

***The End of Theory?* A comparative study of the decline of
educational theory and professional knowledge in modern foreign
languages teacher training in England and France**

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is entirely my own work

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ABSTRACT

Educational theory is no longer a subject of debate in Initial Teacher Training (ITT). The literature that exists shows that the need for theory is contested and the general mood is anti-theoretical. The confused emphasis on 'reflective practice' has led to a situation where 'practice' is re-described as 'theory'.

This study of ITT modern foreign languages (mfl) courses confirms that, in mfl, where theoretical concerns were once strong, theory, both in terms of the study of education and the applied theory of mfl has been marginalised. This study of higher education (HE) teacher trainers' and student teachers' views of theory is based on extensive interview data and analysis of the content of three programmes: the Post Graduate Certificate in Education: the *PGCE/Maîtrise français langue étrangère*, and the *Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement Secondaire*.

The findings of the study reflect the contemporary mood. Teacher trainers expressed ambivalent attitudes to theory and thought that it is enough for theory to be implicit in what is taught on their courses. Their notion of 'theory' is, in fact, 'principled guidance for practice'. Both student teachers and teacher trainers expressed an anti-theoretical attitude through an overriding concern for the development of the practical classroom skills related to meeting QTS standards. Student teachers expected mainly practical guidance for teaching from their HE courses. Likewise, their reading was limited to obtaining ideas and practical guidance for teaching and practice-orientated course assignments. However, one course, the *PGCE/Maîtrise fle* shows that student teachers benefit from and value theory and that this makes a perceptible difference to the quality of their ITT experience.

The conclusion of this study is that the pessimistic view of ITT implied by the prevailing anti-theoretical mood and a sense that practice is developed through practice can be challenged both programmatically and individually.

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GLOSSARY OF TERMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

English

HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
ITT	Initial Teacher Training
PGCE	Post Graduate Certificate in Education
GPS	General Professional Studies
TTA	Teacher Training Agency
DfE	Department of Education
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher

French

IUFM	Institut Universitaire de Formation des Maîtres (HE teacher training institution)
CAPES	Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire
FPG	Formation Professionnelle Générale (equivalent to GPS)
FD	Formation disciplinaire (subject/curriculum studies)
Professeur stagiaire	Student teacher (2 nd year)
PLC2	Professeur des Lycées et des Collèges (secondary school teacher)

Professeur associé	Part-time teacher trainer seconded from school
Maître de Conférence	HE lecturer
Maîtrise fle	Maîtrise français langue étrangère (Master's degree in French as a foreign language)
Rectorat/Académie	Area administration for all education services
Bulletin Officielle (B.O.)	Government Circular

Chapter 1

Education Theory, Subject Pedagogy and Modern Foreign Languages Initial Teacher Training

Summary

This introductory chapter sets the context for this empirical study. It discusses the importance of theory with reference to the relatively recent rise and demise of educational studies within initial teacher training (ITT). In this context, various political and professional criticisms of theory are described and analysed. These are shown to culminate in a unique and profound separation of theory from practice that went far beyond the traditional academic distinction between them. Paradoxically 'reflective practice', which is often seen as bridging the gap between the two is shown to undermine theory completely by redefining 'practice' as 'theory'. A survey of modern foreign languages (mfl) literature shows that the role of theory comes more sharply into focus than elsewhere in ITT because of the influence of linguistic theory. However, despite attempts by some Higher Education teacher trainers working in mfl to retain some theory, and the existence among practitioners of a confused support for theory, the philistine rejection of theory, or subjective and meaningless re-definitions of theory, appears to be commonplace. This study is introduced as an important exploration of the extent to which the current malaise about theory that exists in the literature, is reflected in mfl ITT teaching programmes in England and France, and in the views and attitudes of teachers and students.

Introduction

'They have to be able to plan and deliver with pace and coverage. They have to be able to manage the classroom; they have to be able to cope securely with pupils' questions, subject-based (*sic*), and they have to have an understanding and knowledge of themselves in the wider professional field'.

'I feel I am battling sometimes with students who just want tips that will work. What they really like are the outside speakers that come in and show them how to make whirligigs and little gamey things and it is not what we are after. There is quite a conflict there really... because underlying all this being in school is, that if you watch someone doing it, you can do it without having to know, think about

why they did it that way, or whether there is another way to do it, or why it works or why it didn't work'.¹

These comments were made by two Higher Education teacher trainers who were interviewed for this study. They illustrate three things. Firstly, the centrality of the development of practical teaching skills in ITT at the present time. Secondly, the importance given to complying with student teachers' instrumental expectations, and, thirdly, the consequent concern about what, or even whether, theory is desirable. Issues such as these are often discussed but not seriously studied. For reasons not unrelated to the functional nature of these concerns, certain aspects of initial teacher training are under-researched. In particular, there is little recent empirical work on how educational and applied subject theory are viewed and understood by teacher trainers and student teachers.

This thesis begins with a socio-historical exploration of why it is that the study of theory in initial teacher training has become somewhat discredited. It then analyses and examines original and extensive empirical data about the demise of educational theory and applied subject theory in initial teacher training (ITT), through a study of the views and attitudes of teacher trainers, student teachers and a comparison of the teacher training programmes they are undertaking. The thesis is a specific analysis of the effect of the shift towards a practically-based initiation into teaching, which

¹ These two comments were made by PGCE tutors at ECt 7 and ECt8. See Chapter 2 for an explanation of the coding used.

has confirmed the marginalisation of the study of both education as a body of theoretical knowledge, and the applied theory of modern foreign languages. The research compares the Post Graduate Certificate in Education in modern foreign languages (PGCEmfl) in England with the second year of the *Certificat d'aptitudes au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire (CAPES)* in France. There is also a further comparison with the dual certification course, the *PGCE/Maîtrise français langue étrangère (fle)* programme that combines, over an eleven-month period, the PGCE mfl in England and an academic post-graduate course in France. These comparisons provide insights into the role of theory in the initial training of teachers by highlighting issues that are specific to ITT in England and drawing attention to broader, common problems that exist in both countries. The choice of programmes is not arbitrary for two reasons. Firstly, because the contrasting experience of the PGCE, *CAPES* and *Maîtrise* naturally leads to a consideration of the role of educational and subject specific theory on these quite different programmes. Secondly, there has, until recently, been the assumption of a strong theoretical base to modern foreign language (mfl) teaching because of its indirect relation to linguistic theory.

1.1. What is theory?

1.1.1 The anti-theoretical mood of the times

'Theory' has a bad name at the present time. This is not primarily a result of 'meta theoretical' debates about 'theory that begin in the human sciences with Wright Mills' criticism of the conservative and abstract nature of 'Grand

Theory' (1957/2000 33-35) and the 'subversive' criticisms made over the last century by a variety of supposed 'anti-theorists' who are often said to include Foucault, Wittgenstein, Feyerabend, Derrida and others (see Skinner: 1985/2000: 12-13). Although the defenders of theory are weaker, these 'meta-theoretical' debates contribute to but do not cause an 'anti theoretical' mood. This mood has well-known socio-political reasons as its cause. As sociologist Frank Furëdi has shown, the disparaging of theory reflects a pessimistic mood about human potential that results from contemporary social fragmentation and atomisation (Füredi, 1992, 1997, 2003). This pessimistic anti-theoretical mood is expressed in educational thought by a revival of interest in postmodernism and forms of cultural and ethical relativism. It must be understood that this happens spontaneously. Celebrating social and cultural divisions as 'difference' and social isolation as 'identity' just seems to correspond with reality. The only 'theory' that reflects this contemporary mood is the telling of local and particular 'stories' and the building of 'personal theories'. This mood is not easily dispelled by academic critiques whether political (Callinicos 1989; Eagleton 1996), philosophical (Bailey 1999; Siegel 1987, 1997, 1998) or educational (Carr 1995, 1998, 2003; Pring 2000, Hill *et al* 1999). These critiques are convincing and adequate as far as the politics, the logic and the educational implications of postmodernism and relativism are concerned. Yet the mood persists and the radical adoption of 'critical *theory*' has not helped dispel the mood. However, it is the re-invention of 'theory' in a variety of forms that are labelled 'reflective practice' that is most important to initial teacher training and will be a key consideration in this introduction.

This chapter and study will assume, and not rehearse in a general way, the broader political, philosophical and educational arguments against postmodernism and relativism. Arguments drawn from these critiques will be used when they are appropriate to deal with the manifestations of the anti-theoretical mood of initial teacher training in general and modern foreign languages, in particular. It is a necessary condition of changing the contemporary mood that concrete manifestations of it are described and analysed and the consequences of them exposed. This is the task of this specific study.

1.1.2 The definition of theory

As a working definition of theory for this study of ITT 'theory' will refer to the disciplines that constitute the field of education or 'educational studies' and subject specific or applied 'theory'. The links between this and the 'meta theoretical' debates about theory, and the current social and political pessimism are addressed, as has been said, only as they are expressed in ITT teacher trainers' and student teachers' views.

This is not to say that there is no 'meta' theoretical view at work behind this study. The view of theory assumed here is related to, but more dynamic than, the traditional distinction between 'theory' and 'practice'. This view of 'theory' requires a pursuit of objective truth as a means of understanding the world in its *totality* (Füredi 1990). Theory is a way of explaining rather than merely describing. It enables us to analyse and understand, and is

generalisable. Most importantly, it changes the way we see the world: it transforms subjective experience. The way we might measure the value of a theoretical perspective therefore is to evaluate the extent to which it provides a framework for understanding through categorising, explaining and analysing.

This elementary statement is a necessary starting point given the competing views of theory that have developed in the second half of the twentieth century. These developments have been characterised in many quarters by a rejection, or at least the abandonment, of the 'grand narratives' of enlightenment thought, which implied the existence of universal values and a belief in human progress and social transformation. The development of what might be described as 'bourgeois thought' owes much to enlightenment principles and it characterises the traditional academic understanding of theory. Viewed from this perspective, theory is regarded as eternal and abstract and a distinction is made between 'theory' and 'practice'. According to Charles Taylor:

... a theoretical understanding aims at a disengaged perspective. We are not trying to understand things merely as they impinge on us, or are relevant to the purposes we are pursuing, but rather grasp them as they are, outside the immediate perspective of our goals and desires and activities. This is not to say that theory does not have a big pay-off in practical or productive terms; nor even that the motivation for engaging in theoretical enquiry may not be this expected pay-off. But it remains the case that the understanding itself is framed in terms of broader perspectives, and it gives us a picture of reality, which is not simply valid in the context of our goals. The paradox of modern scientific practice is the discovery that such detached understanding has a much higher eventual pay-off (Taylor 1982: 89).

Taylor identifies theory as the articulation of an objective grasp of the essence of a problem or phenomenon which enables us to have a broader and more comprehensive understanding, but the suggestion is that such a 'theoretical understanding' is already defined and classified and is static.

Without refuting the existence of objective truth, or rejecting a disengaged perspective, it is possible to see that theory is not something that is worked out, arrived at, studied and then put into practice. Rather, that we can refuse to separate them out and see that thought and action are inter-dependent, and the unity of theory and practice is a ceaseless dialectic. The purpose of theory from this perspective is to provide historically conditioned explanations in relation to an objective, absolute truth whilst recognising that society is in constant change and that social phenomena change and acquire new meaning through their interaction with other phenomena. Indeed, it is the failure of this dialectical interaction at the present moment, because of the neglect and downplaying of theory in education that is producing a diminished form of teacher training.

1.1.3 The beginnings of the demise of theory in initial teacher education: the 1960s and 1970s

In the 1960s and the early part of the 1970s, educational thought was dominated by rationalist principles. Human beings were characterised by their cognitive capacities. A powerful and positive concept of human rationality dominated educational thought. Judgements about objective truth could be made. Human beliefs, actions and emotions could be guided

by reason. Philosophers of education such as Paul Hirst and Richard Peters, in the bourgeois-academic tradition propounded theories of education that, while not without critics, informed and formed educational thought for a generation. Theoretical knowledge, at least in the 1960s was considered fundamental, as Educational Studies strove to become established as an academic discipline. It follows then, that theoretical knowledge was considered part and parcel of the professional knowledge of the teacher, although the 'gap' between theory and practice began to be perceived to be problematic in teacher education. The separation of theory and practice at that time could be seen as the result of the attempt to establish the academic respectability of educational studies at the time.

Whatever the inherent problems of the perceived theory/practice divide at the time, the development of thinking on and about education was perhaps at its most creative and innovative during late 1950s 1960s and early 1970s. Much of what was thought and said then has either been rejected by theorists themselves (compare for example, Hirst 1966, Hirst 1984, Hirst 1993a and Hirst 1993b), or derided for representing an elitist view of education which no longer pertains (Elliott 1993, Usher & Edwards 1994). Tibble (1966) provides a full historical account of this early development of the study of education. Dearden (1984) also considers the brief ascendancy of theoretical studies in the 1960s. This, he suggests was a result of the 1963 Robbins Report on Higher Education. It was at this time that university departments of Education Studies grew and the 'foundation disciplines' of the psychology, philosophy, sociology and history of

education were established to put an end to what Peters referred to as 'undifferentiated mush' of educational theory. Dearden points to the 1972 James Report on teacher education as contributing to the demise of theory in that it suggested that too much time was spent on theorising and not enough on practical preparation for the classroom. The situation in the 1960s was that educational theory did not relate to practice and the disenchantment with theory, Dearden contends, was partly because expectations of it are inappropriate and some teacher educators were keen to respond to the practical needs of beginning teachers. However, it is undoubtedly the case that during the 1960s, for a brief period, some of the seminal works on education were written; works which shaped educational thinking in Britain for the next twenty years (Tibble 1966, Peters 1966, Hirst 1965, 1966, Hirst & Peters 1970). In France, at this time, the study of education (*les Sciences de l'Éducation*) was only just achieving official recognition. The first university department of *Sciences de l'Éducation* was established in 1967 (AECSE 2001), but at no time during that period, up to the present, has the study of education in the university been linked with the training of teachers.² In the intervening years the area has fought to achieve academic status and respect within the university where traditional subject disciplines are considered to be superior (Develey 2001).

The 1980s in England marked a break with the past. The influence of the educational policies of the Thatcher government are important, since they are commonly held to be responsible for the present system of teacher

² See Chapter 3 for further information.

training in England. Chapter 3 of this study will give further consideration to these. It is nevertheless useful to consider briefly here some ideas that paved the way for far-reaching reforms of teacher education under the Conservative government of Margaret Thatcher, which express a concern for better practical preparation for teaching, tending to take a more functional approach to theoretical perspectives. The thinking from this quarter, however, should not be confused with the 'New Right' ideologues who influenced Thatcherite policy.

It is more the case that, as William Taylor observes, a more pragmatic approach teacher education was perceived as needed by many teacher educators (Elliott & Labatt 1975). In his 1978 book, *Research and Reform in Teacher Education*, William Taylor suggests that more practical experience in schools was needed at the time, that whatever the value of theory, that students did not perceive it as relevant or applicable to everyday classroom problems and that theory could wait until later when students had a clearer notion of the problems on which educational theories might throw some light. On the other hand, he asserts that:

Teacher education is not merely the induction of the future teachers into an established and unproblematic moral order, an education in means and technique. Thus it is argued that such education should not take place in institutions which stress the application of knowledge and its technical usefulness, but in those which place their emphasis on critical thought, moral autonomy and the development of the creative imagination (Taylor 1978: 58).

Taylor takes the view that teacher education is an activity where theory is implicit rather than explicit, also asserting that teachers can manage without theory. He considers that research-based knowledge had a limited impact

and contribution and that change in the teacher education curriculum was mostly due to outside pressures than a considered judgement. Taylor identifies a trend in problematising theory and doubts about how it contributed to successful practice. He concedes, however, that students will be conservative in their future practice without theoretical understandings. Taylor is referred to here to give a flavour of the questioning nature, if not confusion, in some of the debates of the 1970s in which we might detect uncertainty about teacher education and educational theory. Alexander summarises clearly two strands of thinking in the 1970s and early 1980s:

Thus, by the mid-1970s the debates had clearly diverged, being about 'pure' educational studies on the one hand and the matter of 'applied' professional theory on the other. In the first instance, those involved in the latter had to demonstrate that the two issues were now not necessarily connected: by then education studies had so vast a corpus and was so well established in courses and in teacher educators' collective experience that it had an almost irresistible 'givenness'.... Educational studies as it had evolved had apparently failed to deliver the goods in terms of trainee teachers' ability to incorporate it into reflexive and justifiable practice: should not the notion of professional theory for teaching be reappraised (Alexander 1984: 137).

During this period, while teacher educators struggled with competing ideas of the role and relative importance of theory and practice, the future direction and content of teacher education was being decided at a political level on broader ideological grounds. In the 1980s educational policy shifted towards work-related education and competence-based training schemes. The broad consensus that had existed in the preceding period – the so-called 'golden age' of education, was destroyed. One important consequence of the Thatcherite agenda for education was the introduction of a competence-based model of professional training for teachers.

Conservative government educational policy at the time was heavily influenced by academics of the 'New Right' of whom Sheila Lawlor was a notable member. In her pamphlet, *Teachers Mistaught* (1990) she attacks university teacher education programmes and sets the agenda, along with a number of other academics such as Anthony O'Hear and member of the Hillcroft Group, for a shift towards schools-based practical training. Lawlor took the view that 'education studies' was of no value to student teachers and claimed that subject knowledge and classroom practice is all that is needed to produce good teachers. She asserted, moreover, that university courses in education only put off the good students. Similar debates are still current in France, between the political 'left' and 'right' that is the 'traditional' (subject specialists) versus the 'progressive' (pedagogues) (Meirieu & Develey 1997) as the empirical data of Chapters 3 and 6 illustrate.

In tracking the development of teacher education, Lawlor nevertheless identified correctly that there was (and there still is) a great variability in the quality of teacher education courses and that professional/education studies had become 'the ghost of theory' (1990: 18). However, instead of defending the proper role of theory, Lawlor rejected the idea that education courses should encourage student teachers to be critical – the role of theory - and saw the then current provision as undermining 'the very notion of subject mastery through relentless application of recent theory to both its subject method course and its periods of teaching practice' (1990: 32). These views provided the blueprint for the shift towards school-based

training in the form of Circular 2/94 (DfEE 1994). Lawlor proposed the abolition of all B.Ed. and PGCE courses, concluding that:

There is no evidence that the current PGCE training courses serve other than an impediment to good teaching at school. Good graduates are discouraged from entering the profession. They rightly consider the concentration on 'method' courses and theory to be time wasting (Lawlor 1990: 40).

Lawlor's hard-hitting rejection and disparagement of teacher education was supported by other academics, notably O'Hear (1988), who, writing for the Centre for Policy Studies, attacked all forms of 'progressive methods'.

The defence of the university role in initial teacher training was weak. As David Bridges (1996) points out, the arguments advanced were a mixture of pragmatism and principle, as well as having a strong element of self-interest. The pragmatic argument was that the national co-ordination, of admissions, training and assessment was claimed to be more efficient and cost-effective. From the point of view of 'principle', the defence offered by the universities revolved around the simple claim that teacher education needed the distinctive contribution of the university.

The weakness of academics in the face of this political attack stemmed from their own lack of confidence in the role of theory. Pring (1996) correctly locates the shift from what he describes as 'theory-led' to 'practice-led' initial teacher education as happening in the 1990s. However, his emphasis on the earlier mistrust of theory hints at a continuous process and by doing so underestimates the qualitative difference in the changes that had happened.

Practice had not only taken over the lead in teacher training, it had usurped the role of theory. In the 1990s 'practice' became 'theory'.

The historical antecedents are important and Pring reminds us of O'Connor's (1957) critique of educational theory in which it was claimed that there is no such thing because it is nothing more than a 'courtesy title' given to a 'miscellany of facts, anecdotes, speculation, feelings and desires and disconnected theoretical statements drawn from sociology and psychology' (Pring 1996: 11). A mistrust of theory as part of the preparation for being a teacher, thus pre-dated the Thatcherite period, and, Pring suggests, was seized upon to legitimise the pragmatist, common-sense approach promoted by both politicians (notably Keith Joseph) and educationists of the political Right. Pring also suggests that there was a political motivation that saw academics in Education Departments as Deweyist subversives who needed to be controlled. McIntyre notes that reaction of teacher educators to 'right wing populists' such as O'Hear, Lawton and the Hillgate Group are more concerned with the latter's lack of concern about the development of reflective teachers than the rejection of theory. He also notes the shift in concern from *theoretical content* of courses to *intellectual processes* that student teachers should learn to engage with. To support this point he refers to Alexander who observes:

...that the task for teacher educators was to concentrate less on what the student should know, more on how he might think. The core of this further alternative was the notion of theory as intellectual process rather than propositional knowledge: theorising (Alexander 1984: 145).

Likewise, Elliott (1993) writes of the deliberate government policy of denigrating and deriding educational 'theorists' by portraying them as part of the 'loony left', and points to the 1988 Education Reform Act as key to the removal of any theoretical underpinning of educational policy. In a comment which characterises a common view held amongst educationists seeking to justify their own lack of belief in and confidence to defend knowledge (Hayes 2000), by blaming the introduction of 'market forces', Elliott contends that:

The marginalisation of "the theorist" is part and parcel of the government's mission to demystify and deprofessionalise education and open it up as an intelligible object of parental choice (Elliott 1993: 24).

There is undoubtedly some truth in all these views, but as has already been pointed out, many teacher educators themselves were being highly critical of teacher education courses. The fundamental changes that took place in ITT in the 1990s that have led to the marginalisation of theoretical content cannot, be entirely explained by assertive right-wing government policy.

Richard Pring (1996) as we have seen, points to the rejection of educational theory as not just being a feature of government policy, but as being supported from within the ranks of the academic establishment. However, criticisms came not only from the 'academic establishment', but from a younger generation of academics in the education departments who, influenced by intellectuals of the Left, were promoting the importance of 'practice' over theory. Notably, John Elliott (with Labatt 1975, 1987, 1993) had, for a number of years, been prominent in '... endorsing a move

towards experientially-based professional learning'. Elliott supports the involvement of Higher Education in ITE he notes:

On the one hand we have a theory-based and impractical form of training emanating from higher education and on the other hand we want a more realistic, practically based form of training based in the schools (Elliott 1993: 1).

In conclusion, on the one hand, policy changes influenced by the New Right by refusing to recognise the value or even supporting the existence of education studies as an academic discipline, rejected the importance of theoretical knowledge in teacher education in favour of a purely practical initiation into teaching. On the other hand, academics in teacher education particularly those of a purportedly more left-wing perspective sought not to *develop* epistemology of education, but to abandon it in favour of a more pragmatic solution to the problem. The attack on theory was over and the victory was complete. 'Theory' had effectively been separated entirely from practice. Practice was everything. This is a uniquely philistine period in teacher education. However, out of this theoretical vacuum came salvation in the form of the 'theory' of 'reflective practice'.

1.2 Reflective practice: the redefinition of practice as theory

1.2.1 The origins of reflective practice

Before it became a mere slogan, 'reflective practice' was seen by teacher educators and academics as *the* medium through which theory and practice could be reconciled. It was Donald Schön who first popularised 'reflection' as a professional activity in his 1983 book *The Reflective Practitioner* –

How Professionals Think in Action. He claimed to offer 'a new epistemology of practice' more appropriate to professional life than the traditional approach to knowledge. Schön's analysis of professional knowledge was based on his experiences as a consultant working in industry. This is important to note, since one might question the desirability and even legitimacy of transferring ideas about the professional/client relationship in business and industry to the domain of education. Schön identified a 'crisis of confidence' in the professions, which he attributed to their failure of their theoretical base, scientific knowledge, which he called 'Technical Rationality':

The professions have suffered a crisis of legitimacy rooted both in their perceived failure to live up to their own norms and in their perceived incapacity to help society to achieve its objectives and solve its problems. Increasingly we have become aware of the importance to actual practice of phenomena – complexity, uncertainty, instability, uniqueness and value conflict which do not fit the model of Technical Rationality. Now, in the light of the Positivist origins of Technical Rationality, we can more readily see why these phenomena are so troublesome (Schön 1983: 39).

He implied that a 'technical rationalist' approach was simply following the rules, and accused the professions (of which teaching was a 'minor profession') of protectionism, of protecting their own self-interest by protecting the exclusivity of knowledge (Schön 1983: 288-89). Schön's challenge to the traditional foundations of professional knowledge took the form of a denial of the specificity and distinctive nature of professional knowledge (1983: 266-68) or 'extraordinary knowledge' as he called it. Drawing on Dewey's ideas of child-centred, progressive education and humanistic psychology he proposed 'reflection in action' as an alternative

way of building professionalism which was not bound by pre-determined rules.

When someone reflects-in-action, he becomes a researcher in the practice context. He is not dependent on the categories of established theory and technique, but constructs a new theory of the unique case..... He does not separate thinking from doing... Thus reflection in action can proceed even in situations of uncertainty or uniqueness, because it is not bound by the dichotomies of Technical Rationality (Schön 1983:68).

This tiny snapshot of Schön's thinking is used here to pinpoint the subjective nature of the 'epistemology of practice' that he proposes. 'Doing' is not separated from thinking because 'thinking' is reduced to describing what you do. For teacher educators and educational academics seeking a 'more experientially-based' professional development for teachers in the 1980s, reflective practice was seen to offer a radical approach to synthesising theory and practice. This is also the case in France, although the ideas have been much slower to be taken up seriously within teacher training. Paquay and Sirota (2001) regard reflective practice as an 'epistemological breakthrough'³. Through reflective practice, often referred to as *analyse des pratiques* (analysis of practice), practitioners are able to 'deliberate on their own practices, objectify them, share them, improve them and to introduce changes to improve their efficacy' (2001: 5)⁴. Altet (1994) places considerable confidence in reflective practice to transform teacher training and the teacher's work. Some *Sciences de l'Education* academics take a very psychologically-based view that takes reflective practice more into the realms of self-analysis (Fumat 1996, Etienne & Lerouge 1997,

³ 'une brèche épistémologique'

⁴ 'délibérer sur leurs propres pratiques, de les objectiver, de les partager, de les améliorer et d'introduire des innovations susceptibles d'accroître leur efficacité'

Vermerch 2001). These interpretations illustrate the essential nature of the process of reflection as a psychological phenomenon that is necessarily subjective, placing the responsibility to improve professional practice firmly on the individual and as such does little to encourage a broader critical understanding of issues. Reflective practice has weak theoretical credentials since, as has already been noted, it provides only subjective explanations, the ability to reflect subjectively is context dependent and not open to objective theoretical generalisation. As such, it undermines the argument for theory.

1.2.2 Reflective practice: the new orthodoxy in initial teacher training

Initial teacher training today is prescribed by a framework of mandatory competence-based standards, largely of a practical orientation, which places theoretical knowledge on the margins of the student teachers' professional knowledge. 'Reflective practice' has become the guiding principle of the majority of PGCE courses (Furlong 1996), and this signals a shift in the way 'theory' is understood. It is 'reflective practice' rather than theory that underpins both policy and practice in teacher training and education.

The consequences of this shift comes out in McIntyre's (1993) observation that theory is now seen as *process* and reflection is seen as an alternative to propositional knowledge. The process of reflection as a psychological phenomenon is necessarily subjective, placing the responsibility to improve

professional practice firmly on the individual and as such does little to encourage a broader critical understanding of issues.

The notion of reflection as key to effective professional development now underpins both policy and practice in education and particularly teacher training. At a policy level, the 'reflective practitioner' is the exemplification of present-day ideology in that it signifies an individualistic response to problems. Although 'reflective practitioners' may draw on and refer to theory, they are not contributing to its development except in some ill-defined and personal way. Reflective practice, therefore, is orientated entirely around practice and applies a subjective definition of knowledge and theoretical understanding. Theory, on the other hand, does not necessarily apply in any direct form to practice (Smith 1996).

Donald McIntyre (1993) offers a guarded critique of reflective practice, seeing it as part of the development of teacher professionalism applied more effectively to experienced teachers. He argues that student teachers' needs are in direct contrast to experienced teachers and that there is a limited purpose and value in reflection for them (see also McIntyre 1991). He distinguishes between 'reflection' as a goal in itself and reflection as a means to the attainment of that or other goals and asserts that reflection is a better tool for learning for the experienced teacher for three reasons. Firstly, experienced teachers' practice is intuitive and reflection is more about making their practice conscious and helps them to change it. Secondly, after Schön (1983), experienced teachers are able to learn more

through reflection on their experience while student teachers have little experience and are necessarily dependent on the ideas of others. Thirdly, the initial training period is best used as a time when student teachers have access to the ideas of others and that learning to reflect is a goal.

McIntyre does not deny the value of reflection *per se*, his concern is that reflection should not be the central focus of the initial training period.

Indeed he supports the idea that an understanding of historical, social and organisational contexts in which teachers work is important to learn about, but suggests that the problem is to decide what are immediate needs, and what are long-term aspirations. He goes on to make the valid distinction between theoretical and practical knowledge: that theoretical knowledge 'is knowledge formulated in such a way as to imply claims to some sort of generalisability', while practical knowledge is 'knowledge which is used to guide practice... but does not go beyond the particular' (1993: 48).

However, we see a weakening of his support for theoretical knowledge when McIntyre concludes that student teachers are unable or unwilling to make significant use of theoretical knowledge and therefore any theory will have to be 'predigested', made easily accessible and be 'relevant', which here infers practicality. He argues that any real hope of integrating theory and practice is dependent on both HE and schools negotiating a core curriculum with complementary aspects contributed by all parties and that tutors should not only introduce useful ideas, but also model 'disciplined theorising' and that 'the core of theoretical knowledge should be

suggestions for practice' (1993: 49). In the end, McIntyre, in common with many of his contemporaries (Elliott, Furlong) takes the position that developing good classroom practice in student teachers takes precedence over theorising and that reflection is a key element in developing practical teaching skills.

Given that it was the Oxford intern programme of initial teacher training, for which McIntyre was responsible, that served as the model for the 1992 reforms, that is, the move to school-based ITT, it is not surprising that he should take this position. But as more recent history has shown, such a model left the way open for the complete elevation of practical skills and the marginalisation of theoretical knowledge. Certain universities may still feel that they are able to 'hold the line' in some respects in defence of theory. Chapters 4 and 6 of this study will show that this possibility is limited. But no institution and very few individuals made or now make a strong case for theory *whether or not* it is immediately 'relevant' or 'useful' on the basis that it is essential to independent critical thought which should be seen as the essence of teacher professionalism.

1.2.3 The critics of reflective practice

Reflective practice is not without its critics. Hill *et al.* (1999) in their attack on the influences of postmodernism in education, make the link between relativist and postmodern thought with current teacher training practices in the following way:

In recent years, postmodernism has assumed an educational form – as educational theory, postmodernised modes of 'reflective' teacher

practice, postmodern educational research methods, and so on (Hill *et al.* 1999:1).

In this, they allude to the subjective, individualised nature of reflection, which is exemplified by commentators such as Breen (1991) Roberts (1998) and Wallace (1991), who stress the capacity of reflective practice to enable teachers to develop their 'personal theories' of practice. This redefines and reduces 'theory' to the particular and might be seen as a contradiction in terms. Are 'personal theories' any more than opinion based on experience? Twenty years ago it seemed obvious to ask: Why should every teacher have to 'reinvent the wheel' for themselves? (Dearden 1984), today that reinvention is the orthodoxy and is celebrated and required.

