipped to carry on learning and developing as a teacher through their career (John).

He also voiced concerns about longevity in the profession claiming that:

Some of the inspection reports on earlier diverse routes have certainly indicated that there is a tendency for those that come in through short routes see little benefit in further professional development.

He believes that the most important factor in schooling is ‘the quality of the teacher’ and as such, ‘you’d think that’d lead to an enhancement of teacher preparation rather than a simplification of it’. Consequently, he stated how ‘It’s hard to see how Teach First could become the main training route’ given how important it is for teachers to develop their understanding of what they do. In light of this, references were made to how Finland has been effective in coming top of, coming high up in PISA on such a consistent basis.

The question for the work-based questionnaire derived from this section was:

***Q5: There have been longstanding concerns raised over the length of time for training and how to get really to grips with research enquiry, critical reflection and understanding in the space, in the time, space that we have currently at PGCE. How do you see school based routes such as School Direct and Teach First facilitating and addressing this?***

It sought to ascertain views about the capacity for school-based routes to support and contribute to an enquiry-based profession in a future model of ITP.

* + 1. **Education**

Strong sentiments called for ‘teacher education as it is given now has to be completely deconstructed and taken apart and just possibly destroyed as a matter of fact’ (Margaret) along with the suggestion that ‘maybe a teacher education programme isn’t essential at all. There is a distinct possibly that there is no future for teacher education programmes’. She also proclaimed that ‘education is about parting knowledge and understanding’ and states that what we need is an ‘educational renaissance’ but led by teachers themselves.

Sue made the assertion that ‘we have schooling not education anymore’ and expectations of what a teacher should be is ‘diluted’ and ‘undermined.’ She questioned whether there is actually any ‘greater trust in teachers to educate, to be able to educate’ from those outside the profession.

A more controversial proposal, perhaps, was that the rise of commercial companies providing ‘off the shelf’ lessons now ‘removes the need for any formal teacher education at all’ (Daniel). This was juxtaposed with the notion that teachers need to understand and know what they’re talking about:

If a teacher hasn’t got any real understanding of what they’re doing they are left in charge of children eight hours a day and they can do it anyway they like (Kate).

The question for the work-based questionnaire derived from this section was:

***Q6: The rise of commercial companies providing ‘off the shelf’ lessons removes the need for any formal teacher education. Do you agree?***

It sought to ascertain views about the need for any formalised ITP in the future.

* + 1. **Pedagogy**

Margaret’s view was that education is about imparting knowledge and understanding and that whilst there is a certain amount of ‘know how’ as well as knowledge e.g. handling a class, ostensibly it ‘that could be boiled down to ‘a couple pages of A4 of hot tips for the classroom’.

Conversely, claims were made that:

It’s been a long, long road where any knowledge about education, whether it’s knowledge about learning, you know, whether it’s about pedagogy, whether it’s about philosophy and also having some sort of historical understanding… about education, I think it’s just been lost actually, entirely lost (Sue).

Sue proposed three categories of teacher: ‘the competent classroom practitioner, the principled professional and then the educational thinker.’ This is an hierarchical perspective on the basis of knowledge with the educational thinker as aspirational. Ultimately she surmised that what schools and education is experiencing at this time is not so much ‘de-professionalisation’ as ‘*re-professionalisation’*.

Anything beyond subject knowledge input was dismissed by (Margaret and Daniel) as ‘silly ideas’ about ‘different learning groups’ on the basis that we are all human, we all belong to the same society and we are all capable of learning a common culture, common intellectual heritage. These views were expressed with fervour because they believed that:

To pretend otherwise is to perpetuate the kinds of division we have in this country; there’s some pretty damning comments on the over management when you have teachers who are so steeped in other people’s ideas they have no time to develop their own (Daniel).

He also questioned what is actually meant by ‘pedagogical content’:

I would think these terms are closely related in other words you know the pedagogic theory as it were and professional knowledge as to how you would apply that theory … if I take it to mean that, I feel there is no need for teacher preparation (Daniel).

Kate, however, called for ‘everybody to fight for a good pedagogical professional base in their thinking’ and ‘to be prepared to debate it. We need thinking people, we need people who are prepared for developing, to develop our work force, our population’ (Kate). Indeed, they extended this notion by insisting that teachers have to recognise the fact that they ‘need to look at the curriculum in terms of developing the children as thinkers and understanders’. Without that understanding themselves, there is a strong suggestion that teachers would not notice they were just teaching something narrow and undevelopmental’ (Kate).

A point of reflection for Jane was how:

One of the things as a profession we are not good at doing and it’s one of the reasons Government walk all over us is we’re very bad at finding a way to explain practice.

John referenced the steep move during the 1990’s which had many positive outcomes including the much more formal recognition of the contribution of school based staff in teacher education which was positive. However, the negative aspect of this was the removal of an intellectual base for teacher learning.

In my mind that has a danger of going too far in the school direction it nevertheless does achieve that creation of a pedagogy (John).

The intellectual questions posed by Brian Simon and Robin Alexander were considered by John to be ‘crucial’ because although there are craft elements in any profession the craft element is not enough to make it a profession. John defended passionately this notion:

If any profession is about intellectual work it is surely teaching because we are dealing with children’s minds, ideas, understandings, as well as their feelings, their own humanity. I just shudder to think of it if we take out the opportunity to study of education within the preparation and then continue to study it through the career.

John was less optimistic and suggested that a move away from an intellectual basis for ITP ‘will actually dehumanise teaching in schools’ and he was unable to bind to a simple view of teacher education concluding that ‘it’s got to be about understanding pedagogy really’.

The question for the work-based questionnaire derived from this section was:

***Q7: If education is about imparting knowledge and understanding how much ‘know how’ as well as other knowledge makes for effective initial preparation of teachers would you say?***

It sought to ascertain views about the balance of theory and practice in a future model of ITP.

* + 1. **Government**

There was a wide consensus across all participants that teacher training and education in its wider sense was not simply triply-troubled, but ‘quadruply troubled’ (Daniel) due to government and political agendas. The notion that various political ideologies are deemed to be educational matters and should be taught in school was also explored. A sense that Government should respect universities and a desire to see a government working in a mutually trusting and respectful manner with HEIs to support them in the teaching of subjects and engage in mature responsible and intellectual discussion was voiced.

Maintaining the professionalism of education was considered by Sue to be:

Absolutely relevant, it’s essential but it’s not seen as essential by the present Government and indeed past government instead we’ve got a real ethos of conformism and compliance and formulaic teaching.

Daniel observed how the Government have introduced:

A variety of schemes to minimise the impact of teacher education and these have almost invariably, these new schemes have been clawed back or marginalised by the teacher education industry.

Indeed, the influx of new initiatives in education and the constant changing of the curriculum has led to a situation where teachers are forever having to redesign their teaching in response to what is happening above; ‘we know it’s only temporary we have to play this game until the next Government or until the next initiative’ (Daniel).

There was also general consensus across the sample that although schools have been given more freedom by Government, there are still high pressures to conform. Assertions were made that Government policy has no intention of understanding a good pedagogical professional base and suggested that there is a disconnect between government andpractice. Subsequently, ‘teachers haven’t had the room to prioritise the confidence to select and defend what they’re doing so well’ (Kate).

Serious concerns were voiced about the current coalition government supporting a model of ITP which is ‘utterly intolerant to anything other than didactic teaching’ Jane. However, it was acknowledged that ITP, whatever guise it adopts, is always inspected by an Ofsted inspector and that it is often of a much better quality and much less variable than most school inspection and inspectors.

One interesting response shared by both Jane and Sue, suggested that the danger to HEIs was less threatening from Government than from Higher Education Institutions themselves who find education departments are ‘always an ill fit within their framework’ Sue.

Governmental initiatives such as the free schools policy, born out of the Academies Act (2010), was referred to as ‘an accident starting to happen’ by Jane and concerns were shared over the projected number of free schools in the future given that they can employ people without QTS. That said, she also acknowledged that schools have always had the jurisdiction to appoint non-qualified staff.

A further consequence of the model of teaching as outlined in *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) was captured by John who stated that such a model promotes the notion that ‘the only important part of learning to be a teacher is achieved through being in classrooms and being observed by others and observing others’ and, perhaps most significantly, that ‘the school based part is the only important part of teacher education’. Indeed, the whole concept of teaching seen in this light is one that they believed ‘threatens the teaching profession actually’ (John).

References were also made to ‘attacks made on theoretical underpinning in 1992 and to Kenneth Clark’s ‘barmy theory’ and the accusations that all teacher educators were left wing subversives. Crucially, John claimed that what current policy is trying to do is ‘undermine the partnership and turn it into an entirely craft model which doesn’t really need university’.

The question for the work-based questionnaire derived from this section was:

***Q8: An influx of new initiatives in education and the regular changes to the curriculum has led to a situation where teachers perpetually have to redesign their teaching in response to what the government dictates. A consequence of the craft/apprenticeship model of teaching outlined in The Importance of Teaching believes the only important part of learning to be a teacher is achieved through being in classrooms and that the school based part is the only important part of teacher education. Do you feel that this whole concept of teaching threatens the future of teaching as a profession?***

It sought to ascertain views about the impact of Governmental policy on any future model of ITP and on teaching as a profession per se.

**4.2 Findings from work-based questionnaires**

The purpose of the questionnaire was twofold: to obtain detailed descriptions of what an ITE partnership in an HEI graded as outstanding by Ofsted 2010, believes constitutes effective initial preparation of student teachers; to triangulate the expert sample findings within a work-based context. From a teaching staff of 30 and a further 10 school-based colleagues, 24 questionnaires were returned. The data is summarised below and presented under each of the questions drawn directly from the interview data responses.

Individual differences and outliers, however, are also acknowledged in a section at the end of this chapter. Responses are referred to by pseudonyms – in this case, (QR) for questionnaire respondent followed by a number rather than names due to the quantity involved. An attempt has been made to represent authentic voices and this time direct quotations were chosen based on four criteria:

1. they confirmed or refuted the data provided through the interview sample;
2. they were felt to represent the essence of the work-based and school-based partners’ views;
3. they gave a broadly equitable voice to each participant;
4. they offered direct links to the research questions posed.

**4.2.1 University**

The vast majority of the questionnaire respondents were strong advocates of an intellectual base to ITP and recognised the important role theory has for ITP to produce effective teachers. They also articulated the intrinsic link between theory and practice:

*Teachers need to be reflective practitioners and know the theory behind teaching and learning. They need to be able to link theory to practice and vice versa. In having an intellectual base they are able to research to inform practice and improve teaching and learning through looking at evidence based research (QR1, lines 1-3).*

*Any ITE or CPD programme that does not respect the intellectual base of teaching as a profession would be highly impoverished, in my opinion (QR3, lines 12-13)*

*Enquiry led learning and teaching are necessary for learning to be rich and meaningful (QR4, lines 21-24)*

*although ‘hands on’ experience in schools is crucial, it is also vital that students understand the theoretical base, have a deep understanding of how children learn (rather than just what) and can link theory to practice, demonstrated in their developing pedagogy (QR10, lines 61-63)*

*I truly don’t think the school based route addresses research enquiry (QR15, line 49-50)*

The significant and unique role of the university was also seen as a vehicle for CPPD:

*The need to continue this intellectual curiosity into their future careers as teaching is not a static profession (QR10, lines 64-65)*

*Universities should have a role in working with trainee teachers, new teachers and experienced staff to relate practice with theory and theory to practice to provide a strong foundation to allow teachers the confidence to follow, challenge and ignore initiatives and ideas (QR11, lines 78-80)*

Furthermore there was recognition that as a profession, teachers and teacher educators do not enjoy the status that they should:

*the need for the intellectual base to initial teacher training to be elevated because if we are to improve the standing and public view of teachers within society we need to provide them with attributes deserving of the profession… training them to as high an academic level as possible is one way which will help to achieve this (QR16, lines 97-99)*

The current role of the university and also potential future roles for the university were discussed in terms of providing or contributing to the intellectual base of effective ITP:

*University involvement enriches and strengthens the primary teaching profession. It allows capacity for sustained research and networking that broadens the understanding of the practitioner, enabling them not only to emulate the practice they see in schools, but encourages them to evaluate it using current research in order to refine and improve the profession and consequently their own skills (QR7, lines 40-43)*

Some consideration was given over to the notion of ITP without *any* theoretical background provided by the university from or elsewhere:

*I suppose you have to ask yourself what it would be like without a theoretical basis during your training? Would that be teaching or more instruction and direction? (QR24, lines 117-118)*

However, there were respondents who queried the role of theory in terms of:

1. **Its relevance to beginning teaching;**

*I had very little university input and therefore a very thin intellectual base. I developed my teaching style and approaches by observing others and trial and error (QR13, lines 84-85)*

*When I undertook the GTP route into teaching there was little or no intellectual or academic base and I truly believe that it did not make me a lesser teacher. My concern about a heavily academic programme is that I don’t always feel that students are ready for this nor does it produce a better teacher. The length of study however for an undergraduate is essential for them to mature! (QR15, lines 92-96)*

*The university or college does provide some helpful support but the more you do in school, the less important or dare I say relevant (?) it seems (QR19, lines 107-108)*

1. **The timing of it during a much pressured year for those on post-graduate programmes**.

*You need to have strong subject knowledge and good behaviour management skills. Any intellectual base may be more useful some time into your career but getting to terms with the job is the most important bit at first! (QR17, lines 100-102)*

*How much research enquiry is feasible and needed right when you are getting to grips with the basics? Can you really research what you need to know before or alongside getting to know it? I just think a longer preparation time is better for this. But if this is not what people want then I don’t see why students are put through it! (QR23, lines 75-78)*

1. **The content of the theory taught on programmes;**

*the intellectual base does need to be reviewed. I feel that students sometimes spend too much time undertaking menial, tenuous and tedious tasks that prevent them from engaging fully in aspects that will really enhance their knowledge, understanding and skill set (QR11, lines 81-83)*

*It depends on the type and role of the teacher, which model of teaching is deemed the most effective. If it is a teacher who is able to be critical, independent, autonomous, capable of instigating, carrying out and evaluating change, basing developments on a thorough theoretical basis then there is a genuine need for an intellectual base. If the teacher type is less demanding, and mostly requires them to deliver what has already been prescribed, without really analysing it, just accepting it then this would be less important (QR9, lines 51-53)*

**4.2.2 School**

School’s preparedness to adopt an increased role in ITP raised some concerns through the interview data. The culture and ethos of some of our schools and the nature of teaching within them, in particular, have some significant ramifications for ITP if it is to be largely relocated outside of the university. The combined issues of the quality of teaching being modelled and the quality of mentoring pose some challenges to the craft model of teaching and yielded some disparate views from the questionnaire data notably in response to schools delivering formulaic lessons and being conformist and compliant.

Those respondents who *concurred* with this notion claimed that student teachers need a basic starting point:

*Trainees need a basis on which to build so a scaffold for e.g. planning is necessary to support them particularly in the early stages of their course (QR2, lines 4-5)*

However, the strongest responses accepted this view and saw it as a direct consequence of governmental pressure and impositions on classroom practice:

*Schools do seem to be heavily influenced and constrained by the assessment and inspection processes for quite understandable reasons. As a result, schools continue to focus on practices that lead to good or outstanding outcomes in the National Tests and there is little doubt that ‘teaching to the test’ occurs in most schools (QR3, lines 10-13)*

*The prevalence of schemes to address aspects of English and mathematics seems to be higher in schools that are more vulnerable in terms of accountability. Many of these schemes are highly formulaic and are heavily dependent on set sequences, patterned learning and repetition rather than aimed at developing understanding. They rely on training teachers in the systems used and the materials are often a significant investment for strained budgets (QR3, lines 20-23)*

*This began with the introduction of the literacy, numeracy and more recently the primary strategy, where teachers were forced into a one size fits all approach to teaching and learning. The point of education has to be about more than the content of the curriculum and the three, four, five part lesson. Johnson (2007) describes how teachers who qualified from about 2007 onwards are unlikely to have known a time when the school curriculum was not tightly regulated and centrally imposed (QR4, lines 25-29)*

Interestingly, the notion of teachers being able to determine *how* to interpret materials from government was seen as a solution to address the charge of conformism and formulaic teaching but one that was context dependent:

*There certainly was a move towards tightly structured and formulaic delivery e.g. the 3 part lesson etc. But this is much less so if the school facilitates teachers having ‘permission’ to deviate from the prescribed formula and the freedom to deliver learning in the way that best meets the needs of the children in their classes (lines 61-63)*

*This very much depends on the nature of the conformism and compliance and its source. … most primary school leaders place great importance to consistent approaches to learning and teaching across their schools. In that sense, compliance and conformity at a local level may be very positive and may not lead to formulaic teaching (lines 7-9)*

Comments about Ofsted and its inspection process formed a large part of the response set. The vast majority of which were negative and apportioned the blame for formulaic, conformist and compliant teaching to Ofsted:

*The rigours of Ofsted have pushed some teachers towards wanting a correct ‘ofsted’ formula for good and outstanding and the previous strategies also gave the message that there should be a formula the message of consistency across a school can get muddled with this (QR7, lines 48-49; 52-53)*

*Increasingly found schools less willing to allow time for trainee teachers to take risks, try out new ideas and move away from schemes of work followed for years in the school in a way they have agreed. There have also been a minority of teachers who wish to make ‘carbon’ copies of the teachers they wish to have in school as opposed to letting the individuals develop their own style and responding to values and principles (QR11, lines 69-72)*

*In general, with the emphasis on SATS, league tables and results, many teachers are indeed being held hostage by their schools and are becoming formulaic. Much of this, I believe is due to fear of reprisals from OfSTED, particularly if results dip (QR12, lines 78-80)*

*My experience in Secondary is that results are the foremost priority. You should teach to the specification and given time constraints this becomes formulaic. Coursework is completed in a set way, often with templates, and looking at previous grade A examples. Theory input for the exam is taught by note taking and revision by past paper questions. I think there is more flexibility at key stage 3, however the emphasis on levels of progress and GCSE preparation, and the move to start GCSE at the start of year 9 means this flexibility is decreasing (QR13, lines 81-85)*

*There is an over-reliance on schemes and a belief that these will allow pupils to meet the assessment criteria. This means that pupils are often taught to pass the scheme criteria. If teachers are asked to adapt or modify the structure, they find this difficult and many systems now actually strongly discourage changes, even those based on professional judgements (QR14, lines 86-89)*

Some key points for further exploration in the discussion chapter also include the belief that the current climate in schools seems to be one of ‘fear’ in relation to Ofsted; of such pressure that there is ‘very little wriggle room’ to stray from the formula (QR18, line 93) and how ‘until Ofsted allow us the freedom to interpret the NC how we think is best for our children, this is what you will get I fear’ (QR 21, lines 98-101). A pertinent remark reflects the increased disempowerment of teachers at this time and even an acceptance of defeat:

*We have been stripped of our professional identity (QR22, line 105)*

*Good technicians still get the job done and it’s all about results so do I like it? No, it’s just how it is now (QR23, line 107)*

It is noteworthy that a small proportion of respondents refuted the notion that schools were formulaic in their teaching and learning and claimed that:

*I have seen a range of teaching and some trainee teachers are being allowed and encouraged to break free from this view of conforming, being compliant and formulaic (QR1, lines1-3)*

*I see teachers who are creative in their teaching, thinking ‘outside the box’ and delivering quality lessons to enthuse and motivate children (QR10, lines 59-60; 90)*

Equally, there were two respondents who accepted the schemes as saving time and sharing expertise: ‘I’m happy to take any help I can get!’ (QR23, line 109).

**4.2.3 Theory**

Respondents who concurred with the suggestion that the hugely pressurised education system debarred teachers from prioritising academic pursuits, cited reasons such as:

1. **Senior leadership teams affording time for it -**

*There will always be people who buy into the need for theory and those who do not (QR12, lines 35-36)*

*I did my MA in 3 different schools – on the schools and pupils. No one in any of the schools read my essays or even chatted about what I was doing! I don’t think it’s about appetite – I think it’s about time! (QR5, lines 15-17); time. It’s time we don’t; have or rather we don’t get given (QR17, line 49; also QR19, 55-56)*

*In my meetings with teachers, they often express an interest in continuing academic study but state that they no longer have the time to do this. Many have started an academic course but have withdrawn due to pressures at work. The lack of funding and availability of suitable courses has also led to a lack in interest; management teams often see academic understanding as a threat to the introduction of certain strategies and this in turn leads staff to believe that academic pursuits are irrelevant (QR12, lines 40-43)*

*This is about heads and heads who don’t or won’t or simply can’t finance/prioritise time for their staff in this way. The respect for it is there I think but it needs to come from the top down and be validated as a vital use of teachers’ time not a desirable add on or something you did when you trained (QR18, lines 51-52).*

*Theory and research are overlooked (QR1, lines 1; QR2, lines 4-5)*

1. **The value and relevancy of it at various stages of your career -**

*There is a great ignorance about the value of theory of pedagogy or knowledge acquisition. It wasn’t until I had worked for a few years as a practising teacher that I understood what being a teacher really is and only then did I truly understand the theory of pedagogy and the value of knowledge acquisition (QR15, lines 44-45)*

*I’m not convinced there really is a need for academic pursuits beyond your training – except maybe in management? (QR19, lines 53-54)*

*I do think some people get into a routine and a bit jaded and tick along so they may have less of an appetite than others (QR20, lines 61-62)*

1. **A discernible increase in the number of qualified teachers dismissing the need for theory over practical strategies to improve outcomes within tight time constraints -**

*Most good teachers are thirsty for good ideas and information on what is most effective. I feel that the pace of change and the rigours of the system in enforcing the changes, linked to performance management and punitive grading tend to create a more inward looking profession (QR7, lines 20-21)*

*If we are developing a compliant workforce there will be no need for academic pursuits because teachers will just be told what to do and how and no requirement to think about the why (QR11, lines 33-34)*

The implications for future practice could be far reaching and jeopardise the profession as a whole if we consider the response that claims:

*Some mentors report the challenge of having to articulate their reasons for adopting particular approaches to students, which might suggest a potential vacuum in their academic understanding of practice (QR3, lines 7-8)*

Respondents who refuted the suggestion that the hugely pressurised education system debarred teachers from prioritising academic pursuits cited a raft of examples to challenge this thinking such as colleagues who have undertaken further professional study such as SENCO accreditation or Masters’ course (QR1, lines 2-3). Similarly, where school-based colleagues are undertaking classroom based research or else are engaged with ITP.

Specifically:

*I think there is an appetite, but the amount of administration required limits teachers’ energies and time to engage in academic pursuits, network meetings, etc. (QR8, lines 24-25)*

*I feel that most ‘good’ experienced teachers and heads feel very strongly that there is an essential need for underlying theory and will ensure that their staff are encouraged and facilitated in pursuing further academic study. As a school we were very aware of the lack of underlying theory and pedagogy in some NQTs and very anxious that this is still respected and prioritised in initial teacher preparation (QR10, lines 28-30)*

*I think this largely depends on the school you work in. In my last school The MEd was offered to staff at a discounted rate, with lectures in school, and cover available for university based lectures. Time dedicated to the Masters counted towards twilight time so there was no pressure to attend school based twilight CPD. However this was down to the DH prioritising academic pursuits and was by no means typical of other schools I have worked in (QR5, lines 37-39).*

**4.2.4 Knowledge**

The responses to this question provoked the most detailed answers - particularly in relation to what constitutes professional knowledge. It was quite apparent that whilst there was some overlap of beliefs about this issue, beyond the prescribed curricular knowledge base, wide divisions exist. This seems to have been predicated upon what your educational philosophy is in regard to ITP and how the respondents were prepared themselves. Most respondents, however, reported that it was hard to define.