Michael Grenfell, in his book, *Training Teachers in Practice*, offers a strong critique of reflective practice:

Reflection and the reflective practitioner are powerful metaphors; certainly ones which ring true to many involved in professional training. But do they exist in reality? Is reflection anything more than a romantic notion? We all reflect in a manner. We do not walk down the street without setting in place a whole set of explicit and implicit know-how and knowledge bases. We learn from experience, we anticipate, we act with intent and adjust accordingly as we go along. In other words, human beings are by nature reflective creatures. Is the 'reflective practitioner' therefore anything more than a truism, the product of previously simplistic models to link instruction and practice? Does it have sufficient weight to base an entire system of teacher training on it, as appears to be the case in England? (Grenfell 1998:15).

He points out that 'reflection' is not always effective, because 'Reflection on a practical issue such as methodology may not be formative at all, but simply lead to a rejection or unquestioning acceptance of current pedagogic approaches' (1998:15). He notes too that reflection is dependent upon

individuals, that some trainees are better than others, and that some can be over self-critical. These observations serve to emphasise the subjective nature of reflection.

Wilkin (1998), like Grenfell, is critical of reflective practice, suggesting it is little more than 'thinking about' and that students have always done this in their evaluations of their classroom experience adding, in line with McIntyre (1991), that students have little experience on which to draw and reflect.

'How can reflective practice be distinguished from plain learning?' she asks:

The weakness of the reflective practitioner as a basis for theory, highlights the predicament institutions are in when they are bereft of the four disciplines. The lack of a sound theoretical base confirms the lowly status of the education department within the university. It is an inadequacy which sets education apart from other academic subjects, and which gives carte blanche to the government to keep the contribution of the HEI to teacher training at a minimum level (Wilkin 1998:12).

It is through 'reflective practice' that the tensions between competence-based teacher training and purportedly more radical approaches to teacher development (Carr & Kemmis 1986) are reconciled. Hargreaves (1993), a leading proponent of school-based teacher training, in defending his advocacy of a competence model of teacher training, critiques Elliott (1993) and suggests that Elliott's preferred model of direct classroom experience under the supervision of school and HE staff is entirely compatible with a competence approach.

As was noted above, the process of reflection as a psychological phenomenon is necessarily subjective, and therefore, inward looking. Far from encouraging a critical perspective, reflective practice is more likely to

encourage conformity and compliance, particularly within a competence-based training setting, and of view of continuing development that is guided entirely by the notion of spreading good practice in a functional sense.

But more importantly, while it is sometimes argued that 'reflective practice' does not preclude knowledge of theoretical perspectives, nevertheless, the underpinning ethos of 'reflective practice' points to a re-definition of 'theory' in education - that *practice* has become theory (Lawes 2002). Such a re-definition means that real educational theory, both of a general and applied nature, is undermined and pushed further to the margins of initial teacher training.

1.3 From the general to the specific: theory and reflective practice in mfl initial teacher training

The literature on mfl ITT over the last thirty years shows a picture that parallels in microcosm the account given above of the general demise of theory. There are, however, for the reasons stated earlier, a few more academics who are prepared to defend theory but the overall picture is bleak.

Wringe (1996) in a consideration some of the contemporary issues and problems in modern foreign languages research points to the heightened interest in practical classroom issues that are of immediate concern to teachers. He also contends that survival and reassurance are the main preoccupation of classroom practitioners who acquire no deeper understanding of the language learning process.

For classroom teachers, and to an increasing extent for those who train them, the nature and goals of language teaching are no longer thought to be a matter of speculation and enquiry but are quite tightly determined not only by National Curriculum Level Descriptors and implied assessment procedures, but by actual programmes of study, which specify a number of teaching procedures which not only receive little support from research but may be regarded as inappropriate by many classroom practitioners (Wringe 1996: 34).

This observation, confirmed by the empirical data of this study, reflects a preoccupation with developing expertise in the classroom that draws on narrowly-defined underpinning knowledge that relates specifically to the development of practical skills. But this functional approach is masked by the increasing emphasis on reflection by the theorists who claim that it enables student teachers to move beyond the acquisition of technical skills. This increasing emphasis and the decline in theory can be briefly described by looking at the three approaches to theory in languages teacher training that have influenced mfl ITT.

1. Traditional

In the 1970s and 1980s Henry Widdowson provided clear defence of theory in mfl ITT. Writing in the late 1970s he saw the denigration of theory as demeaning:

Language teachers are often represented by themselves and others as humble practitioners, essentially practical people concerned with basic classroom tactics and impatient of theory. Such a representation is unnecessarily demeaning. Of course the teacher is concerned with practical results, but this practice is based on theoretical notions, no matter how inexplicit they may be (Widdowson, 1978:163).

The notion of 'humble' practitioner may no longer pertain, since practice has been raised in esteem, but at the expense of theory. Widdowson's

assertion of the language teacher's need for theory, fails to point out the importance of making the theory *explicit*, otherwise it becomes diluted into guidance on practice. Writing a few years later, he seeks to make the case for 'the significance of theory in even the most practical of language teaching activities' and to show how it might be possible to bring the school classroom and the university in 'complementary relationship'. He argues that the role of teacher education is to provide a theoretical orientation to practical work and to enable teachers to develop an intellectual independence.

We need to encourage enquiring minds which do not submit to the drudgery of humdrum routine without question and which are not easily persuaded to join the mindless march behind the latest banner' (Widdowson 1984: 33).

This observation was made at a time when, as has already been argued, theory in education was under attack from various quarters, not least policy-makers and 'radical' educationalists. More recently, within the field of modern foreign languages, robust defences of theory are hard to find although Allford and Pachler (2002) and Lawes (2003, 2004) have raised concerns about the marginalisation of theory in mfl ITT. Wringe (1996), surveying research in mfl, notes that 'much current writing in the field reflects inspiration and practical experience of its writers rather than rigorous research' (1996:241).

2. Modernist/Critical

A second group of mfl academics that retain the label 'theoretical' are responding to postmodern ideas and engaging with critical theory. They often seem 'eclectic' and want to have progressive theories, but their work

constitutes a transitional theoretical step towards 'reflective practice'. For example, Mitchell and Myles consider that '...the fundamental assumptions of second language learning research (which) by and large have remained those of rationalist 'modern' science' (1998: 191). They point to two prevailing discussions of theory in second language learning at the present time: a call for more 'socially engaged second language acquisition research', (Block 2000) on the one hand, and postmodern interpretations which offer a relativist critique which highlights problems of 'textuality' and the relationship between language and any possibility of external meaning, on the other. Mitchell and Myles conclude that:

So far, however, the critical and postmodern commentary on SLA has not dislodged its central modernist assumptions. It will be for the future to tell how much impact it eventually makes in programmes of L2 empirical enquiry; this evolution will evidently be linked to wider on-going debates in the social sciences (1998: 194).

In France, some approaches to subject didactics⁵ can be placed within the 'rationalist' modern tradition that Mitchell and Myles refer to (Cossu & Favel 1998, Académie de Créteil 1996),

A second example is Brumfit (1997), who argues that the mediating link between theory and practice in language learning is applied linguistics. He observes that there is a body of opinion in the field that has seen the positivist tradition as inhibitive and that this has led to an embrace of postmodern critiques and a rejection of previous practices. While he sees a certain liberating aspect in postmodernism, he is cautious about the wholesale rejection of previous practice. He goes on to critique

⁵ See Appendix 4E and Chapter 4 for information on course content.

postmodern ideas suggesting that they represent a general tendency in thinking rather than a coherent system of thought. He points out that it is indeed a rejection of the single, coherent system of thought represented by the enlightenment tradition. Brumfit comments on how the postmodern preoccupation with 'textuality' is problematic in that it claims that there is no relationship between what a text 'says' and external 'reality' and that 'reality' is no more than a function of communication processes. He refers to the work of what he calls 'card-carrying postmodernists' such as Lacan, Derrida, Foucault, Lyotard, Bourdieu and Kristeva as well as to applied linguists such as Pennycook (1994), Rampton (1995), Gee (1991) and Cameron *et al* (1992) and observes that because ' language as a major mediating factor for the individual and the social group, is central to this conflict, so it is difficult for applied linguists to avoid positioning themselves wittingly or unwittingly, in the debate' (1997:22). Brumfit, himself, claims to take a broadly Habermasian view when he says ' the process of communication is more important than the product of communication: products will always be subject to repudiation, modification and reinterpretation but the lack of an agreed process for comment and criticism will result in a less than satisfactory or false knowledge, dangerous when exploited to address practical problems' (1997: 23). Brumfit nevertheless remains within the rationalist framework in his critique of postmodernist ideas within the field of applied linguistics. He poses the question of how applied linguists should react to the postmodern project but demonstrates a certain ambivalence in his thought when he suggests that one should distinguish between a 'strong' and a 'weak' form. While he clearly rejects

the 'strong' form by confirming that it is easily refutable, he omits to add any critique of what he calls the 'weak' position and in conclusion calls for Applied Linguistics to adopt a plurality of approaches, although not a randomness of approaches, and underlines the need to retain a dialogue between the approaches so that criticism is possible. This view suggests that it is possible to reconcile postmodern and rationalist positions which is difficult to justify or support, since that is simply not possible (Lawes 2003). Brumfit expresses, if not a tolerance of relativism, an indifference to it. It could be argued that the tolerance of relativism as expressed through elevation of the subjective experience and knowledge of the teacher that begins during initial teacher education is inward-looking rather than transformational and leads to a disproportionate focus on practical skills and in itself deprofessionalises teachers.

3. Reflective

A third, and largest group of mfl academics, are champions of 'reflection'. Both Michael Wallace (1991) in his book *Training Foreign Language Teachers A Reflective Approach*, and Jon Roberts (1998) in *Language Teacher Education*, take reflective practice as the underpinning rationale for their texts. While both books are primarily orientated towards the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL), they nevertheless mirror much that is contained within current PGCE modern foreign languages (mfl) programmes.

Wallace claims to seek an intellectual framework and to explore 'some fundamental questions on the nature of teaching and teacher training' and 'seeks to present a coherent rationale of good teacher education practice (1991:12)'. He raises questions of how professional expertise is acquired and considers three modes of teacher education: the Craft Model, the Applied Science Model and the Reflective Model. He concludes that the Craft Model, does not allow for the development of scientific knowledge on teaching and learning in languages, nor the revolution in the study of linguistics inasmuch that it requires an unquestioning adoption of the 'master's' practice by the pupil teacher. Of the Applied Science Model, he concludes, drawing on Schön's 'Technical Rationality', that while this model is what is (was) prevalent, it involves only the application of *established* scientific knowledge to practice, or 'received knowledge' as he calls it, thus reinforcing the theory/practice divide.

He proposes a 'staged' 'reflective' model involving an eclectic approach in terms of teaching and learning techniques in teacher education on the basis of experiential learning. This he sees 'as a compromise solution which gives due weight both to experience and to the scientific basis of the profession' (1991:17). The goal is 'professional competence' both as a minimum requirement for teaching and as the start of a 'lifetime journey' of continuing development. Wallace's somewhat schematic representation of professional development tends to over-simplify, but is nevertheless very close to the current model adopted by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA 2002). While 'theory' in the form of foreign language pedagogical

knowledge is recognised as important, it is nevertheless marginal to the acquisition of practical skills primarily aimed at 'empower(ing) teachers to manage their own professional development'.

Roberts provides a more in-depth analysis of the process and content of foreign language teacher training, but also firmly founded on the principles of reflective practice, drawing on Dewey, Schön, Kolb and Lortie and adopting a Constructivist approach. He describes this in the following way:

Constructivist theory tells us that each learner-teacher's personal theories and concept of self will 'filter' course input, even if their similar display lessons seem to suggest that the course is producing a set of pedagogic clones (Roberts 1998: 208).

Roberts is not uncritical of Schön, insofar that his 'account of expertise is too narrow: it applies only to creativity, not expertise as a whole. We cannot compress teacher's professional development into a single dimension of 'reflection' (1998: 122). Roberts also points out that Schön explicitly *excluded* teaching from his discussion as it did not fit with his model of 'professional'. He concludes that the multiplicity of interpretations of 'reflection' are, in part, due to the fact that, as Schön also observed, school culture militated against teachers being reflective. Roberts nevertheless dons the reflective mantle and develops and applies the principles consistently and effectively throughout his book. While he also recognises the need for an understanding of the principles underlying skills, practice is the dominant concern.

Both Roberts and Wallace, in common with most present-day teacher educators, see the reflection on and restructuring of individual teachers'

classroom experience and ideas as what enables them to construct 'personal theories'. This, together with some superficial knowledge of theoretical perspectives is synthesised into 'reflective practice' and represented as theory. In this way, it is likely that 'theory' is reduced to commonsense. This issue is explored more fully in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 where the results of the empirical research undertaken for this study are analysed.

Different interpretations of and approaches to 'reflection' are brought together by Richards and Freeman (1996) in their edited book, *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching*. This is an international collection of essays that focus on teachers' subjective experiences. The volume as a whole exemplifies a 'reflective practice' approach to teacher training which elevates subjective experience and reflection over objective knowledge and, unlike Roberts, discussed above, gives scant consideration to theoretical issues. In common with other works related to modern languages (Phillipson *et al*, 1990; Widdowson 1978,1984; Wringe 1996) the orientation is pedagogical. However, while these works engage with theoretical perspectives, Richards and Freeman are mostly concerned with the development of 'teacher knowledge' in relation to classroom practice, attitudes, reflection on practice and understanding learner/teacher relationships. Another example from this volume is Almarza who uses case study data to explore the development of knowledge in student teachers of foreign languages. The writer sees initiation into teaching as a process of reflection and makes the case for an experiential approach to learning to

teach. Finally, in his own contribution, Freeman presents the findings of a longitudinal study into teacher learning in teacher education in which he emphasises the importance of teachers developing their own subjective understandings and identifies the 'renaming of experience and reconstructing practice' as key to professional development. Thus, it is possible to see how theory has been defined through the focus on reflection discussed above, and the shift towards observational studies (Breen 1991). The latter are characterised by talk of teachers' 'implicit theories' or 'personal theories' and by classroom investigation by teachers re-presented as 'action-research'. Teaching is regarded as a personal, subjective activity with little reference to much except experience and reflection in their work (Phillipson *et al* 1991).

1.4 The Subjectivisation of knowledge

The epistemological consequence of the denigration of theory is the subjectivisation of knowledge. This comes out in discussions of 'teacher knowledge' which is an area that has prompted much recent interest of researchers and commentators working in the field of teacher training. Like reflective practice, 'teacher knowledge' is talked about in relation to the subjective experience of the teacher. The broad orientation, both in relation to the field of language teaching and teachers and teaching generally, seems to be, related to individual psychology (Roberts 1999), working lives (Huberman 1993), 'stories' or individual biographies (Thomas 1995), individual experience (Freeman & Richards 1996) 'teacher thinking' (Calderhead 1987) and 'identity' (Lynch 1989; Richards 1996; Freeman

2002, Day 2000), rather than a corpus of propositional knowledge. The focus on the individual teacher working in a unique context militates against the development of generalisable principles of what constitutes 'teacher knowledge'. Moreover, the central feature of 'teacher knowledge' from these perspectives is entirely related to practice: practical knowledge or at the most some level of pedagogical knowledge is all that appears to be of concern (Elbaz 1983; Woods 1996). Freeman (1996) suggests that since 1975 'teacher learning and thinking have become established as core concepts in educational research, which has led to a re-examination of the stories and common assumptions by which teaching and teacher education are done'(1996:351). On the other hand, Lightbown (2000) argues that '(language) teachers need to continue to draw on many other kinds of knowledge (than pedagogical) and experience in determining the teaching practices which are appropriate for their classrooms' (2000:432). That said, it is still the case that most literature in the mfl teacher training area, although somewhat limited, favours a practice-based approach which often reflects an ambivalence towards theoretical knowledge. All this confirms the general picture described by Furlong (1996) referring to the 1994 Modes of Teacher Education (MOTE) project 'within the vast majority of teacher-education programmes, notions of 'theorising', 'theory as process' and particularly 'reflection' largely displaced the teaching of theory as propositional knowledge' (1996: 155).

1.5 Conclusion: The anti-theoretical mood in mfl ITT

This chapter has established that it is a commonly held view in the professional literature that practical classroom skills are what matter most (Block 2002, Lawes 2002). It is also true that there is some concern that the initial training period has become too focussed on technical skills (Lawes 2003). The anti-theoretical mood of the times is expressed in initial teacher training through the redefining of practice as theory through 'reflective practice' and a subjective view of teacher professionalism. Both policy-makers and many teacher trainers see teaching as essentially a practical activity. This is confirmed by the emphasis in initial training on classroom skills and pedagogical issues and the central role of 'reflective practice'.

While the arguments for and against theory in ITT have existed for a long time the contemporary situation is not merely philistine and anti-theoretical but one in which, to go by the literature, practice has become theory. This study looks at the impact, if any, of the contemporary theoretical malaise on mfl practitioners.

The empirical evidence presented is drawn from ITT course programmes and the views and attitudes of a sample of PGCE, PGCE/*Maîtrise (fle)* and *CAPES* tutors, PGCE student teachers and *CAPES professeurs stagiaires*⁶. The comparison of tutors' views on initial teacher training, reflective practice, theory and the place of higher education in ITT, student

⁶ 2nd year *CAPES* student teachers.

teachers' expectations, aspirations and experience of their courses is a rich source of data that provides new insights into the current 'models' of initial teacher training at the present time, and, in particular the place of educational and subject-specific theory.



Chapter 2

The Research Methodology of the study

Introduction

This study is based on research that is primarily empirical in nature, drawing on a variety of rich qualitative data. A substantial amount of fieldwork has been undertaken, comprising three components: semi-structured interviews with student teachers, tutors and other professionals involved or interested in ITT, observations of university based training sessions and scrutiny of course documentation and student teachers' written work. This has allowed for a significant element of triangulation that has contributed to the validity and reliability of the research. The range and depth of the fieldwork undertaken in this study is what gives the thesis its distinctiveness and originality.

The fieldwork in France was undertaken during a four month period of residence during which time it was possible to take part in a number of other related activities during field visits such as participation in a mentor training session, school classroom observation of a trainer in her secondary school (*collège*), informal discussions with colleagues in all institutions, participation in research groups, attendance and presentation at research conferences and seminars as well as numerous social contacts in the academic world. The development of academic relationships and

participation in the academic community in the 'home' institution, FN1⁷, also provided a wealth of background, more anecdotal, material that has informed the research. One of the conference papers given in France led to a publication (Lawes and Barbot 2001) and there were a number of subsequent invitations to speak at research groups and a European conference after the period of residence. All of these opportunities have informed the study in a variety of ways. In effect, substantially more 'informal' research was necessary in France, in order to understand and accurately represent the structures, training programmes, roles and responsibilities and general ethos of initial teacher training in its comparative dimension.

As a former PGCE tutor in England, the researcher has been able to draw on professional knowledge and experience to inform the planning and conduct of the fieldwork and its analysis. It has also been possible, during the period of the research, to discuss the research with a large number of co-professionals, to put ideas up for scrutiny and discussion at a number of research seminars and conferences, and to place aspects of the thesis in the public domain through the publication of a number of research-based articles.

As Chapter 1 and subsequent chapters indicate, the empirical part of this study has been accompanied by extensive reading and analysis of texts relating to teacher education, educational theory, and the applied theory of

⁷ See Section 2.2 below for information regarding the coding of institutions visited.

modern foreign languages in English and a more restricted literature in French relating to teacher education and educational theory. Care has been taken to maintain consistency of approach and conduct of the research in all institutions visited and appropriate consideration has been given to ethical issues.

2.1 The Comparative Dimension

The training of modern foreign languages teachers is a particularly pertinent subject of a comparative enquiry at the present time, partly because the teacher/linguist has potentially the greatest possibility of all subject specialist teachers of moving out of their national system to teach abroad. More importantly, however, the teaching and learning of modern foreign languages is an area that has the unique potential to be a vehicle for overcoming the barriers between peoples of different countries and cultures, of widening the horizons of both teachers and learners and a beacon of universal values (Lawes 2000). Equally, the case of modern foreign languages is interesting because the same substantial body of language learning theory that is drawn on in both countries.

A comparison of the role of theory in initial teacher training in two neighbouring European countries where the greater mobility of teachers is promoted, adds to the understanding of fundamental principles that underpin different approaches to teacher training, and is a prerequisite of any future harmonisation of qualifications that is a feature of current European Union policy. This was one of the motives for a comparative

dimension in this study. However, the primary, and often quoted purpose of a comparative dimension in research is to look at how things are done elsewhere in order to better understand one's own system. Phillips (2000), comments that '...it is through the act of comparing that we define our position on most issues that require the exercise of judgement' (2000: 297). He goes on to identify a list of 'defences of comparative studies', among which he asserts that the comparative study of education:

- shows what is possible by examining alternatives to provision 'at home';
- describes what might be the consequences of certain courses of action, by looking at experience in various countries (i.e. in attempting to predict outcomes it can serve both to support and to warn against potential policy decisions);
- contributes to the development of an increasingly sophisticated theoretical framework in which to describe and analyse educational phenomena;
- has an important supportive and instructional role to play in the development of any plans for educational reform, when there must be concern to examine experience elsewhere;
- is of intrinsic intellectual interest as a scholarly activity, in much the same way as the comparative study of religion, or literature, or government, is. (Phillips 2000:298)

The research undertaken for this thesis addresses these five points and has the primary aim of drawing on a description and analysis of aspects of the initial teacher training system in France to illuminate the English data collected, and to search for the features of both systems that would contribute to the development of a new model of initial teacher *education* rather than to 'borrow' from the French system in the traditional sense. The methodological approach of this study, therefore, is not one of cultural relativism (Epstein 1988), but rather seeks to identify principles that transcend particular contexts and that might be seen as generalizable across national boundaries. In this sense the study espouses some

positivistic principles in the way that Epstein (1988) suggests when he quotes Merritt and Coombes (1977) as exemplifying such an approach: 'without.... systematic cross-system comparisons, we won't develop the theories we need; without these theories we won't explain much of anything, even within a single (national) system (of education)' (1988: 4). More recent literature (Cowan 2000, Grant 2000), about comparative studies seems to be characterised by culturally relativistic notions that imply the impossibility and indeed, undesirability of trying to draw out generalizable principles because of differing contexts and cultural differences. However, a number of studies (Phillips 2000, Moon 1998, Alexander 2001) confirm that comparative analyses can provide new insights and point the way for future developments both within individual countries and transnationally; what Broadfoot (2002) sees as 'the search for patterns, generalisations, which can form an enduring set of understandings to guide educators of all kinds' (2002: 135).

The comparative dimension of this study aims to identify such patterns and provide understandings, through the collection and analysis of a substantial body of empirical data, supported by a rigorous analysis of the relevant literature, leading to the exposition of a theoretical model of modern foreign languages teacher education in the final chapter which will identify fundamental principles, barriers and ways forward for the implementation of a model of initial professional development in a European context.

2.2 The selection of samples

2.2.1 Research sites

The study compares three types of teacher training programmes for secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages: The Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), the joint certification course, PGCE/*Maîtrise français langue étrangère (fle)*⁸ and the French Certificat des Aptitudes au Professorat Secondaire (CAPES), second year - PLC2⁹. In the case of the two English-based courses, student teachers of French were selected as this is the foreign language most commonly taught in English secondary schools and is the language of interest for the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle*. In France, the *CAPES d'anglais* (English) was chosen as English is the most commonly taught foreign language in French secondary schools.

There were three criteria for the choice of Higher Education Institutions in England: successful Ofsted inspections, different types of HE institution and geographical spread. Although the criteria used in Ofsted inspections might be seen as being a limited reflection of 'quality' in ITT, nevertheless, central government and the Teacher Training Agency consider such institutions as providing good quality teacher training in line with government standards. For the PGCE, three 'red brick' universities were chosen, one specialised institute of education and one Higher Education College in the university sector. For the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programme, all five institutions offering

⁸ See Chapter 4 .

⁹ PLC2 (Professeurs de lycées et collèges)

the qualification were selected: three universities and two HE colleges¹⁰. One of the selected institutions was selected as a 'base' and additional research (additional interviews, library research) was carried out here. Clearly other criteria might have been used in the selection of institutions to take part in the study, but the deciding factor was the willingness and availability of staff to take part and organise the participation of a sample of their student teachers. This might imply a certain bias in the selection, but a number of considerations have to be taken into account when conducting qualitative research, the most important of which is the willing co-operation of participants that ensures a positive atmosphere which leads to a rich bank of interview data. In the interests of anonymity, each institution has been assigned a code name as follows: EC, EE, ESE, EW1, EW2, EM, ENE and EN.

In France, no similar inspection procedures exist and no information regarding the 'quality' of courses was available. It was therefore not possible to use this criterion in the selection of research sites in France. The second criterion, of geographical spread, was observed and the five institutions were chosen on the basis of existing contacts with colleagues in France and their willingness to participate in the research. The four institutions studied have also been given code names: FN, FC, FE and FS. Three of these *Instituts Universitaires pour la Formation des Maîtres* (IUFM)¹¹ that were chosen had been pilot institutions when IUFMs were created in 1991 and so had been used, to some extent, as models for other

¹⁰ See Appendix 4A for a further descriptions of the institutions.

institutions. Previous research had already been carried out in the university in one of the towns selected. This institution was adopted as a 'base' where additional research in the form of library research, participation in the academic work of the institution and the development of professional relationships with colleagues was undertaken for this study, in addition to the work at the attached *IUFM*. In this way, as much similarity as possible in the choice of research sites was achieved. In the event, it was not possible to visit one of the chosen universities in France due to a shortage of time and unavailability of staff and student teachers to take part in the research. The French interview data is therefore confined to four *IUFMs*. With regard to course documentation and information, due to the more autonomous nature of the French system, the quantity and quality of course information on each programme was variable. One tutor was reluctant to provide a course programme for the current year, although promised to send one on at a later date, but this did not happen despite a further request. It is possible that no such document existed in a coherent form. In England this might be seen as an indication of poor course management and organisation, but in France, it is often the case that student teachers are not provided with details of course programmes and so is not necessarily indicative of poor course quality.

2.2.2 Selection of interviewees

In each of the institutions visited in both countries, a minimum of two HE tutors (one subject, one general profession tutor) with responsibility for the

¹¹ See Chapter 3 for a consideration of the role of *IUFMs* in ITT in France.

delivery of the course were interviewed. In the case of the PGCE/*Maitrise* the 5 course leaders were responsible in the main for subject and general professional studies. Three student teachers for each group visited were selected making a total of 42 student teacher interviews (15 for each programme studied in England, 12 in France). A further 12 interviews with mentors and other educational professionals were also conducted, details of which are provided below. The professional expertise of tutors in France and England was relied on to select student teachers for interview. It was intended to reflect the range of 'abilities' within groups in accordance with what Cohen and Manion (1994) call *purposive sampling* which they describe as being where 'researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality. In this way, they build up a sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs' (1994: 89). However, while some tutors were willing and able to do this, others were either reluctant to select student teachers for interview because they did not want to cause any rivalries or conflict within their student group. In France, some tutors did not feel they knew their student teachers well enough to comment and select on their teaching abilities. Equally, selection by tutors would necessarily have been to some extent subjective, and it is possible that some selections might have been made which did not reflect a range of 'abilities', but intended to present the course in its best light. For the most part, therefore, student teachers were self-selecting for interview, following a *volunteer sampling* approach. In the event, this did not appear to compromise the validity of the sample since tutors confirmed that a range of 'abilities' was represented from groups. Indeed, the nature of the student

teacher interview schedule, was not to 'test' their knowledge, but to engage them in questioning that allowed them to present their perceptions and views and in this sense, 'ability' was not an important issue. The one danger envisaged was that disaffected student teachers might put themselves forward for interview in order to air their grievances to a third party, but this did not happen. There is a delicate balance between eliciting legitimate negative observations and encouraging complaints and the airing of personal grievances. On the one or two occasions where this started to happen, it was possible to re-orientate the questioning as described in section 2.3.2, below. Nor, it should be said, were students anxious to ingratiate themselves and say what they thought was required. They displayed a professional attitude towards the interviewer and the interview throughout.

With regard to the ages and nationalities of student teachers in both countries, a mixture of French and English students were interviewed where possible. Table 2.i below shows the spread of student teachers interviewed, indicating their gender, nationality and approximate age. This information was either self-evident or ascertained during the interviews. The breakdown of nationality in England reflects the general proportion of French nationals on PGCE mfl courses in England and the gender balance is equally fairly accurate. The French sample was representative of the courses observed for this research. There was an even smaller proportion of men on the *CAPES* d'anglais programme, and in general, the vast majority of candidates are French nationals.

ENGLAND				FRANCE			
Student teacher	Nation-ality	Gender	Age-range	Student teacher	Nation-ality	Gender	Age-range
ESEst1	E	F	40-45	FPps1	F	F	25-30
ESEst2	E	M	25-30	FPps2	F	F	25-30
ESEst3	E	M	35-40	FPps3	F	F	25-30
EEst4	F	M	25-30	FN1ps4	F	F	25-30
EEst5	E	F	23-25	FN1ps5	F	F	25-30
EEst6	F	F	23-25	FN1ps6	F	F	25-30
ECst7	E	F	23-25	FSps7	F	F	25-30
ECst8	F	M	23-25	FSps8	F	F	25-30
ECst9	E	F	28-30	FSps9	F	M	25-30
ENEst10	F	F	23-25	FCps10	F	F	25-30
ENEst11	F	F	23-25	FCps11	F	F	25-30
ENEst12	E	F	23-25	FCps12	F	M	25-30
EW1st13	E	F	23-25				
EW1st14	E	F	23-25				
EW1st15	E	F	25-30				

Table 2.i Breakdown of student teacher interviews in England and France

In addition to tutor and student teacher interviews, 2 school-based mentors in both countries, attached to the 'home' institutions were interviewed and a number of university academics involved in research into, or management of, teacher education, were interviewed. This included leading figures in teacher education in both countries. These interviews provided some useful background data that is drawn on both explicitly and implicitly throughout the study. However, the school-based mentor interview material is not reported on directly, since the focus of the study was on the higher education component of ITT. Profiles of the teacher trainers interviewed are included in Chapter 6.

2.2.3 Research protocol and ethical issues

Contacts were made by the researcher by e-mail or telephone, explaining the nature of the research, the requirements and the approximate time needed for interviews. While a general idea of the subject and content of the study was communicated to tutors, the exact research interests were not made known until after each interview, in order to avoid interviewees feeling that they should respond in a particular way. Interviewees were not informed, therefore, that the primary concern was with the role of theory in initial teacher training, nor were they prepared in any way for their interview. They were merely told that their views and experiences of their training programme were being sought. Permission was sought in each case to record the interview, no interviewees refused. All interviewees were assured of anonymity and confidential nature of the discussions and that recordings would not be heard by anyone other than the researcher although some anonymous verbatim quotes might be used in the final thesis. All interviewees were given the opportunity for the interview to be conducted in English or French, depending which language they felt most confident in expressing their views. Each interviewee was given the opportunity after their interview to ask questions about the research. During observations of HE sessions, the researcher was introduced to groups as a researcher, and permission was sought from them to take notes during the session.