Views about professional knowledge ranged from:

*Professional knowledge is comprised of four key areas subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge and learner knowledge. Practically professional knowledge, for teaching, is detailed through documentation such as the T standards. Thus professional knowledge can vary from time and place – it is a social construct dependent on ruling ideologies (QR12, lines 83-86)*

*2007 TDA model of subject knowledge would seem to provide a strong basis for a required knowledge base for teaching. a similar model might be extended to aspects other than subject knowledge e.g. the wider role of the teacher and the school as a learning community might also be conceptualised in terms of the essential components (SK per se), application in different contexts (pupil development), school approaches (pedagogy) and school ethos and educational mission (attitudes) (QR3, lines11-15)*

*Knowledge in a dynamic (or changing) professional environment is not easily defined e.g. the curriculum content within any particular phase is subject to change so it is imperative that teachers have a strong sense of the relevant concepts that support progression and the subject-specific and generic skills that are commonly seen as part of the various subject disciplines (QR3, lines 16-19)*

*The necessary knowledge base seems to be fairly fluid, however, understanding people and children (psychology), understanding of social dynamics (sociology), analysis skills to understand data and fairly measure against standards (whatever they may be) and practical proven methods of engaging, inspiring, communicating are a pre-requisite. Man management and business skills are often important as a classroom teacher. Presentation skills and ICT skills, basic maths and English skills are a must (QR7, lines 39-43)*

To a stronger child-centred model which included:

*A secure understanding of how children learn and most effective strategies of approaches to teaching would be the most important aspects in my experience. This ensures trainees can apply adaptability into their teaching that ensures children’s learning experiences are at the heart of the process (QR6,lines 34-35; and QR21 lines 62-63).*

The notion that what you need to know is contextual and specific to your respective class seemed to find some sympathy with the respondents which has clear implications for the necessary genericism that a university-based programme provides.

*I think teachers should be open to the fact that essential knowledge changes from school to school and is often down to government changes and what is ‘trendy at the time’ (QR13, lines 88-89)*

*Increasingly the knowledge base is about the wider community and its respective needs although this is dependent upon where you teach (QR20, lines 121-122)*

The data also reflected a need for the knowledge base to include effective inter-personal and inter-professional skills given the diverse nature of individuals with whom teachers now work.

These skills included:

*The ability to think independently, to question, to research and problem solve. They also require an ability to work with a diverse range of people and cultural practices and understand how children think and learn. They need to have resilience in order to handle the rate of change in society (QR11, lines 74-76)*

*Advanced subject knowledge (ASK) to inspire learners; links between and awareness of the needs of 21st Century ‘employers’; awareness of needs of the children and their families. How to discern good practice, and not buy into commercial packages or the ideas of individual charismatic practitioners (Brain gym, for example); how to be critical; how to develop oneself (QR8, lines 49-52)*

*The ability to source knowledge and to critically evaluate sources and support materials requires a different sort of knowledge which is also an essential element in preparation for teaching (QR3, lines 20-21)*

However, what was also interesting was how the respondents acknowledged the change in the knowledge that was required and could be provided by the university and the other knowledge or know *how* that need not be:

*With such high numbers of ancillary staff and para-professionals you don’t really need to worry too much about the rest (QR23, lines 131-132)*

The idea of a sabbatical was met with an overwhelmingly positive response:

*Any form of sabbatical would be invaluable. It is very easy to become somewhat insular in teaching. This may even just take the form of a ‘job swap’ type programme allowing teachers to observe alternative practice (QR6, lines 33-37)*

*If teachers had a sabbatical to look at the impact of their teaching or teaching of others and research new and up to date theories and have time to explore it could improve teaching and learning (QR1, lines 4-5)*

Yet there were some views that challenged the need for and the nature of sabbaticals:

*The idea of a 5-yearly sabbatical has always been highly attractive to me, however, as with most in-service training procedures, it would be seen as economically unviable. Having 20% of the teaching workforce away from the classroom would be seen as unsustainable for the profession (QR3, lines 23-26)*

*Probably good for teachers not going off on long term sick but realistically I can’t see how heads could afford to release staff like that (QR19, lines 119-120)*

*One would hope that good quality INSET and CPPD would negate the need for any sabbatical and I have to say the cost would right that off too (QR21, lines 127-128)*

*Great idea but highly unlikely to happen until there is a marked change in culture across the profession (QR18, lines 117-118).*

**4.2.5 Training**

The data revealed a heavier weighting towards school-based routes not, at this time, being sufficiently well-equipped to facilitate an enquiry-based model of ITP for two reasons: firstly, the length of preparation and the teaching commitment required during that time and secondly, the culture and openness of schools to adopting a research based approach to their work.

The data reflected how there was some scepticism about schools readiness to take on an increased role in ITP and to support a route to QTS which involves any level of enquiry-based research:

*For school-based routes to facilitate research enquiry the schools themselves need to become active in the research field themselves. Teaching Schools are currently positioned at the heart of School Direct provision but seem to have been quite slow in developing their own research profiles even though they are providing ITT and CPD within their region (QR1, lines 5-7)*

*One interesting observation: how much have School Direct Alliances invested in library provision and journal subscriptions for their students, mentors and other colleagues involved in supporting trainees within their schools? (QR3, lines 8-9).*

The priorities and perceptions of the students themselves were commented upon and their rationale for choosing to undertake a more school-based route into the classroom:

*As trainees are in school most of the time then the focus is on the day to day role and managing each day (QR1, line 1)*

*I have found that students on School Direct do not feel that they should be ‘doing’ the research, reflections etc as they seem to think that their course should be based at school and not incorporate much of what they perceive as ‘university stuff’(QR10, lines 28-29).*

*These programmes do address some of these aspects but students often find it demanding. This is because they have often chosen these routes for a reason – to be less academic. In many cases the students who opt for the university route do this because they seek an academic foundation to their programme (QR14, lines 45-47).*

What was interesting, however, was that the training period per se was brought under scrutiny – whether it be more university-led or school-based. There was a call for the training period to be extended to better accommodate the research element of ITP:

*I think this is a really difficult issue to address and any depth in research enquiry a very challenging goal. Possible solutions may be an extended training programme to allow for this approach, or more school based emphasis on research (QR6, lines 19-20)*

*Lengthening the education/training period may be useful e.g. a 2 year process where there are clear stages of university and School based learning which would allow greater opportunity to study, reflect and develop a broader skill-set (QR11, lines 36-37).*

The only viewpoints that challenged the question posed and commented upon the opportunities that an increase in school-based routes could facilitate were:

*I can appreciate the opportunities school based training may offer to trainees in that they can apply theory to practice relatively quickly as opposed to a block in university, followed by a block in school and so on but only if there is sufficient input on pedagogy (QR2, lines 3-4)*

*This point appears to ignore the starting place of the participants. Some are already in a strong position to do this based well on their previous experience, and / or own personal strengths and interests. Having worked on both programmes I have seen this introduced effectively in both routes (QR9, lines 25-26).*

**4.2.6 Education**

The most emphatic response from the questionnaires came for this section. The suggestion that effective ITP could be supplanted by ‘off the shelf’ lessons was met almost unequivocally with derision. Words such as *never, rubbish* and *lifeless* were recurrent.

Just two remarked upon how such products can save time and duplication of work:

*Anything to help us! I use Save Teachers’ Sundays and there’s some good stuff on there. If we work together it is easier and we can focus on other things (QR19, lines 63-64)*

The vast majority rejected the idea categorically and spoke about how it was ‘saddening’ (QR12, line 44) and also ‘frightening and disappointing’ (QR4, line 12) to think that a rise in such companies could render formal ITP unnecessary in the future. Their argument centred upon teachers being de-skilled by blanket approaches to teaching:

*While there is undoubtedly a huge collective inefficiency in teachers constantly reinventing similar activities or uses of resources across schools, few schemes or off the shelf lessons provide effective learning without some modification according to context. Where particularly structured content and pedagogy is required some element of training is required, as seen in many intervention programmes, for example. In themselves, these materials are not self-sustaining (QR3, lines 6-11)*

*Teachers need to be able to ask ‘why’? They need to know how ideas have grown and which perspectives have been incorporated in order to provide such ‘off the shelf’ lessons. Teachers need to have the skill set to evaluate and enhance, to differentiate for their class and add their own values and principles. The rise of such companies perhaps means we definitely need formal teacher education so individuals are not blinded by publishing and persuasive marketing and pressures of quick fix results (QR11, lines 39-43).*

**4.2.7 Pedagogy**

This section arguably divided the respondents as they articulated what they believed to be appropriate pedagogy for ITP with broadly equal responses advocating ‘know how’ and the others challenging the notion that teaching is simply about imparting knowledge.

**Respondents who placed *as much if not more* onus upon ‘know how’-**

*Teaching is a practical endeavour and so ‘know how’ is fundamental. Of course, teaching is also an unpredictable and is heavily influenced by context, so ‘know how’ is seldom fixed (QR3, lines 3-4)*

*Part of the challenge for initial preparation of teachers is to make the implicit explicit (QR4, lines 7-8)*

*Although a basic knowledge base is necessary it is more about HOW that knowledge is imparted to ensure effective understanding and development of life long skills. It is more important to understand the how rather that the what and for teachers to know how to adapt, personalise, meet diverse learning needs in order to facilitate all children making progress (QR10, lines 28-31)*

*Only a small proportion of teaching is actually imparting knowledge - the rest is know how (QR20, line 61)*

*Teaching is more about facilitating learning than imparting knowledge (QR21, line 63).*

**Respondents who placed *less* if any onus upon ‘know how’ -**

*There is an element of ‘know how’ that forms a firm foundation of learning but it is not this insular, in my opinion (QR6, lines 15-16)*

*But it isn’t about imparting knowledge that’s the point… I firmly believe that transmitting knowledge does not lead to understanding, only to the regurgitation of facts and figures, and someone else’s thinking (QR4, lines 10-11).*

**Respondents who placed equal emphasis upon ‘know how’ and other knowledge -**

*I see a 50/50 balance between theory and practice. Understanding ‘why’ and ‘how to’ is as important as ‘what’ (QR1, line 2)*

*The pedagogical knowledge is crucial but it is hard to ‘know how’ to do something without ‘know that’ content material (QR11, line 33)*

*You can’t have one without the other can you? (QR24, line 68).*

**4.2.8 Government**

The idea that the only important part of learning to be a teacher is achieved through being in classrooms and that the school based part is the only important part of teacher education formed the basis of this final question. Respondents tended to concur with the notion that such a craft model of ITP would threaten the future of teaching as a profession. Through this question the data revealed a more detailed understanding of what school-based and work-based colleagues believed to lie at the very heart of effective ITP:

*In many ways it could be argued that professional status was surrendered some time ago, although this rather depends on quite how a profession is defined. While self-determination is not the only hallmark of a profession, it would certainly seem to be the case that the current environment in which decisions about education are made with little reference to those who work in educational institutions poses a threat to the notion of teaching as a profession (QR3, lines 7-10)*

*A classroom is a busy environment and it would be easy to fill the day with ‘doing’ without any real acquisition of knowledge and understanding (QR2, lines 5-6)*

There was also reference made here to the relevance and need for the university to remain involved in ITP to assuage the advancement of the craft model:

*In other countries teachers have to have obtained a Master’s degree. In some of these countries children are achieving at a higher level than children in England (QR1, lines 1-2)*

*Teaching as a profession requires not only excellent classroom practice but also the deeper understanding and pedagogy to ensure effective learning (QR10, lines 41-42)*

*The notion of teaching as a profession has already been eroded through previous Government initiatives. It shows a lack of understanding, of those in powerful positions about what constitutes professional knowledge and the skills needs to be an effective teacher (QR12, lines 47-50).*

Where there was a belief that the school-based element of ITP was and should be the more important of the two, respondents’ views included these perceptions:

*I don’t think school direct is bad as long as the people who are training them are engaged in research and enquiry; are keeping up to date and who are able to challenge students to reach their potential (QR13, lines 23-25)*

*You learn your craft on the job and that’s where you ‘pass’ and get employed so yes, it kind of is the more important of the two (QR19, lines 67-68)*

*I heard a student in our school talking with their mentor saying that what you study at university is all well and good but this is where you really learn how to be a teacher (QR20, lines 69-70).*

**Mapping the 2 Data Sets Against the 3 Research Questions:**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1. **What constitutes effective initial teacher preparation?** | |
| **INTERVIEW DATA** (expert sample) | **QUESTIONNAIRE DATA** (work-based and school-based colleagues) |
| * There was broad agreement that there is a place for the university in education, how much of that role should be involved with ITP was contested. * There was a strong sense of what constituted *poor* ITP with references to questionable theoretical input. * Effective partnership workings akin to hospital schools were considered to be a key component of ITP whereby practice was theorised and theory could be practised. * An equal measure of how to make sound pedagogical judgements as well as which to select and when. * Effective ITP goes beyond preparing students to simply deliver prescribed, formulaic lessons heavily influenced by Ofsted inspection criteria. * The opportunity for beginning teachers to challenge existing practice in a climate of openness and professional pedagogical debate. * Some levels of engagement with research and enquiry to produce educational thinkers. * The possibility of sabbaticals for staff could serve to maintain levels of interest and performance. * Quality placements and quality mentors. * Extending the preparation period to 2 years for post-graduates. * Reduced governmental involvement. | * The university is best placed to ensure academic rigour that is complemented by practice in school placements. Students need time and space to reflect and discuss what they think they are seeing in schools. * Teachers need to know the ‘what to’ teach, ‘how to’ teach and the ‘why should we’ teach. Some of this can be gained from a craft model but on the job training does not allow time to evaluate what is done and why. Teachers often are not aware that there are different ways of approaching a similar issue and that there is not just one way - the school way of doing it. * Teachers need to understand that learning needs to be personalised and know how to achieve this. They need to understand what underpins any lesson to be delivered - where the children are starting at and what the next steps are. * The ability to reflect and adapt based on a sound knowledge of learning are key skills that are provided through formal teacher education. * Strong assessment constraints placed upon schools may mean that more teaching is to the test and the need for ‘good technicians’ will increase. * Theoretical underpinning is important alongside not instead of practical teaching, but the nature of that theory, the depth of study and the length of time devoted to it requires review. Not everything can be covered up front. * Any knowledge base needs to have subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and increasingly wider inter-professional knowledge. * A professional knowledge skills set to include man management, PR and business are increasingly more relevant. |

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| 1. **What future is there for a strong theoretical basis upon which to prepare teachers for their careers in the education profession?** | |
| **INTERVIEW DATA** | **QUESTIONNAIRE DATA** |
| * The increase in school-based and school-led routes into teaching looks to be reducing the need for this. * The relevancy of some espoused theories was debated together with a perception of a prevailing culture of anti-intellectualism. * The concern that without such a basis, ITP will serve only to produce good trained technicians who are not equipped to defend their practice and who are vulnerable to others. * Calls for teacher education to be deconstructed and even removed in light of the rise of commercial companies producing ‘off the shelf’ resources. * This could be made viable with a subject knowledge based curriculum. * Without such a basis, the future of teaching as a profession seems limited. * Without such a basis, there is a risk that anyone believes they are able to teach. * Belief that good teachers are born, not made. * This aspect of ITP is under threat from governmental edicts | * Widespread belief that effective ITP should be theoretically underpinned and that the university is best placed to facilitate this. * Comparisons with other professions highlighted the need for teachers to be cognisant of current research findings both nationally and internationally, about their practice. * Questions regarding schools’ preparedness to provide this aspect of effective ITP remain in doubt. * Without a strong theoretical underpinning, the ability of teachers to discern good practice, adapt, modify and improve current practice is limited. * Were classrooms more connected to the practices traditionally seen as the realm of Higher Education then a different model of partnership might be developed in which classrooms and teachers were not distinct from research and enquiry but instead were the central focus. * The relevancy of any theoretical underpinning is determined by teachers’ willingness to engage with it. There is a sense that advocates of school-based and school-led models of ITP do not regard theory as important or perceive it as a challenge to the introduction of other strategies. * Student orientation to theory is framed by their choice of route into the classroom. * In models of ITP which place greater onus upon pedagogical tricks than evidence-based practice, the need for theory is significantly diluted. |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1. **What impact is current governmental policy having upon the status of the profession as one which is informed through research and is theoretically based?** | |
| **INTERVIEW DATA** | **QUESTIONNAIRE DATA** |
| * The more Universities become instruments of government, the less power and control they will have in relation to ITP. * An increase in school-based provision requires closer consideration of the quality of those schools undertaking that role. * The increase in the culture of performativity in education is turning schools into businesses where the product is more important than the process. * As long as credentialism is favoured over transformative education, then teaching as a profession is lost. * Without any clear sense of appropriate theory for ITP, then the government will continue to prioritise practice. Further clarification as to what is understood by ‘academic’, ‘intellectual’ and theoretical’ could be a step towards a pedagogy for ITP. * Calls for an increase in the type of research being undertaken across the sector to give teachers and teacher educators a much stronger voice to defend their practice as professionals in the field. * Punitive Ofsted process is unhelpful and exacerbates an existing tension between HEIs and ITP departments. * Short term routes into teaching produce teachers who do not place high value in wider theoretical underpinning. | * The influence of governmental schemes – such as assessment, has placed unfeasible constraint upon teachers’ ability to engage with wider professional learning. * Ofsted largely to blame for the demise of research-based practice amongst qualified teachers. * The pace and rate of governmental changes do not allow for teachers to embed knowledge and build upon it before another initiative arrives with another change in priorities for the classroom. |

**Outliers and Minority Views:**

**RQ1:**

The belief that there is no need for the university or formal teacher education and the notion of Primary teaching as a graduate profession is unnecessary and that Primary school teaching as generalist is ‘dead wrong’.

That there should be a diverse range of routes into teaching and this should be seen as a strength of teacher education not a threat. Different routes offer different benefits and are suitable to different learners.

**RQ2:**

Education Departments find themselves an ill fit within HEIs and so face internal challenges and constraints as well as externally.

**RQ3:**

HEIs are always inspected by Ofsted and they are often given a good bill of health so a move towards a school-centred model seems at odds with this.

We should let it hit rock bottom because then someone will have to take action.

**4.3 Key findings and Emerging Issues in Relation to the Research Questions:**

The distilled findings presented above highlight areas of significant interest in relation to the focus of the project and the 3 research questions which underpin the study.

It is clear that the role of university in ITP in the future is vulnerable in its current state and that the nature, length and depth of academic input during the initial phase of teacher preparation demand review. To determine the most effective means of preparing teachers for the demands of our 21st century classrooms, we need to consider what teachers of the future will be required to do.

The readiness of schools to embrace a significantly increased role in ITP and notably any involvement in research based teaching and learning also warrants closer scrutiny along with the notion of sabbaticals for CPPD.

Perhaps the most contentious section of the findings was that of professional knowledge and the suggestion that it should be context specific has implications for any increase in school-based routes into teaching. Equally, the increased number of para-professionals working in schools seems to be redefining what teachers are called upon to do within their contract with inevitable implications for course content on any ITP programmes of the future.

Although the transmissive model of teaching seems to have been rejected largely, and off the shelf materials dismissed, the ‘know how’ and pedagogical knowledge base seems to still find favour from both data sets. How this fits into a model of ITP for the future will be considered in the discussion chapter next.

**Chapter 5: Discussion**

The research project sought to discover what the future holds for initial teacher preparation in England by exploring the distinct contributions made by both universities and schools. The research questions were based around three cornerstones of enquiry:

1. What constitutes effective initial teacher preparation?
2. What future is there for a strong theoretical basis upon which to prepare teachers for their careers in the education profession?
3. What impact is governmental policy having upon the status of the profession as one which is informed through research and is underpinned by theory?

The corpus of 8 key words that underpinned the study, now structure the discussion: university, school, theory, knowledge, training, education, pedagogy, government. The participants’ responses from both the interviews and the questionnaires function as a vehicle for the journey of the discussion whilst the literature maps out the terrain. Methodological considerations are also reviewed and discussed towards the end of the chapter.

The chapter begins with the university: the role it currently plays in effective initial teacher preparation and its unique contribution to model of ITP which devolves increased autonomy to the schools. Given that the core business of schools is to educate children, how viable or indeed appropriate it is to place the responsibility for preparing new entrants to the profession with classroom based practitioners will also be considered.

The discussion then focuses upon the relevancy of theory in the process. It asks, if beginning teachers are expected to simply deliver governmental edicts and have their performance judged against progress and attainment targets for the children in their care, is there a place or time for engagement with theoretical perspectives or research findings to inform practice during this *initial* stage of their preparation for the classroom?

Allied to this aspect of the debate lies the issue of knowledge itself. What do we *mean* by knowledge? What knowledge is required or desired by beginning teachers as they prepare for the classroom? What should be prioritised and who makes that decision? Here the discussion tackles the tensions between all aspects of what may constitute an appropriate knowledge base during initial teacher preparation including the broad arenas of subject knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, theoretical knowledge and professional knowledge.

The discussion then seeks to analyse the dichotomous relationship between initial teacher training and initial teacher education before turning to investigate the status of pedagogy in the profession. Mirroring Rudestam and Newton’s (1992) metaphor of film-making analogy mentioned in the introduction, the focus of the debate then pans out to broach both national and international perspectives on initial teacher preparation by examining governmental influences and the political drivers which determine education policy.

Subsequently, the findings from both data sets are synthesized with the wider literature to drive the critical reflection which in turn, will determine the conclusions and recommendations of the project. Although the discussion is framed by separate consideration of the 8 key areas which underpin the project, at the end of this section an integrated summation of those 8 areas is provided as in reality, all are interlinked.

**5.1 The Role of the University**

The role of Higher Education Institutes (HEIs) and Universities in ITP continues to be contested, even though, as Furlong (1996) and Wilkin (1999) highlight, the range of benefits it can offer students and despite the Cross Commission as far back as (1888) recommending increased involvement of universities to address the *failings* of learning on the job. Both data sets reflected how the university provides an independent discursive arena in which practice can be critically evaluated and analysed. It can also contribute to the growth of students’ professional knowledge while simultaneously providing essential quality control mechanisms for new entrants. Over and above these roles, it is recognised that HEIs can also add to the education of teachers through their traditional commitment to critical thinking, to the discovery and dissemination of knowledge, and to truth-seeking *if* what is taught is perceived by fee paying students, prospective employers in our schools and of course the Government, to be fit for purpose.

Yet, the initial trawl of the literature revealed a disproportionate amount of work that could be construed as a subscription to anti-intellectualism and indicate a prevalence of theory scepticism (see Rhodes-Boyson, 1990; Pring, 1996). Using direct quotations taken from the literature to drive the interviews enabled respondents to interrogate the issues explicitly from their perspectives whilst also providing secondary data. The discussion begins here with negative attitudes towards the role of the university in the preparation of beginning teachers before engaging in converse views wherein the role and indeed the status of the university is elevated. The recurrent notion of the university as a defunct component in the preparation of future teachers certainly found favour with those who advocate the edicts of *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) with increased on the job training and a significant dilution in the role that universities should play.

Sykes, Bird, and Kennedy (2010) suggested that progress in teacher education is ‘triply troubled’ (p.1) as it addresses the nature of teaching in schools, its own institutionalization in universities, and the relations between school and university. This tension is amplified by Ben-Peretz (2001) who claims that teachers and teacher trainers face an impossible task as they are torn between varied and even conflicting external demands on one side whilst facing their own internal tensions on the other. Positioning the university in the context of globalisation, she suggests that the difficult question for teacher educators is how to deal with these pressures without giving up what she perceives to be important humanist ideas and other goals of teacher education, such as the development of autonomous professionals. But what if you do not share that philosophy of education?

Potentially, schools will be transformed from agents striving for the betterment of society to servants of economic growth (Smyth and Shacklock, 1998).

Coupled with this is a worldwide move towards recentralising control over education through national curricula, testing, appraisal, policy formulation, profiling, auditing, and the like, while giving the impression of decentralization and handling control down locally. The image of education is also revamped by reconfiguring the work of teaching so that teachers appear more as deliverers of knowledge, testers of learning and pedagogical technicians (p.20).

Subsequently the need for the universities to be engaged in ITP certainly seems evermore redundant. From the interview data, Margaret and Daniel would support such a view and the questionnaire data described how ‘very little university input and therefore a very thin intellectual base’ did not prevent individuals from being effective teachers (QR13 and QR15).

Over 17 years ago, Smyth and Shacklock predicted that schools will be governed by the ethos of marketplaces, which means a differentiated mix of teachers holding a range of qualifications:

Some of whom are fully qualified, others who are cheaper to employ for short periods of time and who can rapidly be moved around within auxiliary and support roles to help satisfy growing niche markets (1998, p.122).