With regard to scrutiny of student teachers' written work, it was possible to have sight of an opportunity sample of assignments and dissertations and

to make brief, anonymous notes regarding the subject matter, the extent to which the work was analytical in approach, included any sort of empirical enquiry and the background reading undertaken. It was intended that 3 pieces of course work per institution should be examined. However, in the event, this was only possible in institutions EC, EE and ESE in England and FN, FC and FS in France and these were the work of previous student teachers (*professeurs stagiaires*) that were held in the IUFM resource centres.

2.2.4 Validity and Reliability

Issues of validity and reliability have been constantly borne in mind. If 'validity' is seen as 'truth' (Silverman 2000), the study seeks to pursue truth in the sense that Hammersley identifies: 'By validity, I mean truth: interpreted as the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomenon to which it refers' (1990: 57). Great efforts have been made to achieve consistency of approach and conduct of research in all sites. All the interviews in England were transcribed verbatim by the researcher. One third of the French interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher who is a near-native speaker of French (but nevertheless checked for accuracy by a French native speaker), a further third by a French native speaker (but also checked for accuracy by the researcher) and the final third (1 interview per institution) was listened to and noted in full in French by the researcher. The French verbatim quotes in the text were translated by the researcher.

Prior to the main fieldwork, a pilot was undertaken of the interview phase. Pilot interviews were conducted with one course tutor, one school-based mentor, four PGCE student teachers (focus group interview) and three PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* student teachers. In France, it was only possible to trial the interview schedule (which was a translation of the English version) with one *professeur stagiaire* in institution FN1, prior to the main data collection. However, the interview ran smoothly and produced data of a similar quality to the pilot phase in England. In England, the focus group interview with PGCE student teachers was carried out to ascertain whether this would be a suitable method of data collection, but this did not provide sufficiently detailed data since one or two students (out of a group of 4) participated very little. This method was therefore abandoned at the pilot stage. Neither the pilot student teacher data nor the mentor interview material was used in the main study, but the tutor interview was. This is because the interviews took place in an institution already selected for the main study. The pilot tutor interview compared favourably with subsequent tutor interviews in the main study and so was included.

The student interview schedule was reviewed and discussed by peers in an academic research group at the Institute of Education and was revised in the light of this discussion and results from the pilot interviews. The tutor and mentor schedules were discussed with 'pilot' interviewees who were also able to comment on the researcher's interview technique. All pilot interviews were recorded and transcribed in order to check that the schedule was obtaining the sort of information expected. Although the pilot

interviews with student teachers were successful, in order to ensure the validity of the research process, it was necessary that all interviews took place with the same year cohort of student teachers.

The fieldwork therefore proceeded on a sound footing. A form of triangulation between interviews (there is also a 'checking' element between student teacher/tutor/mentor/other professionals particular perspectives), course documentation and student teachers' course work was carried out. In this way, a tendency towards anecdotalism sometimes associated with qualitative research was avoided, although it is true that outside of the research interviews a large amount of anecdotal information was gathered, particularly in France. While this did not inform directly the interview analysis, it served as useful background information to contribute to the overall understanding of systems, issues and problems, and on occasions filled the 'holes' or provided linkages among various parts of the data (Patton 1990). It was recognised that 'typicality' and 'representativeness' were important issues with regard to the interviews and these continued to be key considerations during the data analysis stage.

While the fieldwork element of the thesis is qualitative, it is not confined to a small amount of data, nor simply interviews. The quantity of data collected was sufficient for patterns to emerge and to allow the cross-validation of data sources and findings. The large number of research interviews, together with the analyses, scrutiny of student teachers work and course documentation together with a comparison of course programmes

combined to ensure validity and reliability, as well as to contribute to the generalisability of the study's findings.

2.3 The Research Process: data collection

As has already been demonstrated, issues of validity and reliability were a key concern in the planning and preparation of the empirical research. A substantial review of the relevant literature was undertaken to lay the foundations of the thesis and the knowledge and insights gained were essential to the empirical part of the study. Copious notes from all readings were made, references annotated, and a bibliography was built up consistently throughout the study. Equally, research into appropriate methodology, referred to throughout this chapter, as well as significant previous experience in qualitative research, informed the empirical part of this study. Furthermore, each stage of the research was closely supervised and also discussed with colleagues and fellow researchers.

2.3.1 Development of interview schedules

The purpose of the research interviews was to investigate student teachers', teacher trainers' and other academics' views on a number of aspects of teacher training and 'teacher knowledge'. Questions were carefully chosen to enable interviewees to express their views freely.

The student teacher interview schedule was divided into three areas of questioning relating to their expectations, their experience and their perceptions of theory and professional knowledge gained on the course. A

draft list of questions was formulated and discussed with the researcher's thesis supervisor and peers in an academic research group. The questions were modified slightly and reduced in number in the light of these discussions. A pilot study was then undertaken with 3 individual student teachers on the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* course. A small group of PGCE student teachers were also interviewed to test whether focus group interviews would provide data of sufficient quality for the study. However, as has already been noted above in relation to questions of validity and reliability, the results of the group interview were unsatisfactory in that not all participants contributed fully. In addition, a practical consideration was that, as interviewee time was likely to be limited, group interviews would not be feasible. The quality of the individual interview material was evaluated, the questions re-examined, and one or two minor changes were made¹².

The mentor and HE tutor interview schedules were developed in a similar way and pilot interviews with one school-based mentor and one HE tutor were conducted¹³. In both of these cases, follow-up evaluative discussions were carried out with the colleagues in relation to the formulation and effectiveness of the questions and the interviewing style. Feedback was positive from both. It was then possible to proceed with preliminary arrangements with participating institutions. The questions here focussed around tutors' views on the changes that had taken place over the last ten years in ITT, on the current model, on the roles of Higher Education and research, how they perceived theory and reflective practice and what they

¹² See Appendix 2A for the full interview schedule.

considered would be an ideal model of initial teacher training. PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* tutors were also asked additional questions about the distinctiveness of the joint programme and the student teachers who took part in it, and the relationship between the PGCE and the *Maîtrise fle* courses.

The interview schedules were translated into French and checked by a native speaker for accuracy and to check that the vocabulary used conveyed the intended meaning. It was not possible to carry out pilot interviews in France, but in the event, the interview schedule worked equally well there. The first teacher trainer interview in France was negotiated with a tutor who had a thorough knowledge of the historical development of teacher training. This was conducted as an extended interview, providing a wealth of background information and insights into policy and practice over the last ten years which enabled the researcher to be better informed for subsequent interviews as far as follow-up questions were concerned.

Brown and Dowling suggest that:

Interviews enable the researcher to explore complex issues in detail, they facilitate the personal engagement of the researcher in the collection of data, they allow the researcher to provide clarification to probe and to prompt (Brown & Dowling 1998: 72).

¹³ See Appendix 2B for the full interview schedule.

They are sceptical of the 'semi-structured' interview, suggesting that 'unstructured' is a better description of what happens in a more open research dialogue. At the same time they admit that:

The interview will always bring some agenda or general purpose to bear on the activity and will generally impose some theoretical and/or methodological selection in terms of the location and conditions in which it takes place (1998: 72-3).

Given that they also confirm that 'there can be no such thing as an interview without any structure', it would seem that there is little distinction between 'semi-structured' and 'unstructured' and that therefore the choice of term is personal. However, in order to be specific about the type of interviews that were conducted in this research, the term 'semi-structured' is preferred on the basis that the interviews were not 'conversation(s) with the interviewer working from a relatively loose set of guidelines' (1998: 72). The interviews undertaken for this research were based on a set of 'guide' questions, previously worked out and piloted, and which may or may not have been followed up by supplementary questions.

2.3.2 The Interview process

The interviews in France took place in October and November 2001 at approximately the mid-point of a two-year *CAPES*. Student teachers in France had, at this point spent between one and two months on school experience, but had only recently (mid-September) begun their IUFM training. In England the PGCE interviews took place from late January to mid- March 2002, and those for the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* were held during May of the same year. In both cases, this was approximately the mid-point

of the courses.¹⁴ As far as possible, therefore, all interviews took place at approximately the same point in courses. The majority of interviews in France were conducted in French. French native speakers on the PGCE and the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* courses chose to be interviewed in English.

For the most part, it was possible to conduct interviews in a private, quiet environment. In both France and England, most were undertaken in HE institutions during university components of the course. In some instances it was necessary to conduct interviews (of student teachers) in schools during their school experience, and on three occasions in France, interviewees were visited in their homes. Although there is some debate about whether responses might vary depending on venue, there appeared to be no difference in student teacher attitudes or participation between home, school or university. Care was taken to make interviews as relaxed and informal as possible. This was particularly necessary with the student teacher interviews as in some cases they were less confident, and on some occasions more reticent at first, to express their ideas freely. It was essential to put these interviewees at their ease by adopting a relaxed interview style and to remind them of the complete confidentiality of the interviews. The first interview question with student teachers asked them to say why they had decided to become a teacher, teacher trainers were asked to talk about their job and how they got into teacher training. The main purpose of this question was to put interviewees at their ease as well as to provide useful background information. As some student teachers in

¹⁴ PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* students begin their programme in late august, spending 8 weeks on

England were of French nationality, they were given the opportunity to conduct the interview in either English or French, whichever language they felt most comfortable with.

On the whole the temptation to engage in discussion which might skew the direction or the content of interviewee participation was resisted, although this was more difficult with teacher trainer interviews as these were colleagues who were keen, at times, to engage in a dialogue rather than simply expound on their own ideas. However, it must be said that data collected from such interchanges was valuable in itself, and served the further purpose of challenging and clarifying the researcher's own ideas.

It was noticeable that student teachers were conscious of the temptations to use the opportunity to air their grievances. Most resisted, but on the odd occasion where this started to happen, it was necessary to re-orientate questioning to avoid the interview becoming a negative experience for both participants. At the end of each interview, interviewees were invited to give brief feedback on the content and conduct of the interview and asked whether they had anything to add of their own.

It was at the interview stage that it was important to begin to absorb the data, in the process of collection, in order to begin to have an overall idea of how to approach the storage and analysis of data. The high level of

PGCE, then spend 4 months in France on the *Maîtrise fle* Maîtrise, returning to England at the end of January to complete the rest of their PGCE course.

familiarity with the interview data that was essential at the analysis stage therefore began during the collection period.

2.3.3 Observations and field notes

Observations of subject studies training sessions were undertaken at HE institutions in both England and France¹⁵. The purpose of these observations was to find out about the *content* of sessions and the *process* of training in both countries. Equally, as Silverman (2000) notes, what we see can be as important as what we *hear* in fieldwork (2000: 140). On these occasions, the researcher was introduced by tutors and was usually given the opportunity to say a few words about the research. The procedure was then to sit unobtrusively and make notes of the running of training sessions adding comments and questions. An attempt to tape record a part of a session in France (with the permission of participants), was unsuccessful, as the acoustics of the classroom were poor and the recordings were not of sufficient quality to be used). When small group discussions were taking place, it was possible to circulate, 'listen in', and then make notes on elements of the discussions later. The notes gathered in this part of the fieldwork provided very useful insights into the content and approach to training, which were analysed and compared manually and incorporated into Chapter 4 and Appendix 4D. The approach to this was to read through the notes from each session, summarise elements of content and process and then to extract comments made at the time. What seemed to be a fairly subjective process at the time of the observations, developed into a more

¹⁵ Only subject discipline sessions were observed in institution FP

objective consideration as common elements were identified, and criteria by which to evaluate the content and process in relation to theoretical knowledge were established.

The observation of training sessions provided an opportunity to check the extent to which student teachers' and trainers' interview responses were realised in practice. For example, one student teacher in France was quite forceful in his rejection of general professional studies during his interview because he felt that English, his teaching subject, was really all that was important and anything else was a waste of time. The next day, during an general professional studies session, he sat at the back, talked to his neighbour through much of the tutor's presentation and then during small group discussions had very little to say. When he did contribute, it tended to be somewhat negative or he made 'common sense' responses lacking in any real substance from a professional point of view. As the data analysis progressed, a number of other instances of this sort emerged for cross-referencing. Indeed, in making the field notes, reference was frequently made to interviews or other discussions.

2.3.4 Comparison of course documentation and programme content

The course documentation, including course content, assessment procedures, coursework requirements and bibliographies for each institution included in the fieldwork were studied and analysed. In addition, similar information was obtained for four of the participating universities in the various PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programmes. As three of the English

universities worked with a consortium of some eight or nine French universities to provide *Maîtrise* places, it was considered that a sample of these programmes should be studied. This material was obtained through direct contact with the French course tutors who were happy to provide the material requested. Available documentation for all institutions differed greatly in quantity, and amount of detail, although this was particularly the case with IUFMs: one institution, as has already been noted above, was unable to supply any specific course information, only the published institutional brochure that contained an outline programme.

However, despite this problem, the bulk of the data in this area was copious and required a considerable amount of scrutiny, comparison and analysis in order to provide the basis of the analysis that appears in Chapter 4. In order to provide a clear and accessible exposition of this material, the main aspects of the analysis were distilled into tables. The descriptions arrived at in Chapter 4, and the apparent simplicity of the tabular representation, were the result of a rigorous process of analysis and considerable analytical work involving a great deal of cross-checking and comparison. The findings, which are discussed fully in the Chapter 4, provide some interesting information into three programmes, which, when linked to both student teacher and tutor interview data, enabled new insights to be gained.

2.4 Interview data storage and analysis

The data, gathered from the fieldwork in both France and England, were extremely rich and substantial in quantity. Patton description applies aptly the task that lay ahead in this research following the data collection:

'The challenge is to make sense of massive amounts of data, reduce the volume of information, identify significant patterns and construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal' (Patton 1990: 371).

The next stage was to listen to a proportion of the interviews to begin working out the best way of approaching a 'conversation analysis' (Silverman 2000: 148). Before embarking on manual transcription, computer assisted analysis was considered. Two software packages were considered: NUD.IST and ATLAS, and the possibility of using a voice recognition data analysis was considered. However, upon taking advice, it was decided that manual analysis would be the most appropriate for the data in this study.

Even during the early listening to the interview tapes, it was possible to detect patterns of responses emerging from the data. It was possible to discern, for example, two definite 'types' of responses from student teachers about their attitudes to reading: on the whole they fell into three categories – those who read functionally for assignments, those who had read nothing at all (mostly in France) and those who had acquired a 'taste' for reading about education and teaching and learning (mostly PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers). This preliminary observation was confirmed by more rigorous analysis. The important thing, as in all qualitative analysis,

was to let the data 'speak' and be led by what emerged as well as to ensure that the data analysis provided good access to the original dataset (Silverman 2000).

2.4.1 Teacher trainer and student teacher interviews: data storage

The interviews carried out with teacher trainers included 15 PGCE and PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* tutors (of which 5 were involved in both subject and general professional studies). In France, 4 subject discipline and 4 general professional tutors were interviewed together with 9 other interviews that provided background information that was drawn on in Chapters 3 and 4. They all had some interest or role in the development of initial teacher training over the last ten years and provided an invaluable 'overview' of ITT from a more detached perspective (with the exception of the school-based mentors). These were as follows:

- 2 school-based mentors
- 1 researcher at the *Institut National pour la Recherche Pédagogique* (INRP) in Paris
- 1 English national, an ex-secondary school teacher in France who was working as a *chargé de mission* seconded the local Rectorat to coordinate and liaise between the IUFM and local schools
- 2 IUFM based researchers
- 1 IUFM general professional studies co-ordinator
- 2 University *Maîtres de Conférence*, former IUFM tutors, working *Sciences de l'Education* departments

Interviews with these professionals were either transcribed in full or noted, and used to provide background information for the comparative dimension of the study, particularly in Chapter 3. Interviews with the 10 IUFM tutors were transcribed manually and analysed in a similar way to the English interviews.

A total of 42 student teacher interviews, each lasting approximately 30 minutes were undertaken (15 for each for PGCE and PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle*; 12 for *CAPES (PLC2)*). In order to make data storage and analysis manageable, it was decided, after listening to each one, to select two from each institution for verbatim transcription and the third was listened to again with key points noted and any potential quotes to be subsequently used in the text, transcribed verbatim.

The criteria for selection were to consider the comments made by individuals in the three broad categories of questioning: their expectations, experience and how they understood theory and professional knowledge, and then to make a judgement as to which interviewees had the most interesting things to say overall. The French interviews were transcribed in French, but in the case of those that were listened to and noted, this was done in English. Extracts that were used as quotes in the body of the thesis text were translated by the researcher. Samples of both French and English transcriptions and notes appear in the appropriate appendices. Once transcribed, all the data was stored on computer, appropriately backed-up.

2.4.2 Teacher trainer data analysis

The data analysis was developed through a number of stages. It was through the teacher trainer interviews that a system of analysis was developed that was subsequently applied to the student teacher interviews. First of all, based on the interview schedule, the following categories were identified for the interview data to be distilled into:

1. Tutor profiles
2. Significance of changes - positive
3. Significance of changes - negative
4. Current model - positive
5. Current model - negative
6. Reflective Practice
7. Distinctive role of HE
8. Theory
9. Research
10. Ideal Model
11. Comments on student teachers

Key points were then extracted from the raw data and placed within the above categories. However, this proved to be far too crude a reading of the material. It was then decided to colour code the above categories and then to read through each interview transcript and highlight sections of each text in category colours¹⁶. Each interviewee was given a code-name which identified them numerically and institutionally (e.g. ESE3). The next stage was to cut and paste from each interview and create a list of comments within each category with code names attached so that the provenance of each comment could be identified throughout the analysis process. In this way, 10 lists of comments were drawn up, which extracted all the relevant contributions in each category. A sample of these materials is in Appendices 5B and 6B.

The next stage was to go through each category and identify sub-categories of comments and the number of times they occurred, what Patton refers to as 'cross-case analysis' (1990: 371). These comments were then summarised and put into a simple table, of which a number were used in the body of the text and of which the following is an example:

HE Tutors' views of the role of theory in ITT

What? (19)

Theory is a result of thinking about and researching an issue; being aware of research; engagement with a set of sound principles that underpin good practice; theory sets a framework of guiding principles against which to compare experience; theory helps us make sense of things; theory explains *why* things work; theory gives you a language to talk about; theory is what research show, and needs to be constantly linked to practice; what students call theory is often reflection arising from practice or the general theory; theory is practice observed; real theory comes from practice, practice comes from theory: an indivisible whole; theory is the framework on which you hang practice; it makes you aware of why you do things

PGCE should include: Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences; nature of childrens' learning; applied linguistics; generic discussions: sociology & psychology; values education/philosophy of education help student teachers to position themselves;

How? 12)

not just lecture - need to analyse and discuss otherwise misconceptions creep in; professional studies should be integrated more into subject studies; student teachers relate own theories to college sessions; students do enough curriculum studies; all theory work is integrated into subject/curriculum studies (3) generic theory is absorbed into subject areas; foundation studies not possible because of priority of practice-based standards; need to do more on general theories of learning; they are professional rather than education studies; professional studies in schools is superficial;

Why? (12)

Important to know *why* we do things; outcomes and core processes need to be supplemented by theoretical basis; theory changes attitudes; theory makes sense of practice; to combat all-pervading anti-intellectualism; to enable questioning, challenging; provides researched underpinning of pedagogy (2); theory is crucial, otherwise ITT is an apprenticeship model;

¹⁶ See Appendix 2C

enables a deepening of understanding; helps student teachers to keep an open mind; important to have issues raised;

Theory/practice relationship (6)

Teaching is practical, leads to functional, practical attitudes in st. t. (2); individual practice needs wider context/understanding (2); deliberate attempts in training to separate theory from practice; students see theory as what happens in HE and practice is what happens in schools - both venues should involve both aspects;

Tutors' own experience/knowledge (4)

Tutors need an academic perspective to enable them to critique policy intelligently; has learned to analyse critically since entering HE; Own training: generic foundation studies - lectures, seminars, methods group; 'I had philosophy, sociology, psychology, history but like a lot of people, I didn't pick up much';

Absence of theory (2)

Leads to poor reflection and dissemination of ignorance; without theory, trainee teachers never understand what is going on in children's minds;

Reading (1)

Course reader; journal articles

All the sub-categories were established as a result of close reading of the data and it was possible to refer back through the data analysis to check and re-read points in context, that is, to provide the easy back-reference to the original dataset in the way suggested by Silverman (2000), referred to above. The sub-categories identified for each section of the interviews thus analysed, provided the basis for the presentation of the data in the thesis, illustrated by quotes from the original interviews. For the purposes of presentation, however, only the sub-category headings and number of comments is presented in tabular form in the text. This was a simple, if very time-consuming approach to the data analysis that ensured a thorough knowledge of the research data and that the data findings led to the writing of the thesis.

PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* tutors were included in this process since they were PGCE tutors. However, in view of their particular role in relation to the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* Maîtrise FLE programme, as has already been indicated above, they were asked additional questions and encouraged to speak about the specific nature of the dual certification programme.

2.4.3 Student teacher interview analysis

The process of analysis of the student teacher interviews followed the same pattern as the tutor interviews, but with the different categorisation already referred to. The original interview questions were categorised into the following headings:

1. Student teacher profile & Motives
2. Expectations of Course
3. Experience of Course - positive and negative
4. Theory
5. Teacher knowledge
6. Ideal Programme

The same interview schedule had been used for all student teachers in both countries, but student teachers on the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programme were also invited to comment on how the two courses related to each other. The data was distilled into tabular form with results from the French and English data presented separately. As with the teacher trainer data analysis, 'systematic observation of the data' (Miles and Huberman 1994: 87, quoted by Cabaroglu and Roberts 2000: 391) was the approach adopted. Indeed, the development of my analysis procedures was similar to that described by Cabaroglu and Roberts in their article on the development of student

teachers pre-existing beliefs during their PGCE year. They described the stages of analysis in the following way:

1. Familiarisation
2. Coding
3. Clustering
4. Operational definitions
5. Retrieval and re-organisation
6. Testing

Given that one third of the student teacher interviews were noted rather than fully transcribed, there were a few occasions where it was necessary to return to the original taped interviews to extract verbatim quotes to be added to the section categories at the 'clustering' stage. Student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* were also given a code name which identified them numerically and institutionally (e.g. EW2st13).

2.5 Presenting and analysing the data

The empirical research findings, analysed in the way described above, provide the main content of this thesis. Verbatim quotes were drawn on substantially throughout the writing of the thesis. The results of the data analysis were produced in tabular form as well as a narrative analytical summary in the body of the thesis. Not all the tables produced appear in the body of the text, but the rest can be found in the appropriate appendices. However, the tabular representation of data, particularly in Chapter 4 where it was possible to distil large amounts of information into a clear form, was particularly illuminating and enabled comparisons to be made clearly and succinctly. Nevertheless, it is the narrative that reflects the richness of the data and provides the original insights.

The presentation of the interview data within individual chapters varied in each case depending on the data concerned. The choices made relied entirely on how best to test out and develop the central arguments of the thesis through the exposition of the empirical data. In Chapters 5 and 6, for example, sections of English data were followed by French comparisons that were used to contrast or highlight issues relating to the context of England. On one or two occasions in order to make points clearly, English and French data were contrasted or compared and commented on within a single section of the text. In Chapter 7, on the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programme it was decided to present both student teacher and tutor material on an institutional basis for greater clarity and to provide variety for the reader. Contextual factors were taken into account throughout not only through Chapter 4 which compares the development of the English and French systems of ITT over the recent period, but also explained or expounded on in footnotes, appendices and a glossary of terms. Chapters 5, 6, and 7 focus primarily on presenting, discussing and concluding on the empirical data and therefore only limited references are made to reference works in this part of the study.

Schofield (1993) refers to the growing use of qualitative studies in policy-oriented research having led to 'an increased awareness of the importance of structuring qualitative studies in a way that enhances their implications for the understanding of other situations' (Schofield 1993: 109). This study was structured in this way and, indeed, has produced new knowledge and

insights into initial teacher training in England and France, a new understanding of the current place of theory and a contribution to the explanation of its decline in ITT in England.

Chapter 3

A comparison of the Initial Teacher Training¹⁷ systems in England and France

Summary

This chapter examines the recent historical background and context to the systems of Initial Teacher Training of PGCE modern foreign languages student teachers and second year CAPES *professeurs stagiaires* in France and in particular, the consequences of the implementation of a highly regulated 'partnership model' of training in England. The analysis includes a critical examination of the competence-based training model that pertains in England and of the more educationally-orientated French framework. The similarities and contrasts identified between the two systems, provide insights into the effect of government policy on the English system and in particular, the demise of any theoretical content which reflects the fundamental change in the role of Higher Education.

Introduction

The following critical analysis of the developments in initial teacher training in England since the introduction of the 'partnership model' of ITT will provide a context for some of the general assertions made in Chapter 1 of this study. A similar account of developments in the French system over the same period will provide points of similarity and contrast that will contribute to the analysis and provide further insights. Equally, it is important to set the research in its historically specific context in order to understand clearly the comparisons made and conclusions drawn from the empirical that constitute the basis of the thesis. This chapter provides an initial

¹⁷ Differentiated terminology is used throughout the study. The use the term 'Initial Teacher Training' has been chosen to describe PGCE programmes since the introduction of a competence-based assessment framework (now referred to as 'standards'). This term is used by policy-makers to describe the pre-service preparation of teachers. When the

contextualisation that is essential to the study.

Adams and Tulasiewicz (1995) suggest that 'descriptions of educational structures and their practical functions compared in context... enable an appreciation of the issues involved in each revealing their inherent dynamic' (Adams and Tulasiewicz 1995: 56). It is with this in mind that the following analysis is approached. In his comparative study of trends in the professional preparation of primary and secondary teachers in Europe, Vonk (1991) suggests that all systems of teacher training are developing along the same lines, noting key features as being increased governmental control, bureaucratisation, and a managerial approach aimed at increasing efficiency and effectiveness. He adds that during this time teacher training was becoming more practice-orientated throughout Europe. The following examination of the development of PGCE and *CAPES* initial training during this period would seem to bear out this assertion, although, it will be apparent that the *CAPES* has been subjected to less outside control and regulation than the PGCE.

The early 1990s was a time of fundamental change to both French and English teacher training systems, and it is from this point that this account begins. What is most important to note is the contrast between the two countries in terms of government policy on initial teacher training: in England, the shift towards school based provision entailed the reduction of the role of HE, whereas in France, the opposite was the case. In France,

term 'initial teacher education' is used, the intention is to distinguish it from the current

for the first time ever, specialist institutions were created to provide professional training¹⁸ for secondary school teachers, thereby acknowledging the importance of HE in initial teacher training. Government policy in each country, therefore, seems to have been running in opposite directions. There are obvious political reasons for this in so far as in France, at least at the start of the 1990s, a Socialist government, with François Mitterand as President (until 1995), was seeking to professionalise teaching (Bourdoncle 1995). On the other hand, in England, Thatcherite and 'New Right'¹⁹ educational policies, under the Prime Ministership of John Major, were being followed through assertively. In France, then, there was a deliberate shift *towards* incorporating a theoretical perspective in initial teacher training, while in England, there was a conscious move *away* from theory. The extent to which this has been achieved is examined empirically in Chapters 4, 5 and 6. What the two systems have in common, however, are their constituent parts, that is: subject/curriculum, general professional studies and school experience.

'training model', as will be apparent in the text.

¹⁸ The word *formation* is used in France. However, the word is applied equally to what we would call 'education' in school, as well as in the professional development sense. Although it is usual to translate *formation* as 'training', it should be noted that the inference is not the same. See Moon, 1998:4. *Formation professionnelle* is perhaps better understood as 'professional development'. The absence of 'competences' as an assessment measure also differentiates the French system from the English. Chapter 4 critiques the notion of competence-based assessment in England as being an identifying feature of a *training* rather than *educational* process.

¹⁹ See Chapter 1 for a discussion of government policy and policy advisors during this period.

3.1. The initial training of secondary school teachers in France.

3.1.1 The training structure of ITT in France

The initial training of primary and secondary school teachers currently takes place in *Instituts universitaires de formation des maitres (IUFM)* in association with universities (for the first year) over a two-year period, following the successful completion of at least the *licence* (first degree)²⁰. The first year of the programme is spent preparing for the *Certificat d'aptitude au Professorat de l'enseignement du second degré (CAPES)* which is the competitive civil service entry examination (*concours*) that all intending teachers must pass to gain entry to the profession. It is therefore directly through the state that teachers are recruited in France.

The *CAPES d'anglais* examination, for intending teachers of English, comprises three written papers that test candidates' knowledge of English literature, civilisation and grammar and an oral *épreuve sur dossier* in which candidates, having followed a taught module on the didactics of English, involving the study of text books, methodology and teaching resources, are questioned on their short dissertation on the subject. The *épreuve sur dossier* was introduced in 1994 to ensure the 'vocational orientation and aptitude' of candidates and their ability to communicate about teaching. This emphasis on academic excellence suggests that teaching is seen more as an intellectual pursuit than it is in England and that a much higher

²⁰ The *licence* is awarded after a minimum of three years of full-time university study and is roughly equivalent to an Honours degree in England. However, it is only recognised as being of Ordinary degree equivalent in the UK, notably by the GTTR. However, a high proportion of students go on to do a *Maîtrise* in their subject specialism as this has increasingly become expected by prospective employers. In the case of students entering teaching, this is less the case because of the nature of the first year of *CAPES* study. The *Maîtrise* is awarded after a further year of full-time study, although is not regarded in England as being of MA/MSc standard.

level of subject knowledge is required. Student teachers are recruited on academic merit rather than aptitude for teaching since there is no selection interview and they are effectively recruited to the profession before they are trained. The *épreuve sur dossier* assesses a candidate's knowledge of subject didactics and this is seen as sufficient criteria for continuing into the next stage of professional training. It represents, at a policy level, a commitment to theoretical knowledge, in that candidates must demonstrate that:

1. They are familiar with the contents of the school curriculum and of subject programmes
2. They have reflected on the aims and development of their teaching subject and its relationship with other subjects
3. They have reflected on the 'civic' dimension of education and of their teaching subject
4. That they have abilities in oral expression, analysis, synthesis and communication
5. That they have an elementary knowledge of secondary school organisation²¹

Unlike in England, an individual's personality, motivation and motives for becoming a teacher are not taken into account. This is a reflection of a different school culture, where the teacher is seen as a subject specialist whose job it is to transmit knowledge. The emphasis on teacher/pupil relationships and more especially, the pastoral duties that have become an integral part of the teacher's role in England, do not exist in any formal sense in France.

²¹ Translated from the *Arrêté* of the 3rd August 1993. The translation is deliberately literal in order to reflect the register used in such documents and to convey the more traditional cultural ethos of the French education system.

The *CAPES* is a highly competitive exam in which a very small proportion of candidates succeed (28.49% in 2001²²). The number of *étudiants professeurs*²³ that pass the *CAPES* each year is related to the projected number of teaching posts available. The first year of academic exam preparation mostly takes place in a university, or if it is held in an *IUFM*, it must still be sanctioned by the local university. As the *CAPES* is an open civil service exam, external candidates are allowed. In practice, most students choose to follow a university course, particularly the didactics module. During the first year, an optional short period of 2-3 weeks' observation in a school (*stage de sensibilisation*) is available for those wishing to gain some practical experience.

Those who pass the *CAPES* immediately become civil servants (*fonctionnaires de l'état*) and go into the second year of training as paid employees of the state. At this point they become *professeurs stagiaires*, following a training programme²⁴ in the *IUFM* combined with a year long *stage en responsabilité*, (teaching experience). This year is regarded as a period of 'professionalisation' and 'socialisation' (Bourdoncle 1995) that enables future teachers to move beyond their academic achievement of both the *licence* and the *CAPES* first year and to transmit that knowledge, at an appropriate level, to learners in school. In order to do this, a knowledge of subject didactics, pedagogy and to a lesser extent, broader educational issues, are deemed essential. The importance of civil servant

²² <http://www.iufm.education.fr/formations/concours/affichage.php3>

²³ This is the name given to 1st year *CAPES* student teachers

status is not to be taken lightly since it has fundamental implications both in material career terms and the individual professional identity and social standing of teachers that contrasts significantly with the status of teachers in England. Teaching is seen as a respected, academic career upon which civil servant status confers a public service mission on behalf of the state that is more significant than the more contested notion of 'professional' that teachers lay claim to in England. The significance of *fonctionnaire* status was very apparent during the observations and interviews undertaken for this study, and was frequently referred to by French colleagues in other informal discussions.

The second year *CAPES* for secondary school teachers is known as *PLC2* (*Professeur de Lycée/College, 2nd year*). The *stage en responsabilité*, starts at the very beginning of the school year, before any *IUFM* training and continues throughout the year concurrently with the *IUFM* in-put from mid-September. *Professeurs stagiaires* take over responsibility for one class (on occasions two) from the class teacher for the whole year. The class teacher may be appointed by the *Rectorat*, via an *inspecteur d'académie*, (regional inspector) to act as a *conseiller pédagogique*²⁵ (mentor), although it is not uncommon for this role to be performed by a teacher in another local school. The role of the *conseiller pédagogique* is much more limited than in England. He/she is there to give advice and be asked for guidance, but does not observe the student teacher on a regular

²⁴ This is called *PLC2* (*Professeur de lycée ou collègue*) second year.

basis and has no formal assessment role. The amount of training they get, if any, is very limited and their approach to supporting their *professeur stagiaire* varies from seeing themselves as role models for their 'pupil teachers' to a much more informal colleague to colleague relationship (Lawes & Malet 2004). The *stage en responsabilité*, aims to 'give new teachers a pedagogical training that had not previously existed', but is often accused of merely being a way of alleviating teacher shortages (Bonnet 1996). In fact one of the marks of success of the *IUFM* in political terms has been that the initiative has been relatively cheap to run because the presence of a *professeur stagiaire* in a school enables the class teacher to be deployed elsewhere for 4 -6 hours per week. Aggregated across the entire country, this amounts to a substantial addition to the work force for a relatively reduced financial outlay.

The *collège* or *lycée* where the *professeur stagiaire* is placed for the year is also chosen by the *Rectorat* with no reference to the *IUFM*. *Professeurs stagiaires* move straight into a class teaching role for four to six hours per week with no preparation for teaching other than the didactics module of their CAPES examination. This, as comments made by interviewees in Chapter 6 of this study confirms, places *professeurs stagiaires* in a 'sink or swim' situation, and by the time they do begin their *IUFM* training in late September, they may have already encountered a variety of problems in the classroom that they are not equipped to deal with and which are difficult

²⁵ There are various terms used to describe this role in different *IUFMS*. *Maître de stage*, and *tuteur* are two other terms used.

to remedy at a later stage. Other aspects of French school culture, such as the absence of a departmental structure in schools, an entirely different organisation of pastoral care and the more limited professional obligations placed on the teacher, leads to a very different school experience for trainee teachers in France from their counterparts in England. One particular difference is that *professeurs stagiaires* integrate less into the school and consider themselves to be less a part of a team (this is also true of most qualified teachers) in contrast to student teachers in England (Lawes & Malet 2004).²⁶ As neither teachers nor *professeurs stagiaires* are required to be on school premises unless actually teaching a class or attending a meeting, there is much less of a 'collegial' atmosphere in France than one might expect to find in English schools. The difference in 'school cultures' is marked, and clearly has a bearing on student teachers' perceptions of their professional role and how they prepare for it. Teachers in French schools are first and foremost concerned with their pupils' academic attainment and have a more detached relationship with them.

3.1.2 The Higher Education training component in the *IUFM*

The *IUFM* contribution to the second year *CAPES* training at the level of the institution exists in isolation from the first year of the programme and school experience. *IUFM* trainers, on the whole, do not visit *professeurs stagiaires*

²⁶ This conference paper reports on a comparative study undertaken under the auspices of Interreg II with student teachers during their school experience in secondary school in Lille and East Kent: *The Promotion of Inclusion of Young People in East Kent and the Nord-Pas de Calais*, in which student teachers in both countries were interviewed regarding their professional preparation for teaching in challenging school environments.

in school²⁷ although *professeurs stagiaires* are entitled to request a formal visit. Tardif, Lessard & Gauthier (1998) note that 'strong links are claimed between HE and the schools, but many university tutors admit they do not know what goes on in school practice', adding that they claim not to have time to find out and that, anyway, they do not regard it as their job (1998: 158).

However, the programme of professional development throughout the second year that is provided in the *IUFM* focuses on the development of subject teaching skills and, to a lesser extent on broader educational issues through a general professional studies programme. This is discussed in full in Chapter 4. *Professeurs stagiaires* attend the *IUFM* for one and often two, days per week for most of the year. Attendance at sessions is compulsory. The content of this training programme, which varies from *IUFM* to *IUFM*, aims at responding to guidelines laid down by the government as expressed in government Circular no 97-123 of 29th May 1997, *Bulletin Officiel*, no.22 (B.O.no.22). This circular is the equivalent of the Teacher Training Agency Circular 4/98 which prescribes that must be reached for the award of Qualified Teacher Status in England in that it identifies the 'mission and expected competences'²⁸ at the end of initial

²⁷ Of the four institutions used in this study, only one required *IUFM* tutors to observe *professeurs stagiaires* in school to make formative evaluations of teaching, but these did not contribute to their final assessment which is carried out by *inspecteurs d'académie*.

²⁸ It should be noted here, that the use of the word *compétences* in French does not equate with the current understanding of vocational 'competences' in English (Hyland, 1996), but describes a general ability to perform a professional role. Develey (1998), for example, strongly rejects the notion of 'micro-compétences', favouring, 'macro-compétences', although he warns that this can be interpreted so vaguely that it has no meaning.

training'. The statement outlines three areas of expertise: 'To fulfil responsibilities within the education system; to fulfil responsibilities in the classroom and to fulfil responsibilities in school'²⁹. The *compétences* are framed in general terms in the circular and it is important to note that the forward to the circular specifies that the description of the *compétences* is not exclusive, that not all will be acquired during the initial training period and that they are not intended to be used directly as a basis for assessing *professeurs stagiaires* (1997:1). Moreover, *compétences* should not be understood in the same way as the technical competences implied by the English Standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status in Circular 4/98. They describe an overall professionalism that is it is expected that *professeurs stagiaires* will be initiated into during their training year and that will develop during their professional life. The introductory section also emphasises the professional autonomy of the teacher particularly with respect to his/her 'pedagogical choices'(1997:2).

The way in which the 'mission and competences' document relates to programme design varies from one *IUFM* to another, and as the examination of the content of programmes in Chapter 4 indicates there is a great degree of variety, largely depending, on the interests and expertise of individual trainers and institutional policy and *IUFMs* are trusted to develop their training programmes autonomously. One feature that particularly

²⁹ 'Mission et compétences attendues en fin de formation initiale'. See Appendix 4C for B.O.22,Circulaire no 97 -123 and a summary in translation.

distinguishes the *CAPES* training programme in IUFMs from the PGCE course in England, is the emphasis on 'personalised' training. That is, that there should be a degree of choice of certain training modules available to *professeurs stagiaires*, in order to meet individual training needs. How this operates on the ground varies, but the principle is promoted by a number of influential commentators (Tardif, Lessard & Gauthier 1998, Develey 1994). This 'personalised training' aspect of ITT in France indicates a more flexible approach to teacher professional development. In addition, the fact that trainee teachers are expected to take personal responsibility for aspects of their professional development, suggests an underlying *educational*, rather than a *training* ethos. The creation of *IUFMs* has enabled a more professionally orientated system of initial teacher training to be developed that has moved away from an academic training in subject disciplines (Altet 1994) and which aims at supporting practical experience through underpinning pedagogical and didactic theory. Theoretical knowledge and understanding in relation to practical experience is assessed at the end of the course through the *mémoire professionnel*, a dissertation, which is the only required course work and which is the subject of a *soutenance* (viva voce).

3.1.3 The Institutional context of ITT in France

IUFMs were established as a result of a law passed on 10th July 1989 (article 17). These institutions replaced the famous, long-standing bastions, the *écoles normales* that since the late nineteenth century had prepared primary school teachers for teaching at undergraduate level, and the

Centres Pédagogiques Régionaux (CRP) that provided minimal training for secondary school teachers in the year following the *CAPES*. The demise of the *école normale* and the creation of the *IUFM* are landmarks in French education history. The decision to give secondary school teachers a consistent, compulsory training in conjunction with school was controversial. It was strongly opposed by the political 'right' who feared a shift away from a subject discipline focus and the introduction of psycho-pedagogy and general professional studies which they viewed with scepticism and often hostility (Kaspi 1993). Mailhos (2001), notes that the creation of *IUFMs* signified the recognition of teaching as a real profession and that 'the art of teaching can be taught and learnt'³⁰ (2001: 128) and signifies a shift of theoretical understanding of the nature of teaching that was adopted by policy-makers. At a more pragmatic level, the aim was to train 'more and better' in order to attempt to address a serious shortfall in recruitment to teaching. It was thought that a more systematic training period following the *CAPES* would attract more people into teaching.

In 1988, the newly re-elected president François Mitterand, had made education the main priority of his electoral campaign with the slogan '80% of pupils to baccalauréat level' to be achieved by 2000 which presented a significant challenge to state education and the recruitment and training of teachers. There was a concern that in order to meet this target, education needed to be 'democratised' and that the 'pedagogical practices' of secondary education needed to be revised (Robert & Terval 2000). There

³⁰ 'Dans le contexte français actuel, enseigner est devenu un métier dont on reconnaît qu'il

was also the perception that the school population was changing, becoming less heterogeneous and that such changes demanded a broader set of skills and expertise of teachers, if 'knowledge was to be effectively transmitted' (Bonnet 1996). Equally, an 'anti-elitist' political and educational lobby considered that unifying the training of primary and secondary school teachers, creating an all-graduate profession, would raise the status of primary teachers and remove the perceived privileged position of secondary teachers. These discussions echo similar ones in England, both in the past and at the present time. However, the traditional 'transmission' mode of mfl teaching is still prevalent in French secondary schools and indeed, most primary schools. Such is its force, that there is a significant conflict between what is presented to *professeurs stagiaires* in the *IUFM* with what they encounter on school practice and indeed, their personal educational experience. It is one that is reflected in the empirical data gathered from *professeurs stagiaires* for this research and is considered in Chapter 5 of this study. However, the organisation of the French initial teacher training system, whereby future teachers are selected on academic merit alone together with the institutional separation of the first and second years of the *CAPES* and the almost total absence of links between the *IUFM* and schools would seem to favour the perpetuation of a particular set of approaches and attitudes to teaching and learning.

IUFMs are autonomous institutions. They are essentially 'providers' of a training programme which they design to meet training needs in line with

est susceptible de s'apprendre et les enseignants sont considérés désormais comme des

their own vision of what new teachers should know and be able to do, but in accordance with *B.O. no. 22*. There is a sense in which this is a liberating position to be in, and constitutes the real autonomy of the *IUFM*. Trust is invested in them, both at an institutional and individual level, to implement the statutory guidelines and to work for the greater benefit of the state education system.

Although in principle, there is close co-operation and formal agreements between *IUFMs* and local universities, in practice relationships on the ground are very variable, some universities wanting to control, some ignore or some hold in contempt the work of the *IUFM* (Robert & Terval 2000).

This claim was reflected to some extent in the research carried out in four *IUFMs* for this study. They are staffed by a variety of professionals:

- A small number of university professors (*professeurs des universités*)
- University lecturers (*maîtres de conférences*)
- Teachers who have obtained further qualifications (*agrégation*)
- Principal school counsellors (*Conseillers principaux d'éducation*)
- Academy inspectors and Ministry of Education Inspectors (*Inspecteurs d'Académie et Inspecteurs régionaux*)
- Certified teachers (*Professeurs associés*)
- Vocational secondary school teachers (*Professeurs associés*)
- Nursery and primary school teachers (*Professeurs associés*)

(*Ministère de la jeunesse, de l'éducation nationale et de la recherche, 2002*)

The professional grouping presented above is organised so that *professeurs* do little or no teaching and are mainly engaged in pedagogical research; *maîtres de conférences* are expected to research as well as teach. *Professeurs associés*, are school teachers who are seconded for up to half of their teaching time (7-9 hours) to teach on the initial training programmes. In the case of PLC2, the second year *CAPES*, experienced teachers are recommended by inspectors to be seconded as *professeurs associés*, generally as subject tutors, (*formateurs disciplinaires*) in the *IUFM*. However, the number of *professeurs associés* employed in this capacity varies from *IUFM* to *IUFM*. They are, in effect, 'talent-spotted' by inspectors to share their practical knowledge about teaching in a formal training role regardless of their ability or inclination to engage with student teachers on a theoretical level. Indeed there is no suggestion that they should have higher academic qualifications or be engaged in research.

This issue is of interest to the English context, where the recruitment of teacher trainers to HEIs is moving in a similar direction. The combination of teaching staff employed in an *IUFM* seems to reflect the philosophy of the institution. The secondment of a large proportion school teachers suggests a commitment to developing practical classroom skills and practitioners are seen as the best people to teach these. Other institutions have sought to 'professionalise' the role of the teacher trainer and to develop a distinct identity from that of the university *sciences de l'éducation* lecturer and the classroom practitioner. How far have *IUFMs* developed this identity during their ten-year existence? Interview data with *IUFM* tutors in Chapter 6 suggests that a distinctive identity has not yet been fully achieved. As

individuals, their comments suggested that they were still working out approaches to training and research. This point is examined further in Chapter 6 in relation to their views on theory. One assistant director of an *IUFM* in France, now working in a *Sciences de l'Éducation* department of the neighbouring university, who was interviewed for this study, when asked about how successful *IUFMs* had been in fulfilling their *mission*, responded in the following way:

'... to say that at the end of a ten year period we could have reformed what had existed for 120 years as was the case of the *écoles normales*, and then 40 years for secondary education³¹, would be to misunderstand the way the system evolves: that is much more slowly'.

Up until the late 1980s, a similar view might have been expressed by academics working in teacher education in England, but in the same decade that *IUFMs* in France were put in place and a coherent system of professional preparation for secondary school teachers created, across the Channel, initial teacher training underwent a fundamental reform that transformed the way teachers are trained.

3.1.4 Theory and practice in the *IUFM*

Mottet (1992) is representative of a number of commentators concerned with how *IUFMs* would set about relating theory and practice. He proposed 'professional training workshops' as the form that *IUFM* training should take. These workshops would involve group activities, discussion, simulated activities: the sort of format that is familiar to HEI teacher trainers in England and which, at least on the evidence of this study (see Chapter 4

³¹ The regional training centres: *Centres régionaux pédagogiques* that provided, until 1992, minimal induction training for students who had recently acquired the *CAPES*.

and Appendices 4D and 4E), characterise the approach to both the subject and general professional studies curriculum in *IUFMs* at the present time.

The literature on teacher training suggests that the vehicle for developing the professional identity of teachers has been the development of *analyse des pratiques* (analysis of practice) as the particular expertise of the *IUFM* trainers and the basis of teacher professional development (Altet 1994). As was noted in Chapter 1, academic thinking about initial teacher training in France seems largely to embrace 'reflective practice' as the key to improved professional development, although there seems to be similar confusions and diverse interpretations amongst professionals that exist in England.³²

As one of the key academic writers on initial teacher training, Altet talks of building a new teacher professionalism that leads to a research-orientated professional. Teacher trainers must be researchers themselves and in this way they develop their training role through being able to develop in student teachers 'the conceptual tools to solve their problems' (Altet 1994:224).

This, she observes, is how theory and practice are integrated. Research in *IUFMs*, she infers, should be practically-orientated in order to support the analysis of practice. Two other prominent writers, Robert & Terval (2000) in one of the most recent texts published about *IUFMs*, provide a historical overview of the development of *IUFMs* as well as looking to the future.

They point to the development of research policies and research laboratories as being essential to the future academic credibility of *IUFMs*.

Engagement in research is seen as crucial to the status of the *IUFM*, although despite the rhetoric of a 'research-orientated' profession, in practice, on an individual level, the co-existence of teachers who train and academics who research seems to be generally accepted. Mailhos (2001) offers an interesting perspective on the role and function of research when she raises the question as to whether it is legitimate for *IUFMs* to be engaged in research when they are training civil servants and are therefore likely to promulgate accepted views and preserve an *IUFM* point of view rather than engage in the dispassionate pursuit of knowledge. However, she then presents a counter argument by endorsing the intellectual freedom for staff in *IUFMs* and pointing out that they have a privileged status in the development of educational thinking through research.

Develey (1994), another noted writer on teacher training, in his book, *Peut-on former les enseignants? (Can teachers be trained?)* considers that the model for ITT should comprise 'the two "ps" and the two "ds"', that is knowledge of pedagogy and psychology and *discipline* (subject)(and its epistemology) and didactics. Observation and reflection also play key roles. All of which he concludes is essential to the training programme offered by the *IUFM* and should be 'in synergy' and not 'juxtaposed'. Develey sees reflection as the vehicle for linking theory and practice and favours 'personalised' training as a way of ensuring that all needs are met and enriching the individual's 'professional personality' (Develey 1994:76). This work, outlining as it does, a model for the training process, development of

³² See tutor interview data in Chapter 6 of this study.

compétences, and modes of training, has been influential in shaping the work of *IUFMs*, although 'reflective practice' does not have the 'orthodoxy' within institutions, that Chapter 1 argues, is the case in England.

A number of French writers, of which Tardif, Lessard and Gauthier (1998) are notable, situate themselves within a Constructivist framework in which the notion of '*alternance*', that is alternating between school, HE and then back to school, provides 'the framework of development of professional competence based on linking theory and practice in context' (Tardif et al, 1998:154). They reject the notion of 'micro-competences', favouring 'macro-competence', although they warn that this can be interpreted so vaguely that it has no meaning. The work of these writers both reflects the general ethos of government policy, laid out in *B.O. no.22*, the views of a number of the French teacher trainers interviewed for this study and the content of training programmes analysed in Chapter 4.

3.2 Initial teacher training in England

3.2.1 Background to the introduction of the 'partnership model' of ITT

Teacher training became compulsory for graduates intending to teach in the secondary sector in 1973. The Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) from that period on became the main route into secondary teaching and as such attracted increasing attention during the 1970s in relation to its effectiveness in preparing new entrants to the profession. (Alexander, Craft & Lynch 1984). In fact, it was during the 1980s that the ground was laid for

substantial changes to initial teacher education. What lay behind these changes is discussed to some degree in Chapter 1, but it is useful here to be reminded of the convergence of two strands of thought. On the one hand, right-wing government policy on education that was taking more central and direct control of education than ever before, seeking to reduce, even eliminate the role of Higher Education in respect of teacher education. On the other hand there was a marked dissatisfaction and disaffection that had grown since the mid-1970s amongst a section of teacher educators who perceived education theory as being 'reified and efforts to apply it to the classroom more and more perfunctory' (Alexander, Craft & Lynch 1984:134). The 'New Right' considered that good subject knowledge was the only academic pre-requisite for teaching and that the skills of teaching should be learned in the classroom under the tutelage of experienced professionals. More 'radical' teacher educators, while not denying the importance of Higher Education in ITE, saw the development of professional competence as more important and relevant to intending teachers than 'the intellectual preoccupations of education theorists and researchers' (Alexander, Craft & Lynch 1984:136). Paradoxically, the debate that these, and other writers (notably Carr & Kemmis 1986) contributed to in the 1980s, grew over the decade and in one sense converged with influential voices from the 'New Right' who promoted the reduction of the influence of experts and educational theorists. Both viewpoints saw the school as being the place where the real experts were and so it followed that schools should play a far greater role in initial teacher training. But while emerging government policy and a section of

academic thinking (O'Hear 1988; Lawlor 1990) sought to marginalise and discredit the role of Higher Education (Wilkin 1990), many teacher educators desired a greater integration of theory and practice through the continuing development of partnership between Higher Education and schools.

In fact, the notion of HEIs working in 'partnership' with schools had been a mandatory requirement since 1984. Wilkin notes that:

...Teachers in schools and tutors within colleges and departments of education have for many years regarded a close association between the two types of institution as a necessary characteristic of a good training course. When Circular 3/84 advocated partnership, it was not therefore suggesting any innovative break with current practice. Rather it was, first of all, confirming a professional trend which had been gaining in strength and robustness for many years (Wilkin 1990: 3).

Nevertheless, Wilkin points out that Circular 3/84 was a 'watershed' in teacher education in that it enshrined in law a greater role for schools in initial training and brought to the fore the pre-existing 'cultural' tension between schools and Higher Education as well as raising the issue as to where the relevant knowledge and expertise really lay. From a policy perspective, there was a suggestion that the transfer of the major responsibility of initial teacher education from HE to schools was unproblematic in that schools could provide practical training without any effect on the quality of experience or outcome. The emphasis on 'partnership' from a government perspective was therefore not what teacher training professionals understood by the term. They sought complementary roles for schools and HE, with HE promoting a new orientation and role for theoretical perspectives as a *process* that enabled teachers to articulate

and systematise their own theorising on practice (Wilkin 1990). Whatever the opposing principles involved, the notion of 'partnership' provided a point of accommodation and convergence between HE teacher educators and policy-makers that has become a defining feature of ITT to the present day.

3.2.2 The shift from Initial Teacher Education to Initial Teacher Training

Circular No 9/92 of June signalled a new era for initial teacher education in that it introduced for the first time accreditation criteria for Qualified Teacher Status of secondary school teachers, based on a set of prescribed competences for teaching. The document also prescribed new arrangements for course planning and organisation in which schools were to 'play a much larger part in ITT as full partners of higher education institutions (HEIs)' (DfE 1992:1). PGCE student teachers were to spend two-thirds of their course time (24 weeks of a 36 week course) in partner schools and there would be a transfer of resources from HEIs to schools in recognition of the greater role in training that schools were to assume.

In the collection of papers published by the Journal of Education and Training in 1993 entitled JET Papers One, a number of contributors examine the development and future of ITT. Notably, Whitty comments that 'teacher education as we know it in England is currently under threat', predicting that 'it does seem possible that the nature of teacher education will be transformed out of all recognition' (Whitty, 1993:263). In relation to the introduction of a competence-based assessment system, he warned

against the 'technicist excesses evident in the USA', but conceded that a competence approach was worthy of more consideration as long as underpinning knowledge and understanding and general professional competence were retained alongside the acquisition of classroom skills. This view is an example of what had become a strong current of thought amongst professionals who were ambivalent about the existing arrangements and who, up to a point, endorsed school-based proposals while at the same time arguing for retaining a role for HE. In the same volume, Goodson concluded that 'In Britain, the hasty embrace of the practical may lead to a collapse of the academic and theoretical mission of faculties of education' (Goodson, 1993:221). McCulloch, also in the same volume, identifies a shift to a 'technicist' approach and confirmed the view that government policies were designed to limit the influence of HE in ITT (McCulloch, 1993). But for all three writers, the new arrangements opened up ways of moving the profession forward through the development of reflective practice and action research to preserve against a technical approach. These views reflect the prevailing attitude of teacher educators at the time: a guarded welcome to the new partnership arrangements overlaid by a concern for preserving the influence and status of Higher Education in ITT which was generally perceived to be under attack.

The challenge to implement the proposals laid out in 4/92 was enormous. HEIs around the country set about setting up formal partnership arrangements, designing new courses, reviewing course content and 'delivery', putting in place new assessment procedures, staff development

and producing inordinate amounts of guidance materials and handbooks to satisfy the new requirements. In September 1994, HEI doors opened to a new cohort of intending teachers who were to experience a significantly different initiation into teaching - or were they? Perhaps in the first year or so, the impact of the changes took time to be embedded. New, more prescriptive procedures were in place and in many quarters, the competences to be assessed provided a welcome framework within which to work³³.

But the shift towards *the school* as the primary focus of initial teacher training was fundamental. Teacher trainers were required to adapt HEI programmes much more towards supporting the development of classroom skills and working more closely with mentors appointed by schools. HEI course content was greatly reduced to make way for the increased time that student teachers spent in schools. Subject or curriculum studies took precedence over General Professional Studies and the 'foundation disciplines', already in decline, were largely eliminated from the ITT curriculum. 'Professional' studies became more orientated towards school organisation, legal requirements and the wider role of the teacher, than the study of education³⁴. Teaching sessions in the HEI, in Subject/Curriculum Studies needed to be focussed around the practical needs of the student teacher and, to a large extent, theoretical perspectives provided an underpinning, rather than explicit attention. The adoption of 'reflective practice', for some time growing in influence, provided an acceptable

³³ See empirical data gathered from ITT tutors in Chapter 6.

replacement to theory as the key to effective development and a sanctuary for teacher trainers who were reluctant to support the more overtly functional and skills-orientated aspects of the new arrangements for initial teacher training (Lawes 2004). Chapter 1 identifies a number of problems in relation to reflective practice and asserts that its adoption as a replacement to a study of education and applied subject theory is indicative of a decline in the belief in, even rejection of, the value of theoretical knowledge.

The new partnership model sent the professional lives of teacher trainers into 'fast forward' in terms of the greater and wider range of demands made on them. Their liaison role with schools and the training of school-based mentors became essential features of the partnership model of training. In schools, the more structured role of the mentor who now had a formal duty to the training and assessment of student teachers was not only more demanding than ever before, but made the training of new teachers a more central activity of the school as a whole. The development of HEI/school partnerships was of necessity an accelerated process involving new roles and responsibilities for all concerned.

The aim of the new scheme was to ensure that:

'All newly qualified teachers entering maintained schools should have achieved the levels of knowledge and standards of professional competence necessary to maintain and improve standards in schools'

and that

³⁴ See research data presented in Chapter 4.

'The planning and management of training courses should be the shared responsibility of higher education institutions and schools in partnership' (DfE 1992).

These aims contained, therefore, two key components: the prescription of 'standards of professional competence', and the 'shared responsibility of higher education and schools in partnership', by which courses would be judged. The shift towards the measurement of the effectiveness of the initial training period through the achievement of a set of vocational competences by the student, together with the elevation of school experience, the workplace, as the primary vehicle for training, constitutes a break with the past in a number of ways. The most notable is the way in which the importance attached to theoretical knowledge must necessarily be diminished in the new system. Necessarily, in the sense that, in essence, knowledge about teaching and education became narrowly prescribed in relation to a set of behaviours to be demonstrated in the workplace, assessed mainly by workplace practitioners. This assertion is borne out by the empirical data presented in Chapter 4 and the effects are reflected in student teacher and tutor interviews in Chapters 5 and 6.

3.2.3 Competences and Standards in Initial Teacher Training

The 'standards of professionalism', prescribed by Circular 9/92, articulated in the form of the competences expected of newly qualified teachers covered the following areas: Subject Knowledge, Subject Application, Classroom Management, Assessment and Recording of Pupils' Progress and Further Professional Development. Within these broad categories, the

document identified specific competences that student teachers should learn to demonstrate during their training period.

It is perhaps useful to give a brief background to the competence-based approach to teacher training as well as to rehearse some of the objections to it. The behaviourist philosophy of competence-based education and training (CBET), while originating in the USA was adopted by the UK government in the mid-1980s. The National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) was created in 1986 to establish a unified system of accreditation for vocational qualifications (NVQ). The initial focus of the NCVQ was to work with all interested parties including employers, and professional bodies from all sectors of industry, to form Lead Industry Bodies in all occupational areas to break down all the tasks, skills and functions that constituted any given occupation, and to express them as *elements of competence* of that occupation. In this way *standards* were set for a whole range of occupational functions from plumbing to secretarial skills. A set of Performance Criteria was identified to assess what an individual had to *do* to achieve each *element of competence*. Awarding bodies such as the Royal Society of Arts and the City and Guilds of London Institute were required to adopt the framework and assess against the defined competences and standards (Lawes 1999:304). Although the early focus was on more skills-based occupations, it was also envisaged that ultimately a similar framework should apply to the 'professions', and the changes envisaged for initial teacher education fitted into a competence-style accreditation framework. However, the idea of behaviourist

competences proved to be unpalatable both to teacher trainers and apparently to policy-makers.

In 1998, the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) published Circular Number 4/98 entitled *Teaching: High Status, High Standards*, that replaced *competences* with *standards* and introduced the national curriculum for teacher training. The new *standards* required for the award of Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) purported to be more 'professional' than the *competences*. In fact, the document is more closely prescriptive and the renaming of *competences* as *standards* had no real meaning. In order for student teachers to reach the standards in order to achieve QTS they were required to provide evidence of their competence in four areas: knowledge and understanding, planning teaching and classroom management, monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability and other professional requirements which were broken down into some seventy standards, as opposed to the thirty-five *competences* prescribed in Circular 9/92. Student teachers were still required to provide 'evidence' of their competence in the form of an extensive record of their professional development which, for inspection purposes, had to be cross-referenced to the standards. While the new standards were lauded by policy-makers as an improved, more effective benchmark of assessment, it is difficult to see how more like NVQ-style assessment they could become. The change of name gave a more 'professional' appearance, and obscured the behaviourist principles upon which initial teacher training is based. Moreover, the application of a

functional analysis to the occupation of teaching no longer appears controversial and the CBET approach has been absorbed into initial teacher training with few objections. This does not mean that such an assessment system is essentially any less problematic.

Hyland (1993), in a strident critique provides a reminder of the objections to competence-based education. He makes three criticisms that apply to the national curriculum for initial teacher training. The first concerns its origins in behaviourist theories of learning that take no account of human understanding and consider knowledge as being something that is always demonstrable. In essence, this is true of initial teacher training: assessment against the standards requires student teachers to prove what they can *do* in the classroom, and provide detailed *evidence* of their practical skills through a swathe of documentation such as teaching files, records of development and review reports. The demonstration of practical teaching skills, measured through observation of their performance, is what, primarily, student teachers are judged on. It is much less likely that a student teacher would fail a PGCE course for producing poor written course work if their teaching skills were deemed to be adequate.

Hyland's second objection to CBET is that the notion of 'competence' is conceptually confused and that we do not know what a competence is and that the development of knowledge and understanding cannot be described in behaviourist terms. He reviews the literature on NVQs and concludes that 'definitions range from the simplistic and specific to the complex and

all-embracing' and demonstrate a crude understanding of the complexities involved in defining competence.