With the emergence of Free Schools and Academies, the coalition government has encouraged a move away from the need for Qualified Teacher Status and the cost to the budget for schools. Indeed, the promise to increase in the number of Free Schools established under a conservative government post May 2015 reflects a growing appetite for this model of education and the teachers required to work within it. A range of peripatetic teachers for subjects in the wider curriculum is certainly not uncommon leaving the core subjects for the qualified teachers. The danger here is that the numbers of qualified teachers, who have undertaken a theoretically informed programme of study to attain QTS, become the minority. The statistics from the Department for Education’s School Workforce Reports (2013 and 2014) already reveal an alarming number of para-professionals in schools employed to perform increasingly more of a teaching remit. This teaching on the cheap model does not require highly educated graduates operating at a masterly level. In this sense, Margaret, Daniel and to a degree, Sue, are right when they say there is no longer any need for formal teacher education. That ‘process’ does not befit the required ‘product’.

Initiatives such as *Troops into Teaching* seem to further the cause by perceiving a straightforward transfer of skills from instruction and directive training to facilitating learning in the classroom with limited if any explicit teacher education. Whilst this may be more viable in specific subject areas and perhaps more often in the private sector or vocational subjects, the concern for the university is its omission from this growing appetite for cheaper ‘specialist’ from the field bringing their ‘real life’ experiences to bear on the children in front of them and the role of the university during ITP is obsolete.

Mapping the two data sets against the research questions allowed the key issues arising to be explored more closely in relation to the role of the university in ITP in the future. Fundamentally, does university-based teacher education have a role in preparing teachers for such a global profession? How can teacher educators reconcile the drive of globalization and the need to keep alive ideas of enquiry, inclusion and intellectualism as motivating forces in the work of schools? In what ways are teacher education programmes expected to deal with top-down governmental imperatives and simultaneous calls for teacher partnerships and increased school autonomy? The latter in particular, appears to lie at the very heart of the research project.

Several interview respondents’ perspectives in particular served to reinforce the polarised paradox of relevancy and redundancy with regard to the role the university has/should have during ITP programmes. Interestingly, school and work-based colleagues voiced similar concerns through their view of the university and the role it plays which calls into question the need for university involvement *at all* during ITP.

Given the potential conflict between increased autonomy of the school and governmental demands on one hand and the intricacies of theoretical and pedagogical knowledge on the other hand, teacher educators are confronted with a dilemma: to base their teaching on academic theories and the belief that the profession rests on the unique contribution that only they are able to make or to engage with the new landscape and carve out innovative ways of working with schools to uphold a shared responsibility in the future of teaching as a profession.

Close scrutiny of both data sets and the literature revealed a fundamental conflict between *training* for standards (classroom ready) and/or *educating* for learner needs (career readiness) as outlined in the conceptual framework. This conflict is not resolved by craft models of ITP as found in *The Importance of Teaching* (2010). Yet, the data sets suggest that the dichotomy can be bridged through new modes of partnership working – possibly over an extended period of preparation and through restructuring CPPD.

Teaching for understanding is a highly complex and demanding endeavour riddled with uncertainties. The role of the university must be made more significant to stand as a forum for critical thinking, reflection and debate on these issues. However, this does not need to be applied during the initial phase of preparation. This crucial input may well be better applied during the Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT) year where students have a real life context in which they can undertake enquiry-based teaching. The lack of time, the perception of irrelevancy, the stresses and pressures cited by the school-based colleagues in particular could be negated and opportunities for theory into practice could be afforded the necessary time for students to digest and embed high quality practice.

In an ever increasing market for Higher Education, one cannot ignore the students’ perspectives of the role that the university plays/should play in their initial preparation for the classroom. The rapid growth in the number of routes into teaching raised the question of whether student programme choice determined their beliefs, expectations and concerns regarding their levels of engagement with their respective Universities during their ITP phase.

Hobson, Malderez, Tracey and Pell (2006) reported findings about the preconceptions and concerns, relating to initial teacher preparation (ITP), of around 4800 student teachers who were undertaking ITP programmes throughout England in 2003 - 2004.

Their data concurs with some interview respondents’ views who believed that the majority of student teachers enter their ITP programmes with what appears to have been an apprenticeship orientation to their learning, with the belief that the school-based elements of ITP provision would be most important to their development as teachers, and with more ‘theoretical’ or ‘academic’ elements held in less high regard (Blake, Hanley, Jennings and Lloyd, 1995; Foster, 1999; Hobson, 2003; Knight, 2012).

One interpretation might be that most students, perhaps understandably, enter their ITP with what a lay view of teaching, focusing upon the visible in-class performance elements of the profession, and downplaying the less visible elements, such as the thinking, planning and scholarship which are required for consistent effective teaching and long term successful membership of the profession (Furlong, 1996; Maynard, 1996; Edwards, 1998).

For the purposes of this study, if students’ own initial conception of teaching is limited, it follows that initial conceptions of what is required to *learn* the profession will be similarly limited thus the role of the university will be regarded as increasingly less important. This belief certainly resonated across some interview respondents who not only believed the university to be obsolete in preparing teachers effectively for the classroom, but that any training at all was unnecessary in lieu of strong subject knowledge and an authoritative presence.

What was of particular interest however, was Hobson *et al’s* findings across the range of routes into teaching. Their data revealed significant variables between those students undertaking a 3 or 4 year under-graduate or 1 year post-graduate programme compared to those engaged in SCITTS or one year employment based routes where the locus of the training is often at distance from the accrediting HEI. Haggarty (2002) proposes that their agendas for learning through a more school-based route are influenced by images created from *observation* of teachers rather than an *understanding* of their actions, so that students are in danger of thinking about teaching as *telling* and learning as *memorising* (Calderhead, 1991). This results in students having immature and inflexible ideas about teaching and learning and, for example, any encouragement to adopt alternative classroom practices rather than ones they experienced themselves are likely to be ignored.

Surely then the role of the university should be centripetal in affording beginning teachers the forum to identify, debate and critically evaluate a range of teaching and learning strategies to ensure effective practice in the classroom? The questionnaire data defends those skills but does not necessarily accept that the university is the only place where this can be facilitated.

The number of alternatives routes into teaching has led to an almost fragmented delivery of ITP across England. With fragmentation comes increased likelihood of inconsistent approaches and variable quality of preparation which in turn could fuel those determined to bring about the demise of HEI involvement in ITP. Despite concerted efforts from HEIs to redress this perception of their role the respondent’s views coupled with the in depth literature review suggest that we have not moved on from what Goodlad (1990) noted: that ITP courses are often so fragmented that student teachers are reduced to ‘filling a large handbag with discrete bits and pieces of know-how’ (p.225). Indeed, Kosnik and Beck (2009) summarise the challenges faced by Universities in meeting both adequate and appropriate levels of preparation for our classrooms when there seems to be a lack of direction in teacher education. As the questionnaire data revealed in particular, teachers cannot possibly cover all the ground they are asked to, especially in the early stages of their development (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, and LePage, 2005; Hagger and McIntyre, 2006). As a result they alternate between a firm resolve to cover everything and half guilty decisions to omit or undercook certain topics so they have more time for other topics they know are crucial. Given that the perception of the university’s role in ITP is so poor and irrelevant to the demands of the 21st century classroom, it is clear to see how any model of ITP in the future does not need to include any university input at all in its current guise.

A reconceived model of ITP could, however, safeguard the future of ITP for our universities. The data from some interview respondents and the questionnaire respondents in particular, called for a lengthening of ITP programmes to two years for a post-graduate programme. The coverage of educational theory and practice is so extensive it is necessarily superficial and so student teachers do not gain a clear grasp of what the theories and practices mean. The breadth of coverage actually serves to militate against *depth* of understanding. Without sufficient understanding of *what* is being proposed, the new teachers cannot select, choose, *adapt and integrate* in the constructivist manner envisaged. A protracted period of preparation would accommodate high quality preparation and possibly improve career longevity.

Issues of transference from university to school also remain a real concern not solely in terms of relevancy but applicability, too. Given the context of the school placement dictates how much autonomy students may be afforded during their initial preparation, perhaps the university input should shift its focus into two phases of ITP: a) ITT to ensure students are classroom ready, b) ITE to inquire, evaluate and apply theory into practice during the NQT year. This would also go some way to redress the issues of stress and time pressures felt by students and support the new Ofsted framework for inspection of ITT providers.

Perhaps a more effective way of addressing this tension between the relevancy of the university and the reality of the classroom would be to establish much more effective integration of pre-service preparation and placement. An increase in the prevalence of this tessellated approach would enable student teachers to synthesize their understanding and apply it to the field in a coherent pedagogical approach.

Without a reconstructed model of ITP, a future for Initial Teacher Education could be severely jeopardised if, as Kennedy (2005) insists, we afforded more attention to survival needs than to the big ideas their pre-service instructors hoped they would implement. Supplanting well-informed approached to teaching a learning strategies with rather more perfunctory ‘tips for teaching’ would serve only to demean the complex role of the classroom teacher and undermine teaching as a profession.

**Reflective Summary**

Post *The Importance of Teaching* (2010), there looks to be a diminished role for the university in terms of influencing the initial preparation of student teachers. As a consequence, we look set to witness diluted levels of theory in light of what is now required of teachers in our classrooms. For Putnam and Borko (2000), Margaret and Daniel, this is not necessarily an unwelcome shift as there are possibilities and opportunities within this new landscape that could serve to better equip student teachers during their preparation phase:

For some purposes, in fact, situating learning experiences for teachers outside of the classroom may be important, indeed essential, for powerful learning (p.6).

And it could be argued that this is particularly true for student teachers during their initial preparation since their individual experience of teaching and learning *how* to teach may be limited and usefully supported with knowledge situated in different contexts, including that of the university. The proviso here would be that opportunities for forging understandings across contexts are amply provided. However, during a one year course, consideration must be given to the *balance* between the number of different educational settings to which students are exposed and those meaningful learning opportunities across high quality, diverse and challenging contexts which enable them to maximise their teaching potential.

There does seem to be a sense of missed opportunities in relation to ITP that centres upon the Holy Trinity of University – Student – School. The pragmatic vision of what *needs* to be done appears to resonate with the student and school (mentor); whilst the idealised vision of what *could* be done emanates from the university to the student. The ideas presented in teacher education programmes tend to be rather abstract, requiring new teachers to figure out for themselves what they mean and how to implement them (Hagger and McIntyre, 2006; Tom, 1997).

This process is predicated on an important skills set that many students simply do not possess during their ITP. As discussed above, notions of student identity and pre-course experience mean that not just the ability to apply theory to practice but also a willingness to do so cannot be guaranteed.

A review of the nature of partnerships between university and schools would require a considerable reappraisal of approaches to ITP and a rethinking of the roles of those engaged in the process including the role of the student teacher. For this to be realised, school and university practices would need to be recognised by each of the learning partners as legitimate expressions with claims to *different* competences. All stakeholders involved in ITP should be able to establish what Cassidy, Christie, Coutts, Dunn, Sinclair, Skinner and Wilson (2008) see as a requirement for joint educational enquiry; ‘a deepened sense of trust which facilitates critical debate’ (p.224).

Without this, there is a real danger that the current relationship imbalance between these stakeholders will ultimately cause the downfall of ITP as we know it. The role of the university will be reduced to providing accreditation of awards to those opting in to any qualification component in their ITP courses.

**5.2 The Autonomy of the School**

Research that has focused specifically on school-based training in schools frequently highlights the importance of skills employed by school-based mentors in moving learning forward in situated contexts. Mead’s study underlines the value placed by the Graduate Teacher Programme (now closed) primary trainees on discussions with mentors in developing their professional values and argues that this requires mentors to have reflective and dialogical skills. By extension, Mead implies that mentors also need to use their reflective skills to make links to central training through the mentoring process (Mead 2007; Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills [Ofsted] 2007).

Whilst this seems to promote effective tessellation of theory into practice and vice versa, it is however predicated upon the quality, experience and philosophy of the mentor assigned to that student for the duration of the one year course.

This study seems to advocate that all partners need to be aware of the whole enterprise of learning in the workplace, the culture at work and their place within it, as well as their own personal abilities, professional relationships and needs in accessing and transferring knowledge in and out of school. The issue here is that not all schools and certainly not all members of staff within those schools are competent, reflective practitioners let alone effective mentors of adult learners.

External pressures such as the Ofsted regime have brought about what respondents referred to as a climate of fear resulting in ever more conformist and compliant practices in school. In this climate, teachers are held to ransom about pupil progress, parental views and a huge raft of pastoral considerations that leave their own educational philosophies on the side line in favour of professional passivity to ensure nothing compromises performance related pay. Are these really the most suitable and effective environments to induct student teachers into the profession? How can we be sure that this model does not simply increase the likelihood of perpetuating any existing antipathy, disaffection and mediocrity? The quality of the mentor is absolutely crucial to the effectiveness of this model of ITP. Anecdotal experiences, quick fixes and survival tips aplenty but for longevity in the profession and a career beyond the realms of the Teaching School Alliance, it is not clear how beginning teachers might fare.

**Reflective Summary**

In the current landscape of teacher education in England, there is an increased appetite for teaching to be learned so substantially in the schools that the obvious reform is to locate preparation there, with the university playing an ancillary rather than primary role. This would realise the recommendations of the *Lockwood Report* (1964) mentioned in chapter 1. The dangers of placing too much emphasis upon school based approaches to ITP are still noteworthy - take School Direct, for example. The relative insularity of the respective Teaching School Alliance given that students are recruited, trained and ultimately employed within their Alliance – limits the opportunity for quality exposure to alternative models and breadth of approaches beyond tokenistic ventures to any feeder schools. Teachers who have interviewed students for programmes such as School Direct will subsequently become colleagues and so one could be forgiven for questioning the objectivity of the assessment process in this ‘Grow Your Own’ model of ITP; any assignments from the university could be seen as a disconnect from where ‘real learning’ needs to happen and that issue of transference reduced or even rejected.

The apprenticeship model, of doing the same as the other teachers, does not readily provide the analytic capability required to develop generic skills to span a range of institutional settings. And the limitations of placements with one teacher in one school for extended periods soon emphasise the student teacher’s individuality and of the need for an approach to teaching that suits his or her more specific aspirations (Hodson, E., Smith, K. and Brown, T. 2011, p.181-195)

The teachers themselves have undertaken a post to educate children and given the palpable pressures placed upon them by Ofsted, how much of their time, knowledge and experience can helpfully be offered to students through an extended apprenticeship model in extremely busy schools is questionable. Essentially, schools are *teaching* institutions not *research* institutions. Until such time as schools embrace and promote enquiry based approaches to inform classroom practices, opportunities to theorise practice and to practise theory will be compromised and the dichotomy between training in school and educating in university will perpetuate this professional impasse we still see in 2015. It is noteworthy that not one of the Teaching School Alliances responded to the questionnaire.

Conversely, the shift towards a more school based model of ITP could potentially yield significant opportunities in the creation of a pedagogy shared, understood and nurtured by all stakeholders. Through professional dialogue, the emergence of University Schools and by raising the profile of action research dissemination through fora such as Teacher Education Advancement Network (TEAN), now could be the time that after all this deliberation, the collective voices of the school, the university and the Government come together to espouse quality ITP on a global stage.

**5.3 The Relevance of Theory**

Edwards, Gilroy, and Hartley (2002) argue for teaching as ‘informed interpretation and deliberative action’ and claim that:

Teachers responsible actions … will be enhanced if teachers are seen as users and producers of knowledge about teaching, in communities of practice which are constantly refreshed through the processes of professional enquiry, in partnerships between practitioners and researchers (p.125).

A possible consequence of the reduction of theoretical input from HEIs could be that ITP in England is likely to create practitioners who have been trained in performativity against externally derived criteria rather than intelligently interpreting professional decision-makers able to respond to pupils as learners (Edwards and Ogden, 1998a; 2001).

A thread across the findings also highlighted the need for ‘some sort of enquiry’ to form part of any training. What appears to be in question is a) the nature of it and b) the amount of it. The timing of it is also important in relation to concrete opportunities to test out any espoused theory. Akin to the views of students about their own training, perhaps one could argue that teacher educators too are susceptible to their own preferences and ideologies. They too may prioritise what they believe to be important over and above those which they do not. Certainly this would resonate with Pring’s view about the ‘peddling of personal values’ (1996, p.15) and question the true value of theoretical input when the students’ own frame of reference is so limited. Yet those personal values are certainly evident within classrooms as well – theory help students discern what is and what is not appropriate for their learners and themselves.

There was a suggestion that there should come about a total rejection of ‘crazy theories’ and ‘therapeutic theories’ over a significant increase in subject knowledge teaching - notably for the Primary sector (Margaret). In a climate of increased accountability for children’s progress against expectations and where outward facing data scores determine the grading of your school, perhaps one could argue for some sympathy for this mindset.

This stance juxtaposes with the dangers of teachers *not* being educated through any sort of academic or intellectual methods. Indeed, the data pointed to the vulnerability of teachers if teaching becomes even more ‘utilitarian.’ As with any comparable profession it would be naïve to suggest that you only need to *what* you teach to any particular class in any one school as a means of effective preparation rather than *how* or even *why.*

Yet alternative viewpoints also hold some validity. Teachers surely need to know and understand why they do what they do and ‘theory allows you to build on practice and then judge it’ (Jane). So any increase in the marginalisation of theory to inform effective pedagogical practice would signal a very different future for ITP - perhaps one where for the *initial phase* of their preparation for the classroom, theory is not actually required. Theory in this sense, serves a different and potentially more potent role once students have qualified and can apply a more enquiry-based approach to their real classes. This proposal would offer a solution to the relative dearth of quality continuing professional development opportunities for teachers and possibly increase motivation to maintain their professional profile not just because of its link to performance related pay.

The existence of a cult of anti-intellectualism was suggested through the data because teachers are neither encouraged to pursue their own academic/intellectual pursuits nor given the time in such pressurised environments as schools. A change of culture and a re-establishment of professional identity would be required to address this issue fully.

There is a belief that generalised theory can only partly inform the multifaceted approach used by teachers in a seemingly infinite variety of teaching situations. Without a clear steer on what is meant by ‘theory’ and what is meant by ‘knowledge’, the two terms will continue to be used interchangeably. Knowledge may be derived from theories or theories may conceive knowledge. The role of the university, which is largely associated with the theoretical contribution to ITP, best facilitates alternative theoretical perspectives to those derived from any individual training context. However, a reconceptualised model of ITP could make it possible for schools to embrace theory-in-action as the lines of demarcation in ITP become ever more blurred.

Research on student teachers’ perceptions of theory in their ITP has been well documented (see McNally, Cope, Inglis, and Stronach, 1994, cited in Hobson, 2003, for example). They posited that the role of the university and its theoretical input might hold more gravitas once the students were actually qualified and when the basic pragmatics of the classroom had been established. This would certainly add weight to the belief that the university affords students the space for idea creation, theory discussion and deeper consideration of educational issues (Holligan, 1997).

Although a number of respondents did subscribe to the viewpoint that there exists a lack of relevancy of theory in relation to what the pragmatics of the classroom require, what became clear through the distillation process was the closer refining of what they believed to be the types of student teachers emerging from the range of ITP routes in their own field. What Sue termed: ‘the competent classroom practitioner, the principled professional and then the educational thinker’ substantiates the categories of teacher types that Hobson (2003) identified in an attempt to illuminate the trainees’ perceptions of the nature of theory itself. He found that the students placed in the category of ‘proceduralist apprentice’ (p.254) showed little interest in developing a broader understanding of education, and those in the category of ‘understanding- oriented apprentice’ conversely displayed an eagerness to engage with such issues, the majority of Hobson’s students, however, were placed in the category of ‘education-oriented apprentice’ (p.255). Students in this latter category believed that teachers need to acquire ‘some ‘background’ or ‘theoretical knowledge’, in addition to the ‘practice’ (p.255), but were not as effusive of theory as the understanding-orientated trainees. Consequently, the majority of students were prepared to acknowledge that understanding *why* teachers might behave as they do may have at least some value. Hobson concludes, that since much research underlines the value of understanding theory for teachers, student teachers need to be challenged on their ‘preconceptions about what learning and teaching ought to involve’, before research can lay too much store by their judgements (Hobson, 2003, p.258).

Surely here then, there is an opportunity to re-evaluate not just the nature of the theory in ITP programmes, but the timing of it in relation to the practical teaching undertaken – it could be that ITP is just that, an *initial* course to get student teachers ‘classroom ready’ and then during their Newly Qualified Status year, they gain the deeper theoretical underpinning they require to enable them to better understand the needs of their own learners as well as their own practice.

Interestingly, Hodson *et al.,* (2011) believe that ‘theory - practice splits’ have been progressively replaced by conceptions of practice that integrate situated conceptions of theory responsive to the needs of practice. Many re-conceptualisations of teacher education have privileged practical components to the detriment of theory and analysis. Many university providers argued that political changes had ‘reinforced the hierarchical relations and a clearer demarcation of practice in schools from educational theory’ (Dunne, Lock, and Soares, 1996, p.41) This point reiterates the prospect of a rather fragile future for ITE and its inherent theoretical basis compared to a practical craft base model of apprenticeship ‘on the job.’

**Reflective Summary**

One could argue that now that universities are to be released from supporting the everyday survival of student teachers in schools it might be suggested that they have a clearly defined challenge of negotiating a new role for theory, a negotiation that doubles as a new *form* of university teacher education and subsequently, initial teacher preparation. Sahlberg (2014) may offer a blueprint for what could be the *reformation* of effective initial teacher preparation in England. Outlining the educational landscape in Finland, the expectation that research is centripetal to effective ITP that it informs the rate and quality of children’s progress and delivers higher levels of attainment stands as a concrete example of how the inclusion of theory – but appropriate theory, at appropriate times *throughout* a teacher’s career – repositions and redefines the place, status and role of the university.

The Finnish education program represents a spiral sequence of theoretical knowledge, practical training and research-oriented enquiry of teaching (Sahlberg, P., 2014, p.85)

Rather than perpetuating the dichotomous relationship between theory and practice, this model would provide a platform from which practices in school might be contemplated from critically through effective enquiry-based partnerships located in Universities *and* in schools. The creation of professional communities of enquiry in this sense could potentially be supportive of immediate practice demands rather than seemingly reinforcing perceived irrelevancy.

If the very provenance of the term theory is at stake within contemporary educational practices, then theory needs to be asserted as cutting edge analytical engagement within the new landscape. Those working in current educational contexts – both schools and Universities – are best placed to *redesign* and *reformulate* appropriate theory.

A challenge to this notion is that the school based teachers themselves need to be equipped with the capability to create and own the theoretical and analytical resources that are up to the task of the teachers asserting their professional agency in the face of multiple demands on their practices. Yet simultaneously there is an opportunity for ITP to play a more elevated role in raising the profile of teaching and education in England. Again, the Finnish model of research-based teacher education provides a strong starting point for debate:

Research-based teacher education means that integration of educational theories, research methodologies, and practice all play important roles in Finnish teacher education programs. Teacher education curricula are designed so that they constitute a systematic continuum from the foundations of educational thinking, to educational research methodologies, and then on to more advanced fields of educational sciences. Each student thereby builds an understanding of the systematic, interdisciplinary nature of educational practice (Sahlberg, P., 2014, p.83).

As their role in initial teacher preparation becomes ever more peripheral and if the theory taught is increasingly less important, the current vulnerability of Universities could perhaps be addressed through such a model.

It would also rebuff counter arguments that Universities, instead of ‘meddling’ with ITP, should seek to extend their portfolios into CPD due to the relative paucity of provision offered by local authorities. An important issue for debate, however, would be what constitutes genuine theoretical input and evidence-based practice and what is merely supplementary INSET for schools.

**5.4 Appropriate Knowledge**

Perhaps one of the most contentious topics in the study centres on the notion of the knowledge base for teaching and what is considered to be appropriate for effective classroom practice. Heavy emphases were placed upon a secure subject knowledge base with an appetite to extend and develop this once qualified. The suggestion that the generalist approach to Primary school teaching should be reviewed in favour of a more subject-based mode of preparation poses an interesting discussion point. The perceived erosion of the foundations of a good subject knowledge base and the increased emphasis upon the social and emotional development of the children who populate our classrooms, seem to be reflected in the Department for Education’s School Workforce Reports between 2000 and August 2014. At the turn of the Millennium, teachers made up 71% of the total school workforce; by November 2010, the balance had shifted so that this share had reduced to 53% due to the growth in teaching assistants (TAs) from 14% to 25% and in other support staff from 15% to 22% (12).