The standards required for qualified teacher statements reflect this problem in that they lead to an over-simplification and crude recording of complex judgements made by teachers in their work, and that, in turn, devalues the knowledge that informs those judgements.

The third criticism that Hyland raises regarding competence-based approaches, is its embodiment of a restricted, instrumental view of knowledge. While there is no suggestion that competent performance is totally independent of knowledge and understanding, performance is elevated above knowledge and competence is judged on what an individual *does* rather than what they know (Hyland 1993:60). The conception of knowledge in the assessment of competence, or the achievement of standards, is reduced to what is relevant and functional. The broader intellectual endeavour that might be part of learning to become a teacher is thus either left unexamined or excluded. This is the case in ITT at the moment. Chapter 5 explores the extent to which this is the case in the PGCE courses examined in this study. The interview data presented in Chapter 6 suggest that some teachers trainers are aware of the restrictions and limitations of the competence-based system and talk of 'going beyond the standards' and giving 'value added', pointing to their course content as providing greater intellectual challenges than immediately demanded by the national curriculum for ITT. Indeed, there are distinctive features of

different courses that might suggest a higher quality of training experience, characterised in Chapter 4 as aiming to develop the 'principled professional' or 'educational thinker' rather than merely a 'competent practitioner'. However, the interview data obtained from PGCE student teachers reveal few distinguishing features that might be attributed to a particular institutional experience, only individual ability. That student teachers are supported to achieve the standards becomes the overriding preoccupation of ITT currently, whatever other claims are made, since it is on this that HEIs are judged. It is undoubtedly true that there is still variability of quality in PGCE courses even within a competence framework; inspection evidence is one, although often disputed, measure of this. However, the essential nature of competence is that it is either achieved or not; one is either competent or not; standards are either achieved or not and that is the measure of success or failure. Excellence is not accounted for and, as a result, may not be aspired to. Once a baseline of required standards or competence is set, *that* is what is expected and what is aspired to.

3.2.4 School-HEI Partnership in Initial Teacher Training

From 1994, the quality of a student teacher's school experience became *the* most important factor in achieving qualified teacher status and the partnership between HEIs and schools was the other key feature of the new framework for initial teacher training. Higher Education Institutions entered into contractual arrangement with partner schools in which roles and

responsibilities were clearly defined. Schools who were paid a proportion of the funds allocated by government for the initial training of teachers; this sum being determined by individual HEIs. Partnerships evolved along different lines depending on their historical origins. Some, like the Oxford Internship model were already well-established, others were more informal. However, the contractualisation of partnerships and the introduction of the cash nexus changed fundamentally the HEI-school relationship.

The second Modes of Teacher Education (MOTE) project that reported in 1996 identified three modes of school/HEI partnership in operation (Whitty, Furlong, Whiting, Miles & Barton: 1996). Firstly, they saw 'collaborative partnership' as promoting the development of,

...a training programme where students are exposed to different forms of educational knowledge, some of which come from school, some of which come from higher education or elsewhere Teachers are seen as having an equally legitimate, but perhaps different, body of professional knowledge from those in higher education (Whitty et al, 1996: 45).

The second model they classified as 'HEI-led partnership', which they saw as being quite different from the 'collaborative model' in that courses were led by HEI staff, many of whom were still managing their programmes in a similar way to the pre-1992 arrangements. HEI tutors, in this model, continued to take overall responsibility for the design and implementation of courses. The third model they called 'separatist partnership' where 'school and HEI were seen as having separate and complementary responsibilities but where there no systematic attempt to bring these two dimensions into dialogue' (Whitty et al: 46). In this model 'integration' was not achieved

through the course structure but 'was for the students to achieve for themselves'.

However, the MOTE project preceded the introduction of inspections of ITT by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) according to the 'Framework for the Assessment of Quality in Initial Teacher Training' (Ofsted/TTA 1996, revised 1997) which forced HEIs to develop partnerships along more prescribed collaborative lines than during the period of the MOTE research and established a culture of accountability hitherto unknown.

The introduction of a 'national curriculum for teacher training' codified in Circular 10/97 and refined in Circular 4/98 in the document 'Teaching: High Status, High Standards (DfEE 1998), heralded a further element of prescription. In a UCET occasional paper entitled 'The English Exception? International Perspectives on the Initial Training of Teachers', Moon's observation on ITT in England that, 'Certainly in European perspective the combination of regulation and inspection is unique... the English imperative to centrally regulate and inspect has inevitably led to the imposition of an orthodoxy that brooks no exception' (Moon 1998: 30), was a recognition that higher education no longer had any leading role to play in the formulation of principles upon which ITT should be organised. This research, in looking at another system of ITT provides new insights into this regulation.

Despite the claim on the part of policy makers that HEIs and schools should be in an equal partnership (DfEE 1998), the shift in emphasis on the acquisition of practical teaching skills and the greater proportion of the course spent in schools, necessarily implied a dominant role for schools and a deference to school experience and the 'practical wisdom' of teachers. However, the rhetoric of equal partnership is somewhat belied by the fact that HEIs bear the brunt of accountability and responsibility in relation to the very rigorous and frequent inspections by Ofsted for the overall quality of their ITT programmes even though they have little control over what happens in schools (Wilkin 1999). There is a greater *appearance* of management and control on the part of HE, than is actually the case. It is schools that appoint the mentors who support and train student teachers in school, and, within the parameters of the statutory requirements, decide on the content of a student teacher's experience, what classes they will teach, what access to resources they are allowed access to, and what wider professional experience they are offered. The headteacher has the freedom to spend the money allocated through the partnership for school-based training as he sees fit within the school, and this may not necessarily be for the direct benefit of training departments, mentors or students. Equally, schools may opt in and out of partnerships at short notice and mentors come and go, thereby creating instability and discontinuity in partnership relationships. Higher Education suffers from an inverse proportion of accountability for the quality of training to their authority over the content of the PGCE curriculum and, as the data contained in this study

reveal, a consequent functional approach underlying the delivery and assessment of the programme.

The framework of control of a competence-based approach and a HE-school partnership model that has been imposed on ITT is completed by regular inspection. Ofsted, as an agent of the Teacher Training Agency judges how effectively courses comply with the standards laid down in Circular 4/98; non-compliance can lead to courses being closed down. Inspection results also determine the allocation of HEI recruitment targets. As a result, much time and effort is invested by HEIs, and particularly, individual teacher trainers, to ensure satisfactory results which 'has had the effect of drawing energy away from the core task of training' (Wilkin 1999). Although Ofsted inspection has attracted much criticism from providers and a variety of commentators on initial teacher training³⁵ it remains a powerful influence over ITT programmes and embodies the low trust on the part of central government in Higher Education Institutions to implement partnership arrangements to good effect. The combined features of a competence based approach, a 'school dominant' HE-school partnership and a rigorous regime of inspection reflect the culture of high accountability and low trust that has been a feature of government policy since the early 1990s.

The way that HEI - school partnership has evolved has been towards a *convergence* model (Lawes, 2002:41) in the sense that growing emphasis

is placed on the 'co-tutoring' roles of tutors and mentors 'rather than a partnership characterised, among other things by complementary duties and responsibilities' (Pachler & Field, 2001:23). The increase in the amount of PGCE course content that is actually delivered in schools, particularly in respect of General Professional Studies, reflects this,³⁶ although the academic level at which schools are able to contribute to this increased role may still be in doubt. The distinctive contribution made by Higher Education in ITT is discussed elsewhere in this study, but the objective perspective and distancing from the workplace that HE offers is undoubtedly eroded by a partnership model that places the acquisition of practical competences in school in a dominant position.

However, it must be said that at the practical level of HEI-school partnerships, much has been achieved in terms of bringing higher education and school colleagues closer together to developing a common approach to the support of student teachers in the development of their classroom skills. The evidence of this research, confirms that both student teachers and tutors see a coherence and complementarity between the school and HE components of their training³⁷, but, as is argued elsewhere in this study, this has been achieved at the expense of HE retaining its distinctive role. As interview data in Chapter 5 demonstrates, student teachers are far more concerned with developing practical skills and achieving the standards of the national curriculum for ITT.

³⁵ See for example Graham J. and Nabb J. (1999), *Stakeholder Satisfaction, Survey of Ofsted Inspection of ITT 1994-1999*, London, UCET.

³⁶ See Chapter 4 for an account and analysis of the content of PGCE courses in this study.

³⁷ See in particular the interview data with student teachers in Chapters 5 and 7.

3.3 Conclusions on Initial Teacher Training in England and France: comparisons and contrasts

One of the purposes of comparative studies is to draw on what happens elsewhere to shed light on one's own situation. The comparison of the development of the English and French teacher training systems over the recent years brings to the fore a number of issues that are common to both systems and a number of problems that are particular to each country; both of which provide insights into ITT in England.

Three themes are selected from the foregoing comparison of the two systems of initial teacher training for the way that they inform the role of theory in early teacher development. Firstly, the nature of school experience within initial teacher training in both countries are of interest in that it highlights the contrast between professional development seen as a process of *training*, or as an *educative* experience. Secondly, the importance placed on the role of higher education emerges from the comparison as a key issue as it highlights the differential view at a policy level as to the purpose of HE involvement in ITT: as the vehicle of ensuring the development of effective practice, as is the case in England; or the mediator between theory and practice, as in France. Thirdly, the effect of a high level of central government control and prescription has a fundamental influence, as has been noted, on both the aims and content of PGCE programmes, but equally on the potential for their development and the professional identity of teachers on the one hand, but also suggests a higher level of coherence and continuity on the other.

3.3.1 Lessons from school experience

In England, the underlying assumption of the shift to a model of initial teacher training that is centrally focussed on school experience is that effective practice is mainly developed through practice and that academic considerations are secondary. In France, the creation of *IUFMs* may be seen as an attempt, at policy level, to shift the central focus of initial professional development away from school by attempting to assert the value and importance of academic knowledge about teaching and learning. In order to achieve this goal, *IUFMs* have had a great degree of freedom to experiment with and develop programmes. However, in both countries the concurrent nature of training programmes in which school experience is continuous throughout the training period and in which student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* are required to prioritise practical experience in the development of professional expertise, is likely to be more influential in shaping their expectations of their training, and their professional aspirations and identity. Student teachers in England, however, have not already been through rigorous academic selection and have not already been recruited to the profession. They are only training to become part of the profession, and this is dependent upon their satisfactory acquisition of the standards required for NQT status that is largely based on school experience. School experience for them, necessarily represents higher stakes than their French counterparts whose classroom expertise is less systematically monitored and assessed. While school practice in France aims at developing *professeur stagiaires'* practical teaching skills, this appears to be left more to chance and requires them to be more

intellectually and practically responsible for their own professional development, whereas student teachers in England are, in principle at least, thoroughly supported and advised. Their progression is highly structured and monitored through the evidence that they present systematically to prove their competence. How far this produces an exaggerated preoccupation with the collection of evidence, and a more conformist attitude to teaching, is investigated through the empirical research presented in Chapters 5 and 6 of this study. The questions remain as to whether more practice makes better teachers and what effect a greater or lesser degree of professional autonomy has during the training phase.

In England, the partnership model has both required and facilitated close working relationships between school-based mentors and HEI tutors and in some instances, has fostered innovative joint work in a number of areas such as continuing professional development (CPD) and joint research. In France, where the structure does not require *IUFM*/school collaboration, links exist at the level of personnel (that is seconded school teachers: *professeurs associés*) and *professeurs stagiaires* in that they are the bridge between the two sectors, but are not highly developed in other ways. *IUFMs* remain relatively detached from schools in comparison to HEIs in England, which from an English perspective, might be seen as a weakness in a system that seeks to embody the integration of theory and practice in the *IUFM* as the following extract from a 1991 government circular confirms: 'The *IUFM* is to develop a conception of training that unifies

theory and practice and that provides, from the outset, an introduction to the realities of the profession' (*Ministère de l'Éducation, Arrêté et circulaire du 2.7.91*). The relative freedom of *IUFM*'s lays within the sphere of *educational* decision-making, curriculum content and development, but at a structural level there is a state-imposed framework of constraints just as there is in the English context. Nevertheless, this might be seen as an enviable position to be in, since these freedoms have been largely eroded within ITT in England.

3.3.2 The Position of Higher Education

The point has already been made that the framework for initial teacher education introduced in England in 1992 reduced the role and diminished the position of Higher Education. The implications of the changes in relation to the distinctive role of HE are far-reaching in relation to both general educational and subject-specific theory. In France, the creation of *IUFMs* signalled a recognition of the value of the theoretical study of teaching and learning, essentially seen as a pedagogic enterprise, represents an attempt to move away from a prevailing culture of the domination of the subject discipline, the idea that teachers only need good subject knowledge to teach, together with notion of the 'natural' authority of the teacher. These two contrasting approaches have the same aim: to improve the professional preparation of future teachers. Whatever might be seen in the next chapter as shortcomings of the *IUFM* programmes, that illustrate the difficulties in privileging theory in a practice-based course, the guiding principle is that theory matters, and that it is essential to practice. The first year academic

course leading to the *concours* is evidence of this. In England, on the other hand, theory is no longer seen as either *necessary* or, by some, as even *desirable*, in the initial training period. This claim is explored fully through the empirical data that forms the basis of the remainder of this study.

The variety of educational professionals working in initial teacher training is broader in France than in England and reflects also the differing views of the relationship between theory and practice. In France, the balance of practising teachers to more research-orientated university teachers is variable³⁸ and dependent on the ethos of individual institutions. This is true also in England, although it is more likely now to see a predominance of former school teachers working in ITT. The traditional requirement, besides significant school experience, has been a higher degree, although the profile of the initial teacher trainer appears to be changing. An increasing number of posts advertised in the field do not specify the need for a higher degree, but do emphasise recent school experience as the most important requirement. The requirement to engage in research, in some institutions, no longer pertains, and, as an older generation of education academics retires, the character of the teacher training profession is changing, perhaps reflecting the prevailing practical orientation of ITT. In this sense, the stated intention in the mid-1990s, of the Teacher Training Agency to transfer 80% of ITT into school-centred initial teacher training (SCITT) schemes by the new millennium, is being achieved in an indirect way through the increasing influence of 'school culture' in HE through the employment of experienced

³⁸ See tutor profiles in Chapter 6

practitioners who have no higher degree, and who are likely to have little research experience or the theoretical knowledge that has traditionally characterised the teacher educator in HE education departments. In France, there are clear distinctions between the type of staff employed in *IUFMs* and a tendency towards a division of theoreticians/researchers and practitioners, in the form of seconded teachers.

3.3.3 Coherence, continuity and progression

The comparison of the structure of French and English initial teacher training has revealed a greater sense of coherence, continuity and progression in England, albeit in the narrowly defined terms of the national curriculum for ITT and the school-HE partnership framework. The contractual relationship between HEIs and schools to provide ITT, ensures close co-operation to provide a 'seamless' training experience for student teachers within a prescribed framework, that is focussed on supporting and monitoring the student teacher in developing their classroom expertise and their knowledge of the principles that guide their practice. In France, as we have seen, these close links do not exist between schools and *IUFMs*.

That is not to say that there are not mechanisms in place within the *IUFM* to support the development of *professeurs stagiaires*³⁹ by promoting discussion of school experiences and also providing guiding principles for their practice. However, the French *professeur stagiaire* is not regarded as a *trainee* in the same sense as student teachers are in England in that they are expected to develop professional and intellectual autonomy and not

merely to become autonomous practitioners. This is undoubtedly partly due to the fact that they already have *fonctionnaire* status, but also to the more intellectually-orientated perception of teaching as a profession. However, as Chapter 5 reveals, there is something of a paradox here, since *professeurs stagiaires* themselves expect a practical focus to their *IUFM* training⁴⁰.

How the underpinning principles and approach that inform the English and French initial teacher training systems shapes the professional development of new teachers differentially is explored through the empirical data presented later in this study. But from the point of view of the structure of the training, at the level of the acquisition of teaching skills, the English system offers a more highly-developed, systematic training programme. The French system is much less prescriptive; initiation into teaching: the *socialisation* and *professionalisation* that Boudoncle (1993) explores, referred to above, is nevertheless seen in terms of an *educational* rather than a *training* project. Training has defined objectives and outcomes and might be seen more as a 'moulding' experience.

An *educational* initiation into teaching is more open-ended, the outcomes are more variable and uncertain, but potentially more creative and likely to foster a more 'thinking' teacher. An educational approach to initial professional development has been abandoned in England, for the reasons examined in both above and in Chapter 1. It has been replaced by a system

³⁹ See Appendix 4E for notes of IUFM CAPES sessions in subject and general

that ensures a more homogenised training experience that would be incompatible with the sort of educational project of professional development in France. Whether or how the structure of the two systems affects differently the content of programmes, the expectations and professional development of student teachers and the views and attitudes of HE tutors is examined through the empirical data presented in the remainder of this study.

professional studies
⁴⁰ See Chapter 5, Table 5.iv

Chapter 4

A comparison of PGCE mfl, CAPES d'anglais and PGCE/Maîtrise français langue étrangère (fle) programmes

Summary

This chapter surveys five PGCE programmes, five *PGCE/Maîtrise français langue étrangère (fle)* programmes in England and five Certificat d'aptitudes au professorat d'enseignement secondaire (*CAPES*) programmes in France in terms of their content and style in order to ascertain the role of theory. The key distinction between France and England is the greater autonomy that *IUFMs* have for development which makes their ITT work potentially more dynamic and developmental. Analysis of course documentation in England has identified great similarity between the PGCE mfl programmes studied, although notable distinctive features exist between institutions. On the basis of this analysis, institutions in England have been characterised as seeking to develop 'competent practitioners', 'principled professionals' or 'educational thinkers'.

Introduction

Chapter 3 provided an analysis of the broad frameworks and contexts within which individual Higher Education Institutions in England and France plan for the initial training of secondary modern foreign languages teachers. The following examination of programmes in the institutions selected for this study will show how government requirements are implemented in practice and how individual courses can be seen as reflecting an institutional ethos. The aim is to give view of provision that provides a further background of analysis of the interview data that follows in Chapters 5,6 and 7. It is for this reason, that some elements of the programme have been omitted in order to focus on aspects that shed light on the role of theory. The data for analysis were contained in the course documentation provided by institutions for student teachers relating to the HE component

of the courses. These handbooks provide an overall guide to, and specific detail of, the PGCE courses. During the period of data collection for this study, Circular 4/98, entitled 'High Status, High Standards'⁴¹, was still operating. Courses were analysed and compared according to content, style and recommended reading, and this information was distilled into the Tables that appear below. These provide an accessible presentation of copious amounts of information.

In France, as has been seen in Chapter 3, the level of prescription at policy level, is much lower than in England. It is a commonly held belief that teacher training in France is more theoretical. As Chapter 3 showed, and the evidence that follows here suggests, the second year of the programme (*PLC2*) is not markedly more theoretical. But the important distinction is that it is founded on a first year of teacher preparation leading to the *CAPES* competitive examination that is highly academic in terms of the development of subject knowledge, and a substantial introduction (a 90 hour taught course) to the theory of subject-specific didactics.

The 'hybrid' PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programmes provide a further dimension of comparison in that these dual certification programmes bring together two contrasting approaches to teacher professional development: the English PGCE and the academic orientation of a French professional higher degree. The *Maîtrise fle* award is a vocationally orientated post-graduate qualification, which is equivalent roughly to two-thirds of an MA programme

⁴¹ See Appendix 4B for an extract of this document, detailing the 'Standards'.

in England. Student teachers engaged in the joint programme therefore experience a more theoretical initiation into modern foreign language teaching than their contemporaries on both the French *CAPES* and English PGCE courses.

For the purposes of this study, only the Higher Education components of the training were researched in both countries, although the nature of this part of the programme is such that reference to practice is essential. As has already been discussed in Chapter 3, the link between HE studies and school practice is firmly embedded in England, but this is less the case in France.

4.1 The Higher Education Institutions Studied

The eight HEIs⁴² studied in the English part of this research are representative of different types of institutions which offer initial teacher training programmes. The coding for all the institutions is as follows: EE, ESE, EC, EM, EW1, EW2, ENE and ENW (PGCE and PGCE/*Maîtrise fle*); FN, FP, FE and FS (*CAPES PLC2*) and FULCOL, FL and FA (*Maîtrise fle*). Four institutions are colleges of higher education, formerly teacher training colleges and four are, or form part of, what are known as 'Russell Group' universities⁴³. Besides being geographically spread, they were selected also on the basis of having been identified by Ofsted as being 'good' (a mixture of grades 1 and 2) or 'very good (all grades 1) ITT providers. Although the inspection judgements made by Ofsted relate to a very

specific framework, which might be open to criticism, nevertheless, they have a fundamental influence on ITT providers and their courses and thus should be seen as the benchmark of quality within their own terms of reference. All the French institutions are *IUFMs*, spread geographically around France.⁴⁴

4.2 PGCE courses compared

'In European perspective the combination of regulation and inspection is unique... the imperative to centrally regulate and inspect has inevitably led to the imposition of an orthodoxy that brooks no exception' (Moon 1998).

The PGCE programmes examined in this study, both those offering PGCE *mfl* and PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programmes confirm that Moon's 'imposed orthodoxy' has led to a high degree of what would be seen in government terms, as coherence and homogenisation in teacher training, offering 'a clear basis for the reliable and consistent award of Qualified Teacher Status' (1998:8). While no course *content* is defined by Circular 4/98, it is effectively determined by the Standards, which identify the specific outcomes of training programmes in terms of what student teachers should know, do and understand. These are specified in detail (see Appendix 4B), and divided into four broad areas: 'knowledge and understanding', 'planning, teaching and classroom management', 'monitoring assessment, recording, reporting and accountability' and 'other professional requirements'. Since continued accreditation of courses by the Teacher

⁴² Both PGCE providers and those offering the PGCE and *Maîtrise fle* combined are included in this profile.

⁴³ See Appendix 4A for a profile of the institutions concerned

⁴⁴ See Chapter 2 for the rationale behind the choice of institution and Appendix 4A for IUFM profiles.

Training Agency (TTA), and therefore the permission to offer PGCE courses, relies on HEIs' compliance with the statutory regulations, and at least satisfactory Ofsted inspections, a large measure of similarity might be expected between courses.

The following detailed analysis of the aims and content of the programmes reveals this to be the case in respect of the time allocated to HEI in-put which is approximately 300 hours over the 36 week course. *IUFM* based training is approximately 380 hours. Three characteristics distinguish courses from each other: firstly, the requirements of the course in respect of background reading, secondly, the professional background and outlook of individual course tutors and thirdly, the type of institution offering a course.

4.2.1 PGCE Course Aims Compared

The aims, objectives and 'values' that course tutors and programme managers have identified reflect the particular ethos of a course. They are informed not only by externally imposed requirements, but by the philosophy and principles of the institution, as stated in course documentation and the individuals that tutor on teacher training programmes, as examined in interview data.

It is through a consideration of the aims, objectives and 'values' as a starting point for analysis, and relating these to the content, style and recommended reading of courses, together with the wealth of evidence

gathered from tutor and student teacher interviews, that light is shed on the role of and attitudes to theory. Based on this analysis, a characterisation of institutions and the training they offer, has been possible. This then begs the question as to whether it is possible to ascertain, also tentatively, whether the different training experiences of student teachers in different institutions have a significant bearing on the type of teacher that emerges from initial training or whether the requirements of both the Standards and Ofsted inspections have a dominant influence.

An examination of statements of course aims and objectives provides some interesting insights. Two institutions, while acknowledging the primacy of achieving the Standards required for the award of Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT) status, claim to go aim to go beyond these standards, noting (EC), 'while our work is necessarily governed - and at times constrained - by the statutory frameworks governing teacher education, we deem it important to go beyond the requirements specified therein from time to time', and '... the Aims...and the Values Statement... should be seen as important elements in the framework of the course, and in addition to the competences described in the Standards for QTS (EM)'. Institution EC's first stated aim is to provide a set of principles for the teaching of mfls and to enable the student teacher to acquire the skills and knowledge to be a competent mfl teacher. It also aims 'to give trainees a set of insights, perspectives and information upon which they can build...' followed by a broad range of teaching skills. Institution EE aims 'to give trainees a set of insights, perspectives and information upon which they can build...' and help student

teachers '(to develop) a broad range of practical teaching skills, personal qualities and professional attitudes, to think critically and (develop) a personal philosophy of education'. Institution EW1 gives pre-eminence in its aims to 'provide ...a theoretical framework for language teaching, and understanding of its relevance to practice and ways in which theories can be tested in practice'. This is the only institution to prioritise explicitly theoretical knowledge and its relation to practice. Institution ESE gives knowledge of the National Curriculum requirements as its first aim, followed by knowledge of a variety of theories relevant to mfl teaching as its second. Institution ENE also stated in its student teacher handbook that 'The basic course aim is to help students to acquire the standards required of a beginning teacher as identified by DfES Circular 4/98 - the new initial training curriculum'. Two institutions (EW2 and ENW) did not include a set of course aims in their documentation for student teachers.

Only one institution studied (EM), has an explicit 'values' statement in their modern foreign languages handbook which sets out 'to make explicit the values which underpin our definition of good teaching' (1998:3). Five points describe the 'good teachers' as having secure subject knowledge, are able to model their educational theories in their daily practice, have a 'sensitive understanding of how students make most progress.... because they understand the social aspects of learning, they see the school as a place where people can learn from each other', they present themselves to students as learners as well as teachers and help students develop their social and moral awareness and responsibility' (1998:3). This statement of

values is common to institution EM's PGCE and their joint PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programme and is understood here as more of an implicit statement of aims, that implies an 'inclusive' ethos of valuing the contribution of all participants in the education project, rather than specific statements of training outcomes.

In all the other institutions where both the PGCE and PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* courses are run in parallel, course documentation is very similar and course aims and objectives are the same for each programme, with the exception of two institutions. Institutions EE and EM, for their PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* courses refer to the added European dimension of the dual certification course and the promotion on intercultural understanding as being distinctive features and goals of this programme.

Stated course aims, or lack of them, give an initial indication as to the underpinning ethos of courses. Where course aims do not exist the question arises as to whether this is because the National Curriculum for Teacher Training is seen to embody course aims; that is, the achievement of the Standards is the implicit, primary aim of the course that does not need stating explicitly. How these course tutors identified what they and their courses set out to achieve in the initial training of their student teachers can be divided into three types. Firstly, those who, while acknowledging the externally imposed requirements, reflected in their course aims a 'principled' view of the professional development of knowledge and expertise of student teachers in learning to teach (EC, EE

and EM). Institution ESE focussed primarily on the achievement of the Standards for the award of QTS and the ability to teach the National Curriculum aimed at developing 'competent practitioners'. In contrast, the course aims of institution EW1 suggest a concern with developing 'educational thinkers'. How far these three initial groupings of what I will call 'principled professional', 'competent practitioner' and 'educational thinker' are legitimate characterisations, and whether they can be applied to the other HEIs in this sample, is tested out in the following sections.

4.2.2 PGCE Modern Foreign Languages Subject Studies/Curriculum Content

The content of all programmes in England is necessarily linked very closely to the Standards for the Award of Qualified Teacher Status, which, in turn, focuses heavily on the requirements of the National Curriculum for modern foreign languages. From a detailed examination of all the course programmes, it was possible to present a comparative picture of the content of each programme in table form. This representation is a distillation of a very large quantity of information provided in course handbooks that shows what is different about each course, what makes them distinctive, and whether the initial characterisation of 'principled professional', 'competent practitioner' and 'educational thinker' made above might be legitimately applied.

The 1998 Teacher Training Agency Initial Teacher Training National Curricula '...set out the core of what trainees need to be taught, know and be able to do if they are to teacher the pupils' curriculum effectively' (DfEE,

1998:3). This statement locates the primary aim of ITT as being the effective teaching of the school National Curriculum. Within the Standards themselves, Key Stage 3, Key Stage 4 and A level as well as vocational modern foreign languages are referred to specifically. These specifications dominate the content and orientation of subject studies sessions in all courses studied. All the session titles listed below, taken from the course documentation of the five PGCE courses studied, and, in a second table, the PGCE component of the *PGCE/Maîtrise fle*, relate directly to the content of the school National Curriculum for modern foreign languages. Moreover, the teaching sessions observed for this study, a sample of which are referred to in section 4.2.3 below (see also Appendix 4D for notes of further sessions observed), as well as course documentation, confirm that most institutions make explicit reference throughout their documentation to the 'Standards Required for the Award of Qualified Teacher Status', set out in Circular 4/98, *High Status, High Standards* (DfEE 1998) emphasising its central importance to the training programme.

Course handbooks for student teachers in all cases relate course content more or less closely to the Standards required for the award of NQT status, with three institutions (notably ESE, EE and ENE) cross-referencing each HEI session with the specific Standards addressed. In addition, one institution (EE) specifies learning outcomes: 'after each session, you will be able to...'. Notably, institution EW1, while including similar course content to the others (see Table 4.i), makes little reference to the Standards in its mfl programme handbook. The interview with the tutor of this course refers

to a 'holistic' approach to the initial training of mfl teachers in which the achievement of the Standards as the motor of the training programme is less prominent than other courses (see Chapter 6 of this study). All institutions link the HEI programme with school-based investigations or activities, but EW1 also has a school-based programme of development in which the entire teaching of lesson planning is a school responsibility. EW1, uniquely⁴⁵ amongst the PGCE providers studied here, includes outline guidance for lesson planning, aspects of teaching and learning (such as the start and finish of lessons, instructions, pupil/teacher talk, question and answer techniques, the '4 skills' and homework) written by course tutors, in addition to recommended reading. This is perhaps as much to support school-based mentors in teaching this important element of the course as to provide supplementary guidance and a theoretical underpinning to student teachers.

There is some evidence from the course documentation of some institutions that mfl tutors are engaged in writing and research and that these interests inform course programmes. For example, tutors include their own work as recommended reading and also, in some instances incorporate sessions based on their particular research interests into the course programme. One of the course tutors in EE has been engaged in a research project on boys and mfl learning; in EW1 the use of the target language and learner strategies are a research interest of one of the PGCE mfl team; in EC the use of ICT features more prominently than in other programmes. The

⁴⁵ Cf institution ENW, which provides copious prescriptive procedural guidance for student teachers on the PGCE/Maîtrise FLE programme.

inclusion of a residential weekend in France to work on cross-curricular themes and school trips abroad is a distinctive feature of the course in ESE and a visit to a local school where the tutor was involved in a bi-lingual teaching project in ENE are examples of a particular, more practically-orientated interests of course tutors. Institution ENW has a very specific, prescriptive 'in-house' mfl methodology that is a distinctive feature of this course. Despite the rigorously prescriptive nature of the national curriculum for teacher training, it seems from the evidence of this study that some courses contain elements of distinctiveness of content in the subject/curriculum studies part of the training programme, although in general terms there is a large measure of commonality in terms of content across all the PGCE programmes examined.

The following tables summarise the content of the subject/curriculum studies element of the PGCE HE programmes in the eight institutions studied, on the basis of session titles. Table 4.i relates to PGCE courses; table 4.ii to the PGCE element of the PGCE/Maîtrise FLE. In institutions EE and ESE, both the PGCE and the PGCE/Maîtrise FLE programmes were studied, but there is very little variation in either institution between the two programmes.

EE	ESE	EW1	ENE	EC
Primary exp.*	History of MFL t.			X
Lesson planning	X	IN SCHOOL	X	X
Nat. Curriculum	X	X	X	X
LL exp. (Chin)	X (Arabic)	Exp. Learning		X (Ar./Jap)
Text books	X			X
CLT	X	X		X
Seq. of lessons	X	X	X Unit of Work p	X
Listening	X	X		X
Speaking	X	X		X
Reading	X	X	X	X
Writing	X	X		X
ICT	X	X	X	XX
Target lang.		X	X	X
Pupil learning		Purpose of fl.l	X	
Learning strat	X + Lang. Aw.	X	LL activities	Q & A
Managing fl clr.*		X	Pres./voice	X
Grammar	X	X	X	X
Pair/group work	X	X		X
Pronunciation				Dict. Skills
Assessment			X Mon. & Ass.	
NC Assessment	X MARRA	X MARRA		X
GCSE assessm.	X	X + KS4	X KS 4	X
Homework			X	X
Differentiation	X	X	Worksheets	X
SEN	X		X low att.	X
High Ability	X		X Thinking skills	X
Motivation			X M. at KS4	X
Creativity	Auth. Materials	X Games	Storytelling	Auth. Materials
A level	X	X	X	X
Syllabus des.		X Pl. topic	X Long term pl.	Yr 10 topics
X Curric themes	X			Nat. Lit. Strat.
Boys & MFL			X Gender & ach.	= Opps
Indep. Work		X L. auton.	X I. independ.	X
GNVQ	Voc langs	X Post-16	X Post-16	Voc. Issues
Cult. Awareness	X		X	X
Trips & Exch.	X res. visit		Bi-lingual I.	X + FLA
Lang I. & I. acq.				Lang. I & t
Resources	Visual aids		X OHP & flashc.	TV and video

Table 4.i PGCE Course Content - MFL - Session titles - England

*experience in a Primary School is a statutory requirement, but which on institution EE discusses within the subject curriculum studies. The other institutions reflect on this experience within the General Professional Studies Programme.

EE	ENW	ESE	EM	EW2
LL exp. (Chin.)	X (Urdu)	X (Arabic)	X (Russian)	X
Lesson planning	X	X	X	X
Observation		X		
Nat. Curric	X	X	X	X
Listening	X	X	X	X
Speaking	X	X	X	X
Reading	X	X	X	X
Writing	X	X	X	X
Assess. & rec.	X Marking	MARRA		X
Target lang.	X		X	X
Motiv. & rel. learners	X	L. strat. &Lang. Awareness		
Pair/group work & independence		X	Learner autonomy	X
Managing fl. clr.	X Class control	X	X	X
Differentiation		X + SEN	X l. styles, indiv. diff.	X
Grammar	X	X	X	
Role play				
Assess. In NC			X	X
GCSE		X	X	X
Gathering data		X		
Dev. Reading				
A/AS level	X	X	Post 16	X
X Curric themes		X	X	
Indep. Work		X		
16+ other courses		Vocational languages		X
Cult. Awareness	X	X		
Trips & Exch.	X	X		
Lang l. & l. acq.	X FLA		X SLA	X
Auth. Materials	Video	Visual aids	X Resources	Visual aids
	Homework	History of MFL t.	SEN	ICT
	Dictation Vocab.poetry	Supp, text books	Pres. new lang.	Course books
		Supp. agencies		Strat. for drilling
	SOW	Seq. of lessons		MFI l. exp.
	X	ICT	X	
	Primary exp.		X	X
	Creativity			
	Gifted & tal.			

Table 4.ii - PGCE component of the PGCE/Maîtrise FLE Course - Subject/Curriculum Studies session titles

A considerable similarity in course content is evident, at least in terms of session titles, although those highlighted in blue are specific to particular courses, some of which are discussed above. The table clearly does not provide a definitive picture of everything that is contained in subject/curriculum courses, or make any clear distinctions between

programmes. It is intended as an overview of the degree of similarity and to give indications of the margin of choice that PGCE tutors consider possible in their programmes. An important common factor is the requirement to prepare student teachers to teach the English secondary school National Curriculum for modern foreign languages.

These subject/curriculum studies programmes all focus primarily on the planning, teaching, management, and assessment of modern foreign languages in the secondary classroom and in this they relate directly to the NQT Standards outlined in the national curriculum for initial teacher training (Circular 4/98). It is difficult to judge from the session titles the degree to which theoretical perspectives are introduced, but every other source of evidence gathered in this study including a scrutiny of the available session descriptions, session aims and objectives, the accompanying recommended reading, as well as interview data from both tutors and student teachers suggests that the majority of subject/curriculum studies courses give guidance for practice distilled from sound pedagogical and methodological principles rather than an engagement with any theories themselves. Equally, subject/curriculum sessions that were observed for this study and reported on below, shed light on the approach adopted by tutors and the substance of the course content. The degree of similarity may be even more marked in practice as session titles do not necessarily reflect the scope of the content and therefore, where one institution may appear to be neglecting a particular area. For example, the fact that institution ENW1 does not include a session on 'pair/group work and

independence' does not mean that it does not consider this topic; more likely, it is incorporated in a range of sessions as a fundamental element of communicative language teaching.

4.2.3 PGCE Modern Foreign Languages Subject /Curriculum Studies Style

In the sample of institutions studied here, the HE component of subject/ curriculum studies is taught by language specialists, who are responsible for a group of mfl student teachers in respect, not only of the subject specific training programme, but of students' assessment against the NQT Standards and in liaison with partnership schools. For the subject/ curriculum studies component of their course, therefore, student teachers are taught by one tutor for the majority of the curriculum time, with other colleagues (where the size of the cohort permits more than one specialist tutor) and occasional invited outside speakers or school-based mentor contributions. With the exception of institution EW1 that has devolved the teaching of lesson planning to partner schools, all HEIs take responsibility for the teaching of their programmes 'in-house'. Typically, sessions are participatory, but beginning with a tutor introduction followed by discussion and then group activities focussed around a practical teaching approach usually related to the requirements of the National Curriculum. Student teachers are also required to do short presentations of topics on most courses and microteaching to peers features in the majority of programmes. One institution (EC) has adopted the approach for the majority of sessions of a whole cohort lecture by one of the four mfl tutors followed by smaller

group workshop sessions as follow-up. In the mfl sessions observed for this study in EC, students were still encouraged to participate in lecture-style sessions through question and answer and the lecture style was informal. The lectures observed, given by two different tutors were concerned with aspects of A level teaching. One of the lectures was available on-line. One was more orientated towards examination requirements and emphasis was placed on the need for student teachers to familiarise themselves with specific syllabus content. The tutor in this instance was concerned that student teachers were aware of the requirements of the Standards and how they should proceed to gain experience in the practical situation to meet the standards. The follow-up workshop consisted of a group activity related to the exploitation of texts that might be used in A level teaching. This type of approach was typical of sessions observed in other institutions.

The following day's introductory lecture on the teaching of literature at A level offered a full exposé of issues both from a historical and current perspective. Students were encouraged to participate with their own experiences and views and a clear insight to approaches to teaching literature was presented. Both lecturers in EC made suggestions for follow-up reading, since the time allowed for exploring the topics was limited. Tutors reported, however, that given the intensive nature of the PGCE experience, student teachers often did not do follow-up or preparatory reading. This view was echoed by all the trainers interviewed for this study (see Chapter 6).

The emphasis on student teacher participation is common to all the training sessions observed for this study. What was differentiated between institutions, however, was the extent to which the content of HEI sessions was orientated towards classroom practice, theoretical principles or both. The approach in institutions EE and ESE tended towards a short presentation of key principles rather than theoretical perspectives and ideas of how the topics ('Cultural Awareness' and 'the Use of the Target Language') might be approached in the classroom. The use of a video exemplifying 'good practice' in the use of the target language prompted discussion and reflection. Student teacher group learning activities were concerned with considering how 'cultural' aspects could be integrated into a language lesson (EE) and how to systematise the teacher's use of the target language in the classroom.

The tutor in EWE1 drew on research perspectives, a discussion of quotes from theoretically orientated texts and very challenging question and answer techniques aimed at a conceptual understanding of the relationship between four national curriculum attainment targets in mfl. This session prioritised theoretical perspectives and no mention was made of the National Curriculum, nor of NQT standards. However, it should be noted that this teaching session was three hours in duration and the tutor commented that only through regular and systematic exposure to ideas at this level would student teachers really achieve a conceptual understanding and articulation of theoretical perspectives.

Shortage of time is an important issue that tutors interviewed for this study all referred to as influencing what constituted the content of PGCE programmes. As has been seen, the broad range of topic areas are designed to promote effective classroom teaching and learning in the context of the English national curriculum. The extent to which there is any engagement with, for example, the field of language acquisition and learning theories that either underpin communicative language teaching (CLT) or offer contrasting explanations, are minimal.

Only two of the courses examined above include a discrete session on language acquisition (EE and EM), and while student teachers reported in their interviews that the names of one or two theorists (notably Piaget and Vygotsky) had been mentioned to them, there is no opportunity to engage with their work or ideas. Shortage of time is clearly a key factor, but given the current dominant emphasis on developing classroom practice, it is not clear whether, even if there were more time allowed for the HEI course component, it would be used to develop practical skills more fully, or whether tutors would seize the opportunity to reorientate towards a greater emphasis on theoretical knowledge in order to provide the essential conceptual underpinning of practice.

However, the differing approaches to subject/curriculum studies described here, while having many common features, might also be seen to represent three distinct styles of training characterised above, that reflect both institutions' and individual tutors' disposition towards the content of PGCE

programmes: a broadly practice-dominated approach that reflects the 'competent practitioner', a theory-orientated approach aimed at developing 'educational thinker's and finally an approach that seeks to go beyond the 'competent practitioner', to develop the 'principled professional'. These distinctions will be explored further in relation to the reading recommended by institutions.

4.3 PGCE General Professional Studies

A discreet General Professional Studies programme is offered in each of the HEIs in this sample for both PGCE and PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* courses, although in the case of the latter, tutors reported that this was often reduced due to shortage of time.

4.3.1 General Professional Studies content compared

Tables 4.iii and 4.iv below present comparisons of General Professional Studies programmes for all PGCE and some PGCE/*Maîtrise* student teachers.

<u>E</u>	<u>ESE</u>	<u>EW1</u>	<u>ENE</u>	<u>EC</u>
The sec. School	X Pri/Sec trans	X		
School Curric.	X	X		
Use of lang in cl	X			
Cl t & l*	X Eff. Learning	X L & l'ing	X Cl. Exp.	
PHSE/ Val. Ed	X	X	X	X
Pastoral Tutor	X P. system	X		X
SEN	X + Diff.	X Inc.& soc.just.	X	X (diff.)
MARRA	X	X*	X	X
He Ed Drugs etc	X P.system	X*		
H ed - sex ed	XP.system			
= Opps	X	X Inc.&soc.just.	X	X
Citizenship Ed	X	X Inc & soc. just	X	X
Spir & Mor. Dev	X			
	Ed Philos.	Disc. & cl. Man.*	T & I styles	Cl. man
	Behav. Man.	ICT*	ICT	Post 16 ed
		Form tutor	T. thinking	Hist of ed.syst
		Home/sch rel.	Literacy strat.	Lit & num
		Adolescence	Child Dev (4)	
		Changing nature of ed.	Current dev. in ed.	Refugees & EAL pupils
			Race & Gender	
			Perf Ind & targ.s	
			Psych. & I	

Table 4.iii PGCE - General Professional Studies Session titles

*School based in-put

EE	ENW	ESE	EM	EW2
Sec. Schools		Primary exp.		X
Past. Tutor	X P. Care/form tutor	X	X	X
Classroom t&l		X		
School Curric.		X		
Citizenship	X	X	X	X
PHSE, Values ed.		X	X	X
Use of lang. in cl		X Pres/Comm.		
MARRA		X		
Spir. & Moral		X		
H. ed., drugs		X	X	
Sex Ed		X	X	
T. pay & cond.				
	Dyslexia		Multi-culturalism	Cl. management
	SEN/Inclusion	X Diff.	X	
	Num. & Lit			
	Gender			
	Bullying	X	X	
	Drama			
	Child Protection	X	X	
	School gov.			
	Role of ed. psychologist = Opps		Continuity & progression Gender	X
		Behaviour Management		
		T & I styles		X
		Eff. Learning	Learning	

Table 4.iv PGCE/Maitrise Course Content - General Professional Studies

General Professional Studies across all programmes, in the same way as Subject/Curriculum studies reflect partly a concern with the Standards set out under 'Other Professional Requirements' that are of a broadly technical nature. In addition, a number of broader concerns are included, notably in the area of the pastoral role of the teacher including 'Personal, Social and Health Education (PHSE)' and 'Citizenship'. 'PHSE,' 'Monitoring, Assessment, Recording and Reporting, (MARRA)', 'Special Educational Needs', 'Equal Opportunities and Citizenship Education', are, in fact, common to all programmes. There are, however more differences between Institutions in their GPS provision than in the Subject/Curriculum studies

programmes. This is the case for both PGCE and PGCE/Maîtrise courses. As Table 4.iv shows, the GPS programmes for PGCE/Maîtrise courses are very similar although in some cases reduced, to that of the PGCE courses studied. Institution EW2 offers a very restricted programme of only 7 sessions.

While it is acknowledged that session titles may mask a good deal of similarity of content, nevertheless, there is much less commonality between institutions in this part of the training programme. It is also to be noted that some topics, for example, Primary Experience and various aspects of 'Classroom Management', in some institutions, are covered within their mfl programme. Besides these common themes, broadly speaking, where course content differs, this may reflect either geographical area, ('Refugees and EAL pupils' in institution EC,), the particular interests or expertise of tutors ('Educational Philosophy' in institution ESE, 'Race and Gender' in ENE) or institutional policy⁴⁶.

Exceptionally, institution ENE, a more substantial GPS programme is on offer than in any other of the institutions studied. Notably, this includes four teaching sessions on Adolescence which is a very significant investment of course time in a more theoretical area of professional knowledge, given the very limited number of days allocated to GPS (typically, a maximum of 80 hours of course time). Also, besides the 'core' programme of lectures in Table iii above and seminars, ENE also offers a range of additional lectures

⁴⁶ Support for these statements has been drawn from either the background knowledge of the researcher regarding staff in particular institutions, or from informal conversations with tutors in those institutions

and seminars that are to be selected by student teachers in relation to the course assignments they have chosen. Of all the courses in the sample selected for this thesis, ENE offers the greatest balance between Subject/Curriculum and General Professional Studies. However, the subject/curriculum studies tutor interviewed in ENE reported that this fact was resented by subject specialist staff who felt that not enough time was allocated to their portion of the course programme. The emphasis on subject/curriculum studies within PGCE courses has become more pronounced since the move to school-based ITT, in keeping with the emphasis on classroom teaching expertise. However, not only has the General Professional Studies programme been reduced, but it has changed somewhat in character. The example cited above of the proportionately high number of hours allocated to 'Adolescence' in Institution ENE is not seen elsewhere. Moreover, the content of the programme as Tables 4.iii and 4iv confirm appears to be almost entirely orientated towards the broader pastoral role of the teacher, such as the PHSE curriculum and inclusion, the legal requirements placed on the teacher in respect of, for example, child protection and policy initiatives such as the Literacy Strategy. There is also a reflection of current concerns such as bullying and social justice.

There is little evidence from course handbooks of an engagement with more theoretical ideas relating to education and the school curriculum. Two institutions (EW1 and ENE) include a session on changes in education, EC features a session on the history of the education system and ESE one on

educational philosophy. These topics stand out as an attempt to engage with broader educational issues in a predominantly functional school-focussed general professional ITT curriculum. From the evidence of PGCE course documentation, an initiation into professional knowledge of a more academic nature is almost entirely absent.

Course documentation also confirms that most topic areas are linked to school-based activities and investigations in all HE institutions. These tasks variously entailed reporting on school policies in a number of areas such as discipline procedures, investigating areas of provision, such as Special Educational Needs, or taking part in school activities such as parents' evenings. General Professional Studies programmes are a coherent complement to Subject/Curriculum Studies that reflect an operational rather than academic view of professionalism ensuring that all QTS Standards are covered.

4.3.2 General Professional Studies Programme style compared

No GPS teaching sessions were actually observed for this study⁴⁷, but each institution's course documentation describes the different modes of delivery of this element of courses and this varies considerably. As table 4.iii indicates, in one institution (EW1), has delegated a range of topics to be taught in school during the periods of school experience. All institutions, with the exception of ESE and all the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* courses, have a lecture format with follow-up seminars in cross-curricular 'school cluster'

groups or workshops. These lectures are delivered by specialists in the field, and in some instances (ENE, 'Adolescence', for example), lecturers are invited from other university departments. Lectures are therefore based on academic knowledge that is less orientated towards the QTS Standards. The lecture/seminar format is one that reflects the traditional university approach of combining the sharing of academic knowledge and research on a given subject by a specialist in the field, with a critical engagement with the ideas by students through follow-up discussion in seminar groups. In this respect, HEIs have retained a traditional, academic style in General Professional Studies, even if the content has changed radically from a focus on educational foundation knowledge to functional professional knowledge.

In contrast, Institution ESE's PGCE GPS programme is taught entirely in cross-curricular groups with a group tutor who is also a subject studies specialist. These sessions are run in the same way as subject/curriculum studies sessions where the tutor presents key ideas and this is followed by group discussion and training activities. Teaching materials packs are compiled by the course team for use by all GPS tutors and it is their responsibility to become familiar with the topic area. The format of teaching sessions is a brief tutor 'in-put' followed by group discussion, sharing of experience and preparation for school-based tasks rather than a critical initiation into an area of professional knowledge. This content and approach is very similar to that adopted in French *IUFMs* in their *formation*

⁴⁷ I have, however, significant experience of teaching General Professional Studies in two

générale professionnelle programme. The aim is to impart key information and/or principles about a given subject and to promote reflection on practice in the light of that information. This approach is effective in providing student teachers with guidance for their school experience and enabling them to draw maximum benefit from that experience, but it does not allow for any significant critical engagement with the topic areas, nor indeed *ideas* on education and its relationship to broader society.

4.4 PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* content and style

It has already been noted that the content of the PGCE component of the joint certification courses is very similar to the PGCE courses run in other HE Institutions. As well as featuring specifically in course aims for the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle*, cultural/intercultural concerns are more prominent in the course content of these programmes. Course documentation for all the PGCE elements of the joint PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programmes also emphasises the links with the *Maîtrise fle* encouraging a cross-flow of reflection and in some cases joint assessment of coursework. For example, in institution ESE, the PGCE portfolio together with a ten page thematic overview constitutes the final 'mémoire professionnel' for the *Maîtrise fle*. The three main differences are in the format of the programme, the tutoring, and the role of General Professional Studies in the programme. The details of the different format have already been discussed, but consequences of 'sandwiching' the PGCE around the *Maîtrise fle* course in France and condensing two courses within one

of the institutions included in this study.

calendar year, have both positive and negative elements (Barbot & Lawes 2000).

Tutors in all the English HEIs offering the programme report that they have encountered problems as far as the format is concerned since the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* does not 'fit' in the traditional training calendar, the student teachers' classroom competence progresses at a later stage of the school year and in two institutions (EW2 and ESE), student teachers spend a prolonged period of school experience with little contact with their HEI. Institutions EE and ENW overcame the latter problem by having one 'college' day throughout the year.

For the most part, PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programmes integrate Subject/ Curriculum and General Professional Studies and both aspects of the English HE course component are taught by one course tutor, although on some occasions guest speakers are invited for a small number of sessions, and where the PGCE and the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* calendar coincide, some General Professional Studies lectures open to all PGCE student teachers are attended by the dual certification groupss. However, for the most part, PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* groups remain as discreet groups with very little contact with other PGCE student teachers due to the different phasing of their training. This enables tutors to maximise the benefit of the *Maîtrise fle* experience and to focus on the particular needs of their student teachers. On the one hand, there is a tendency for PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* groups to be isolated from the main student teacher body and benefit less from the

socialising aspects of ITT (Bourdoncle 1995), whereby student teachers gain a wider perspective on teaching and learning through contact with others of different disciplines. On the other hand, this drawback might be seen as less important than the intellectual enrichment of the didactic and pedagogical knowledge gained from the *Maîtrise fle* programme.

Nevertheless, by virtue of the combined effect of the French academic course and the organisational arrangements for the PGCE, the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programme has a greater subject-specific focus. In some institutions the number of topic areas, particularly in General Professional Studies, has been reduced, and the interview data presented in Chapter 7 suggests that attempts are made to take account of and draw on learning from the various *Maîtrise fle* courses in France. Where this is done systematically, the research findings of this study, analysed and presented also in Chapter 7, suggest that student teachers develop more academically than those on PGCE courses. The greater emphasis on subject studies resulting from the combined studies of the *Maîtrise fle* and PGCE may be seen to run counter to the current view of teacher professionalism that places ever-increasing importance on the social training aspects of schooling in which subject teachers are expected to have expertise. In addition, given that the students recruited to the dual certification courses are predominantly French native speakers who are less familiar with the English education system, some of the tutors interviewed for this study (see Chapter 7) were conscious of the need for a greater focus on the general professional aspects of ITT for these groups, but felt that time constraints and the pressure to address the main body of

NQT Standards in relation to subject teaching, made this impossible. Nevertheless, the research findings in Chapters 6 and 7 suggest that possible gaps in functional professional knowledge are compensated for. A higher degree of theoretical knowledge and conceptual understanding of the teaching and learning of modern foreign languages amongst most PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* students leads them, at least in terms of their subject specialism and regardless of their institutional base, to begin to be 'educational thinkers'.

4.5 Recommended Reading Compared

The type of essential and background reading that different HEIs recommend seems to reflect the distinctive ethos and approach of courses. Scrutiny of course reading lists was very useful in an attempt to characterise institutions in relation to ITT provision and identify their distinctive features and to relate this to the student and tutor interview data. The analysis of recommended reading added further evidence for the characterisation of their ITT provision. The analysis is presented according to those three groups: 'competent practitioner', 'principled professional' and 'educational thinker'. There were, however, a number of texts prescribed by the majority of institutions, that may be seen as 'standard' works of reference for PGCE mfl courses. Notable among these are Norbert Pachler and Kit Field's, *Learning to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary School: a Companion to School Experience* (1997 & 2001), which featured on 7 out of 8 reading lists, a range of the CILT *Pathfinder*

series⁴⁸, (7 recommendations), articles in the Association for Language Learning Journals (7 recommendations for the Language Learning Journal and the subject-specific titles), Chris Kyriacou's 1995, *Essential Teaching Skills* (recommended in 5 course handbooks), *Learning to Teach in the Secondary School* (1995), by Sue Capel, Marilyn Leask and Tony Turner⁴⁹. Other 'standard' texts mentioned by three or four institutions were Eric Hawkins' (1987) *Modern Languages in the Curriculum*, and Ann Swarbrick's *Teaching modern languages* (1994). Overall, a wide range of works featured on 'further reading' lists, but 'key' readings were drawn from a much narrower range of titles. On the whole, relatively few theoretical works were cited either in mfl-specific or general reading lists.

4.5.1 Recommended reading: institutions ESE, ENW and EW2

The common feature of the PGCE reading lists of these three institutions is the practical orientation of the texts recommended. ENW, uniquely, provides a substantial handbook of selected readings for PGCE mfl student teachers, that covers both subject/curriculum and general professional issues. Texts are extracted from books, reports, and journals and some items are written by course tutors. The vast majority relate to specific areas of classroom practice. In addition, a small number of other texts are recommended, mainly CILT *Pathfinders* and several other CILT

⁴⁸ The *Pathfinder* series, published by the Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research (CILT), are practical guides for teaching modern foreign languages covering some thirty topic areas. They offer ideas, 'tips' and procedural guidance for teachers and are very popular with student teachers.

⁴⁹ The other 'standard' texts in the GPS area were: Moon, B. & Shelton Mayes A., (1994) *Teaching and Learning in the Secondary School*. London: Routledge/OUP, Kyriacou, C. (1997^{2nd} edition) *Effective Teaching in Schools: Theory and Practice*. Cheltenham: Stanley Thornes.

publications. Kyriacou (1995) and Child (1993), *Psychology and the Teacher* are the only additional texts suggested for General Professional Studies reading.

Institution EW2 provides a very restricted reading list in its student course handbook. Eight books are suggested for Subject/Curriculum Studies and seven for General Professional Studies on a 'core' reading list: Pachler and Field is recommended as the key text, together with David Nunan's (1989), *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*, and Swarbrick (1994). Besides these, CILT *Pathfinders* and a number of practically-orientated texts are suggested as supplementary reading. For GPS, Capel, Leask and Turner and Kyriacou (1995) are the main recommendations, together with government reports and three short photocopied journal articles that are included in the handbook. The amount of reading expected of student teachers on the PGCE part of this PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* is limited, aimed at guiding classroom teaching in a practical way. With the exception of the key texts there is little that promotes thought or reflection. No reference is made to any texts on Second Language Acquisition, or language learning theories.

Institution ESE includes a more substantial range of 'key' and 'further' reading that is related to each teaching session in both Subject/Curriculum and General Professional Studies. Chapters in Pachler & Field are cited for most sessions together with three or four key texts of a practical nature (notably *Pathfinders*, other CILT publications and Language Learning

Journal (LLJ) articles). Sections of Swarbrick (1994) and Hawkins (1987) referred to above are also included as key readings. Again, no reference is made to any texts on Second Language Acquisition, or language learning theories. For GPS, sections of Capel, Leask and Turner (1997), Kyriacou (1995) and Mike Cole's (1999) *Professional Issues for Teachers and Student Teachers*, are the texts selected for a number of key readings, together with Bob Moon and Ann Shelton Mayes' 1994 text, *Teaching and Learning in the Secondary School*. In addition, a number of government reports (notably Swann, Crick and Warnock) are also suggested as 'further reading' along with David Fontana's (1988) *Psychology and the Teacher*.

The focus of the vast majority of the background reading recommended in the course handbooks of these three institutions are recent texts that are orientated towards the requirements of the national curriculum for teacher training and QTS standards and school experience, rather than an engagement with critical ideas about education, the curriculum or teaching and learning. The choice of texts also reflects a particular view of what student teachers need to know and what is useful to them during their initial training period: a view that seeks to develop competent practitioners.

4.5.2 Recommended reading: institutions EC, EE ENE and EM

This group of institutions all recommend a number of theoretically-orientated texts to their student teachers as well as some titles in common with institutions ESE, EW2 and ENW. Institution EC featured the longest reading lists for both general and subject/curriculum studies. MFL-specific

reading was divided into 10 items for 'introductory reading' and a long list of suggested further reading. On the whole, individual chapters or short sections of chapters had been pre-selected to accompany particular areas of the subject/curriculum programme.

The 'core' textbook was Pachler and Field (2001), but besides this, various chapters of Grauberg's (1997), *The elements of foreign language teaching* a more in-depth work on modern language teaching were recommended. All the works mentioned in 4.5 above, *Pathfinders*, ALL journal articles, but also extracts from more theoretically-orientated works on grammar, second language acquisition, autonomy, psychology and mfl learning theory⁵⁰ were included. The distinctive feature of this reading list was the inclusion of 10 website references to official documents, on-line journals and other information sources which was largely absent from other reading lists scrutinised. For general professional studies, a total of 150 books were included on the reading list, relating to each area of the programme content. Of these, notably, were sections on 'Education: Aims and Purpose' (10 works) and 'Educational Psychology' (13 works).

The recommended reading in institution EE for subject/curriculum studies followed a similar pattern to institution EC although there was a greater emphasis on CILT publications, but included works by applied linguists

⁵⁰ Williams, M. & Burden R. (1997). *Psychology for language teacher* Cambridge: CUP.
Lightbown P. & Spada N. (1999) *How languages are learned*. 2nd edition. Oxford:OUP
Roberts, T. (1992) *Towards a learning theory in modern languages*. Occasional paper No.2. London: Institute of Education.
Dam, L. (1995) *Autonomy:from theory to classroom practice*. Dublin:Authentik
Batstone, R. (1996) *Grammar*. Oxford:OUP

such as Canale & Swain, Krashen & Terrell, Stevick and Brumfit & Johnson.⁵¹ For general professional studies a course reader of selected writings included summaries (written by tutors) of the work of Piaget, Bruner, Gardner and Vygotsky, together with extracts from works that related to the GPS HE programme. In addition, a number of selected chapters from the 'standard' texts cited above are recommended. Institution ENE states in writing the importance it places on student teachers' reading to support their professional development. Besides a substantial reading list relating to each subject/curriculum HE session, there is also a further background reading list for each course work assignment. Overall the recommended reading here is very similar to that of institutions

EE and EC, and includes works by Krashen (1983) and Lightbown & Spada (1993). In GPS reading is targeted to relate to lectures and seminars and is more restricted, despite the fact that this institution offers the most substantial general professional studies programme of lectures and seminars. No theoretically-orientated works appear on the list and most texts relate to practice or the school system.

Finally, institution EM provides reading lists for subject/curriculum studies that is very similar to that of institution ESE except that besides a number of 'standard' and practical texts, a number of more in-depth titles are

⁵¹ Canale, M. & Swain, M (1980) Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing, *Applied Linguistics* Vol. 1 No. 1
Krashen, S. and Terrell, S. (1983) *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*: Oxford, OUP, Brumfit, C.. and Johnson, K. (eds.) *The Communicative*

recommended, including Grauberg (1997), Krashen (1998) Macaro (1997) and Mitchell & Myles (1998). Recommended titles for general professional studies include, again, the 'standard' texts and a range of fairly practically orientated works. In addition an extensive list of on-line educational journals is provided.

The recommended reading in these four institutions for subject/curriculum studies has more breadth and depth than that of ESE, EW2 and ENW. Reference to original theoretical works is limited, but there is more of a focus on language learning theories and second language acquisition besides works that guide practical teaching. In terms of general professional studies, here, again, student teachers are guided towards more substantial, often research-based works of a general pedagogical nature and certain aspects of learning psychology. There is little evidence of any contextualisation of education within society, or of reading of a philosophical or historical nature, however. Nevertheless, the reading recommended by PGCE tutors on these four courses reflects a broader conceptualisation of professional knowledge that student teachers should be familiar with than is evident in ESE, EW2 and ENW that might be seen as encouraging the development of 'principled professionals'.

4.5.3 Recommended reading: institution EW1

Institution EW1 is distinctive in a number of ways with regard to the reading that the PGCE course requires of student teachers. Firstly student

teachers are required to undertake specific readings and make notes on them prior to their HE subject/curriculum studies sessions and this material is presented as part of their professional development portfolio for assessment.

The reading list provided includes 'standard' works, ALL journal articles, and all of the applied linguistics and SLA texts mentioned in other reading lists. Besides this, a number of subject-specific academic journals are recommended.⁵² CILT *Pathfinders* do not appear in any recommended reading, although they are available in the institution's library. Secondly, besides these readings, the course is divided into four themes that have related study packs that student teachers are required to work on independently, either alone or in small groups. Thirdly, besides an extensive reading list related to general professional studies, each area of 'core issues', the programme has a background summary some of which are written by tutors in the department, all of whom have a strong academic background in research and publication.