The numbers of Full Time Equivalent Teaching Assistants increased threefold from 79,000 in Spring 2000 to 232,300 in November 2012. By August 2014, a further 4.9% increase means this number now stands at 243, 700.

These numbers may well reflect the growing diversity of the needs children have in 21st century English classrooms, but equally, they could point to a denigration of the role of the teacher and in effect, de-professionalization. If TAs can address any learning needs and peripatetic subject specialists are increasingly being bought in to deliver wider curriculum subjects such as Physical Education, Religious Education and Modern Foreign Languages, then the knowledge teachers actually need to possess both pre and post qualification, requires much closer scrutiny.

Respondents’ views also highlighted the relative paucity in a sufficiently broad and deep professional knowledge base for teaching. Professional Knowledge in this sense constitutes the ‘know how’ of teaching and learning as a symbiotic relationship. There are clear similarities here with what may be regarded as Pedagogical Knowledge where the school *could* be better placed to provide practical modelling of strategies and approaches but the university could also maintain its input by providing the theoretical rationale for actions and decisions made in practice – an increased repertoire from which beginning teachers can select what would be most effective for their learners. Whilst the former aspect of knowledge could certainly be met by increased ITP in schools and would potentially not require the university’s input at all, the latter raises the importance of effective working partnerships and reinforces the need for the development of learning communities.

For ITP to be effective, however, both the literature (see Darling-Hammond 2000; Edwards *et al.,* 2002) and both data sets believed there was a need for increased engagement with academic understanding and research findings to a greater or lesser degree. The caveat from the respondents in general, was that it should be applicable to the respective needs of the educational settings concerned. Since no two classrooms are the same, the ability for providers to offer such a personalised and even bespoke programme of input on any ITP course remains questionable. The university input in relation to this is necessarily generic and the onus lies with the students to justify and apply their knowledge to their respective settings.

The tacit knowledge that exists in classrooms and which forms the basis of increased school-based ITPs has its limitations. One’s frame of reference and need to know is determined almost entirely by what is in front of you - everything else beyond that becomes irrelevant and is rejected in favour of the needs and priorities of one’s own class. To avoid this professional myopia, the proposal by one respondent and supported by a high percentage of questionnaire respondents, of a sabbatical once every 5-7 years for qualified teachers, signalled the need to refresh and renew one’s knowledge base away from the confines of the classroom. Yet this reiterates the paucity of provision of quality, continuing professional development afforded to teachers by their employers and reflects how little has moved on since the James Report (1963). Moreover, it may reflect the need for a much more personalised approach to teachers’ individual and professional needs that lie beyond what any one day training course may offer.

There can be no defensible professional teacher education that is not based on a valid body of knowledge, although there are certainly disagreements concerning the nature of this knowledge base. Bridges (1999), for instance, suggests that in addition to subject matter knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, and understanding of the broader social and cultural context, it is important to include in what we think of as knowledge for teaching the following: teachers' understanding and commitment to professional behaviour, interpersonal and communication skills, and networking and team-working skills.

When deconstructed, what currently stands as knowledge is arguably made up of two parts: the substantive and the syntactic. The substantive knowledge (the *what* of educational knowledge) in England appears to reside largely in knowledge of the curriculum as sets of teaching targets at best enriched by the pedagogical knowledge licensed increasingly more overtly by guidelines from the Government. The syntactic knowledge of education (i.e. *ways of knowing* and talking about education) as a body of knowledge informing professional practice, is in its most limited form simply that which is prescribed in the quality assurance systems of the national inspection system (Edwards *et al.,* 2002) They advocate:

A knowledge base for education, which is constantly informed and reformed by work carried out by educationally grounded forms of social science, which responsibly engage together in supporting and informing the generation of locally relevant knowledge in the actions of knowledgeable teachers, might be a timely aim (Edwards *et al.,* 2002, p.100).

**Reflective Summary**

If effective ITP is considered to be induction and training, ‘on the job’ and almost entirely in the classroom, then the required knowledge base for that is substantively different a viewpoint that considers effective ITP to be preparation for a career long, educated path of research and enquiry-based professional practice. Discussing the nature of the knowledge taught on ITPs, Buchberger and Beernaert (1995) argued that:

It is debatable whether (prospective) teachers may acquire problem solving capacity in those models of ITE which focus on the transmission of knowledge products or on recipes for practice (p.402).

The actual practical situations that teachers and teacher educators find themselves in are so pressurised, diverse and unpredictable that such professionals may well have to make use of a more contextualist approach to knowledge rather than continuing to subscribe to the more static conceptions of teacher education as it currently looks. Therefore, the place of educational theory as the foundational knowledge-base of the teacher seems to be ever more important.

So if university-based schools of education, including those institutions that produce knowledge about teaching, have been struggling to identify what knowledge is of most worth and when it is best espoused in any programme of ITP, then surely that problem is not removed by simply shifting the locus of training to schools.

The maintenance of the role of the university in effective ITP seems to be predicated on its ability to provide schools with a *rich* and *relevant* knowledge base that supports and develops practice. Such a knowledge base could easily facilitate a professional interplay between location, purpose, content and process. None of which the school nor the university can do alone.

**5.5 Training Teachers**

There is little to defend in the system of initial teacher training that has existed in England since 1994. Introducing a competence-based assessment framework and shifting to a school-focused training programme has produced a generation of teachers who are competent practitioners within quite narrow confines (Lawes, S., *Standing Committee for the Education and Training of Teachers* (SCETT), (2011, p.24).

There is also a timely warning about the route we appear to be taking in this country in the following comment, again from a review of research predominantly carried out in the United States:

If the prescribed structures for teaching make it appear mechanical and thoughtless, unexciting and low-skilled in nature, then any need for greater knowledge and skill may seem to have been obviated by the routinized nature of the job (Darling-Hammond, 2001, p.761).

Despite the recent push to make teaching masterly profession, O'Hear’s (1988) claim that 'teaching is a practical matter, one best learned by doing, under the guidance of experienced practical teachers' (p.6) found sympathy with several respondents who also concurred with his view that teacher training courses were ‘full of trivia and obsessed with questions of race and inequality’ Margaret. Formal teacher training as he understood it, was ‘unnecessary’ for most teachers. Sentiments echoed by Hargreaves (1989) who called for Teaching Schools should be established as an alternative to PGCE courses and the training of teachers put in the hands of selected practising teachers acting as mentors.

One third of the respondents felt that good teachers possessed an ‘innate ability’ to teach and as such, no training was required. Competent individuals with strong subject knowledge were able to teach without formal training since ‘good teachers are born not made.’ Those who held this view also saw effective teaching as essentially a transmissive activity which may explain why the ‘know how’ was perceived to be of less value that the ‘what.’

The data also raised the ‘questionable and variable quality of schools’ to provide training. A variety of issues were raised which are also reflected through the literature. For example, having the space and time for research enquiry and reflection are significantly reduced on shorter and school based routes and so there is little or no time to think about issues or cover the ‘intricacies of practice’ (Kate).

Often, the shorter training routes seem to provide a more mechanistic mode of preparation to ‘get them through’ (Kate), rather than a process of personal and professional development of the individual involved. Also, Kate said that ‘on the job training the basis for a lot of the difficulties that have emerged in schools over the years’ and that ‘worst practice is perpetuated by people on the job’.

Synthesising respondents’ perspectives with the literature, there seems to be a need, highlighted by Eraut (2008), to encourage awareness of what is being learnt through engaging in ‘learning actions’ (for example through questioning or justifying observations, rather than simply observing practice). This enhancement of work-based learning is to some extent dependent on the co-investment of student and mentor, or experienced colleague. Contextual consideration must also be considered for this to be effective.

These perceptions are corroborated by Hobson *et al.,* (2008) who found that that school-centred initial teacher training programme trainees were significantly less likely than those trainees on other more traditional ITE routes to see the relevance of theoretical elements to their practice.

Smith and Hodson (2010) cite Hagger and McIntyre (2006) who claim that the school is the setting where teacher education best takes place. ‘Practical theorising’ (p.58) by trainees to access their mentors’ ‘professional craft knowledge’ (p.33) to develop personal thinking and practice is how a school-based model of ITP works. What was most significant in trainee teachers’ understanding of their learning was that they work alongside experienced professionals in school to develop competence, ability to continue to improve practice and propensity to engage critically with proposed innovation.

According to Smith and Hodson (2010), trainee teachers’ ideas do not appear to attach intrinsic worth to theory *per se*; a much more utilitarian view of the term is applied by trainees. The notion of any innovation such as described above seems at best to be ambitious in the current educational climate and so the argument is flawed.

**Reflective Summary**

Integration of theory into practice clearly remains a key issue as does the relevancy or rather perceptions of the relevancy of theory based on students’ own orientation to learning, educational experiences and their mentors’ own training. As we witness a substantial increase in the number of school-based training routes, the quality of mentors and also their schools, also remain contentious issues. Equally, there are issues of capacity in relation to how many schools are able to accommodate the number students that ITP courses currently have enrolled. Low number, proportionally, recruiting to the employment based route of School Direct in the primary sector, for example, suggest that schools also do not want to take on the significant responsibilities that are involved in ‘owning’ the ITP.

Prospective students’ starting points need close consideration and appropriate pre-course experience is crucial to success because immersion models such as Teach First present real challenges to those with limited or negligible classroom experience. There is a moral and ethical consideration surrounding the arrival of a full time student in a classroom who has little, if any, pre-course experience beyond their own education.

Russell Hobby of the National Association of Head Teachers (NAHT) claimed *In Defence of Teacher Education: A Response to the Coalition Government’s The Importance of Teaching for Schools (2010) by the Standing Committee for the Education and Training of Teachers (SCETT)* that ‘…depending on practical experience alone is dangerous’ risk of creating ‘fragile professionals’ (p.12). He also guards against devolving wholesale the responsibility to schools to train teachers since:

A school management team cannot reasonably acquire all the specialist skills required to creatively lead every activity an education system needs (Hobby, R., SCETT, 2011, p.13).

In situations where teachers’ actions are heavily circumscribed, their agency is also restricted. Tochon and Munby (1993)’s study concluded that student teachers were being trained to become self-monitoring deliverers of an agreed curriculum (Edwards and Ogden, 1998a) The emphasis placed on their need to deliver their plans meant that they actually avoided ‘risky pedagogic interactions’ (p.205-218). So simply, trying things out is, on its own, an insufficient prerequisite for transforming practice.

There is a wider context at play here. The OECD statistics suggests that poor teacher quality is the cause of low PISA scores and under-achievement. Therefore, a *longer* period of preparation would be the answer, not a reduction and simplification of it.

Perhaps an enhanced model of training can be achieved through implementation of what Lave and Wenger (1991) termed the formulation of ‘legitimate peripheral participation’ in ‘communities of practice’ (cited in Hagger and McIntyre, 2006, p.46). This community of practice would be where the school community, other teacher educators and trainee teachers collaborate to provide students with their early professional learning. School Direct delivered through Teaching School Alliances exemplify this approach well.

In this training model, trainee teachers are inducted into the practices of the school. However, through this model, trainee teachers are expected to subject ‘craft knowledge as espoused by their mentors, to sustained critical examination’ through academic discourse facilitated by the university (Hagger and McIntyre 2006, p.48).

Moreover, by positioning ITP in school but insisting on theoretical interrogation of practices observed in a way that would ordinarily have occurred in the university - especially at level 7 and especially if the mentor themselves does not possess this qualification, could present a challenge to the mentor’s competency and authority to teach.

There has been a significant increase in appetite for routes into teaching that align with training over educating beginning teachers in the USA. This commercialisation of ITP has led to the profession being increasing regarded as an industry. Businesses such as Relay Graduate School of Education (GSE) have even been cited by the Obama administration as examples of good practice. They market themselves as aground-breaking, nonprofit graduate school with an innovative Master's degree programme designed specifically to respond to today's urgent demand for effective and successful teachers. The resources on line demonstrate how the emphasis is on product rather than process in their model of ITP. Their link to ‘Great Teaching on video’ provides a series of top tips for success and ‘sure fire’ ways of surviving in the classroom which include: field tested techniques, watch and analyse method, measurable results, teachers as professors and leading edge technology. Ostensibly their mantra is:

Our program places a strong emphasis on concrete techniques that work on Monday morning. In other words, what graduate students learn in their Relay GSE classroom today can be immediately put into practice in their own K-12 classrooms tomorrow (Relay GSE).

This is no more than a transmissive model of context determined training which serves only to jeopardize beginning teachers’ professional knowledge and supplant it with ‘simplistic formulas or cookie-cutter routines for teaching’ Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). If there is high demand for such routes into teaching, if government and employers embrace such models and, if students themselves place greater relevancy on this method of ITP, then initial teacher education as we have known it must be reformed and realigned to meet the new market forces of the 21st century.

**5.6 Educating Teachers**

In the previous section, the discussion focused in upon the notion of training beginning teachers to equip them with what is needed to function successfully in the classroom. This section offers juxtaposition by exploring the call to have educated professionals educating our children and to discover if, as one interview respondent claimed:

Education has become a vehicle of social policy and social engineering. The purpose of education has assumed a necessary link with the economy. Education for its own sake, it seems, is untenable (Margaret).

The respondent voices were almost completed divided on this matter with those advocates of training viewing the initial education of teachers as not essential. Their opinions gained momentum when the purpose of education is seen as a means to wider economic well-being. Those off the shelf resources may well serve to furnish students with the fundamental survival kit for the classroom, but so much is lost through this mode of preparation.

Liston, Whitcomb, and Borko (2009) called for student teachers to be liberally educated rather than what they perceive as a ‘growing professional orthodoxy’. They have ‘serious concerns’ about any singular framework is offered to student teachers as ‘the sole lens through which to understand learning, schooling, and the larger social and political context’ (Liston *et al.,*2009, p.109-10). The limitations of a school based mode of ITP raises real concerns about training and inculcating in lieu of educating and critiquing.

For Liston *et al.,* the role of education in ITP nurtures reflective self-discernment as well as critical cultural understanding.

In this light, an important contribution teacher *education* can make is its development of teachers’ abilities to examine teaching from the perspective of learners who bring diverse experiences and frames of references to the classroom. It is uniquely situated at points of interconnection between the academic disciplines and educational practice although it need not be solely the remit of Universities.

For ITP to foster an enquiry-based profession there needs to be an increase in not only high quality teacher education, but sustained engagement with rigorous research on and in the field. Social theory perspectives for example could then explore the relation between teacher education and the wider society leading to an informed profession. Teacher educators and teacher educator researchers themselves must also play their part in maintaining critical enquiry into politics, processes and practices so that they too can develop a much greater contribution to the future of ITP and the status of their profession. Moves such as these would offer a strong and unified response to government and amplify the voice of the profession as a collective.

In this changing landscape of ITP, it has become increasingly more difficult to determine just who the teacher educators actually are and consequently, whose responsibility it is to provide quality ITP. The associated roles and responsibilities of all involved need to be better clarified and, perhaps more importantly the overlaps between theory and practice better articulated by all.

Toby Marshall from SCETT takes up the views of Kumashiro (2010) andwarns of the danger of ITP without a secure educational base:

Those who follow teaching scripts handed down from on high can never be good teachers. Instead they are pseudo-intellects, fakers and imposters, who are acting out rather than embodying active and critical engagement with knowledge and the wider world (SCETT, 2011, p.28).

By extension, Korthagen and Lagerwerf’s (1996) three level model of teacher preparation involves the transition from practical experiences (what they call the *gestalt* level) to de-situating knowledge derived from specific situations (the *schemata* level). This builds upon the notion of *situated cognition* (see Brown, Collins, and Duguid, 1989).

They suggest that practitioners’ schemata are very much coloured by the desire to know how to *act* in particular situations, instead of having an abstract *understanding* of them. The need for education about this during ITP seems unnecessary. The final level in this model is theoretical but interestingly, in the study by Hoekstra *et al.,* (2007) on teachers’ informal learning, no examples were found in which teachers demonstrated this level. This was also the conclusion of an empirical study by Korthagen and Lagerwerf (1996).

Yet if a teacher *does* reach the theory level, the knowledge at the gestalt level has to become part of an ‘action-guiding schema’ in order to start influencing behaviour, or even better, it has to be integrated into a gestalt in order to become part of the teacher’s routine. One can conclude that without this final stage a teachers’ effectiveness cannot maximised. Who is best to facilitate this process and where it is best located remains contested but the time and space to facilitate this would favour the universities.

**Reflective Summary**

Furlong, Hirst, Pocklington and Miles(1988) identified four levels of in their model of ITP which develop the ideas proffered by Korthagen and Lagerwerf above. Taking the starting point and endgame of their model, level one is practical training through direct and concrete experience in schools and classrooms. The fourth level is disciplinary theory, or the critical study of practice and its principles in the light of fundamental theory and research. A more school-based approach will train students through 'direct involvement in the practical business of teaching, their understanding and skills being developed in structured, analytical and critical reflection on their own and other people's practice' (p. 203).

But effective ITP does not begin and end with immersion at level one. It requires sophisticated, well thought through training programmes to encompass all four analytical levels. Any future ITE may have must defend and implement models such as this. Without this, there is a real danger of a rise in reductionist views of training as imitation. School-sited training does not *ipso facto* help practitioners to be adaptive, reflective or even effective. We need to keep in mind the balance that needs to be struck between the confidence beginning teachers need through their mastery of the skills of teaching and the longer term benefits which will result from an educated and secure value base together with a commitment to further professional learning.

ITP should and indeed must go beyond the basic remit of the occupational competence of teachers against a narrowly defined set of eight Teaching Standards. Equally, when considered as a cultural activity, the very nature of teaching follows what Lortie refers to as cultural scripts which are deeply inscribed by tradition, supported by public perception and approval, and handed down via the apprenticeship of observation. He suggests that this provides a powerful basis for continuity with past practice (Lortie, 2002).

Yet variables of each teachers’ respective style and own cultural knowledge base combined with a retrospective stance rather than a futuristic one leaves the future of effective ITP still wanting. It is perhaps these other influences upon beginning teachers that reflect the meagre investment of time and preparation proportionally for a career in teaching that shorter and assessment only routes provide.

Although the respondents from both data sets may not have agreed upon how they feel they would like to improve ITP, there was consensus around the notion of repositioning teachers right from the inception of their careers. Edwards *et al* (2002) captures this view:

Developing a capacity for interrogating assumptions, both local and general, should arguably be a basic intention for a programme aiming at helping student teachers to become theorizing and interpreting professionals who are able to work intelligently with others when meeting new demands and opportunities – and ultimately to interrogate and inform how we construct, contextualise and develop the core knowledge of pedagogy (p.133).

*The Importance of Teaching* (2010) could actually offer an opportunity to reposition teachers and teacher educators through reconstructed ITP which is not limited to curriculum and how it is delivered, but instead one that is geared towards creating teachers who seek and interrogate uncertainty - the creation of a pedagogy for teacher education afterall.

**5.7 The Need for Pedagogy?**

The Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Co-ordinating Centre (2004) contend that scant attention has been paid to the pedagogyand that there is no overall framework within which to make sense of teacher educators' practice. Too often, pedagogy has been understood to consist of certain common sense assumptions derived from their work as schoolteachers. This ‘craft view’ of the practice of teacher educators has not only masked any sense of professionalism but has also limited the development of a knowledge base – this lacuna has led to the absence of an adequate theory of teacher education and a common professional vocabulary through which it might be expressed.

Pedagogy, despite its ubiquity, suffers from considerable conceptual ambiguity and identifying a shared understanding of the term is not immediately straightforward. One definition commonly given is the science of the art of teaching (see Gage, 1985), but this offers very little clarification given the raft of assumptions surrounding the terms art, science and teaching. Pedagogy has also been described as cultural practice (see Giroux, 1997) and defined further as the ‘transformation of consciousness that takes place in the intersection of three agencies – the teacher, the learner and the knowledge they produce together' (Lusted, 1986, quoted in Lather, 1991, p 15). Although accepting the wider interactive context in which teaching and learning can take place, this definition does not provide a clear enough focus for the aims of this review. Alexander (2000) feels it necessary to clarify the differences between teaching and pedagogy, even though often both terms are used interchangeably. He distinguishes between teaching which is an act, and pedagogy which is both act and discourse. For him, pedagogy encompasses the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform or shape it. This perspective has significant and even controversial implications for teacher educators whose role might then encompass raising the consciousness of student teachers so that they are able to promote particular values through the acquisition and deployment of a more radical pedagogy. This notion seems to confirm Pring’s belief about ITP ‘peddling personal values from a public position’ and issues of subjectivity prevailing over agreed pedagogical practices and Millett (1996) cited in Edwards *et al.,* p.85) attacked teachers’ ‘personally arrived at pedagogies’.

On a micro level, Korthagan *et al'*s (2001) five tenets underlying the pedagogy of what they term ‘realistic teacher education’ offered a useful conceptual lens. They claim that the pedagogy of teacher educators should:

1. start from concrete practical problems and the concerns experienced by student teachers;
2. aim at the promotion of systematic reflection by student teachers on their own and on their students’ thinking, feeling, actions and learning; emphasise the importance of context and the need to adapt actions to those changing contexts;
3. build high levels of personal interaction between teacher educators and their student teachers;
4. take three levels of professional learning into account: the gestalt level, the schema level and the theory level; and
5. have a strongly integrative character of two discernible types: integration of theory and practice, and integration of subject knowledge and pedagogy.

Apart from tenet number 3, all others do not require the involvement of HEIs in the same way as has been the case in recent years. All of the other tenets can be housed and developed (to a greater or lesser degree) in a model of ITP that is essentially school-based. Thus, if there is a need for pedagogy, surely it is more likely to be derived from school-based practitioners? Thereby facilitating a ‘*re*-professionalization’ rather than a ‘de-professionalization’ as Kate suggested and, significantly, nurturing what Sue referred to as the competent practitioner to the principled practitioner and ultimately to the educational thinker.

From Brian Simon’s, *‘Why No Pedagogy?’* (1981) through to Robin Alexander’s *‘Still No Pedagogy’* (2004), the debate around a signature pedagogy for ITP has fuelled high levels of opinion across the field of education. The fact remains that there is no pedagogy for ITP or indeed for teaching per se. One has to ask if there is so much indecision about the need for pedagogy and as there has been so little agreement about how that should look, then might one be forgiven for asking is there any *need* for an agreed pedagogy for teachers and teacher educators in 2015. Yet, such a pedagogy could be more than a synthesis of theoretical knowledge (*episteme, theoretike*), technical skill (*techne*), and practical wisdom (*phronesis*), Oancea and Orchard (2012).

Data from the interview respondents, however, reflected some real concerns about the absence of pedagogically informed entrants to the profession claiming that the craft element alone does not make teaching a profession. Equally, that by reducing the intellectual aspects of teaching de-professionalises it. Yet it is the very lack of connection between school-based practical experience and the academic content in teacher education programmes is believed to be the main reason why NQTs are not adequately prepared to meet the needs of different learner groups in their classes.

Loughran (2006, 2008), Lunenberg and Korthagen (2009) and Mason (2009) also argued that teacher education needs to develop a pedagogical response to this problem.

The two data sets revealed a diverse range of perspectives on this matter including the notion that ‘education is about imparting knowledge and understanding’ and whilst there is a certain amount of ‘know how’ it could ‘all be boiled down to a couple of pages of A4 Hot Tips of the Classroom’ and a belief that ‘didacticism is at the very, very heart of teaching’ (Margaret). An overt contrast to a perception that teaching for understanding is a *pedagogical concept* as defined by Lampert and Loewenberg-Ball (1998) for example:

Teachers are to help students delve more deeply into the underlying meanings of the mathematics, engage their classes in discussion of problems and ideas, reasoning and understanding, rather than merely emphasizing performance. This kind of teaching creates challenges by opening up the classroom discourse as well as the ways in which knowledge is treated and by demanding a finer and more ongoing discernment of students' knowledge (p. 32).

Set within this concept it surely follows that there should be some *pedagogic knowledge* with which students are equipped as an integral part of their ITP.

Tom (1997) claimed that Professors of education have willing embraced this technical view of their work, especially during the first two-thirds of this century. He also suggests that not until the late 1980s with Shulman’s concept of ‘pedagogical content knowledge’ was there ‘a meaningful attempt by professors of education to bridge the gap between pedagogy and content. Enriching the *idea of pedagogy* is perhaps the greatest challenge of all’ (p.141).

It has also been argued that the pedagogical beliefs held by ITP entrants will largely have been experientially developed and are likely to be intuitively held (Lortie, 1975; Desforges, 1995; Tomlinson, 1999b; Atkinson and Claxton, 2000).

In this light, one could argue the need for conceptual tools to interrogate teachers’ specialist knowledge to determine pedagogic and curricular relevance for children at different stages of their learning. Equally, there needs to be a knowledge-base upon which students can evaluate their practical experiences in schools critically – possibly drawn from the educational disciplines thus enabling a deeper reflection on the wider issues of the profession. Indeed, Kate called for ‘everybody to fight for a good pedagogical professional base in their thinking’ and ‘to be prepared to debate it.’ Yet for the past twenty years, developments such as these have at times been subject to contradictory ideological forces in the underpinning educational principles and values.

Before any consensus can be achieved in relation to pedagogy and ITP, surely there is a need for more attention to be paid to what teacher educators themselves need to know, and what institutional supports need to be in place so that any future for ITP can become a reality.If professional education for teaching is to make ambitious teaching more common, it seems that we would need to make several assumptions that contradict the idea that this kind of teaching is entirely context bound and independently constructed. First, we would need to assume that this kind of teaching involves stable and learnable practices and that we could specify the kind of skills and knowledge needed to do those practices (see Stein, Engle, Smith and Hughes, 2008). Second, we would need to assume that teacher educators could teach these skills and knowledge, and that novices could learn them. We need to confront this seeming contradiction between flexibility and stability in order to figure out how to build knowledge for teacher education if the goal is ambitious/outstanding teaching (Stein *et al.,*2008, p.492).

A review of the respective roles of the HEIs and their school-based partners is key to the development of a pedagogy of practice for teaching. There are many contradictory overlaps in advice, philosophy and preparation between these stakeholders which can confuse students and leave them questioning the validity of either. Increased professional dialogue and mutual respect would provide a more secure basis upon which a *generative pedagogy* could be arrived at. Controversially, the unique contribution that HEIs make could be exploited far more effectively if the more perfunctory elements of ITP were devolved to those better placed to deliver them – the schools.

Generative pedagogical practice as described above would be a process of making judgements about the strategies to be used to assist learners’ increasingly informed interpretations and responses to children’s needs. This resonates with what Edwards *et al.,* (2002) would term as sociocultural pedagogy wherein knowledge is perceived to be something recognized, acquired and also generated through participating in the practices of a professional, learning community and teachers as those who assist the interpretations and responses of learners, for example, by modelling, explaining and manipulating the learning environment to accommodate that.

Given the statistical data found in the School Workforce Reports discussed above, any pedagogical drivers seem to be more in line with interventionist pedagogieswhich are attuned to UK governments’ interventionist preoccupation with social investment for economic inclusion. The need for an educationally underpinned pedagogy again seems at odds with socio-political priorities. Yet under the broad umbrella term of pedagogy, there are clear opportunities for ITP programmes to establish and develop their own theoretical framework and present a unified pedagogical stance to challenge those determined not by children’s needs but by economic drivers.

An interpretative knowledge-building pedagogy requires a version of training that sees classroom teaching as a community of practice in which novices participate in increasingly informed ways alongside more expert practitioners who help them to interpret and respond to classroom events by sharing with the novice the lenses of expertise they employ in their interpretations. It is a model which also requires an understanding of classrooms as places where practitioners are knowledge-builders and where discursive problem-solving is a legitimate activity which supports deliberative professional action (Edwards *et al.,*2002, p.113).

Teacher educators and also Government should therefore not limit educational enquiry to merely gathering evidence of what works - the craft of the classroom - so that it can be given to practitioners as a blueprint for pedagogy. Instead, teacher education should embrace the opportunities for quality professional development found in a perception of expertise as a capacity to both interpret and respond to the complexities of practice in increasingly informed ways. This type of pedagogy could conceive of what Edwards (2002) calls *agentic teachers* and forge a future for ITP. What education needs is a form of pedagogy constructed by professionals who are informed by and who in turn inform a shared understanding of pedagogies which meet the current and foreseeable needs of learners and their worlds. This is no easy task given that teacher education has failed to engage teachers over the years, much less bring teachers to its defence.

**Reflective Summary**

Teaching, seen as a social constructivist model, is a complex interaction requiring teachers to take a degree of risk, to destabilize learners’ understandings and to assist them as they construct more appropriate responses. However, pedagogic relationships between teachers and pupils in England and Wales are embedded in policy contexts of public accountability and performed in public arenas which heighten teachers’ vulnerability and which are arguably better suited to curriculum delivery and rote learning than risky interactive teaching.

The current landscape of ITP could actually present the profession with a raft of new possibilities by honouring academic freedom and allowing teachers to construct their own pedagogy (see Menter, 2011). However, if teachers still lack a structural awareness of the conditions which frame their professional existence (Bottery and Wright, 1999) then they remain insufficiently prepared to face this new challenge.

By creating a pedagogy for teacher education to help teachers develop the performative aspects of teaching through carefully selected and specified instructional activities will create stronger, more skilled teachers (see Grossman *et al.,*2009; Lampert and Graziani, 2009). The future viability of ITP requires a systematic pursuit of appropriate ways to develop, fine-tune, and coach novice teachers’ performance across settings. These activities need also to tessellate with university coursework rather than be relegated solely to school placements.

**5.8 The Influence of Government**

The literature review revealed that the increased influence of Government on education had many and far reaching consequences: For the roles played by school and university-based staff, for curriculum and assessment, for the management and quality assurance of teacher education programmes that needed to adhere to governmental requirements in order to gain and retain government accreditation. Indeed, the dominant discourse in England is one of standards, inspection, more ‘training’ in schools, flexibility for student teachers as consumers, and enforced adherence to government-prescribed curricula (Wenger, 2010). Political ideologies are evermore deemed to be educational matters and should be taught in schools. This sentiment was corroborated emphatically by both data sets.

Any new knowledge-based economy will require a new pedagogy to prepare pupils for the world of work and the notion of learning for pleasure will necessarily become a thing of the past. Teaching in schools and consequently ITP need to favour functionalism over epistemology.

*The Importance of Teaching* (2010) advocates a diminished profile for HEIs in their current role irrespective of the efficacy of their partnership working and turn it into an entirely craft model in which the university is redundant. Such a stance was considered by John to be ‘a political position, an ideological position which is value based and doesn’t respect the nature of learning and teaching’ and an over-simplistic philosophy of education which ‘does not hold up to any serious scrutiny.’

Much of the rhetoric that surrounds ITP programmes in England is predicated upon the attraction of alternative routes into teaching. Any trust and respect that the Government may once have had for the Universities involved in ITP is being eroded in favour of quick fix recruitment solutions to yield more impressive PISA scores. In response to the demands of the global, economic market forces it could mean that increasingly, the content of ITP programmes is reduced to ‘political putty, ready to be shaped by decision makers in response to hot-button issues’ (Sindelar and Rosenberg, 1998, p.189) and that universities become mediators of government policy rather than leaders of educational thought as proposed by Edwards (1998). It is, therefore, a matter of debate as to whether there is a need for teacher preparation courses to contain any theoretical underpinning, pedagogical content or professional knowledge at all. Despite this view, a direct link has been made between educational outcomes and economic performance by the OECD (2010) in the report, *The High Cost of Low Educational Performance.* Equally, Barber and Mourshed (McKinsey Report, 2007) note that although spending on education had increased significantly in OECD countries there has not been the expected increase in ‘outcomes’ that is in the achievement of learners in aspects such as literacy and numeracy. Thus ‘the main driver of variation in students learning at school is the quality of the teachers’ (p.12). ITP should therefore carry far more status than it currently enjoys.

So where does this place the Government’s agenda which will allow schools to be innovative in who they recruit to their teaching staff? Worries about the quality of teachers in relation to the rise of Free Schools and Academies were outlined by Jane who explained how schools ‘can employ jugglers and acrobats and nuclear physicists and that by the force of their personality they will succeed well you know the evidence is that they won’t’ (Jane). However, with the New Curriculum 2014, an increased rise in the wider workforce, increased employment of peripatetic teachers to deliver areas of expertise in the classroom, with what is left of the role of the teacher it is certainly viable to foresee a time when QTS as we now know it becomes obsolete in favour of models of instruction and schooling.

In this sense, schools are and will remain vulnerable to the kind of steamroller policy implementation that characterised the 1990s, and which a prevalent feature of Govian Education policy.

Deprived of a real understanding of both theory and policy, teachers are simply parroting the latest curriculum directives. Teachers in name, but technicians in reality (Revell, 2005, p.3).

With reference to the historical perspectives that frame the conceptual frame work of this study, it is not difficult to see just how far reaching the impact of political policy has upon education and subsequently teacher education. Arguably, antipathy for ITP reached its nadir during the late 1980s and early 1990s. If we consider Stuart Sexton’s 1987 pamphlet from the Institute of Economic Affairs, Education Unit ‘*Our Schools - A Radical Policy*’ and that of The Hillgate Group (1987) - ‘*The Reform of British Education,’* both are broadly dismissive or teacher-training and in-service education. Sexton even suggests that some education departments, at both universities and non-universities are said to be ‘so unacceptable as to be worthy of closure’ urging ‘new measures on the training courses for more practical training on how to teach’(p.20) (cited in Ball 1990, chp.3, p.43).

Calls to move away from educational theory amplified and publications such as the Social Affairs Unit document ‘*Detecting Bad Schools: A Guide for Normal Parents’* (Anderson 1982) espoused that:

Teachers with Cert Ed after their names have studied nonsense for three years. Those with BEd for three or four years. Those with PGCE have had a rest for one year studying nonsense after doing a proper subject and those with MEd or AdvDipEd have returned for super nonsense (p.11) (cited in Ball 1990, chp.3, p.50).

The Hillgate Group suggested that:

Staff without formal teaching qualifications (who have not had their brains stuffed with the dubious material now taught in so many teacher training courses) could be appointed (Hillgate Group, p.27).

Whilst this clearly laid the groundwork for the Licensed Teacher Scheme, under Kenneth Baker’s jurisdiction in 1989 and was also a consequence of teacher shortages, it still provides a clear reflection of the power that politics has had – and continues to have, upon ITP and education more widely. The current coalition government’s concept of the Free Schools and the rise of the Academies certainly resonate with this rhetoric.

O'Keefe, D. (1990) accused teacher trainers of creating a ‘Blue Peter curriculum’ that promotes low academic standards in schools and that deprived children of basic skills. He claimed that the colleges have taught an egalitarian philosophy which was dismissive of pupils' academic needs. He also attacked colleges for their prominence in the movement against streaming and competitive examinations, their indifference to the setting of home-work and for supporting the open-plan classroom, team teaching, free writing, practical mathematics, the new history and the hydra-headed cults of equal opportunities. This perception of the role of HEIs in ITP was both demeaning and damaging long term. Perhaps in some quarters, this perception remains - right across the stakeholder field, which is why the move towards increased autonomy for schools as a model of ITP has found such favour in England at this time. Indeed since the beginning of the 21st century, it could be argued that a veritable dismantling of the education system and those being prepared to teach within it has come about through successive governments but particularly more right wing Conservatives.

**Reflective Summary**

One of the key responses from the interviewees in relation to political influences on education generated a consensus that there should be less interference from government and an increase in autonomy for those better placed to effect improved programmes of ITP. However, there was far less clarity about who that might be.

A consideration of international perspectives afforded some sense of educational and indeed economic context to the debate. Orchard (2012), for example, critically appraises the recommendations from *Teaching Scotland’s Future*: Donaldson Review (2010) and notes the proposals’ desire to improve the quality of teaching and school leadership in Scotland through a process that includes recognition, rather than rebalancing, of professional values. The Review also aims to develop a model of less fragmented career-long teacher education, by ‘striking the right balance and connections between university experience and school experience’ (Donaldson, 2011, p. 12).

Another key focus of the Donaldson Review was a concern with promoting high standards in teaching through an emphasis on ‘extended professionalism’ (p. 5), which largely supported the direction of the General Teaching Council for Scotland’s standards for teaching (GTCS, 2006; see also Whitty *et al.,*2012).

In Northern Ireland, for example, the government consultation document, *Teacher Education in a Climate of Change* (DELNI/DENI, 2010) identified a number of priorities for provision. As in England, the streamlining of the framework of teacher competences has proved one important consideration. Unlike England, however, strengthening school-HEI partnerships in ITP provision has been identified as means by which to develop leadership within the teaching profession as well as to ensure a less fragmented early career experience for new teachers, including opportunities for Continuing Professional Development.

Similarly in Wales, the General Teaching Council for Wales’s advisory paper, *Raising the Bar in Initial Teacher Education and Training and Early Career Development* (General Teaching Council for Wales, 2011), as well as focusing on ensuring higher quality of entrants to ITP programmes, identifies oversupply of qualified teachers, and enhancing opportunities for engagement with research and scholarship during ITP, to be of particular concern (for a longer term review of ITP in Wales prior to 2011 see Furlong *et al.,*2006). These political initiatives seem to support the role of HEIs but in a new capacity. A capacity that maximises their unique contribution to effective ITP, a capacity that recognises the importance of a research-based profession. Some of the problems that policy documents such as those described above purport to tackle are generic educational complexities that translate into particular concerns for policy makers across the UK. For example, palpable tensions in policy making could be addressed profitably by philosophical questioning include those between institutional or professional autonomy and control, or those between craft-apprenticeship, delivery- training, and applied scholarship-formation models of teaching and teacher education.

In their paper presented at the International Council on Education for Teaching 54th World Assembly 14-17 December (2009) Kissock and Richardson asked *Is It Time to Internationalize Teacher Education?* Given that no clear definition, consensus or pedagogy exists in England for ITP, then a close examination of international models could prove insightful.

Kissock and Richardson challengeteacher educators who continue to ignore global change and decades of professionalliterature that make clear the need to internationalize teacher education such as presented by(Cogan, 1982; Ochoa, 1982; Schneider, 2003). They suggest that ITP programmes should focus less on:

preparingteachers for schools in communities near (their) institutions (and) ignoring the reality that we live ina globally interdependent world, are part of the global (not local) professions of teachingand teacher education, and are preparing educators to educate young people who will livepast the year 2100 (Kissock and Richardson, 2009, p.3).

Yet this stance is at once political and philosophical. It asks the fundamental question: what is the *purpose* of education? Consequently, the answer has significant implications for effective ITP. Policy is clearly a matter of the ‘authoritative allocation of values’; policies are the operational statements of values, ‘statements of prescriptive intent’ (Kogan, 1975 p.55) But values do not float free of their social context and philosophical outlook. Closer discussions of philosophical orientation to effective ITP are explored below.

**5.9 Educational Philosophy**

The capacity to move beyond established ways of thinking, in order to reflect on alternative conceptualisations of longstanding institutional practices, roles and future states of being, shifts ideas of what *could* be made possible. Engrained interests are opened up for scrutiny, potentially displacing existing hierarchies and priorities. By so doing, a sense of what matters in relation to effective ITP can become much more malleable, thus ‘relocating importance’ (Laugier, 2011, p. 999; see also Cavell,1979; Wittgenstein, 2001, p.118). This notion is framed by one’s own educational ideology and philosophy.

If we consider Lawton’s overview of educational ideologies provided in Ball (1990) as a starting point for the discussion, it may enable us to better position current policy thinking and potential ways forward:

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There are further, even more characteristically philosophical problems that beset current policy-making such as questions about the nature of teacher professionalism, the role of theory in teacher preparation, or the conditions that enable rationally defensible practical judgment in teaching. While current policy-making emphasises school-based learning as a necessary part of preparation for the practice of classroom teaching, the assumption that it is sufficient, is open to question. Concern about the theory-practice divide in a teacher’s professional development presupposes that theory does indeed have a role to play, drawing on well-established arguments in the field (see Hirst and Carr, 2005).

Some might challenge the role that being well-versed in theory is unhelpful to teachers for example:

To teach is an aptitude, and…formal qualifications do little in themselves to develop it (The Hillgate Group, p.36)

While others have defended the idea strenuously for example, Winch (2012).Yet there are different ways in which a contribution from philosophy to the future of teacher education policy, practice and research might be made that has hitherto been under-developed. These are helpfully listed by Oancea and Orchard (2010):

* clarifying the meanings of words, concepts, and propositions, their logical implications, and the normative assumptions underpinning their policy usage (Wringe, 2011; Pring, 2011);
* offering second-order reflection on the conditions for democratic conversations and practical deliberation in teaching and teacher education (Menter, 2011; Griffiths, 2011);
* pursuing ‘intelligent argumentation’ (Phillips, 2007), perhaps in an alternative language, for alternative solutions to substantive educational problems (Winch, 2012);
* and exposing presumptions of thought to critical scrutiny (Higgins, 2011; Standish 2012; Heilbronn, 2012).

Indeed Oancea and Orchard believe that philosophy can usefully be applied to thinking about teacher education to support practical deliberation at different levels and on a range of aspects of educational policy and practice. Such considerations might be concerned with the decisions that teachers and teacher educators might use to justify particular everyday decisions in classroom situations and it might also help them to address general moral and ethical dimensions of teaching practice.

Considered in this way, the dichotomy discussed above is not simply between training and education, but also between social and moral ideologies and intellectual and academic development.

Both the respondents’ data and the literature drew the thesis to focus upon specific contemporary educational issues that give rise to philosophical questions which need to be examined critically. For example, what do we *mean* by education? Does the answer constitute a School of Thought or an Ideology? For the purposes of this study, the notions of Idealism and Pragmatism are regarded as schools of thought since any deeper semantic pursuit would compromise the focus of the project. Each is discussed below as they helpfully frame the debate about notions of effective ITP and support the structure of the conceptual framework that has underpinned the study as a whole.

If you subscribe to an idealistic philosophy in relation to education then you believe the aim of education is to discover and develop each individual's abilities and full moral excellence in order to better serve society. The curricular emphasis in this school of thought is subject matter of mind and encompasses literature, history, philosophy, and religion. Pedagogical approaches focus on handling ideas through lecture, discussion, and Socratic dialogue. The latter provides a key element of one’s view of effective ITP since that approach facilitates questioning and help students discover and clarify knowledge for themselves: the antithesis of didacticism and transmissive models of teaching advocated by Margaret and Daniel.

Should you subscribe to Pragmatism, however, the focus is on the *reality of experience*. Unlike the Realists and Rationalists, Pragmatists believe that reality is constantly changing and that we learn best through applying our experiences and thoughts to problems, as they arise. The links to the classroom and a more school-based approach are obvious here. There is no absolute and unchanging truth, rather, truth is *what works*.

The curriculum should bring the disciplines together to focus on solving problems in an interdisciplinary way. Rather than passing down organized bodies of knowledge to new learners, Pragmatists believe that learners should apply their knowledge to real situations *through experimental enquiry*. Interestingly this also points to a need for deeper understanding of pedagogical practice, an approach perhaps underpinned by educational theory and research.

The importance of one’s own philosophical orientation to education is central to the beliefs held by individuals as to what constitutes priorities in education, what the purpose of education is and of course, what ITP programmes need to include. By using traditional and progressive perspectives to critically analyse educational philosophy, then it is perhaps easier to envisage where idealism and pragmatism are positioned. The Campaign for Real Education, for example, provides a useful comparison of Traditional versus Progressive approaches to education, as seen in Table 3 below:

**Philosophical Perspectives Comparison**

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This comparison enables the discussion to delve deeper into philosophical perspectives and better understand what and why certain stakeholders within education tend to subscribe to certain viewpoints. They claim that:

Whereas the traditionalist believes that the purpose of education is to pass on a body of knowledge (both factual and cultural) to future generations, the progressive believes that the purpose of education is to change attitudes and values to construct a politically correct, secular, socialist society. Progressives give particular attention to English, History and RE, because these subjects have enormous cultural importance.

Since the 1960's, state education in this country has been inexorably driven towards progressive ideology by means of teacher training, the 'philosophical cleansing' of the teaching profession.

(CRE) <http://www.cre.org.uk/philosophies.html>

The CRE hold hard to a traditionalist stance on education and challenge a progressive approach to education. They cannot subscribe to an educational approach which believes that everything should, as far as possible, be geared to achieving equality of outcomes. For example they would advocate a subject dominated curriculum - not topic or cross-curricular - and a significantly reduced onus upon skills, attitudes and values. This belief has significant implications for the preparation of teachers since it dilutes their understanding of and desire for a knowledge based curriculum.

The need for debate about and around educational philosophy is key to determining the future of ITP in England. The polemic presented by CRE above and the schools of thought that help to frame philosophical perspectives on education collude to present what Morwenna Griffiths calls opportunities ‘promising contexts for engagement’ (2012, p. 7) post *The Importance of Teaching* of 2010. That school-based practitioners and HEIs are ready and willing to participate in such a debate, however, remains unclear. This uncertainty is exacerbated by a climate of cynicism across the sector fuelled by political agendas and economic drivers. Combined, these have created what appear to be divergent interpretations of teaching and ITP. Oancea and Orchard explain how:

State systems of mass education are shaped through societal consensus over what aims and objectives should be pursued and what counts as an educated young person, and therefore by what counts as an effective investment of public funds. These phenomena may be viewed as markers of the point at which policy and professional interpretations of the nature of teaching and teacher education practice may diverge, raising questions about the most adequate ways in which one might assess and critique their quality.

Oancea and Orchard (2010, p.575).

These discourses diverge in their understanding of teaching practice, and thus of the *kinds* of teacher education that might enable it to come about. Respondents also pointed to a need to engage in a more philosophical debate about effective ITP within the current educational landscape. There does not seem to be any clear and shared understanding as to what is meant by teaching. If you perceive teaching as an operative function, then you might consider it as a more managerial profession; equally, it is both technical and instrumental given the issues of procedure, application of rules and performance indicators for example. But by increasing the emphasis on technique - teaching as a craft – this subsequently makes practice amenable to control both internally and in particular, externally. Conceiving teaching in this way provides a distinct contrast to those who perceive teaching to be more of a situated and complex educative action enacted in a range of social contexts.

In England, the 2010 White Paperon *The Importance of Teaching*, together with the *Implementation Plan* published in November 2011 (D*f*E, 2011a) and the new standards for teachers’ conduct and performance (D*f*E, 2011b), used a language of autonomy, empowerment and professionalism to argue for more school-based ITP.

The intention behind the publication of new standards for teachers in England (D*f*E, 2011b) was to enhance the quality and moral purpose of the teaching profession and make a significant improvement to teaching by encouraging teachers to focus on the qualities and attributes that matter most. Exactly what does matter most and to whom remain highly contested issues. Without informed and engaged debate about the issues raised above then the profession is vulnerable to being policy-led rather than education driven.

**Reflective Summary**

Philosophical argument may also nurture discussions about the role of democracy in education and teacher education, focusing on the extent to which mechanisms of public governance of teaching and teacher education are needed. Hinchliffe (2012), for example, raises questions about the authority of the teacher in the new educational landscape emerging in a school system in England outside state control, while Menter (2011) identifies as a particular strength of teacher education in Scotland the fostering of a ‘democratic intellect’ (Williams, 1961) in teachers, and in public deliberation about education as a whole.

Organizations such as universities need independent critical thinkers and the ability to learn from mistakes rather than slavish obedience to the ‘approved’ way of thinking and doing things (Willmott, 1993). The unique contribution that HEIs can bring to ITP is the forum for reflection, for debate and for philosophical perspectives on educational theory and research findings. The reductionist view of HEIs and their importance as outlined in *The Importance of Teaching* 2010, significantly compromises opportunities for this to become a reality. Without it, the fundamental purpose of ITP will be lost.

**Chapter 6: Conclusions and Recommendations**

**6.1 Introduction**

This chapter serves to amalgamate the findings from the study and to discuss the contribution made to the field. A number of key insights emerge from the study and provide a new lens through which to view the landscape of teacher education in 2015. Some reframe the initial propositions raised through the literature review within the current educational landscape here in England in 2015. In one sense, the key tensions surrounding what constitutes professional knowledge and the place of theory in ITP are both familiar and longstanding. Conversely, the opportunities afforded to the profession to take ownership of effective ITP tenders a degree of optimism but not for university ITP providers.