A list of further recommended texts in each area (approximately 20 works for each) that are wide-ranging, historically, and include extracts from some theoretical works as well as 'standard' texts such as Moon & Mayes (1994) as well as some 20 website references. Fourthly, as some aspects of the professional studies curriculum take place in school, resources/guidance packs are provided to provide study materials for mentors and students to

Languages, Cambridge, CUP.

work on together. Background reading required for both subject/curriculum and general professional studies in institution EW1 is significantly more substantial than that of any of the other HEIs in this study. The intellectual engagement with educational ideas that is required of student teachers and the research or theory orientation of much of the reading required in EW1 suggest that this PGCE course aims to develop 'educational thinkers'.

The reading required of student teachers during their initial training period is a significant factor in their early professional development and as the student teacher interview data presented in Chapters 5 and 7 bear out, has a bearing on how they think as future teachers, as well as, clearly, the knowledge base that informs their practice.

4.6 The theoretical dimension of the French *Maîtrise français langue étrangère* course

The *Maîtrise fle* course is offered in a large number of French universities. It is a vocationally orientated qualification that is usually studied over at least a one-year period of full-time study following the first degree (*licence*). In the partnerships established between five English and French universities, the *Maîtrise fle* is condensed over one semester between October and January. Student teachers, many of whom are recruited in France, who are accepted on the dual certification programme begin a short induction on the PGCE programme in September then complete their

⁵² For example: *System, Modern Language Journal, Language Teaching Research and Applied Linguistics*.

Maîtrise experience in France, returning to England to the PGCE in February until the end of the school year in July.

The PGCE and the *Maîtrise fle* are awarded separately in ESE where a single partnership exists established with institution FULCOL, but in the other partnerships, the two certificates are awarded jointly and it is not possible to pass one without the other. EE, EW2, ENW and EM all work with consortia of universities with which they have relatively little contact beyond once or twice-yearly meetings. These partnerships were established early in the 1990s in the context of a European funding project, aimed at promoting links between HE institutions.

The period between October and January, spent in France, is a period of academic study. The *Maîtrise fle* award is a vocationally orientated post-graduate qualification, which is equivalent roughly to two-thirds of a MA programme in England. As Table 4.v below shows, the qualification is vocationally orientated and prepares students academically to teach French as a foreign language in a variety of settings either in France or abroad although it is in no way a training course for teaching. In this way it represents a complement to the PGCE course as it offers a greater depth of academic knowledge of the teaching and learning of French and has a broader focus than the secondary school age range. Chapters 6 and 7, reported on the empirical data gathered from PGCE tutors and student teachers involved in four joint programmes provide insights into their perceptions of the how the *Maîtrise fle* studies contribute to the professional

and theoretical knowledge and understanding of future teachers of French in England.

As may be seen in Table 4.v, a comparison between a sample of three courses shows a common structural framework that is government imposed, but which leaves the providing institution with a broad scope for interpretation and adaptation to local interests and needs. The colour highlighting indicates modules of similarity within a broad prescribed framework. The comparison between the content of courses in Table 4.v illustrates the academic dimension that the *Maîtrise fle* adds to the preparation of mfl teachers that is not available within PGCE. The element of practical experience for PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers is covered by the PGCE course.

FULCOL: 6 units - 400hrs + 100 hrs practical exp.	FL: 5 units - 400 hrs + 100 hrs practical exp.	FA: 6 units - 350 hrs + 100 hrs practical exp.
1. Cultural Anthropology: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hist. Of ideas 18c-pres. Fr. & francophone lit. Socio-cult. Approaches to contemp. Culture French politics & soc. cult. Dev. since 1945 	1. Science of Language <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Grammar Syntax Structural linguistics Options (verbal interaction, semiotics, desc. of lang., lexicology, sociolinguistics) 	1. Foundation disciplines of ed. & didactics of FLE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Current trends Psychopedagogical approaches Child & adult learning Didactics of <i>fle</i>
2. Language & Culture <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dev. in FLE didactics Assessment (theoretical perspectives) Methodological & didactic approaches to oral & written work Intercultural pedagogy 	2. Anthropology - intercultural issues <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Culture & FLE Symbolic texts 	2. Methodology in FLE teaching <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oral activities Analysis of text books Critique of <i>fle</i> curriculum Written work, spelling Use of multi-media in FLE
3. New Technologies & Independent Learning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Theoretical & technological aspects ICT & education 	3. Didactics in oral comm. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysis of video & sound recordings Error analysis 	3. ICT and teaching FLE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Intro to ICT research Use of multimedia in <i>fle</i>
4. Linguistics & Communication <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provincial & local press New modes of comm. 	4. Pedagogical Practices <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relationship of ped. To practice Specificity of teaching <i>fle</i> Learning from images CALL 	4. Influence of Science of Language <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Current theoretical persp. (structural ling. Pragmatics, ethnoling.) Analysis of discourse of teaching of <i>fle</i> Syntactic & lexical perspectives
5. Web project & Analysis of video materials <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identification of learner needs Creating learning materials Adapting web materials for t & l <i>fle</i> Analysis of video materials Video project for I.l. Role of teacher in ICT 	5. Ethnology & Didactics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teaching FLE Anthropology & ethnography - immigration Lang. & culture Acculturation School/soc. relations Politics & immigration Didactics of <i>fle</i> Intercultural education 	5. Cultural Anthropology of France & Francophone Countries <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acq. Of cultural competence in <i>fle</i> Francophone literature Option: Culture & European cinema French Literature History of theatre History of Art
6. Professional Mobility <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preparation for practical exp. Practical experience ⁵³ 	Practical experience	6. Linguistics & Educational Policy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysis of <i>fle</i> contexts National, regional ed. Policies Comparative education <i>fle</i> abroad
		Practical work experience: 1 - 9 months

Table 4.v : The *Maitrise fle* Programmes in 3 French Universities

The course content is of an academic nature that requires the study of theoretical aspects of second language learning and related areas. A substantial amount of reading is required for each module of the courses and these are all of an academic nature, ranging from texts on didactics, second language acquisition, the psychology of learning, language and culture and linguistics to history, literature and social theory. On the whole, the form the *Maîtrise fle* courses take is traditional lectures, although student teachers reported in their interviews that some lecturers adopted a seminar style of teaching.

4.7 A contrasting example of approaches to initial teacher training: the 2nd year of the French *CAPES d'anglais* course

The format of *IUFM* initial teacher training is explained and examined in Chapter 3. The purpose of examining the content of specific courses is to find identify what, if any, the effect of a less prescriptive framework of training has on course content and implementation and given the 'professionalisation' mission (Bourdoncle 1993) of *IUFMs*, whether they are of a practical rather than theoretical orientation. The study of the sample of *CAPES* courses chosen for this research has not led to a similar characterisation as has been made of HEIs in England. Rather, the following examination of courses, together with the analysis undertaken in Chapter 3 of this study suggests that *IUFMs* are still in the process of developing institutional identities. On that basis, at the present time, 'competent professional' as a description that falls between 'competent

practitioner' and 'principled professional' is an appropriate description of the type of teachers that all the French institutions studied here seek to develop.

All IUFM training programmes, follow the guidelines of the Bulletin Officiel no. 22 of May 29th 1997, which identifies the teacher's three broad areas of responsibility for which CAPES training should prepare *professeurs stagiaires*, namely to:

<p>1. Fulfil responsibilities within the education system</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • legal obligations of public servant • contribute to the development of the education system
<p>2. Fulfil responsibilities in the classroom</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • know subject discipline • know how to construct teaching and learning situations • know how to manage a class
<p>3. Fulfil responsibilities within the school</p>

Table 4.vi The 'mission' of secondary school teachers in France (B.O. 22)

This 'mission' is very similar to the four areas outlined in the Standards required for qualified teacher status:

Knowledge and understanding
Planning teaching and classroom Management
Monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability
Other professional requirements

Table 4.vii Circular 4/98 High Status, High Standards (DfEE)

The one significant area of difference is the expectation in France that the teacher should contribute to the development of the education system, emphasising the idea that the individual is part on a whole national service. In England, the emphasis is more parochial: on classroom performance and contribution to the life of the school in which he or she is employed. Importantly, B.O. no. 22 also outlines areas of 'competence' within the three areas of responsibility, but emphasises that the initial training period is seen as an initiation into a profession and that *professeurs stagiaires* are not expected to 'achieve competence' in the way that is expected in England. This enables *IUFMs* to take a more holistic view of initial teacher development and places less burden on *professeurs stagiaires* to demonstrate and provide evidence of their 'competence' in every aspect of their teaching.

4.7.1 The content of the *formation disciplinaire*

Table 4.viii compares the *formation disciplinaire* (subject/curriculum studies) programmes in three of the institutions studied in this research.

FP - 34 days⁵⁴	FN - 20days	FE - 16 days
The first lesson		Lesson observation
Text books and l.p.	X	Lesson planning (3)
Comp/speaking		
Comp/sp. - PRL - pupil recording - pronunciation	X	X
Lang. practice & monitoring/testing	Speaking	Speaking
T/p relationships		X (2 sessions)
Class management & communication	X	X
Differentiation		X
Written comp/writing	X	X
Monitoring oral work -error analysis		Assessment
Video	X	X (2 sessions)
List/sp - (2 sessions)		
Visual resources	X	X
Written comp/speaking	X	
Question Time	Course evaluation	
Psychopedagogy - adolescents (4 sessions)		
Analysis of practice		X
School Life Module - roles & responsibilities		
New Technologies Module	ICT (3 sessions)	ICT (2 sessions)
Preparation for dissertation (3 sessions)	X (1 session)	X
Option: - Psycho-pedagy of English/oral E - Self-reflection/ presentation/ analysis of practice (5 sessions)	7 SESSIONS ARE LEFT TO GROUP TUTORS TO ARRANGE DEPENDING ON NEEDS OF THEIR GROUP	Teaching 'civilisation' (cultural awareness) Vocational English

Table 4.vi Contents of CAPES d'Anglais programmes in 3 French IUFMs⁵⁵

Perhaps the most striking thing about these three programmes, is firstly the similarity of content between the French *IUFMs*. Secondly, there is a good deal of similarity to PGCE subject/curriculum programmes. Despite what is often seen as a confusion of competing ideas at the level of research and theory-building about effective second language acquisition and methodology, at the point at which those ideas are transmitted to future

⁵⁴ The IUFM course at FC does not offer a discreet *formation générale professionnelle* (GPS) programme. This accounts for the greater number of days' training compared with the other institutions.

⁵⁵ It was only possible to obtain course documentation that included course content for the *formation disciplinaire* (subject/curriculum studies) from three of the four IUFMs studied.

teachers, there seems to be a large measure of consensus. Equally, from the English side of the Channel, modern foreign languages teaching in France, is seen still as being based on a traditional grammar/translation methodology. The evidence of this research is that at the level of initial teacher training, there is not a great disparity of approach in language teaching methodology between the two countries.

The similarity between session titles of the *formation disciplinaire* and the PGCE subject/curriculum programmes studied here is followed through into the content and format of individual sessions. The *IUFM* training sessions observed for this study in FC, FN and FE⁵⁶ like those observed in England combine tutor presentations of a topic area, student teacher presentations, group discussions, small-group tasks with feedback and a sharing of student teacher experiences. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the methodological approach adopted in both countries. However, there are two significant differences between the *CAPES* and the PGCE. Firstly, the amount of teaching time allowed for topics in France is greater than in England. For example, in *IUFM* FC, a whole day was spent exploring the use of video in the mfl classroom. In this instance, a more in-depth exploration of the value of the particular resource in relation to effective language learning, linguistic objectives, and pupil motivation was possible. Nevertheless, the tutor's approach was orientated towards classroom practice, rather than theory-related ideas. The second difference is that of teaching style. The *IUFM* tutors adopted less a 'facilitative' style

⁵⁶ See Appendix 4E for a brief summary of teaching sessions observed in France.

characteristic of PGCE tutors and more a method of rigorous questioning to explore issues and develop knowledge. In the *formation disciplinaire* sessions observed, *professeurs stagiaires* were challenged intellectually and tutors were not reluctant to correct and put pressure on them to think and question. Student teachers took notes throughout sessions and were given few handouts. These two differences suggest, at least in principle, a more rigorous, intellectually demanding HE training experience in France than in England.

4.7.2 The content of *formation générale professionnelle* programmes

It is in the *formation générale professionnelle* (GPS) programmes that *IUFMs* in France address directly the three areas of professionalism in B.O. no. 22, in the spirit of initiation into a wide range of professional concerns. The two programmes studied in *IUFM FN* and *FE* included a 'core' programme taught in cross-curricular groups aimed mostly at examining educational issues. These included, the role of the teacher, professional identity, values in education, violence in schools, adolescent psychology, working in challenging schools and notions of citizenship; as well as practically-orientated topics such as classroom management, general principles of lesson planning and 'school life'.⁵⁷

The direction in which programmes have developed has been largely in response to the criticism from other educational professionals (Robert & Terval: 2000, *Les Cahiers Pédagogiques*: 2001) and not least, *professeurs*

stagiaires (Chové:2000), that *IUFMs* were out of touch with the work of the teacher and life in school. Since the late 1990s, there has been a concerted attempt to become more 'relevant' and respond to student teachers' immediate needs and concerns, hence the practice-orientated nature of the 'core' programme. Only one session observed for this study (FE) attempted to introduce the work of theorists in relation to 'teacher identity' and 'teacher's professionalism' (Charlot, Bautier and Rochex). The *formation générale professionnelle* programmes studied here were clearly still evolving and exercised a large degree of freedom to experiment and develop. As the interview data in Chapter 6 indicates, tutors expressed enthusiasm and there was a feeling of dynamism that was not apparent either in the scrutiny of course documentation or from tutor interviews in England, where there is very little freedom to innovate or experiment within the existing framework. Innovation and experimentation was particularly apparent in the *formation générale professionnelle* optional modules that aimed to give *professeurs stagiaires* the opportunity to 'personalise' their training. Both *IUFMs* offered an enormous variety of topics (all 12-18 hour modules) arranged in themes, including 'Human Rights and Children's Rights', 'Understanding learning difficulties' and 'Laicity, citizenship and euro-african culture', 'The politics and sociology of education in the 19th and 20th centuries', 'Using local museums' (FN), and 'Outside Links and Partnerships', 'Opening up the School Environment', 'Developing Professional Competence', and 'Comparative Education: Russia' (which included a study visit) (FE). *Professeurs stagiaires* are required to attend 30 hours of these optional modules, as well as 12 hours ICT training and 18-24 hours on a further

compulsory module on *La Vie Scolaire* (life in school) where they visit schools and are given talks by a range of professionals. The *formation générale professionnelle* programmes studied here offered *professeurs stagiaire* a more rich knowledge-base upon which to develop their teaching expertise and exposed them to a broader view of education than is offered to student teachers in England, although there was no evidence that a deeper knowledge-base was established. However, both the issues of breadth and depth of knowledge and experience seem pertinent to the English ITT system.

4.8 Conclusions: the PGCE, *Maîtrise fle* and CAPES courses

The first point to make regarding the PGCE modern foreign languages programmes in England examined in this study, is their similarity in both content and form. This is unsurprising given the prescriptive nature of the National Curriculum for Teacher Training (DfES 1998) referred to above. The HE component for all courses is limited to 60 days' tuition. Whilst there is an appearance of institutional freedom to define the curriculum content of the training programme, in fact, the achievement of the Standards required for qualified teacher status that focus predominantly on the acquisition of practical teaching skills in the classroom, is the overriding concern of both student teachers and trainers alike⁵⁸ and it is this that largely determines content. In addition, Ofsted inspection criteria and procedures ensure a high level of conformity and homogeneity between programmes offered in diverse institutions. However, from the evidence of course documentation,

⁵⁸ See Chapters 5 and 6.

what most distinguishes one PGCE mfl programme from another in the sample studied here, is what is required of student teachers in terms of prescribed reading. This is taken to be an indicator of any orientation towards theory.

The examination of content, style and recommended reading also reveals some elements of distinctiveness in each course studied whether in terms of items of content, demands made on student teachers, interpretation of mfl methodology, close adherence to the requirements of the national curriculum for ITT, or the particular contribution of individual teachers. Nevertheless, there is broad similarity between the content of training programmes. This is mainly due to the imperative to train modern foreign languages capable of teaching the national curriculum for modern foreign languages in English secondary schools. However, the fact that a high degree of similarity exists with the French *formation disciplinaire*, where there is more freedom to determine the curriculum, suggests that there is also a broad consensus in terms of methodological issues and understanding of how languages are learned, that also has a determining influence on the subject-specific initial training of teachers that transcends national borders.

The comparison with France in respect of general professional studies is of particular interest. The aims and content of the *formation générale professionnelle* reflects the desire on the part of teacher trainers to respond to individual student's professional needs and to provide a 'relevant'

programme of training in a context where there is much more scope for determining curriculum content. The result is that far greater breadth of content has been achieved and a degree of freedom for *professeurs stagiaires* to determine their own training. However, this may be at the expense of achieving a depth of knowledge as *professeurs stagiaires* are neither required to read anything beyond what is needed for their *mémoire professionnel*⁵⁹, nor undertake any formative professional or academic written work during the second year of training. However, it is doubtful in the current context that the majority of the regular PGCE course work assignments achieve great depth of knowledge, but they do assist the progressive *professional*, if not intellectual, development of student teachers. The notion of student teachers' adopting 'intellectual positions' is one worthy of examining in the English context.

The examination of the *Maîtrise fle* course confirms that it provides an academic complement to PGCE that ensures that student teachers have been initiated into, amongst other things, the applied theory of language learning. The combination of the two courses offers a unique initiation to modern foreign languages teaching that combines both professional with intellectual development.

What student teachers learn on their courses, and what they read are closely related to questions of professional and intellectual development both of which are a reflection of course aims, tutors' expectations and

⁵⁹ The end of course dissertation - the only piece of written work required.

outlooks and the ethos of institutions. In order to better understand how individual institutions conceptualise their approach to their PGCE provision, a characterisation is offered that identifies three 'teacher types' that institutions seek to develop: the 'competent practitioner', the 'principled professional' and the 'educational thinker', and the 'competent professional' in France. Chapters 5, 6 and 7 will examine, among other things, whether there is further evidence to support these characterisations; that is, to examine whether course programmes have a differential and distinctive effect on student teachers' professional development and how course tutors reflect the ethos of their courses.

Chapter 5

What PGCE and CAPES student teachers think of their initial teacher training

Summary

This chapter examines and compares student teachers' and *professeur stagiaires*' motives, expectations and experience of their courses. A particular focus is given on their reading and attitudes to theory. The analysis of interview data reveals that student teachers and *professeur stagiaires* had high expectations of courses to develop their practical expertise, which they considered to be the most important part of their training. The characterisation of the 'competent practitioner, 'principled professional' and 'educational thinker' can be applied to individuals, but not necessarily in relation to the institution where they trained. *CAPES professeur stagiaires* were less predisposed to theory at this point in their training, than PGCE student teachers, but were more articulate about what theory is.

Introduction

'Clearly students' views do not provide the whole answer, nevertheless they are an important dimension in the debate (on the future of teacher education) and provide clues to issues that are perhaps too often overlooked in other forms of analysis or argument' (Furlong, 1990:88).

John Furlong was reporting on a 1982 experiment in school-based teacher education in which the views of the student teachers taking part were systematically explored and analysed. Twenty years later many of their views still resonate, either as on-going concerns or as issues that have been lost over the intervening years of fundamental changes in initial teacher training. Today, 'student satisfaction' surveys and evaluations abound, aimed primarily at holding the providers of teacher training to account, but student teachers' perceptions of the relative impact and

importance of their training on their professional development is perhaps less frequently elicited.

The interviews conducted with PGCE mfl and *CAPES* student teachers for this study focused on their expectations of the course (expressed retrospectively), their experience of the course, how they understood and used theory and how they thought the initial training period might be improved. The interviews took place towards the end of the first term of the second year of the *CAPES* course and roughly at the mid-point of the PGCE course. For the most part, there was a considerable difference in responses between the student teachers in England and France, as far as their actual training was concerned, but interesting similarities emerged regarding their professional motivation, concerns and anxieties. On the whole, student teachers in England reacted more positively to their training courses than their French counterparts, but the one *key* difference between the two sets of student teachers that should be reiterated and that is their different status, that is, that *professeurs stagiaires* in France were already civil servants⁶⁰. One of the illuminating aspects of the student teacher interviews in both countries, was their understanding of what constitutes theory in education and mfl teaching and learning and the extent to which they value theoretical perspectives.

As in Chapters 6 and 7, the French data are used mainly to inform the analysis of the English data and through comparison, to shed a different

⁶⁰ See Chapter 3.

light on ITT in England, in this case, from the student teacher's perspective. The Tables selected are intended to provide a summary and to illustrate the comparison between English and French student teachers' responses.

Further Tables are reproduced in Appendix 5A.

5.1. Student teachers' backgrounds and motives for becoming teachers

In France, as in England, all student teachers were graduates in their subject specialism. English native speakers were graduates of French and French native speakers were graduates of English. Although some of the French student teachers knew a second foreign language, it is not usual to teach more than one subject in French schools. Within the English cohort of fifteen interviewees there were four French nationals and one Belgian, which within a national context, is roughly representative sample on non-native English speakers, although the proportion obviously varies from institution to institution. This reflects the increasing trend in England to attract foreign nationals into modern language teaching due partly to the decline in numbers of young people studying modern foreign languages at university and partly to the failure to attract linguists into teaching.

Tables⁶¹ 5.i and 5.ii summarise the background and the motives for entering teaching of both groups.

⁶¹ The numbers in brackets in the Tables denote the number of times similar comments were made by different respondents.

BACKGROUND	MOTIVES
University degree (15)	Always loved languages (7)
M.A. (2)	Likes young people (6)
Licence + Maîtrise (1)	Teachers in family (2)
LLB (1)	'Vocation' (2)
Career change (2)	Get NQT status (1)
Belgian national (1)	
French nationals (4)	
Previous teaching experience (2)	
Foreign Language Assistant (2)	

**Table 5.i. Student teachers' backgrounds and motives
England**

BACKGROUND	MOTIVES
Licence (13)	Always loved languages (5)
Licence + Maîtrise (2)	Likes young people (3)
DEA (Diplôme des Etudes Approfondies) - taught M.Phil equiv. (1)	Get qualified in France (English national) (1)
Previous teaching exp. (1)	Admired own teacher of English (1)
Foreign Language Assistant (5)	Teachers in family (1)
	Desire to share knowledge (2)
	Persuaded by a friend (1)

Table 5.ii Student teachers' backgrounds and motives France

In terms of previous qualifications both groups are almost identical, although more French student teachers had previously spent a year in England as Foreign Language Assistants (FLAs). The only notable difference between French and English student teachers is that two from the English group were mature students for whom teaching was a career change, whilst all the French participants were starting out in their working lives.

It is not unusual to see a narrow range of motives reflected in the group of English interviewees. The combination of a 'love of languages' and an interest and liking for young people would seem essential prerequisites for being a teacher. Nor is it surprising to note that their motives are shared by French student teachers. Other aspects of commonality emerged in student teacher interviews that point to aspects of universality in teaching and teacher training, and these will be examined later in this Chapter.

5.2 Student teacher expectations of their initial teacher training

Tables 5.iii and 5iv show the number and variety of responses referred to in this section.

Practical skills (4)
Theory (3)
Ideas for teaching (2)
Hard work (2)
English school system (2)
More language work (1)
More school (1)
More theory (1)

**Table 5.iii Student Teachers' Expectations
- England**

Practical skills (8)
Classroom management (4)
Ideas for teaching (2)
New teaching methods (1)
Theoretical framework (1)
In-depth pedagogy & didactics (1)
No FGP (2)
No theory (1)

**Table 5.iv Student Teachers' Expectations
- France**

The marked contrast between what English student teachers and French *professeurs stagiaires* expected of their courses was a key point of difference which related closely to their experience of their respective

courses. As Chapter 4 has already indicated, the course documentation available to student teachers in England at the start of their PGCE course is much more detailed in every respect. As a result, student teachers in England seemed to have a realistic view of what to expect and what would be expected of them:

'What I expected was hard work - that was one of the things. Then getting to grips with teaching. Getting to know how to teach a foreign language, essays, PDP. I had quite a good idea of what to expect anyway because we got a lot of information before the course and those expectations have been fully met' (EW1st14).

Student teachers' early expectations in England, were more closely related to their subsequent experience of the course and as the comment above suggests, there was little evidence that these fell short of student teachers' aspirations. The interview data show, however, that this was not the case in France.

Student teacher expectations of their PGCE course revealed a strong orientation towards practice although an acknowledgement that there would be a 'theoretical' component. *Professeurs stagiaires* in France all expected a very practical orientation to the *IUFM* component to their course (14 comments relating to practical skills and classroom management), although two also expected 'a theoretical framework for planning and preparing lessons and setting objectives' (FNps6), and 'an in-depth training in pedagogy and didactics' (FPps2). What was understood by 'theory', however, will be referred to in sections 5.3 and 5.4 and discussed further in sections 5.5. Nevertheless, while seven respondents in England indicated a variety of practical expectations of their course, five talked of aspects of

theory and one of this number, a mature student changing career, expressed the wish that more theory be included in the initial training period:

'I thought there would be more of a pedagogical side of things, but I have learned a lot from the practical side. I think there is room for much more of a pedagogical in-put. There are lots of demands made on us during the year, but I think we are learning more about the job ahead than about teaching and learning' (ESEst3).

Seven student teachers expected a combination of a largely practical orientation to their course, including practical skills, ideas for teaching and an expectation of more school experience than they actually had.

'I expected the course to show me how to teach basic language skills, how to use resources, how to deal with pupils, how to work as a teacher, be part of a team, how to do reports, assignments, results' (ECst8).

Expectations in relation to theory were muted with the exception of ESEst3's comments quoted above and ESEst1, the other mature student teacher interviewed, who '...expected to learn a lot of theory that I felt I needed to know'. It is interesting to note that the two explicit references to wanting theory on the course came from mature students. As for the rest of the English interviewees, a strong orientation towards practice was more clearly expressed:

'I knew that it would be some theory, some lectures and all that, but I knew there would be, the practicality of the course. That is what I was looking for. Really I can't say that there are any points in which I am disappointed or I was not expecting' (ENEst10).

'Interesting ideas and activities was another thing I was hoping we would be given help on, and we have had people come in showing us different activities which has been absolutely brilliant and really, really good ideas. We put together a resource booklet, each person on the course is given activities work sheets which worked really well

and we put them altogether so we have got a really good range of activities' ENEst11).

These practical concerns link closely to student teachers' experiences of the course, where the vast majority found school experience the most challenging aspect of their training. Also, it is to be expected that practical concerns are uppermost in student teachers' minds when their training course is closely related to the world of school and the achievement of competencies, and the Higher Education in-put is defined by this (Furlong *et al* 2000). This is a consequence of a partnership model of teacher training where HE has been required to adapt what it teaches and how it teaches it. The situation in France is different because there is virtually no contact between *IUFMs* and schools and so, the *IUFM* on the one hand has retained a certain independence to provide what it thinks *professeurs stagiaires* need, but on the other, might be seen as remote and out of touch with the realities of school life. However, as Chapter 4 points out, *IUFMs* have been under pressure to adapt their training programmes, and the *formation générale professionnelle* in particular, attempts to address directly *professeur stagiaires'* immediate concerns. The 'remoteness' of HE is a well-rehearsed issue that has been largely solved in England by making quite fundamental changes to the content of ITT courses which in turn, the evidence of the data here suggests, has shifted student teachers' expectations of PGCE. This claim is considered further in relation to student teachers' experience of PGCE, their attitudes to theory, and most importantly, in Chapter 6 where the views of teacher trainers are examined.

Another point to emerge from this section of the interview data was that student teachers in England seemed more open in their expectations and better informed of what to expect while the *professeurs stagiaires* were much firmer about wanting a very practical focus to their training, but seemed less clear about what the *IUFM* would offer. They most definitely saw their first year as the 'theory part' and the second year as the 'practical part' with little relationship between the two, as we shall see later in this Chapter.

The second year *CAPES professeurs stagiaires* expected an almost exclusively practical course as they considered that they had done enough 'theory' during the first year. This point of view was clearly expressed by FCps12 and FCps13:

'In the *IUFM* I expected concrete things that can be used in school, ideas for discipline, how to motivate pupils.... Concrete, practical things and not much theory as that is not useful' FCps12.

'I wanted practical things, nothing theoretical: how to manage a class -like this morning⁶², how to prepare lessons, using resources, lessons that will motivate pupils. No theory, because that's a waste of time. Those are the main things I want to get out of it' (FCps13).

What they appear to want from their *IUFM* training is a combination of the more practical elements of PGCE subject/curriculum studies sessions and the sort of support given by school-based training and mentors in England. There was a strong feeling in interviews that they had 'done' the theory in their first year and now needed practical guidance.

⁶² This comment refers to a subject studies session that I had attended. A *professeur associée*, a school teacher and part-time teacher trainer at the *IUFM* had led an informal session giving tips on

As Chapter 4 shows, the traditionally dominant influence of the subject discipline in the French secondary education system, and in teacher training, is such that *professeurs stagiaires* appear to be largely unaware of the relevance or even existence of the greater part of general educational theory, and to some extent, the applied theory of modern languages. In England, student teachers are generally well informed of the content of their PGCE course even before they start. They know that they are embarking on a heavily prescribed 'training package' with Standards to achieve. This may mean that they tailor their expectations to what they know is on offer, and may make them more compliant in the way that they experience and respond to their training.

5.3 Student teacher and *professeur stagiaire* experiences of PGCE and CAPES courses

Furlong *et al* (2000) writing about the second phase of the MOTE study, note that researching student teacher experiences are difficult in that they have only their specific experience to draw on and have no historical sense of the changing nature of provision. They add that we need to treat student teacher's views of 'quality' with caution. These are very important points to bear in mind. However, the purpose of exploring student teachers' experience of ITT for this study, was to gain further insights into their perceptions of the relative importance of different parts of their training and where they felt they were gaining the most benefit. In the context of the interviews as a whole, this data relating to their experiences, contributed to

classroom management, relating anecdotes from her own experience and giving advice to *professeurs stagiaires* on their discipline problems.

building a picture of what sort of professional emerges from the PGCE and *CAPES* experience.

The data in this section have been divided into 'positive' comments and 'criticisms' of the training experience. The spectrum of positive comments are then further broken down in relation to areas of questioning about what were the most interesting and most useful aspects of the training course. A further category of 'overall' comments was extracted from the interview data as Tables 5.v and 5.vi indicate. Critical comments fell into three categories, pertaining to Higher Education, school and again 'general'. The question, 'What is the most challenging part of your training programme?' was interpreted by some interviewees as 'challenging' in a positive sense, and by others as 'difficulties'. Responses to this question have therefore been incorporated appropriately into the 'positive' or 'critical' tables rather than remaining a discreet category.

The French and English data is presented separately in this section because, as Tables 5.v and 5.vi indicate, there was a significant contrast between the two sets of interviews which is best examined separately in order to draw out key analytical points.