Whilst there is a raft of caveats required to ensure that the future of ITP and the professionalism of the education system as a whole are safeguarded from political dominance, a reconceived model of ITP whereby the fusion of theory and practice strengthen provision rather than causing tensions within it, could be more tangible than ever before. Indeed, the dichotomous relationship between theory and practice could well be reconciled if HEIs and schools work more collaboratively to construct a mutually respectful model of effective ITP wherein professional or academic egos are set aside to create purposeful partnerships with shared goals. The assumption that all schools and universities are able to function in this way is naïve and the fragility of some partnerships should not be underestimated.

The challenges inherent in such a proposal include cultural change, financial constraints and competing priorities for both parties. However, the appetite for a school-based and school-led model of ITP also has the potential to reduce the role of the university to one of a peripheral observer unless the school-based staff has an openness to the need for theoretical input in any effective model of ITP, are able and willing to prioritise it and indeed contribute to it. An important consequence of this research, therefore is that school based colleagues are better equipped to understand their increased role and responsibility in ITP and the need for them to be better informed about what constitutes effective ITP beyond their own experiences.

**6.2 Potential contribution provided by this research project**

**6.2.1 HEIs and ITE Programmes**

The contribution to knowledge, practice and policy was at the very heart of the study. Cognisant of the claim that there is a disarticulation of the theoretical and intellectual foundations of professional and pedagogic knowledge (Menter, 2011) the thesis sought to build upon previous studies and explore this notion post *The Importance of Teaching* (2010).

The future of teacher education in its current guise is vulnerable in a political climate that favours the craft model of teaching. Many HEIs have elected to close their teacher training provision due to external pressures from Ofsted and increased numbers of schools opting for alternative models of preparation. *The Impact of Initial Teacher Training Reforms on English Higher Education Institutes* report by The Funding Environment for Universities (2014) state that between 2012–13 and 2015–16 the number of places allocated directly to universities has decreased by 23%. Additionally, the proportion of allocations to the School Direct route has increased from around one in five in 2013–14 (20%) to around one in three in 2015–16 (34%) (p.22).

That the debate is brought to the foreground now is important given the projected growth of non-university-based teacher preparation. The data from work-based colleagues revealed a limited awareness for many school-based colleagues of the wider landscape of ITP beyond their own experiences and programmes and so dissemination of the project’s findings should impact their knowledge base and ameliorate their understanding of the challenges ahead.

The research design itself offers a distinctive contribution to the field by engaging a small sample of reputational experts from the field and then adopting confirmatory comparisons between their data and that derived from work-based questionnaires. Other studies have used large numbers of questionnaires to look specifically at students teachers’ perceptions of training in relation to theory, such as Hobson (2003) and Hobson *et al.,* (2008), whilst Hodson *et al.,* (2012) used reflective diaries to capture feelings of preparedness for teaching with course tutors and two small groups of students, who each had contrasting delivery modes of theoretical input.

By actually engaging with the current experts from the field of teacher education through in-depth, semi-structured interviews, this project facilitated an unprecedented insight into the state of teacher education in 2015. To then undertake a comparative exercise with staff from one of just 8 HEIs deemed to be outstanding by Ofsted (2009-10) enabled me to capture a triumvirate of perspectives on the future for teacher education: a comprehensive literature review, the expert sample, the outstanding provider. Consequently, this study realised what Braun and Clarke (2013) call Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) whereby the core principles of a small sample and verbatim accounts serve to balance experiential claims against more overtly interpretative analyses (Larkin, Watts, and Clifton, 2006).

**6.2.2 Schools**

At this time of significant change and uncertainty in the field of initial teacher preparation, the contribution this study has for schools, potentially, is one of heightening awareness of the broader implications for any seismic shift towards school-based and school-led preparation. The data revealed how knowledge of alternative programmes and courses within schools is limited beyond their own lived experiences of the students they receive from their chosen provider.

Consequently, this research makes a strong contribution to knowledge for school-based colleagues in particular by providing an historical, political and philosophical outlook from which they can base their own effective ITP, from an informed and theoretically underpinned stance.

Perhaps most troubling was the discovery that no respondent mentioned the fact that the Ofsted Framework for ITT still lies with HEIs. The substantial implications of this and the associated requirements of future partnerships between schools and HEIs, did not appear at all throughout the data. The success of any future model of ITP rests rather precariously upon the respectful co-operation and collaboration between HEIs and schools – they cannot operate in isolation and ‘own’ the training process. So, without a shared understanding of the requirements laid out by Ofsted, the future for effective ITP that is largely school-based seems flawed – even on Assessment Only (AO) routes into teaching whereby only the individual’s competency against Teachers’ Standards is assessed.

Both data sets raised concerns about readiness and indeed the suitability of schools to take on the role of ITP. The risk of perpetuation of any mediocre teaching that may exist seems unavoidable without more stringent mentoring for students from those highly qualified teachers.

Moreover, the schools themselves indicate a need for greater clarity about what knowledge is required from the university’s perspective - simply knowing what makes an effective teacher against the Ofsted Framework is not enough. Without this understanding the fear is that indecision and lack of consensus will resign theoretical input to the annals of time in favour of performativity. In this sense, the benefit of this study to schools is particularly significant.

**6.2.3 Policy**

It seems that there are inherent contradictions within *The Importance of Teaching* (2010). On one hand it devolves more autonomy to the schools to deliver effective ITP; on the other, it recognises that countries with high attaining PISA scores have highly qualified teachers and the profession is regarded as high status. The number of routes into teaching now available has also served to confuse and ‘deter’ prospective teachers (BBC News, 18th April, 2015). The data reflected a belief that certain routes were deemed to be more effective at preparing teachers for the classroom than others and so the need for parity across these routes, in terms of quality and outcomes, is central to any future for ITP.

A potential model of effective initial teacher preparation for the future is proposed by Ure (2010) below (Table 4). The real concern is that dimensions 2 and 4 will be severely reduced or even lost should the craft model of teaching as espoused through the school-based routes into teaching continue to dominate the landscape. The emboldened aspects highlight what the data sets identified as being particularly at risk.

**A multidimensional model of teacher development**

*Content removed for copyright reasons*

**6.3 Personal contribution**

By undertaking this study, I have extended and challenged my own academic capabilities. Having had no experience at all of this type of research, I recognise how my research knowledge and skills have developed exponentially through the study. The process of this research has served to shape how I approach study, how I make links between sources of information and how to challenge assumptions - including my own (Stevens, 2010). I can now identify as a member of the research community more credibly which is centripetal to my employment aspirations, but the journey was not without significant emotion and personal challenge and so my empathetic skills, too have been reinforced in relation to the students with whom I work.

The impact of the study in my day to day work provides a contribution to the wider academic profile of the institution, increases my authority to teach not only within the programmes where I am currently assigned, but the scope for wider inter-disciplinary workings across the College of Education is now much more apparent.

* 1. **Conclusions drawn in light of the 3 research questions posed**
     1. **What constitutes effective ITP?**

To determine the most effective means of preparing teachers of the future and the role of the university within that, we need to consider what teachers of the future will be required to do. The point raised about the type of teachers being produced and for what purpose is noteworthy because the ‘process’ will determine the ‘product’. Effective ITP goes beyond preparing students to simply deliver prescribed, formulaic lessons heavily influenced by Ofsted inspection criteria.

It is clear from both data sets that all participants have a firm conviction in their minds as to what constitutes effective ITP in its broadest sense. There was agreement that a mutually respectful partnership between Universities and schools is the most effective model to underpin effective ITP is apparent. Equally, the university was viewed, at this time, as best placed to ensure that whatever academic rigour may be required is then complemented by practice in school placements. Limitations of a model which positions ITP entirely in schools included opportunities to facilitate time for reflection on practice, consideration of a broader range of alternative pedagogical approaches to those found in any one particular setting. There was also a sense that it was appropriate for there to be a range of routes into the classroom to best suit the personal and professional needs of future teachers.

Beyond the subject knowledge required to teach, the need for prospective teachers to possess an ever increasing skill set is apparent. Just how many of these skills need to form the basis of a university-based route to the classroom is actually questionable.

Thelength of effective ITP programmeswas prevalent through the data sets. An extended programme of preparation would facilitate more time to engage effectively with pertinent theory and research. Lengthening the education/training period in this way would allow greater opportunity to study, reflect and develop a broader skill-set. Due to the intensity of P.G.C.E. programmes extending into 2 years was proffered as a possibility to allow time for greater reflection and enquiry-based teaching and learning. This in turn would reduce much of the stress experienced by students which was voiced through the data sets. Given that not everything can be covered initially, a much more comprehensive programme of CPPD needs was suggested *post* initial training when the relevance of the studies could be keyed into a real life context. The nature of such a period of training would align teacher preparation with other professions. However, the growth of routes such as Teach First and the increased appetite for assessment only routes renders this idea futile it would seem as that *process* is not required for the desired *products*.

Effective ITP should produce effective teachers who understand that their role exceeds transmission. There was almost universal agreement that effective teaching comprises much more involved than simply imparting knowledge and understanding and that simply transmitting knowledge does not lead to understanding, only to the regurgitation of facts and figures, and someone else’s thinking. The notion that teaching is a script that anyone can simply follow if the plan or off the shelf package is good enough is offensive to the profession and serves to denigrate the status of the university input. Yet the strong emphasis on ‘know how’ does seem to augment the decision to devolve more autonomy to schools as that is considered to be the more important element of effective ITP.

**6.4.2 What future is there for a theoretical basis upon which to prepare teachers for their careers in the education profession?**

The direction of travel is undeniably towards that of a school-based and school-led model of ITP. As a direct consequence, the very suggestion of any theoretical input is in jeopardy. The relevance of academic pursuits has been highlighted as the main reason schools do not engage with theory or enquiry through their careers – it is not prioritised and for the most part, classroom teachers simply do not identify as learners or contributors to a body of professional knowledge.

If theory is deemed to be irrelevant during *initial* preparation, then the scope for engagement thereafter seems even more unlikely and so the core foundations of teaching as an *informed profession* will cease to exist and more ITE or ITT providers will close their courses.

For those colleagues who do value evidence-based practice, it seems that the university’s redefined role will be confined to that of CPPD modules.

**6.4.3 What impact is current governmental policy having upon the status of the profession as one which is informed through research and is theoretically based?**

Whilst the majority of respondents seemed to concur with the notion that schools are ever more formulaic in their teaching and conforming in their conduct there was a strong sense that this was the consequence of the intimidating influence and impact of Ofsted inspections restricting the opportunities and appetite for more creative practitioners who have autonomy in their daily work.

The increased number of para-professionals and ancillary staff now in schools through initiatives such as Free Schools and Academy chains has undermined the need for qualified teacher status to delivery many of the subjects that make up the National Curriculum. Consequently, teachers of the future may only be required to teach a narrow tranche of the National Curriculum to include core subjects. If this transpires then the need for any theoretical input during ITP seems unnecessary.

Despite all of the above, there was an overwhelming and vociferous rejection of ‘off the shelf’ lessons. However, few responded with a strong rationale for retaining teacher education in its current guise. Rather, the data reflected a cacophony of discord about what teacher education should *not* be, but offered no sense of harmony about what it *should* be. This perhaps reflects why government feels it can make decisions about teaching and learning since those within the profession do not or cannot.

Through a reconceived model of effective ITP entailing a change of role for both the schools and the universities, it is conceivable that classrooms could become more connected to the practices traditionally seen as the realm of Higher Education. A different model of partnership might then be developed in which classrooms and teachers were not distinct from research and enquiry but instead were the central focus of it.

In conjunction with the vision as outlined by *The Importance of Teaching* (2010), the government increased the number of weeks required for students to be in school, on assessed placement for the one year post-graduate programmes, by 6 weeks. The opportunities to come together at the university to engage in enquiry-based approaches are limited. How feasible is it now for students to research what they need to know *alongside* getting to know it in a pressured classroom environment?

Significantly, the National College for Teaching and Leadership has published its *Initial Teacher Training (ITT) Accreditation (15th April, 2015)* guidelines for schools – rejecting the need for university input entirely.

Poor attaining schools present as more vulnerable in terms of accountability to Ofsted and so the focus seems to shift to quick gains over sustained learning in order to comply with governmental edicts, despite the recognition that this is ultimately limiting for both teachers and learners. The fear is that the teaching profession will increasingly have no voice and that teaching in the future will be further reduced to mechanistic delivery requiring little, if any formal initial teacher education.

**6.5 Suggestion for future research and recommendations for practice**

What this study offers is by no means a definitive solution to the current problems and confusion that enshrouds ITP here in England. The intention was to delve deep into the lived experiences of the participants to elicit their responses to the three research questions posed. However, it is recognised that there are many possibilities that could be taken further from the findings outlined herein. The following are some specific suggestions for future research and practice:

1. Although the population of ITP experts is in itself relatively small, and so the expert sample approached for this study, too, was towards the minimum size to be viable (Polkinghorne, 1989), there is scope for a broader study from a sample which includes international experts in order to reflect the global tensions and possibilities that surround ITP.
2. The vast majority of the questionnaire respondents had qualified through a university-based programme whether that be under-graduate or post-graduate and were Primary practitioners. To replicate the study, focusing only upon Secondary or school-based and school-led routes would perhaps provide an alternative perspective on the value and guise of both professional knowledge and academic input required for any effective programme of ITP given that the latter is now a growth area.
3. Both data sets recognised the importance, to a greater or lesser degree, of some theoretical input during ITP and held enduring beliefs about what knowledge was important to possess as an effective practitioner. This conflicts with the literature and so it would be interesting to ascertain - perhaps from Newly Qualified Teachers, what their views were on this and extend the work undertaken by other scholars such as Knight (2013).
4. Little if any mention was made of EBITTs and the *Troops into Teaching* initiative from either sets of data and so in a landscape where there are many and varied routes into teaching, it may be insightful to research school-based practitioners to glean the levels of knowledge and understanding about such routes and their views on them.
5. The reframing of ITP with a greater focus on the involvement of schools necessitates closer partnership working which is imbued with complexities. For example, where Teaching School Alliances hosting School Direct students are distant from their HEI provider, in particular, how the theoretical input is maintained and used to inform or challenge practice would also be interesting to investigate in light of the propositions highlighted through the literature review of this project.
6. Some exploration of the proportion of NQT or RQTs engaged in academic pursuits beyond their initial training might also serve as a useful exercise to determine the relevancy of research and enquiry-based teaching beyond the award of QTS.

**Chapter 7**

**7.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, the strategy for dissemination and associated activities are outlined. Silverman (2010) believes that the need to contribute to ongoing conversation from and about the field is often overlooked as an integral part of the dissemination process. This notion is shared by Bourner *et al.,* (2001) in their analysis of the distinctive features of a professional doctorate, stress the goal of a contribution to practice, rather than theory and so audience selection for dissemination is key to securing positive impact on practice.

To that end it is envisaged that this study could potentially make a contribution to several groups of stakeholders in the field of Initial Teacher Preparation:

1. My own professional practice
2. The practice of work-based colleagues within the university
3. The practice of school-based colleagues across all routes into teaching
4. Wider professional audiences on educational policy.

In this sense the study could serve to extend the perceived distances that lie between the classroom practitioner, the researcher and the policy maker. The need to focus upon one ‘best fit’ approach for dissemination from one of those stakeholders is at once complex and not therefore without challenge not least because they inevitably expect different things from research because they themselves differ in power, status and aspirations (Eakin and Maclean, 1992).

**7.2 The Nature and Challenges of Dissemination**

Dissemination could be described as the ‘delivering and receiving of a message’, ‘the engagement of an individual in a process’ and ‘the transfer of a process or product’ (Harmsworth, S. and Turpin, S.,2000, p.3) This could be regarded as an over-simplification suggesting that the beginning and end of the process is linear and one directional. Such transmission or pipe-line models of dissemination are limited in effectiveness and subsequent impact. The model is not fit for purpose in this case and smacks of Shannon and Weaver’s (1949) mathematically derived linear model of communication based on an assumption that a message has been sent and received, but little if anything about any change that may be arise from the message simply reaching its destination.

A key goal of dissemination is utilization Blasiotti (1992) and this utilization process requires personal involvement; outside organizations must provide some level of in-person support including follow-up and on-going feedback and exchange (Louis, Kell, Dentler, Corwin and Harriott (1984). This process would certainly be suitable for the professional audiences I hope to reach. Effective dissemination regarded in this light, should not only contribute to the development of professional knowledge and understanding in the educational field, but also to professional praxis via deconstruction, reformation, extension and / or reconstitution of existing practice. However, I am aware that ideas drawn from research can need time to engage with and embed in practice. The chosen strategies therefore would be key to successful dissemination.

**7.3 The Dissemination Strategy**

Top-down dissemination strategies (Grasel and Parchmann, 2004) are less likely to succeed because of the (more or less pronounced) resistance of the expert practitioners.

Consequently, the dissemination strategies should be much more of an integrative and organic process whereby they provide respective audiences and stakeholders with a transformative vehicle to challenge and develop existing practices without it appearing like another external imposition. As such, the selection of dissemination activities would be predicated on the respective target audiences.

Equally, the unique training, technical language and specialized approaches characteristic of research can make comprehension more difficult for the non-research-trained user (Last, 1989). The data sets both indicate any engagement with the notion of research could be a potential barrier to effective dissemination to school-based colleagues, in particular. However, an effective dissemination strategy can still play a role in stimulating change both in knowledge and practice, thus promoting the desired utilisation of research outcomes.

In seeking the optimum means of dissemination, the core of the strategy was to engage in an ongoing, professional and academic dialogue with three distinct audiences: professional, political and academic. This would be achieved through conferences akin to the IMP model within the research and through publication, culminating in an article for at least one judiciously selected academic journal.

**7.4 Dissemination Activities**

**7.4.1 Dissemination for shared understanding leading to change: professional audiences**

Post interviews, I shared initial feedback to work-based colleagues through one of our team meetings. Equally, the key issues arising from the study were cascaded to school-based partners who included colleagues from our School Direct route. Subsequent discussions with both the Core and the School Direct Programme Leaders together with Teaching School Alliance Leaders indicated that some aspects of the provision for the following academic year were to be modified in light of the research – the masterly element of the programme was of particular interest here.

New ideas that threaten the status quo are often met with resistance - this despite people often having little understanding as to why they hold fast to certain beliefs even when evidence exists to the contrary. To get people to change their way of thinking requires that they are shown both what their beliefs cannot explain and how new research or theories fill the knowledge gap (Fullilove, Green, Hernandez-Cordero and Fullilove, p.1, 2006).

This process seemed to exemplify two of King’s (2003) observations about what constitutes effective dissemination. Firstly, this immediate impact was reliant upon high levels of credibility and trust born of longstanding, existing working relationships.

Secondly, the implementation of these ideas was carried out by others and was based on *their* professional interpretations of the findings presented. It was important, therefore, to accept King’s view that the outcomes of my research would necessarily be adapted by the user in the process. Given that a key aspect of my study revealed an inability or reluctance to interpret perspectives, modify practice and implement change, such adaptations were indicative of successful dissemination.

Presenting at a Teacher Education Advancement Network (TEAN) conference is planned with my University Schools to promote the importance of theoretically informed practice. The selection of TEAN is strategic since they are a collaborative initiative positioning themselves as mutually beneficial to teacher education providers and associated organisations across the four countries of the UK. Additionally, an article in the *Times Higher Education* and also in the *Times Educational Supplement* is planned for next academic year.

**7.4.2 Dissemination for shared understanding leading to change: political audiences**

The focus for this next phase of dissemination is to reach education policy-makers through conferences such as UCET who provide a national forum for the discussion of matters relating to the education of teachers and professional educators and to the study of education in the university sector. They also contribute to the formulation of policy within these fields.

**7.4.3 Dissemination for shared understanding leading to change: academic audiences**

Cognisant of the perceived importance of building on, and adding to, previous knowledge, the specific journals targeted for dissemination were significant.

* *International Journal of Teacher’s Professional Development*

A fully refereed international journal publishing articles on all aspects of teachers' professional development. It acts as a forum for critical and reflective attention to practice in teacher development and aims thereby to contribute to the quality of professional development. The journal takes a ‘whole-career' view of teacher development which suits my desire to reach new entrants as well as senior managers and so would be an ideal arena for dissemination.

* *Cambridge Journal of Education*

The rationale for selecting this journal is because it publishes original refereed articles on all aspects of education with a particular emphasis on work that contributes to shared understanding among academic researchers, theorists, practising teachers, policy-makers and educational administrators. Its readers include members of *each* of these groups - evidence of its success in bringing together those who determine the content, organisation, and practice of education. It also enjoys a wide international readership and encourages contributors from different educational systems and cultures which is also pertinent to my study.

Abstracts and articles have already been planned through peer meetings at the university with an intention to publish within the year.

**APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX 1**

**Revised Questions for Semi-Structured Interviews August 2012**

1. The coalition government’s White Paper (2010) proposes a significantly increased role for school based initial teacher training. Do you believe that such a model could jeopardize beginning teachers’ professional knowledge and supplant it with ‘*simplistic formulas or cookie-cutter routines for teaching’?* Darling-Hammond, L. (2000)
2. Sykes, G., Bird, T. and Kennedy, M. (2010) suggest that progress in teacher education is ‘triply troubled’ as it addresses the nature of teaching in schools, its own institutionalization in universities, and the relations between school and university. Do you concur with this?
3. Pring (1996) notes the *`poor state of theory, the all-too-often peddling of personal values from a public position on the basis of theoretically questionable authority’* that has rendered university-based teacher education no longer essential to the self-reproduction of the school system in anything more than the accreditation of awards role. He goes on to suggest that the link between the university, the schools and the content of the curriculum is changing. Do you feel that what exactly is taught or produced as knowledge has mattered less and less in teacher education over the last few decades because, increasingly, it does not matter?
4. The lack of connection between school-based practical experience and the academic content in teacher education programmes is believed to be the main reason why graduating teachers are not adequately prepared to meet the needs of different learner groups in their classes. Loughran (2006, 2008), Lunenberg and Korthagen (2009) and Mason (2009) argue that teacher education needs to develop a pedagogical response to this problem. If so, where would this best be located?
5. Writing in (1990) about his own experiences in the first quarter of the last century, Rhodes Boyson a former head teacher insisted that *'teachers should be trained on the job, not in ivory towers'.* He claimed that the best teachers he ever saw were those trained by their fellow professionals rather than by *'levitating pseudo-intellectuals immune from the heavy daily chores of teaching'.* Would you say that this is applicable to beginning teachers in the 21st century?
6. Despite the recent push to make teaching masterly profession, O'Hear (1988) claimed *that 'teaching is a practical matter, one best learned by doing, under the guidance of experienced practical teachers'*. While a qualification at degree level is appropriate for secondary teachers, 'it is debateable whether a degree rather than a good general education, perhaps not extending much beyond 'A' level, is really necessary for primary school teachers'. He also declared teacher training courses to be characterized as being full of trivia and obsessed with questions of race and inequality, concluding that formal teacher training is ‘unnecessary’ for most teachers. What place would you say theory has in the course of initial teacher preparation?
7. Relocating initial teacher preparation back into schools is far from revolutionary. In 1989, Professor David Hargreaves wrote enthusiastically about the idea of more firmly rooting teacher training in the schools believing that the four-year B.Ed, should be abolished *since 'eighteen is too early an age for school leavers to commit themselves to a career in teaching'.* Teaching schools should be established as an alternative to PGCE courses and the training of teachers put in the hands of selected practising teachers acting as mentors. Many teacher training institutions would disappear. Those that remain would have a role in training mentors, establishing a national curriculum for teacher training, engaging in educational research and teaching advanced academic courses for experienced teachers. Could this be a model of preparation that would work in 21st century English classrooms?
8. In response to the demands of the global, economic market forces it could mean that increasingly, the content of initial teacher preparation programmes is reduced to *‘political putty, ready to be shaped by decision makers in response to hot-button issues’ and that universities* become *‘mediators of government policy’* rather than *‘leaders of educational thought.’* And so one might ask, is there any need for teacher preparation courses to contain any pedagogical content or professional knowledge at all?
9. A possible consequence of the reduction of theoretical input from HEIs could be that English teacher training is likely to create practitioners who have been trained in performativity against externally derived criteria rather than intelligently interpreting professional decision-makers able to respond to pupils as learners (Edwards, 1998; 2001). And deprofessionalization is the outcome. What would your concerns be for a model of initial teacher preparation that looked like this: ‘Here the knowledge; there the learner – you, the teacher or teacher educator, now deliver’?

**PILOT Interview Questions APPENDIX 2**

1. There are now many diverse routes into teaching here in the UK. Bearing these in mind, do you consider *research*, *inquiry*, *critical reflection* and *understanding* to be essential qualities that comprise the `distinct’ socialcontribution of the university to teacher education? Hargreaves (1995)
2. The coalition government’s White Paper (2010) proposes a significantly increased role for school based initial teacher training. Do you believe that such a model could jeopardize beginning teachers’ professional knowledge and supplant it with ‘*simplistic formulas or cookie-cutter routines for teaching’?* Darling-Hammond, L. (2000)
3. What would your response be to Dr. Shirley Lawes’ comment that rather than producing teachers who are *‘educational thinkers,’* new teachers are *‘conformist and compliant’* and lack *‘real theoretical knowledge’ that would enable them to take a critical distance from practice and have a principled understanding of education as a value.* Not just to be equipped with the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ but the ‘*why’* too?’
4. Sykes, G., Bird, T. and Kennedy, M. (2010) suggest that progress in teacher education is ‘triply troubled’ as it addresses the nature of teaching in schools, its own institutionalization in universities, and the relations between school and university. Do you concur with this?
5. Pring (1996) notes the *`poor state of theory, the all-too-often peddling of personal values from a public position on the basis of theoretically questionable authority’* that has rendered university-based teacher education no longer essential to the self-reproduction of the school system in anything more than the accreditation of awards role. He goes on to suggest that the link between the university, the schools and the content of the curriculum is changing. Do you feel that what exactly is taught or produced as knowledge has mattered less and less in teacher education over the last few decades because, increasingly, it does not matter?
6. The lack of connection between school-based practical experience and the academic content in teacher education programmes is believed to be the main reason why graduating teachers are not adequately prepared to meet the needs of different learner groups in their classes. Loughran (2006, 2008), Lunenberg and Korthagen (2009) and Mason (2009) argue that teacher education needs to develop a pedagogical response to this problem. If so, where would this best be located?
7. One could argue that both teaching and learning are intellectual and affective engagements and that somehow the gap between teacher education aspirations and public school reality need to be more thoroughly addressed than by generic models of teacher training. What would you propose?
8. Writing in (1990) about his own experiences in the first quarter of the last century, Rhodes Boyson a former head teacher insisted that *'teachers should be trained on the job, not in ivory towers'.* He claimed that the best teachers he ever saw were those trained by their fellow professionals rather than by *'levitating pseudo-intellectuals immune from the heavy daily chores of teaching'.* Would you say that this is applicable to beginning teachers in the 21st century?
9. Despite the recent push to make teaching masterly profession, O'Hear (1988) claimed *that 'teaching is a practical matter, one best learned by doing, under the guidance of experienced practical teachers'*. While a qualification at degree level is appropriate for secondary teachers, 'it is debateable whether a degree rather than a good general education, perhaps not extending much beyond 'A' level, is really necessary for primary school teachers'. He also declared teacher training courses to be characterized as being full of trivia and obsessed with questions of race and inequality, concluding that formal teacher training is ‘unnecessary’ for most teachers. What place would you say theory has in the course of initial teacher preparation?
10. Relocating initial teacher preparation back into schools is far from revolutionary. In 1989, Professor David Hargreaves wrote enthusiastically about the idea of more firmly rooting teacher training in the schools believing that the four-year B.Ed, should be abolished *since 'eighteen is too early an age for school leavers to commit themselves to a career in teaching'.* Teaching schools should be established as an alternative to PGCE courses and the training of teachers put in the hands of selected practising teachers acting as mentors. Many teacher training institutions would disappear. Those that remain would have a role in training mentors, establishing a national curriculum for teacher training, engaging in educational research and teaching advanced academic courses for experienced teachers. Could this be a model of preparation that would work in an English education system of the 21st century?
11. Berry and Loughran (2002) note that student teachers are often concerned most, in the early stages of their ITP, with *what* they teach as opposed to *how* they might teach it or *why* they might employ different teaching methodologies in different contexts. Furthermore, a recent study undertaken by Hobson, A. et al (2008) found that just over half (33 out of 65) of those beginning teachers interviewed who had experienced an HEI-based input into their ITP programmes indicated that they considered some aspects of their HEI-based preparation to lack relevance to authentic classroom settings or to ‘being a teacher.’ What significance would you place upon student teachers’ own self perception of their role as a teacher?
12. Smyth and Shacklock (1998) predicted that schools will be governed by the ethos of marketplaces, which means a differentiated mix of teachers, ‘some of whom are fully qualified, others who are cheaper to employ for short periods of time and who can rapidly be moved around within auxiliary and support roles to help satisfy growing niche markets.’ Some 14 years later, would you say that the 21st century classroom is indeed likely to adopt this type of teacher profile?
13. In response to the demands of the global, economic market forces it could mean that increasingly, the content of initial teacher preparation programmes is reduced to *‘political putty, ready to be shaped by decision makers in response to hot-button issues’ and that universities* become *‘mediators of government policy’* rather than *‘leaders of educational thought.’* And so one might ask, is there any need for teacher preparation courses to contain any pedagogical content or professional knowledge at all?
14. A possible consequence of the reduction of theoretical input from HEIs could be that English teacher training is likely to create practitioners who have been trained in performativity against externally derived criteria rather than intelligently interpreting professional decision-makers able to respond to pupils as learners (Edwards, 1998; 2001). And deprofessionalization is the outcome. What would your concerns be for a model of initial teacher preparation that looked like this: ‘Here the knowledge; there the learner – you, the teacher or teacher educator, now deliver’?

**APPENDIX 3**

**Doctor of Education Research Project: A Future for Teacher Education?**

Alison Hardman

Department of Initial Teacher Education

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[a.j.hardman@derby.ac.uk](mailto:a.j.hardman@derby.ac.uk)

(01332) 591545

07810503321

**Date: August 2012**

This statement of consent and the attached letter describes the focus and purpose of the project. It also describes your rights and responsibilities of those who may participate in the project,

**If you choose not to participate at this stage you need do nothing more**. You will not be negatively judged if you choose not to participate at all.

**If you do choose to participate**, please complete both copies of the Consent Statement and bring one of these to your interview on **XX August 2012,** retaining the other copy for your own reference.

Name:

Job Description:

Contact Telephone:

Contact E-mail:

*I understand the nature of my involvement in the interview [and in relation to the wider project] and I will take part in the interviews on xx August 2012.*

**Signed:**

**Date:**

**CONSENT INFORMATION**

I understand that:

* I am signing up to participate in the pilot interview process for a wider research project. I will be asked whether I want to participate in any further phases before they begin – it will not be assumed that in signing up for this interview that I will want to participate in any further phases.
* The interviewer will make sure that everyone’s voice is heard and will ensure a democratic approach to the greatest possible extent.
* There is no compulsion for me to participate in this research. If I choose not to take part this will not affect my standing within the project or in my wider professional role.
* If I do choose to participate, I may at any stage withdraw my participation. If I choose to withdraw, this will not affect my standing within the standing within the project or in my wider professional role.
* I can request to have any data or information collected about me from the beginning of the project to the point I make the request, destroyed. I know that this request will be honoured.
* The data that is collected will be shared and discussed among all the participants in the project but the facilitator of the project (Alison Hardman) will check that this is okay before the sharing takes place. The facilitator of the project will store all of the data and reports and will be responsible for its safe-keeping.
* Confidentiality will be respected by the facilitator and by the other participants with regard to the information I give and the data and findings that emerge in order to preserve the anonymity of any participants or subjects to the greatest possible extent.

**Doctor of Education Research Project: The Future for Teacher Education**

Alison Hardman

Department of Initial Teacher Education

Faculty of Education, Health and Sciences,

University of Derby

Kedleston Road

Derby

DE22 1GB

[a.j.hardman@derby.ac.uk](mailto:a.j.hardman@derby.ac.uk)

(01332) 591545

07810503321

**Date: August 2012**

I am writing to invite you to take part in a research project which focuses on **The Future of Initial Teacher Education.**

I want you to be as informed about the project as possible to help you make your decision about whether or not to participate, but I very much hope that you well feel able to take part. It is also important for me to tell you that the project will inform my thesis for a Doctorate in Education.

**What is the project about?**

Research into Initial Teacher Education suggests that for most student teachers, the training that they receive in school has the most significant impact on their development and on their confidence. The specific nature of that training or education; its content, location and focus has long been a contentious issue historically. This project aims to consider what the future may/should hold for initial teacher preparation programmes.

The project’s central question is ***‘What is the Future of Initial Teacher Education?’***

**If you agree to take part what will you be asked to do?**

You will be asked to participate in an in-depth, one to one interview with Alison Hardman. The interview will be framed by a series of questions covering a range of perspectives, both national and international, which concern the issues that surround the key research question. The interview will be recorded for increased accuracy and authenticity.

**What’s in it for you if you take part in this project?**

The project offers an opportunity for professional engagement with this topic and all its related issues and tensions, together with making a valued and respected contribution to current educational research.

You will have full access to the data gathered from your interview transcript.

**What happens if I choose not to be involved in the project?**

You will not be judged negatively because you choose not to be involved. As a research facilitator it is my job to ensure that non-engagement in the project does not lead to victimisation.

Yours sincerely,

Alison Hardman

Senior Lecturer (Reflective Practice and Professional Studies)

Research Facilitator

**Theoretical Framework for the project: APPENDIX 4**

**APPENDIX 5**

**Questions for School Based Partners elicited from expert sample data:**

Please circle which route into teaching you chose:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **B.Ed** | **P.G.C.E.**  **(Uni-based)** | **P.G.C.E.**  **(School Direct)**  **Formerly GTP** | **P.G.C.E. (SCITT)** | **Cert Ed.** | **QTS: Assessment Route Only** | **Teach First** | **Other** |

1. The White Paper: *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) advocates a craft model of teaching which doesn’t really need the university. To what degree would you say that there is the need for an intellectual base to initial teacher preparation?
2. In our schools some perceive there to be a real ethos of conformism, compliance and formulaic teaching resulting in good trained technicians in the classroom. Is this your experience in your respective setting?
3. The hugely pressurised education system was blamed by some for teachers not being able to prioritise academic pursuits. Would you agree that there is no appetite, need or even respect for any underlying theory of pedagogy or knowledge acquisition in relation to the initial preparation of teachers in England?
4. What knowledge base would you say is essential in the initial preparation of teachers for our 21st century classrooms? How would you define professional knowledge? How viable would you say it is for teachers to undertake a sabbatical every 5 years or so as an expected part of their cppd?
5. There have been longstanding concerns raised over the length of time for training and how to get really to grips with research enquiry, critical reflection and understanding in the space, in the time, space that we have currently at PGCE. How do you see school based routes such as School Direct and Teach First facilitating and addressing this?
6. The rise of commercial companies providing ‘off the shelf’ lessons removes the need for any formal teacher education. Do you agree?
7. If education is about imparting knowledge and understanding how much ‘know how’ as well as other knowledge makes for effective initial preparation of teachers would you say?
8. An influx of new initiatives in education and the regular changes to the curriculum has led to a situation where teachers perpetually have to redesign their teaching in response to what is the government dictates. A consequence of the craft/apprenticeship model of teaching outlined in *The Importance of Teaching* believes the only important part of learning to be a teacher is achieved through being in classrooms and that the school based part is are the only important part of teacher education. Do you feel that this whole concept of teaching threatens the future of teaching as a *profession*?

Thank you so much for contributing to this research.

**Cameo of Each Expert in the Sample:**

**APPENDIX 6**

Each of the participants in the sample of experts fulfilled at least 4 of the 7 criteria outlined in the sampling framework - a third of them met all 7.

* **MARGARET**

Margaret is an ex-councillor and is heavily involved in the independent educational charity Real Action which is dedicated to teaching literacy and English language to people living in deprived communities. The charity is renowned for sourcing, developing and providing fast-acting, scalable programmes, including a reading school for children aged 5-12 which Margaret co-founded and runs on Saturdays to address social issues on a deprived council estate in London. Her philosophy here and the pedagogical methods adopted have seen an increase in reading levels of 12 months after just 20 hours teaching.

She is also involved in the Campaign for Real Education (CRE). The espoused philosophies of this group run contrary to those who work in Initial Teacher Preparation, especially those on HEIs as they claiming that prospective applicants on teacher training courses need to:

*Put aside your enthusiasms about subject knowledge and your desire to share it. Suspend your intelligence. You are about to enter a world where common sense, academic rigour and intellectual debate, are suspended and where conformity to an alternative ‘best practice’ is mandatory. Welcome to the world of education in its most distilled form - teacher training (pg.3)*

*(Back to Beveridge! 2013).*

In this sense, she was an ideal candidate for the interviews as she offered ardent views and perspectives on the individual contributions made by HEIs and schools to effective ITP.

She fulfilled 4 of the 7 criteria from the sampling framework.

* **SUE**

Sue works in an outstanding HEI in London as a senior lecturer. Her thesis focused on the role of theory in Initial Teacher Education and her views in effective models of ITP had the potential to offer a stark contrast to those held by Margaret.

She has published widely on education policy, teacher education and the teaching of modern foreign languages in both English and French. She has gained outstanding international acclaim for her work.

Over a long career in education, Sue has taught in vocational, secondary and higher education institutions and has been involved in a number of curriculum development initiatives as well as a variety of national and international research projects.

She fulfilled 6 of the 7 criteria from the sampling framework.

* **DANIEL**

Daniel is a visiting professor of education policy at an HEI in England graded as outstanding for ITP and a visiting fellow at another University. A qualified teacher, he has been instrumental in the development of the *Troops into Teaching* initiative and is well-published on issues surrounding poor levels of reading and pupils’ challenging behaviour.

He founded *The Promethean Trust* - an English charity for dyslexic children.  He is also a Research Fellow at the Centre for Policy Studies - a non-profit-making organisation, independent of all political parties and special interest groups, which develops and promotes policies to limit the role of the state, to encourage enterprise and to enable the institutions of society to flourish.

In this capacity as a fellow, he published three papers which were instrumental in the 2005 decision to replace the National Literacy Strategy with synthetic phonics. His 2008 proposal to re-train ex-service personnel as teachers is now being launched by the coalition.  He co-authored an influential 2009 paper advocating the abolition of school quangos.  He is co-author of the Sound Foundations literacy programme, which is now used by almost 1,000 British schools.

He received acclaim from Michael Gove who declared that Daniel had, *‘done more than anyone living in the fight against illiteracy in this country.’*

*(Speech delivered at St Stephen’s Club on 5th November, 2009)*

He, too offered ardent views and perspectives on the individual contributions made by HEIs and schools to effective ITP.

He fulfilled all 7 of the criteria from the sampling framework.

* **KATE**

Kate is a retired head teacher who has a raft of experience in the field of education and teacher preparation in England over the past 35 years. She is passionate about high quality teaching and learning and advocates currency and credibility in an evidence-based profession.

Charged with the design, implementation, development and evaluation of an entire teacher training preparation programme in East Africa, Kate worked closely with local government officials and the international teaching community to establish her own ITP programmes. The importance of co-operation, collaboration and effective partnership working were instrumental in her success.

Her international perspective, in addition to her years of experience here in England enabled her to contribute fully to the study – notably when teachers / professionals are afforded increased autonomy in the development of themselves and their work.

She fulfilled 4 of the 7 criteria.

* **JANE**

Jane is an extremely experienced teacher, senior lecturer and union leader. Highly qualified in effective ITP, she holds a PhD and was also awarded an honorary doctorate from another University in recognition of her contribution to the field of education in England.

She contributes regular articles for newspapers and education journals, and appears frequently on national media. Scathing of the government and its encroachment on areas of policy, she believes that more autonomy should be devolved to the hands of the profession urging the government to get serious about teacher professionalism.

*‘Trainee and newly qualified teachers cannot fail to understand that, despite Michael Gove's intentions, teaching has become a profession monitored to within an inch of its life.’*

*(BBC News, 31st March, 2015).*

Published in the field, she is also an advocate of the important role University-based training plays in effective teacher preparation and CPD.

She fulfilled 6 of the 7 criteria from the sampling framework.

* **JOHN**

John is an Emeritus Professor of Teacher Education at a globally acclaimed University in England. He held posts at the University of the West of Scotland (Dean of Education and Media), London Metropolitan University (Head of School of Education), University of the West of England and the University of Gloucestershire.

John was President of the Scottish Educational Research Association from 2005–07 and chaired the Research and Development Committee of the Universities’ Council for the Education of Teachers from 2008-11.  He is a Fellow of the Academy of Social Sciences and a Fellow of the Royal Society of Arts and is a Visiting Professor at the University of Nottingham, at Newman University, Birmingham, at Bath Spa University and Ulster University and is also an adjunct professor at Southern Cross University in Australia.

His key research interests are in teacher education and teachers’ work, with a particular interest in policy. John was a founding editor of *Review of Education*, a journal of the British Educational Research Association, launched in 2013.  He is series editor for *Critical Guides for Teacher Educators*, published by Critical Publishing.  He is a founder member of two UK-wide research groups, TEG (Teacher Education Group) and CAPeR-UK (Curricululum, Assessment and Pedagogy Reform across the UK), as well as the OUDE – led research group on Poverty and Teacher Education.  He was also a member of the steering group for the BERA-RSA Inquiry into Research and Teacher Education.

He fulfilled all 7 of the sampling criteria.

**APPENDIX 7**

**Questions for Work-based colleagues and School-based partners PILOT**

Please circle which route into teaching you chose:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **B.Ed** | **P.G.C.E.**  **(Uni-based)** | **P.G.C.E.**  **(School Direct)**  **Formerly GTP** | **P.G.C.E. (SCITT)** | **Cert Ed.** | **QTS: Assessment Route Only** | **Teach First** | **Other** |

1. What do you feel have been the most significant impacts coming out of The Importance of Teaching (2010)?
2. In our schools some perceive there to be a real ethos of conformism, compliance and formulaic teaching resulting in good trained technicians in the classroom. Is this your experience in your respective setting?
3. The hugely pressurised education system was blamed by some for teachers not being able to prioritise academic pursuits. Would you agree that there is no appetite, need or even respect for any underlying theory of pedagogy or knowledge acquisition in relation to the initial preparation of teachers in England?
4. What knowledge base would you say is essential in the initial preparation of teachers for our 21st century classrooms? How would you define professional knowledge? How viable would you say it is for teachers to undertake a sabbatical every 5 years or so as an expected part of their cppd?
5. There have been longstanding concerns raised over the length of time for training and how to get really to grips with research inquiry, critical reflection and understanding in the space, in the time, space that we have currently at PGCE. How do you see school based routes such as School Direct and Teach First facilitating and addressing this?
6. The rise of commercial companies providing ‘off the shelf’ lessons removes the need for any formal teacher education. Do you agree?
7. What are the key distinctions between Initial Teacher Education and Initial Teacher Training do you think?
8. A consequence of the craft/apprenticeship model of teaching outlined in The Importance of Teaching believes the only important part of learning to be a teacher is achieved through being in classrooms and that the school based part is are the only important part of teacher education. Do you feel that this whole concept of teaching threatens the future of teaching as a *profession*?

Thank you so much for contributing to this research.

**Researcher-Derived and/or Latent Data extrapolated from Work-Based Questionnaires: APPENDIX 8**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Questionnaire Respondent** | **Q1: *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) advocates a craft model of teaching which doesn’t really need the University. To what degree would you say that there is the need for an intellectual base to initial teacher preparation** |
| 1 | Teachers need to be reflective practitioners and know the theory behind teaching and learning. They need to be able to link theory to practice and vice versa. In having an intellectual base they are able to research to inform practice and improve teaching and learning through looking at evidence based research. |
| 2 | I strongly believe in the need for practitioners to have an understanding of the theory underpinning practice. I think that university is best placed to ensure the academic rigour that is then complemented by practice in school placements. |
| 3 | An intellectual base is the essence of initial teacher preparation and is no less important for the continuing professional development of teachers. Even the most ardent supporters of ‘learning by doing’ probably accept that an element of thinking and reflection is required to gain an understanding of why particular practices are more or less successful in particular contexts. Considering circumstances that are beyond professional experiences can only be of benefit as there is no guarantee that those circumstances will not be encountered in future practice and may also lead to insights into more familiar aspects of practice too. Such theorising is supported an enhanced through engagement with research, which is perhaps the same process in a more formalised manner. Any ITE or CPD programme that does not respect the intellectual base of teaching as a profession would be highly impoverished, in my opinion. |
| 4 | Outstanding teachers need to have an understanding of more than pedagogical tricks of the trade. Teaching is about much more than just subject knowledge – it is essential to have an understanding of child development, of theories of learning and a broad base of experiences on which to build excellent practice. I would not expect to have an operation performed on me by a surgeon who had observed others in their role ‘on the job’. I would expect that the surgeon had a solid grounding in the fundamentals of anatomy and physiology. For me this is the same for teachers and university based teacher education is the only place where this can be effectively taught and learned, with tutors who have a wide set of experiences and have studied beyond their initial teacher training, to be more grounded in the fundamental aspects of teaching and more specifically learning. Reflective practice is of course fundamental for the capacity for self-improvement but without an intellectual knowledge base for the sustainability of self-improvement this is wasted, again this can be found and nurtured in a Higher Education culture where enquiry led learning and teaching are deemed necessary for learning to be rich and meaningful. We are best placed to be informed when our ideas are challenged and we think critically about the things we often take for granted. Schools are not always the best place to do this as many schools are under too much pressure in regards to Ofsted and data that teachers often become blinkered to the wider world of professional and academic knowledge and how to make connections between the two – university led education allows pre-service teachers to make these connections and forces us to challenge the beliefs that we have come to hold. |
| 5 | There is definitely a need for this. Without this teaching and learning wouldn’t move on. New research questions previous practice and challenges what is considered as ‘factual’ and ‘truth’. Areas of neurology and how we learn are an example. That said, although my mum has never heard of Vygotsky and zone of proximal development, but she understands that you support and push –(thinking often learning to walk; ride a bike etc). Sometimes academic research can be a posh way of saying what is already known! |
| 6 | I feel that it is essential to have an academic/intellectual base to ITE preparation. Allowing students to establish firm foundations in the process of learning along with establishing a clear ‘voice’ and ‘opinion’ is crucial. Especially for the education leaders of the future (head teachers, SLT, coordinators), the ability to reflect critically with an intellectual reference point is central. The ability to synthesise and analyse a whole raft of documentation and literature objectively is also an important aspect that supports this. |
| 7 | I firmly believe that university involvement enriches and strengthens the primary teaching profession. It allows capacity for sustained research and networking that broadens the understanding of the practitioner, enabling them not only to emulate the practice they see in schools, but encourages them to evaluate it using current research in order to refine and improve the profession and consequently their own skills. |
| 8 | Without theory into practice, we are reliant on experience to develop knowledge, skills and understanding. As we know, some teachers repeat one years’ experience 30 times, and if this is weak, then the outcome for children will be weak. The intellectual base is part of the joy of teaching and learning, the desire to understand individual children and their families, to support the development of colleagues. Even dog walkers and gardeners need an intellectual base to their work; I am not using the word ‘need’ in a derogatory manner! Parental pressure focusses on levels and attainment, but actually at parent’s evening they want to know that we like and understand their children, and themselves, which I think indicates that parents appreciate the intellectual base to our role. |
| 9 | It depends on: the type and role of the teacher, which model of teaching is deemed the most effective. It is governed by the type of teacher the system / other stakeholders deem to be most effective / needed for future generations of children. If it is a teacher who is able to be critical, independent, autonomous, capable of instigating, carrying out and evaluating change, basing developments on a thorough theoretical basis then there is a genuine need for an intellectual base.If the teacher type is less demanding, and mostly requires them to deliver what has already been prescribed, without really analysing it, just accepting it then this would be less important. It could be argued that even within a craft model approach, a high level of intellectual base is still required in order to be able to analyse and critique the practice they are observing / imitating. There is an assumption that the teaching being observed is effective, that there is a large gap between the teacher and trainee, but maybe it is not the case , so an ability to apply an intellectual critical base to this is therefore important. Also, imitating does not allow for previous experience or creativity, so could be restrictive. |
| 10 | Although ‘hands on’ experience in schools is crucial, it is also vital that students understand the theoretical base, have a deep understanding of how children learn (rather than just what) and can link theory to practice, demonstrated in their developing pedagogy.  Teachers also need to have an intellectual base to be professional learners and to continue this intellectual curiosity into their future careers. Teaching is not a static profession. |
| 11 | I’m sure no-one would disagree that students require the experience of the classroom but what is also required is a professional confidence that comes with knowledge and understanding alongside a skill set that can be developed over time.  Teachers need to know the ‘what to’ teach, ‘how to’ teach and the ‘why should we’ teach. Some of this can be gained from a craft model but on the job training does not allow time to evaluate what is done and why. Teachers often are not aware that there are different ways of approaching a similar issue and that there is not just one way – the school way of doing it.  Universities should provide a depth of knowledge about pedagogy and learning, about current research and how to contribute to that body of knowledge and understanding. They should also provide a neutral safe place to discuss a breadth of practices and reflect openly and honestly about the benefits and limitations of what is happening in schools. On the job training does not provide such ‘space’ does not allow for true open and honest practice.  Intellectual is about the reflection on practice and research that is available but also the contribution to that body of knowledge. Universities should have a role in working with trainee teachers, new teachers and experienced staff to relate practice with theory and theory to practice to provide a strong foundation to allow teachers the confidence to follow, challenge and ignore initiatives and ideas.  The intellectual base, however, does need to be reviewed. I feel that students sometimes spend too much time undertaking menial, tenuous and tedious tasks that prevent them from engaging fully in aspects that will really enhance their knowledge, understanding and skill set. |
| 12 | There is a fundamental need for universities to be involved in ITP. Without the university input there is a danger that practice will no longer be underpinned by theory. Essentially, I believe that this will lead to teachers of the future merely replicating what they have seen modelled to them, good and bad, without an understanding of why. |
| 13 | I had very little university input and therefore a very thin intellectual base. I developed my teaching style and approaches by observing others and trial and error.  This route certainly developed resilience (!) however a wider intellectual base may have allowed me to use tried and tested approaches in areas such as behaviour management. |
| 14 | This intellectual base is essential in informing students of the underlying principles of teaching and learning. In practice there is an increasing reliance on ‘schemes’ of work and pedagogy which is often influenced by government initiatives, it is therefore important to have solid foundations in child development, teaching and learning strategies etc. so that informed judgements can be made when qualified. |
| 15 | When I undertook the GTP route into teaching there was little or no intellectual/academic base and I truly believe that it did not make me a lesser teacher. However, now that I have experienced elements of the BEd course, I feel that it definitely has improved my understanding of how children learn rather than my intuition. My concern about a heavily academic programme is that I don’t always feel that students are ready for this nor does it produce a better teacher. The length of study however for an undergraduate is essential for them to mature! |
| 16 | The need for an intellectual base to initial teacher training is high. This is because if we are to improve the standing and public view of teachers within society we need to provide them with attributes deserving of the profession. In my opinion, training them to as high an academic level as possible is one way which will help to achieve this. |
| 17 | An intellectual base, no. you need to have strong subject knowledge and good behaviour management skills. Any intellectual base may be more useful some time into your career but getting to terms with the job is the most important bit at first! |
| 18 | There absolutely should be an intellectual base for teaching. Just as with medical professionals you need to be up to speed with what’’s out there, what other countries re doing, what research is indicating about your practice, your field etc. Why wouldn’t you want to model learning as a teacher? |
| 19 | If you have a strong rapport with the kids and you know your stuff then that’s a strong enough basis to survive your training whatever school you’re in. The university or college does provide some helpful support but the more you do in school, the less important or dare I say relevant (?) it seems. |
| 20 | You obviously need to know your stuff so I would have thought that subject areas in secondary were key and that maybe a general overview of child development would be good for Primary? SEND is big at the moment and so that would also be useful but not much else at first I wouldn’t have thought. |
| 21 | Clearly the more informed you are the more effective you should be but does that have to come from the university? Not convinced. |
| 22 | Without that crucial input early doors you cannot hope to survive in the profession very long but I do firmly believe that you need to keep up to date and so CPD is important too. |
| 23 | Yes, absolutely otherwise how can we really be a profession that is taken seriously? |
| 24 | I suppose you have to ask yourself what it would be like without a theoretical basis during your training? Would that be teaching or more instruction and direction? |

**Sample Transcription with Coded Exploratory Comments APPENDIX 9**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Q The coalition government’s *The Importance of Teaching* (2010) proposes a significantly increased role for school based initial teacher training. Do you believe that such a model could jeopardize beginning teachers’ professional knowledge and supplant it with ‘*simplistic formulas or cookie-cutter routines for teaching’?* Darling-Hammond, L. (2000)** | | |
| **Margaret** | **D** | Advocates the emergence of Teaching Schools but there are insufficient schools that could operate in this way;  Highlights issues around poor modelling suspects that too many people are learning bad lessons and bad experiences. |
| **L** | Universities could have a valuable role provided they are thinking along the right lines;  Advocates the emergence of Teaching Schools but points to a ‘an education crisis in this country’ where there are insufficient schools that could operate in this way. |
| **A/C** | *Interesting – what constitutes ‘bad experiences?’ Any evidence to suggest poor levels of modelling and the scale alluded to? The ‘right lines’ – right according to whom? Inflammatory language use of ‘crisis’*  *TS possible way forward but concerns about the quality of such schools – any criteria suggested?* |
| **Jane** | **D** | Holds that the vast majority of HEIs are good or better and consistently get better ratings than school based initial teacher training we know that even with SCITTs and the graduate teacher programme that the vast majority of them run in conjunction and partnership with a Higher Education Institution because the schools themselves recognise that they need that expertise  There’s no respect for any underlying theory of pedagogy or knowledge acquisition they might just about accept you need training in classroom management but of course all that comes under the weight of its own disconnects so when you ask Tory ministers how in this brave new world if the mass training was to be just devolved to schools how students with widely differing degrees would increase their subject knowledge which is something HEI training is very good at doing |
| **L** | the OFSTED regime of terror which has plagued initial teacher training; brave new world; mass training |
| **A/C** | *Clear support for the work of HEIs and their unique contribution. Detecting some scathing remarks about governmental policy and implications for subject knowledge as integral part of teacher preparation.* |

(D) definition, (L) linguistic and (A/C) abstract/conceptual ( Braun and Clarke, 2013).

**PHASE 1 PHASE 2 APPENDIX 10**

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| **Data-Derived and/or Semantic Coding** | | **Data-Derived and/or Memoing** |
| **Q1:**  Parity across all questions | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Research: relevance/appropriateness to initial preparation for the classroom** * **Enquiry: understanding why and how not just what** * **Critical reflection and understanding ‘essential qualities?’** * Other aspects of response | * **Routes into teaching** * **Distinct contribution of Universities to ITE** * **Role of research, theory, enquiry, critical reflection and understanding in relation to these various routes**   Question removed from semi-structured interview for actual study |
| **Q2:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Denigration of teaching into functionalist or operant ways of working** * **Concern over quality of modelling without current educational research into practice** * Other aspects of response | * **Greater onus on SBT at expense of professional knowledge** * ***‘simplistic formulas or cookie-cutter routines’* undermining teachers’ professional knowledge**   Emboldened sections to highlight distinct differences posed by each question |
| **Q3:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Need for teachers to identify as ‘educational thinkers’** * **Teachers’ passivity in their own professional identity and relationship with theory** * **Call for more than learning on the job** * Other aspects of response | * **Issues of professional identity** * **Dilution of theoretical knowledge** * **Demise of teachers’ understanding of why they do what they do**   Question removed from semi-structured interview for actual study |
| **Q4:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Quality of teaching in schools** * **Higher Education Institutions and their identity regarding ITE/ITT** * **Clash of cultures between the 2** * Other aspects of response | * **Challenges of institutionalised identities** * **Challenges of effective partnership** * **Potential tensions of increased involvement from schools in relation to progress in teacher education** |

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| **Q5:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Suggests the demise of the need for theoretical input from HEIs** * **Questions credibility of HEI providers’ course content** * Other aspects of response | * **Perceptions of what is taught on university-based ITE courses in England** * **Nearly 20 years ago – currency?** * **What constitutes professional knowledge?** |
| **Q6:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Lack of connection between theory and practice** * **Student teachers’ respective ability to meet different learner groups** * **Call for a pedagogical response – from whom?** * Other aspects of response | * **Is there a divide between SBT and the content of ITE programmes?** * **Consequences of less emphasis upon child as learner - school and/or at university?** * **Who is best placed to address this concern?** |
| **Q7:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Reality of twenty first century classrooms and student preparedness to be effective within them?** * **Appropriateness of a single, generic model of initial teacher preparation?** * **The existence of a theory vs practice gap** * Other aspects of response | * **Need for effective partnership working** * **Appropriateness of generic models of teacher education** * **Possible ways forward into ITE of the 21st century**   Question removed from semi-structured interview for actual study |
| **Q8:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **On the job ‘training’** * **Theory has no place in the classroom** * **University input is irrelevant** * **University staff removed from reality** * Other aspects of response | * **Teaching as a craft** * **The place of research, theory and enquiry in teacher preparation**   Refined foci to simplify data collection |
| **Q9:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **On the job mentoring** * **Call for good general knowledge in lieu of a degree for Primary teaching** * Other aspects of response | * **ITE courses unnecessary** * **Theory supplanted by practice** * **Good general knowledge sufficient to teach in the primary phase** |
| **Q10:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Future of B.Ed?** * **Teaching as a solely postgraduate profession?** * **Nature of current PGCE – any future changes required?** * **If not new, then why does it keep coming up?**   **If it works then why hasn’t there been a more widespread take up of it?**   * Other aspects of response | * **End under-graduate ITE based on age and life inexperience** * **SBT preferable** * **The role of the HEI changes significantly** |
| **Q11:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Pragmatism over understanding** * **Students’ perceptions of their training – notably theoretical input** * **Need for ‘authentic’ experiences** * Other aspects of response | * **Beginning teachers’ self-perceptions** * **Perceived relevancy of ITE course content** * **Cultural shift**   Question removed from semi-structured interview for actual study |
| **Q12:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Future of QTS?** * **Influence of market forces and the economy** * **Strengths/limitations of a mixed workforce such as is described** * Other aspects of response | * **Emergence of Free Schools and Academies** * **Value of QTS**   Question removed from semi-structured interview for actual study |
| **Q13:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Lack of autonomy of HEIs** * **Increasing control of government** * **Demise of educational thought and professional knowledge** * Other aspects of response | * **Role of politics and governmental influence on ITE** * **The authority of HEIs** |
| **Q14:** | * Role of the university? * Place of / for theory? * **Performativity vs intelligent and informed decision makers** * **Demise of preparation to meet diverse learners’ needs** * **Over simplification of ITE and its purpose?** * Other aspects of response | * **Perfunctory over professionalism** * **Functional over theoretical** |

**PHASE 3: Sample Extrapolation against each of the corpus of key words to elicit emerging themes APPENDIX 11**

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| **Refined foci**  **of each question in relation to the 8 key areas of research interest** | **Researcher-Derived and/or Latent Data extrapolated from interviewees’ responses** |
| **Pedagogy** | **Margaret** Education is about parting knowledge and understanding; There is a certain amount of ‘know how’ as well as knowledge. e.g. handling a class. But ostensibly it ‘that could be boiled down to a couple pages of A4 of hot tips for the classroom; any intelligent person should reflect about what they do without having being told to do or trained to do so; A teacher in schools should be teaching the subjects; 80s and ideologies clouded the importance of teaching subjects; teaching is both intellectual and affective but that’s the most wonderful thing about teaching, maybe that’s what’s wonderful about it if you bring those two together effectively you will then teach, right?; the trouble is its very, very simple but Primary schools now are not places where you could actually do this so you’re going to have to do it somewhere else and I think the Universities will have to do it; maybe in about ten years or something until all the Primary schools have ‘come to their senses’; teaching didacticism that’s at the very, very heart of teaching and so there are all sorts of little tricks about you know using IT and using personalised education God knows what all sorts of things which are probably, I personally think are irrelevant I think you should get computers out of all the Primary classrooms, put them in the school office’; |
| **Sue** It’s been a long, long road where any knowledge about education, whether it’s knowledge about learning, you know, whether it’s about pedagogy, whether it’s about philosophy you know the foundations and also having some sort of historical understanding… about education I think it’d just be lost actually, entirely lost; In own research came up with three categories of teacher: competent classroom practitioner, I had the principled professional and then I had the educational thinker if you like, I didn’t mind it seeming hierarchically because actually I think it probably is on the basis of knowledge. I think the educational thinker is what we should be aspiring to for all teachers; Poses the question as to whether or not HEIs have held the line in terms of maintaining some levels of criticality – thinks that’s been completely eroded so we’re there already!; there’s an issue about criticality at the level of teacher training possibly; I don’t think they know schools as they are now; do you throw the baby out the bath water or is it more a question of how you hold onto a knowledge base and that can be a school level or it can be at teacher education level and work out how we do it better; There are some teachers who have the confidence in themselves and what they know to be able to say right we can do that we’re going to do it this way; things are so rubbish that perhaps it’s not a bad time to go and let people go off and experiment, perhaps we do need to just get them into schools and perhaps it needs to be to hit rock bottom and people to see that then you know they might be a realisation I don’t know I’m not convinced people really care enough about education because I think they only do care about kids coming out with these with their bits of paper; I just think even when people do believe in what their teaching and do believe in their subject then I don’t think they necessarily anymore have been able to develop the imagination to impart it really in an exciting, creative sort of way, I use the word creatively hesitantly;  I don’t think actually so much de-professionalisation as re-professionalisation . |
| **Daniel** I would say triply would be putting it mildly - ‘scurrilous paradox’ where you, even though there is a striving for consensus in specifying this is the approved way to do this, this is like your best practice on the other hand you have the tensions you inevitably get when you have multi agency projects or implementation; these silly ideas about different learning groups, we’re all human, we all belong to the same society and we’re all capable of learning a common culture, common intellectual heritage and I think to pretend otherwise is to perpetuate the kinds of division we have in this country; there’s some pretty damning comments on the over management when you have teachers who are so steeped in other people’s ideas they have no time to develop their own; what do we mean by pedagogical content? I would think these terms are closely related in other words you know the pedagogic theory as it were and professional knowledge as to how you would apply that theory or, if I take it to mean that I feel there is no need for teacher preparation; |
| **Kate** I think everybody has got to fight for um a good pedagogical professional base in their thinking and they’ve got to be prepared to debate it and you’ve got to be prepared to um, to clarify it so that it is understood; So there are people in spite of looking what is happening in other countries because they’ve got access to the internet same as everybody else but actually think no this is not what we need in terms of the education of our population, socially we need thinking people, we need people who are prepared for developing, to develop our work force our population if you like increase the value of our country and even that’s happening in Cuba where they have a hugely successful education system with small classes and huge amount of input in terms of the schools, but even then they as teachers have recognised the fact that they need to look at the curriculum in terms of developing the children as thinkers and understanders. So if they hadn’t got that understanding themselves they wouldn’t have noticed they were just teaching something that narrow and undevelopmental; what’s gone wrong and what’s um, skewed the whole process is that teachers have not had the pedagogical understanding of how to put in something someone has which is a theoretical base and I think that is the crunch of all the things we have been saying, if they understand and the leaders of the schools understand what they are doing and they manage what is only a guideline in terms of what they are trying to do in their school then that will significantly challenge them in what they are doing with those children. |
| **Jane** I think one of the things as a profession we are not good at doing and it’s one of the reasons Government walk all over us is we’re very bad at finding a way to explain practice; the nature of developing a teacher it’s a complex, interrelated process; you will peddle your personal authority because teaching is a mix of the subject and yourself and you can’t divorce a teacher from classroom; teaching is a profoundly moral activity so you must bring your sense of the moral purpose of education and how that is enacted to your classrooms and you will often draw on your own experience indeed students want you to and every time you give a perspective from your own experience or indeed a worked example which they often need as well you are making a profoundly um, it may not be an explicitly moral statement the moral values will underpin everything you do when you teach; well yes you’ve got to do it but how are you going to do this you’ve still got huge leeway in how you’re going to do things and how you’re going to do is almost as important as what you do; |

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|  | **John** schools are not currently researching institutions they’re teaching institutions therefore there’s insufficient breadth and depth I think of professional knowledge; if we think in terms of direction of travel it was a steep move during the 90’s which had quite many positive outcomes including the much more formal recognition of the contribution of school based staff in teach education that was the upside, the downside of it was the removal of an intellectual base for teacher learning; in my mind that has a danger of going too far in the school direction it nevertheless does achieve that creation of a pedagogy; which is value based and doesn’t respect the nature of learning and teaching, it sees it in a very simple manner that you know doesn’t um hold up to any serious scrutiny in terms of when young people are learning best it is with highly skilled teachers who actually have studied the nature of teaching and learning and draw on their theoretical bodies understanding as well as their practical experience and able to integrate the two making all those small and sometimes larger decisions that happen in a teaching day or week or year; Brian Simon the historian of education asked the question why no pedagogy and Robin Alexander followed that view still why no pedagogy, and to me that is a crucial question if you don’t have a grasp of the nature of teaching and learning and can see what kind of actions actually produce um, improvements in children’s learning and right across the curriculum especially if you are a Primary teacher you have to work across the curriculum if you are Secondary teacher you have to learn the answers to your own subject but I do think not to have those kind of understandings is deeply de-professionalising it turns teaching into a craft other than a profession and although there are craft elements in any profession, the craft element is not enough to make it a profession and if you only have that it reduces the intellectual aspect of it and if any profession is about intellectual work it’s surely teaching because we are dealing with children’s minds, ideas, understandings, as well as their feelings, their own humanity so I mean in the end teaching is deeply moral and to be able to understand the responsibility of teaching in contemporary society I just shudder to think of it if we take out the opportunity to study of education within the preparation and then continue to study it through the career, I dread to think of it in the kind of ways in which that will actually dehumanise teaching in schools and that would be dreadful so no I can’t bind to a simple view of teacher education, it’s got to be about understanding pedagogy really; |

**Topic coding from the Transcription Memos for each Participant APPENDIX 12**

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| **TOPICS** | 1. Writing in (1990) about his own experiences in the first quarter of the last century, Rhodes Boyson a former head teacher insisted that *'teachers should be trained on the job, not in ivory towers'.* He claimed that the best teachers he ever saw were those trained by their fellow professionals rather than by *'levitating pseudo-intellectuals immune from the heavy daily chores of teaching'.* Would you say that this is applicable to beginning teachers in the 21st century? |
| **Teaching**  **as a**  **craft** | Comes back to importance of teaching schools; a very intelligent thing for the Universities to be doing would be to look at really good private schools that teach subjects; Guarded about assuming that all private schools are good schools..  Innate ability to teach: analogy with parenting: ‘I think we should have faith in us as human beings in as just as innately as we may be parents, innately we may be teachers because there are two ways in which one generation transmits to the next what we need to be happy, fulfilled, successful, productive beings the two aspects being as parents and teachers and many of us are capable of both.’  Things have got worse in the 22 years since he wrote that.  Cites Alison Woolf’s research and the problems of currency in such a fast moving world, education is often left behind.  I’ve also seen some of the worst teaching practice perpetrated by people on the job  you’ve got to set the base of professionalism and it’s not a case of saying this is how I keep the children quiet, or this is how I teach handwriting it’s err much more significant than that;  Based upon his own education – i.e. private, selective, not always from people with QTS etc Privileged background; it’s like Brian Lightman talked about confident schools and less confident schools I think there are confident departments of education and less confident  I think that is a very simplistic and errant view of the nature of learning to teach. But you know, it takes so much for granted that it’s really quite offensive I think. |
| **The place of research, theory and enquiry in teacher preparation** | To ensure that students graduate with credible degrees in appropriate subject areas for teaching; we don’t have enough well-functioning schools where this happens to provide widely for teacher education on that basis I would hope that in ten years’ time if we’ve done what we have been discussing we would have such schools;  I think there’s a place for the ivory tower actually; You have to consider what was the reality then and what is the reality now. Historical context.  What he said is essentially correct; you would perhaps get more interesting conversations on a building site than you might in some staff rooms where you like teachers who were better or worse were probably so preoccupied which is staying afloat in the madness of standards imposed upon that the time and ability to reflect deeply about society or about like anything about our culture anything, just simply isn’t there and I think as I say I really do feel strongly that the notion that we should reorient our education system to teach them the skills they will need to function in the modern economy just falls apart because; in fact if you think about real serious problems in education the huge gap between the intellectual world inhabited by the elite essentially privately educated pupils and those who go to our inner city comprehensives;  No, next question!  much educational research is small scale and that’s fine but we need better big scale educational research we need more of it, we need it more accessible to teachers; I’m not sure that teachers identify themselves as learners beyond their qualification in the way that they should; to understand that to have more effective practice you do need to as any other parallel profession should have it to keep learning and investigating the why and where for and so on and if it’s not something that is done in a university and to me, it’s not something I’m aware of, but it’s not something I can be part of. I think there’s a massive cultural shift there; I think it’s expensive and I don’t think there’s been the investment in educational research. |

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| Respondents by pseudonym |
| **Margaret** | **Sue** | **Daniel** | **Kate** | **Jane** | **John** |

**Work-Based Questionnaire Responses coded against Research Questions: EXEMPLAR**

**APPENDIX 13**

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| --- | --- |
| **CODING KEY** | |
| **(PES); (ANR); (TP); (KA).** | |
| **RQ1** | Research question 1 |
| **RQ2** | Research question 2 |
| **RQ3** | Research question 3 |

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| **Questionnaire Respondent** | **Q3:** The hugely **p**ressurised **e**ducation **s**ystem was blamed by some for teachers not being able to prioritise academic pursuits. Would you agree that there is no **a**ppetite, **n**eed or even **r**espect for any underlying **t**heory of **p**edagogy or **k**nowledge **a**cquisition in relation to the initial preparation of teachers in England? |

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| Line 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  10  11  12  13  14  15  16  17  18  19  20  21  22  23  24  25  26  27  28  29 | Yes, when in school the focus is on the day to day role and due to pressures and workload theory and research are overlooked.  I disagree that there is no appetite, need or respect of knowledge acquisition. Several of my teachers have gone on to further their academic studies through professional qualifications (e.g. SENCO accreditation) or Masters courses. In school we strongly encourage CPD and have even funded some courses. I don’t think this is necessarily any more so now than in the past. In my experience schools have always generally been more focused on activities for classroom use rather than the underlying theory. However, if why particular approaches are effective is less of a concern, what works in which classrooms has been a consideration for teachers throughout my career and it continues as far as I can see in the schools that I visit. In the right contexts, joining these two aspects is something that interests teachers. Some mentors report the challenge of having to articulate their reasons for adopting particular approaches to students, which might suggest a potential vacuum in their academic understanding of practice. However, schools are generally keen to engage with a whole range of activities with both undergraduate and postgraduate ITE students. Many of these are not simply embraced as activities but are also seen within the context of experiencing new ideas and approaches which may also access theories of pedagogy and so on at some level. Where mentors and colleagues from schools are becoming involved in assessments related to placement, this also challenges the notion that theory is held with little regard.  In my opinion the essential knowledge is actually around the knowledge of fundamental concepts as opposed to knowledge as such – the concepts that underpin subject disciplines are crucial for the successful learning and teaching of disciplines and are therefore more important. I think sabbaticals every 5 years or so are a great idea – they would refresh… upskill… and revive teachers’ knowledge.  More than academic pursuits – there isn’t even time to discuss things with the children – their interests and wishes etc! Yes re: academic pursuits – I did my MA in 3 different schools – on the schools and pupils. No one in any of the schools read my essays or even chatted about what I was doing! I could take this personally I suppose! I don’t think it’s about appetite – I think it’s about time!  I believe that this ‘hugely pressurised education system’ has taken away the emphasis on the ‘how’ we do things and focused on the ‘what’ must we do. I don’t believe that there is no appetite, however I feel the pressures have altered ‘what is available on the menu’!  I think that most good teachers are thirsty for good ideas and information on what is most effective. I feel that the pace of change and the rigours of the system in enforcing the changes, linked to performance management and punitive grading tend to create a more inward looking profession. |

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