5.3.1 The English experience – positive views

GENERAL	MOST INTERESTING	MOST USEFUL
Coherence/links/ good balance (12)	School experience (10)	Subject studies (5)
Practical orientation of HE (4)	Subject Studies (3)	School experience (3)
GPS valuable (3)	All aspects (1)	All parts of course (2)
Mentor support (3)	HE - ideas (1)	
Theory (2)		
Very intensive (2)		
Good support (1)		
Time to discuss in HE (1)		
Written Assignments valuable (1)		
SS gives theory (1)		
Learn from practice (1)		
Gradual development (1)		

Table 5.v Student Teachers' 'positive' experiences of PGCE MFL programme - England

Student teachers in England were much more positive about their experience of PGCE than the French *professeurs stagiaires* were of CAPES. A key factor seems to be the different formats of the courses: the links between each element of the training programme (subject/curriculum studies, general professional studies, school experience), which, as Table 5.v indicates, received the most positive responses to a direct question about the coherence of the programme. Twelve comments confirmed that each element 'fits together', with one student teacher commenting:

'They very much melt together. Very often something that has been raised in a college session, suddenly one day in school clicks that this is what they were on about. That happens all the time, I find' (ESEst1).

Another student teacher made a similar point, showing that she was able to make the links between the principles she had learned in her HE sessions and her experience in school and at the same time reinforced the point that what the majority of interviewees valued most was practical teaching:

'...it's all falling into place much more this term because this is complete hands on practical, and its when you're doing things. And you suddenly remember, oh yes, that's what they were talking about last term... And I know I just love the actual being in school, I'm, you know, learning so much every day... There are links between them because the core studies that we had last term, was picked up in the core studies sessions that we had in schools, sort of talked about similar things every week. But being in school now, and implementing very much what happened last term (sic). So it does fit together.... But the actual teaching practice is what I applied to the course for really, that 's what I want to be doing' (EEst5).

and another provided some useful insights as to how he understood the purpose of each HE element:

'Each part plays an important role: curriculum studies guides tell you what to do, gives ideas and basics for teaching your own subject. Core Studies looks at the role of the school, the child as a learner, the role that the teacher plays in education. And the written assignments give you theory of teaching and about teaching your own subject. They enlarge your view' (EEst4).

Three interviewees spoke positively of the General Professional Studies programme, although others, as we shall see in the next section, were less enthusiastic about it. A total of twelve other general comments supported the HE role commending the practical nature of HE sessions, the opportunity HE afforded for discussion, the 'theoretical' content and the value of written assignments. Five student teachers found the subject/curriculum studies part of their course the most 'useful', and gave examples of the practical nature of the HE sessions. As far as subject/curriculum studies is concerned, HE was seen as a source of ideas for teaching, and learning how to do things. The following quotes from student teachers show three examples of approaches adopted by HE tutors. Student teachers from one institution perceived a gap between what they were taught in HE sessions and what is possible in school:

'It all ties in. We do professional development in school as well as in the department. But the bit which is hard to make the link between, but is really the fundamental bit is the curriculum studies in the department where we are taught about teaching modern languages and then when you get into school, it's very, very different' (EW1st15).

'(the university) ... gave us ideas of how to do things, play games or how to teach different things but then sometimes in reality you can't do it that way. So it is good looking at the theory and giving us ideas but quite often I have found it very different when you come to apply these things' (EW1st13).

These two student teachers had appeared to express well-informed, accurate expectations of PGCE and were very positive about their course. The latter comment also gives a clue as to what she understood as theory; an issue that will be explored further later in this chapter. The two responses here imply that HE should be handing out recipes for 'what works' in practice, not unlike their French counterparts. However, other sources of data from this institution, notably the HE tutor interviews, the observation of a subject/curriculum studies session and course documentation, suggest that this course has sought to provide as far as possible, an academic as well as professional challenge to student teachers. This is interesting in relation to the characterisations of institutions made in Chapter 4, in that there appears to be a gap between intention and effect. The 'gap' that students identified here an indication of the extent to which they have a functional attitude to their training that is informed by the requirements of the NQT Standards and their pressing, practical needs to 'survive' in the classroom.⁶³ The next two extracts from

⁶³ Tutors in France and England, were conscious of responding to student teachers' immediate practical needs. In France, they talked of *professeurs stagiaires* as being '*dans l'urgence*'.

student teacher interviews suggest a directly practical approach in which the tutor 'models' the teacher in school:

'The most useful? How to use resources and plan our lessons, this is really interesting. It is amazing what you can do with just a single picture.... EC gave us so many examples. They teach us how to use it, (sic) to get something from the pupils. On this course at EC, I think the use of resources we get is very good' (ECst8).

'(the most useful) has been my subject studies sessions with (name of tutor) where she has actually given us practical strategies. Practical things to do in the classroom with children' (ESEst1).

Another student teacher gave examples of another approach adopted by their HE tutor that brings 'school' into Higher Education:

'I really enjoyed the curriculum studies. I find it really interesting when they have brought in people, actual teachers and they give us ideas because these are people who can actually talk from experience, obviously. There was someone who came in for example and showed us what she had in her box.... and then another teacher showed us activities and simple things you just wouldn't think of I think with the tutors it is more sort of, they are obviously not going to come in and give us loads of ideas from the classroom and that because their job is to teach more the theoretical side of things' (ENEst11).

Although ten out of the fifteen interviewees said that their school experience was the most interesting part of the course, the majority of them had difficulty in deciding, and made comments like, ' All three have been interesting, but if I had to choose one I would say the school because that is the job really' and 'I think you can only learn to teach by teaching... although (in) the university part we have learnt lots of ideas'.

All the student teachers interviewed were positive about the way each element of the training programme linked together to support the development of their practical teaching skills. Only one respondent made a

comment that suggested that she was looking beyond the development of practice:

'I think being in school is probably the most useful to learn how to, how to teach, but to actually, sort of understand education as a whole, I think maybe you need some of the core, some of the subject studies to make you think not just about the class you're teaching tomorrow, but about education, sort of in a broader sense, really' (EEst5).

At a time when students are increasingly seen as 'consumers' or as Ralph Tabberer, Chief Executive of the Teacher Training Agency at the time of writing refers to them, as 'clients', their 'satisfaction' ratings are taken, legitimately or not, as serious indications of the success or shortcomings of their courses. On this basis, we might conclude from the research data examined here, that the current organisation and content of initial teacher training is largely successful. But as Furlong *et al* (2000:119) point out, student teachers have 'limited insight into the implications of their training on their long-term, as opposed to their immediate professional development needs'. We should bear this in mind when looking at the more negative comments student teachers made about their PGCE experience in the following section.

5.3.2 Student teachers' criticisms of their PGCE experience

School experience was referred to the most for its positive contribution to students' professional development but it was also cited the most (19 comments), as being the most challenging and problematic part of the training programme. Besides this, student teachers predictably and legitimately, complained of too much to do with too little time to do it in; too

much prescription and too much pressure. Specific criticisms of the Higher Education component of their training were few, but notably, mostly directed to General Professional studies (4 comments). One student teacher wanted more theory in the course, another felt that more consistent contact with HE would be desirable and another talked about the difficulty of implementing ideas propounded in HE in their school context.

Criticisms of General Professional Studies reflect a preoccupation with the immediate concerns of modern foreign language teaching:

'I think I am least happy with the professional studies side of thing. Sometimes it is difficult to see why we are doing this. Although it should work and be useful, it is not always that helpful having people from vastly disparate subjects together. It can limit discussion. For example because if you want to give an example from your own practice you have to be very careful what you give because beyond a certain level it is going to involve subject knowledge that by definition others won't have...You have to keep some aspects of the professional studies and make it a bit clearer what it is all for, especially at the beginning, it seemed to be about group hugs and serious chats ' (ESEst2).

Another interviewee found GPS repetitive and felt that a lot of the content was already covered in their subject studies sessions. A student teacher from EW1, which, the examination of documentation reported on in Chapter 4 reveals, offers a rigorous, relatively academically challenging GPS programme, called this part of the course 'a waste of time'. The fourth criticism was more about the lecture format that the student teacher found 'impersonal' with

'....no interaction whatsoever, and for an hour just to sit. I know obviously at university that is what you do, but just listening it is hard to keep concentrating for the whole hour. And sometimes you are actually given a Powerpoint presentation and they give you the handouts so you didn't really even have to listen because you had it there in front of you' (ENEst11).

These comments are a reflection of a very narrow view of a teacher's professional knowledge that is focussed on the teaching of their subject discipline. Why General Professional Studies fails to broaden their perspectives and engage them with ideas about education is important in relation to the role of theory and also, importantly, points to a fundamental problem that of student teachers' aspirations and expectations.

As we have seen, unsurprisingly, given that initial teacher training is 'an overwhelmingly practical affair' (Furlong *et al.* 2000:132), the student teachers interviewed for this research are very practically focussed, even in terms of what they value in their Higher Education in-put. However, what is more an issue in relation to student teachers' views, is that there is a tendency to dismiss broader educational issues that are not directly 'relevant' to their classroom practice. ENEst11's complaint about lectures is one that is often heard nowadays and the defensive response has been to abandon formal lectures in favour of the cross-curricular group criticised by ESEst2! We might expect a post-graduate student teacher to be ready to engage intellectually and critically with the content of a lecture, but perhaps this approach, once the occasion for students to be challenged by the academic leaders in their field, sits unhappily alongside a workshop-style discussion and sharing of experiences and practical ideas more commonly associated with professional training programmes.

The theme of the 'overwhelming' practical orientation of PGCE emerges in the criticisms and concerns that student teachers expressed about their

school experience. They were more confident than the French interviewees of their practical teaching skills, which suggests that the knowledge and support that they gained in school and HE was effective. There were a few concerns about classroom management issues, but the challenges of school experience were not limited to 'having to deal with children who are rude and have no respect for you' (ECst7). Lack of observation experience and time with mentor were cited on several occasions. Functional attitudes towards the purpose of observation were expressed as a way of getting ideas for teaching or to produce evidence for assignments.

The level of prescription on the course was commented on by two student teachers: 'There is one thing about this system and that is that you can't really do what you want' (ECst8), and a more detailed observation from another who found school experience the most challenging part of her course:

'... in the department they give you some incredible ideas that you want to try out, but once you're in the classroom teaching someone else's class they're not always very happy about you trying to do something different with their students or else sometimes it proves impossible because the students don't understand what you're doing because they're in a routine and it's a lower set and they don't understand how it works and it takes 3 or 4 times before it works and then you've wasted too much time. It's quite hard to develop your own style of teaching, most of the time you have to copy the teacher that you're with at the time to a degree. Although I do bring things in of my own and sometimes they really work, but sometimes you know in advance that the teacher won't like it, so you drop the idea' (EW1st15).

This student teacher, said that many of her colleagues were having the same experience, and she concluded that she would have to wait until she

was qualified to experiment, which she was disappointed about. What she highlights here is a problem with a partnership model of initial training where in real terms, as tutors confirm in the next Chapter, HE institutions have limited control over the quality of school experience.

Finally, an antidote to practical considerations came from two student teachers who were disappointed in the theoretical content of the course. The first found the course intensive, with too many things to do, and frustrating because there was not enough time to look at things in depth and felt that he was constantly 'skimming over things':

'I thought when we came on the course that we were going to do more of that (referring to a short GPS modules on 'Thinking about the Curriculum' and 'Thinking about Education'), and I found it frustrating, it would have been nice to think that as part of the course you were learning some of the nuts and bolts of the theory and that you had something to go back to rather than so many little excerpts, little articles here and there without somebody saying, this is the schematic, and this where you need to look and these are the general things you need to know. And it's not difficult to do that' (ESEst3).

This was a view echoed by a tutor from EW1 who thought that less should be covered in more depth.

Student EW1st13 was critical of *the way* what she saw as theory was presented:

'It was nice to talk about the theory at the beginning, but I think it would have also been nice to maybe, some things we did, maybe to have left them and then taught and then gone back to them having had experience and then going over the theory again: starting with some theory, teaching and then going back to it again'.

How might we characterise these criticisms of PGCE? They may be familiar issues to teacher trainers, but they are not just 'gripes', they raise

important questions about the nature of the organisation and content of ITT programmes worthy of serious consideration. The quality of school experience, the 'balance' between theory and practice, the attitudes of student teachers towards a broader knowledge and understanding of education as a subject area and a training programme packed with things to do and targets to meet but little time to think are inherent in the present 'model'. Nevertheless, the reservations already expressed about the low level of expectation and aspirations aside, from a teaching skills perspective, the PGCE student teachers interviewed for this research present a positive view of their professional development.

5.3.3 The French experience - positive views

The experience of *CAPES professeurs stagiaires* during the second year of training, presents a less positive picture. As has already been seen, their expectations were of a very practically orientated year, with the *IUFM* component serving to support and help develop teaching skills. These expectations were expressed in the context of having spent a first year engaged in academic preparation for a highly competitive examination or *concours*. In this respect, therefore the starting point of *CAPES professeurs stagiaires* is different from that of PGCE student teachers. In addition to a rigorous academic study of English literature, culture and language, they begin their second year with theoretical knowledge of the didactics of English and a small amount of observation in school⁶⁴. This

⁶⁴ See Chapters 3 and 4.

information should be borne in mind when considering *professeurs stagiaires'* comments on their experience of the second part of the course.

GENERAL	MOST INTERESTING	MOST USEFUL
IUFM Practical ideas (3) - SS	School experience (3)	Subject studies (4)
Peer discussions (3)	Literature study for CAPES exam (2)	School experience (4)
Sessions informal (1)	Resources (1)	Peer discussions - SS (2)
IUFM tutors interested (1)		English didactics (1)
Ideas for teaching		
IUFM tutors good (2)		
School and SS linked (1)		
Mentor support (1)		
Learn from mistakes (1)		
IUFM learn self-evaluation (1)		

Table 5.vi Student Teachers' 'positive' experiences of CAPES programme - France

As Table 5.vi indicates, fewer *professeurs stagiaires* commented on school experience as being the best part of their course. What they seem to value more is the support that the *IUFM* and peers provide in various ways. This may be partly because the *conseiller pédagogique* has a far less significant role in supporting their professional development. There is perhaps more reliance on support outside school, because what is expected of school-based mentors is much less than in England. It is a useful reminder that, overall, a greater proportion of time was spent by *professeurs stagiaires* in the *IUFM* than student teachers spend in their HE institutions in England as *professeurs stagiaires* only have to teach four to six hours to week teaching, mostly with one class, which they take over for the year (this was seen by two interviewees as insufficient). Nor are they obliged to take on

any other duties or responsibilities in school during that period or even remain in school throughout the school day. So although *professeurs stagiaires* valued the practical orientation of their *IUFM* training, the reality of their practical experience was less onerous and interview data suggests a more detached view of their experience and a sense that less of a personal investment was required of them. It is almost impossible to give specific evidence of this claim from the interview data, but there was a sense that the 'sink or swim' environment that they operated in meant that they had to be independent and more responsible for their own development. However, this meant that some were left floundering:

'In the first year, it's all theory - didactics but no pedagogy. Then this year, we have no idea what it's like to work in a school until we get there and we have to find out things for ourselves. I've come across so many examples of odd behaviour by pupils that I'd never experienced before and I have to work out myself how to deal with it. Perhaps if we had a proper teaching practice in the first year where we will be in the second year, besides the *CAPES* work, we would have more idea of what to expect' (FSps8).

The advantage of the second year *CAPES* over PGCE is that *professeurs stagiaires* have more consistent contact with the *IUFM* throughout the year, and the training is not 'front-loaded' as it is in England. Quite the opposite: 'thrown into the lions den', was the way one interviewee described the start of her teaching experience; and another confirmed that,

'... we started teaching before we started our training in the *IUFM* which meant that we had no idea what to do. We needed some support and advice before we went into school' (FNps7).

The initial induction period characteristic of PGCE courses in England avoids this problem arising. However, a less demanding commitment to school life and regular, continuous *IUFM* based training alongside school practice that the French system offers, has the advantage of giving student

teachers time to develop in a less pressured way and to enable a greater interplay between the principles of teaching and learning and practice. Moreover, although a number of interviewees were dismissive of the didactics module in their first year as being 'too theoretical', we should not ignore its impact on *professeurs stagiaires* as they came to their practical experience. Most were not conscious of the impact of this knowledge on their professional development (see FNsp5 below), but the fact that it was a significant part of the first year course and the subject of a one hour oral examination should not be dismissed as insignificant. Indeed some *professeurs stagiaires* had come to recognise its value, as will be seen shortly.

The French data also highlighted the importance of the links established between the various components of initial training, and their complementarity. The lack of such links and coherence in the CAPES programme was highlighted by six *professeurs stagiaires*. This was not of great concern to all French interviewees, however, and some had clearly made their own intellectual connections between the different elements of their training experience as FNps5 confirms in the following summary she gave of her training experience:

'The first year preparing for the *concours* was very theoretical and not much relationship with the second year in school. But the module on didactics, which was very theoretical too - and at the time, I didn't appreciate its value - now it's taught me to use textbooks differently and I can see I learned a lot. I don't use the textbook as a bible and I can look at it critically and see what is good and what isn't and supplement with my own materials. So now looking at it objectively, the training has been good, the didactics module has helped me. The *formation disciplinaire* (subject/curriculum studies) has been very useful - ideas that work in class and useful for

lessons. The tutor is very good and things have moved on from the traditional methods. The thing that has helped me in the FGP is discussions with other *stagiaires* and seeing that across the disciplines there are the same problems. At the moment that's the main benefit of the FGP - sharing problems and feeling that you're not alone. But apart from that, I'm a bit sceptical of the FGP programme' (FNps5)⁶⁵.

Satisfaction with the course was not universal, but the above interview extract go some way to encapsulate *professeur stagiaire* views, although the relationship between the first and second year of the course was, at best, seen as tenuous. Indeed, the above interviewee, FNps5, also said that, 'The preparation for the *CAPES* was entirely exam preparation and completely detached from teaching'.⁶⁶

5.3.4 The French experience - negative views

IUFM	SCHOOL	OVERALL
Needed IUFM earlier (3)	Thrown in at 'deep end' (2)	Lack of support (1)
FGP (5)	Need more teaching (1)	No links between parts of programme (6)
Poor quality IUFM in-put (2)	Most difficult (2)	School/IUFM clash (3)
Too much theory	Classroom management (3)	Student/teacher - conflicting roles
	Mentor	More teaching experience in 1 st year (1)

Table 5.vii Student teachers' criticisms of *CAPES* experience - France

The French data here highlight from a negative perspective, the importance of coherence across a training programme, the time and opportunity for student teachers to discuss and reflect upon their experiences in relation to

⁶⁵ At the point that the interviews in France were conducted, this student had not begun her optional module, referred to in Chapter 4 .

theoretical issues. Both the over-prescription of the English system and a 'sink or swim' approach adopted by the French have inherent problems. Are student teachers in England more conformist and compliant and 'moulded' as a result of their experience, than the French? Are the French less secure in basic classroom skills, but more autonomous in their professional life? But the dominant focus of initial teacher training is the development of classroom competence, to the detriment of the development of knowledge and understanding about education, teaching and learning, or the inherent separation of theory and practice. In this situation it is unlikely that student teachers in either country will receive the professional preparation they *need* as opposed to what they *think they need* or what government requires.

5.4 Student teachers' views on theory and professional knowledge

Gaining insights into how student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* understand the notion of 'theory', what the term means to them, how they would describe it were some of the lead questions asked of all the interviewees. From the results of the pilot interviews conducted previously, it was clear that responses to these questions would probably not provide adequate data. Student teachers were therefore also asked about what they read in connection with the course, whether they had been inspired by anything they had read; what, if any, issues had emerged during the training period that they had strong views about, or disagreed with and what they saw as important knowledge for teachers to have. What emerged

⁶⁶ It should be remembered that the preparation for the *CAPES* examination takes place

was a confusion about what 'theory' is. Their conception of 'theory' that was more to do with guiding principles that inform practice - and this was apparent in both English and French interviewees. This led student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* to imply, and in some cases explicitly state, somewhat simplistically, that 'theory' is anything that is not what you are *doing* practically and what is offered on the Higher Education component of courses. The data drawn on in this section provide further evidence of the very strong practical orientation of student teachers in both France and England.

It is also important to note that there was a strong tendency among some French *professeurs stagiaires* to confuse academic knowledge of their subject discipline with 'theory' and to refer frequently to their first year CAPES experience. A further question was asked as to whether the study of *Sciences de l'Éducation* as a theoretical area of possible interest to trainee teachers. One response was that this was a separate field of study that took place in the university and wasn't part of the *IUFM*'s work⁶⁷. Most *professeurs stagiaires* seemed even surprised at the suggestion, and it was clear that *Sciences de l'Éducation* did not figure in their minds as a relevant area of study to them in terms of their professional development.

under the auspices of the university. There is little, if any, relationship at course or institution level between universities and *IUFMs*.

⁶⁷ This rather categorical statement is not entirely true. There are *Sciences de l'Éducation* specialists in *IUFMs* - sociologists, philosophers and psychologists of education who have a largely research role but who contribute to FGP programmes. Some of the tutors interviewed in France for this study fall into this category. However, *IUFMs* did not want to replicate the often disparaged study of education in the way it has developed in the universities, but to orientate their work more directly to practice.

5.4.1 What do student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* think they need to know?

Responses from both groups of student teachers revealed very similar ideas, suggesting, contrary to an often heard, particularist view, that teachers' professionalism is closely bound to the system in which they operate, in the majority of school curriculum subjects, there is a strong universal element to teacher professionalism, albeit modified to national contexts. Good subject knowledge came at the top of the list for both French and English interviewees for five French *professeurs stagiaires* and seven student teachers, but other aspects of 'teacher knowledge' were held in common. Two people in each group cited 'Knowledge of pupils' and 'listening to pupils'/'how to develop good relationships'. Individuals in both groups pointed to various personal qualities and abilities rather than 'knowledge': those of patience, tolerance (French), good communication, liking and being liked by children (English). The following two extracts from interviews, one from England and one from France, are the most comprehensive descriptions given of the type of knowledge that student teachers thought was important:

'Obviously it is important to know your subject for one thing. You can't go into teaching if you don't have the knowledge. I think how you work with kids is important. How to have a rapport because you can't have a rapport with kids if they are not going to respond to you. Listen to them; understand them if they have problems and how to get down to their level. Sometimes there is a problem when obviously I have been learning French since I was eleven so my level is a lot higher than say your Year 9 pupil and so the thing is to bring yourself down to their level. And just being aware of educational issues in general and changes' (ENEst12).

'In order to teach English you need good subject knowledge and you need to be sure of what you know to transmit that knowledge. The most important aspects of that knowledge are phonological, grammatical and lexical and then the ability to turn that into teaching.

And for that you need pedagogical knowledge - how to interest pupils is essential. One of the most important aspects is how to select materials for teaching. Also taking the time to talk to pupils, developing relationships is becoming more important. You need to listen to them and be open to them. I think establishing ground rules with pupils and developing a relationship with a class is a prerequisite for good teaching' (FSps10).

This French *professeur stagiaire* gave a broader view of 'teacher knowledge' than the English student teacher who clearly saw the development of classroom relationships as key together with the ability to adapt subject knowledge to teaching. But where the French interviewees appeared to understand the need for theoretical underpinning, the English spoke more in terms of personal abilities. When student teachers' ability to articulate what 'theory' means is considered, it will be seen that a similar difference between the two groups. Only two other comments were made by French interviewees concerning aspects of theoretical knowledge that teachers should have:

'You need to know about keeping discipline, because even if you have good subject knowledge, you can't convey it if you can't keep good discipline. But you do need good subject knowledge and be a good pedagogue - and there's a bit of social worker in there too. A teacher's responsibility isn't just about teaching English, but also teaching them how to learn and how to develop as citizens. It's not just about teaching the subject. Respect and tolerance are important too' (FCps11).

There is a mixture here of observations about the teacher's role which might have been expressed by an English student teacher and an example of the change in perception of the teacher's role in France. This was also true of FSps10 above when she spoke of developing relationships with pupils as 'becoming important'. Another offers a mix of theoretical knowledge, and professional skills:

'You need an in-depth knowledge of your subject and of adolescent psychology (which we don't really do on the course). You need to know about working with others, relating to pupils, how to establish your authority. There are a lot of things' (FNps7).

As these student teachers reflect, the emphasis on developing teacher-pupil relationships and a broader social concern is becoming more important in France than was traditionally the case although the pastoral role of the teacher in England has assumed far greater importance.

Considering the heavy influence in ITT in England on learning about the National Curriculum, and statutory requirements, there was little comment on this aspect of 'teacher knowledge'. Only two interviewees commented on this area:

'the teacher needs to know what the government wants you to do and you are accountable to them and the parents' (ESEst1).

'It is really important to know about the National Curriculum and staying on top of all the changes. And also to know generally about what's going on in education and politics - AS level, citizenship. Teachers should know generally where education is heading. It's the teacher's job to implement them, but I should imagine that you'd always look at things critically' (EW1st15).

The above reference to having an overview and critical perspective on developments was one of the very few in any of the interview data. These two comments are also interesting in relation to the institutions that they were training in.⁶⁸ As we have seen the overall emphasis is on practical knowledge and abilities. This might be seen as a serious concern and is

⁶⁸ Institution ESE was characterised as developing the 'competent practitioner' and EW1 the 'educational thinker'.

not confined to this small sample of student teachers. Other studies suggest that a lack of intellectual, critical engagement has been a growing phenomenon (Furlong *et al* 2000; Whitty 2002). In his report on a case study of 4th year Primary BEd. student teachers' perspectives on the utility of theory in initial teacher education conducted in 1996, Holligan notes that the findings of his research 'demonstrate that theory is used by students in ways, which are arguably conformist in their implications and intellectual scope rather than ideologically radical' (1996:11). These studies also confirm the strong orientation of student teachers towards 'practical' knowledge in evidence here and this is further confirmed in the following examination of their perceptions of theory.

5.4.2 Student teachers' attitudes to theory on PGCE courses

The fact that student teachers undergo an initial training course that is largely practice-based, influences their attitudes to theoretical perspectives and their understanding of what 'theory' is. Most student teachers interviewed for this study seem to assume that what they learn in a Higher Education Institution is 'theory' and see theory as instrumental in developing practical skills, as the following extracts from interviews suggest:

'You learn a lot by doing, but theory really supports it. I take a lot of ideas that I had from the theory here and I tried them out in the classroom. Classroom management lectures were really useful' (EEst5).

'The theory that we get at EC, they say, you have got to do listening with them, speaking, reading and writing, but sometimes you can't do

that in the classroom. So sometimes I feel that theory, you can't always follow it. They don't teach you that (*sic*)' (ECst8).

'Theory? Something you...(pause) it is about discussion how to do something in practice. I don't know how to say it any differently... You can say things in theory: in theory you have to do this and this in the classroom or you deal with a difficult pupil this way or that way. It is finding solutions to the practical solutions. For example ways of dealing with individual pupils, how foreign language teaching relates to second language acquisition. I think it is important to have a basis of theory before you actually go into the classroom. Not too much, because I think it is best if theory and practice are integrated, that maybe you have done a bit of theory and then tried a bit of theory that you have talked about and see if that really works in practice as opposed to learning loads and loads of theory and forgetting everything...' (EW1st14).

These comments provide more evidence, borne out by the course materials examined in Chapter 4 that what is presented and regarded as 'theory' is actually principled guidance for practice. Student teachers did not really know what 'theory' is in either the sense of more abstract ideas or foundational knowledge about education, or the applied theoretical knowledge of modern foreign language teaching and learning discussed in Chapter 1. Throughout the student teachers interviews, has been seen, they present their HE tutors as providers of ideas for teaching, as inspiration for practice rather than the intellect.

Taken together, comments made about theory in modern foreign language initial teacher training suggest that student teachers have a sense of the theoretical basis of practice, but no clear conception of *what* theory is, *why* it might be important to them or *how* theory and practice relate.

Individually, they claim to see links between subject and general theory, understand that theory supports practice and must link with it, recognise that it is important to have a basis of theory before practice but think that it

is hard to relate the two, but provided no theoretical insights. Indeed, one commented that she had no idea what 'educational' theory was. Individuals emphasised that they preferred 'the practical side of teaching' and that theory was about finding solutions to practical situations. The following extracts illustrate these points:

'I've got to now go off and think about all this theory... But, I mean, in the end it's good for us to be forced to think about issues, like, em, sort of class issues and that kind of thing, and em, Special Needs in more detail. But that definitely for me was the bit that I enjoyed the least because it's actual teaching that I really want to be here for. But I know to be well rounded, you have to be aware of other issues' (EEst5).

'There always has to be a link between theory and practice because I can't believe in a theory if I can't relate it. I read some things about Skinner and Piaget which were interesting, but not very important because theories keep changing and I can't really say that I'm going to adopt this theory though. Still it does make you more generally aware about different trends.... It's definitely beneficial to have theoretical knowledge, but I don't think it's a good idea to follow them too closely ' (EW1st15).

'... So I think the college sessions have obviously sparked a natural interest - just things that have happened in school that you suddenly think 'I would like to go and read more about Special Needs', for example, but it is always a question of time.... I think that is what interests me most, how it relates to my subject. Yesterday we had a professional studies session about literacy across the curriculum and I found myself thinking during the session, 'I would like to be doing this in subject studies and seeing how I can actually do it physically in lessons'. So I suppose I automatically then related what we had done in professional studies to my subject studies... What theory means is that it is simply being able to draw out the best from every individual child' (ESEst1).

If the course content that student teachers refer to really was 'theory', then we might conclude that their comments are further examples of a simplistic understanding of the role and purpose of theoretical perspectives and their relationship to practice demonstrated earlier. However, if what they are

actually presented with on their HE programmes is predominantly principled guidance for practice and ideas for teaching, then some of the above observations make more sense. Equally, the dismissive comment about Skinner and Piaget is more understandable in a broader context where study of learning theories is fairly cursory, if present at all. One student teacher's way of expressing her understanding of learning suggests a very superficial knowledge of theoretical perspectives reflects more of a common sense approach rather than one that is informed by theory:

'I think the main thing I have realised here and that is really important is that all children have different abilities. Some are good at this and some are good at that. And even in one subject some are maybe better at oral work and some are maybe be better at written work and all of them have got different ways of learning. So that you need to have different teaching styles, because I sort of sensed it, but I didn't like putting it in words until I was sort of in here. - That some people prefer to learn visually and others prefer to learn written, others orally. And as I said, I noticed it in myself as well, but being aware you need to use all these different teaching methods to cater for the needs of all the different kids who prefer to learn in different ways. I think that is really important that they learn in different ways. Apart from that other theories are important.... But then most of the other readings we have are relevant and are interesting, but (.....) they are general theory and when I am writing my assignments I am talking about what I am doing practically so all I can do is really say okay, this is how I do it the same way or differently from the theory' (*sic*) (EEst6).

One interviewee made a distinctive comment about the prescriptive nature of the content of his course. He added that he had read most texts near the beginning of the course, but that by the mid-point he had been reduced to skimming texts and reading exclusively for assignments.

'We were given so much information, but it was pre-loaded. I wanted to know where it was coming from. (...) I read Macaro on the target language and older articles and compared different approaches, contradictory theories. And I realised that the course is based so much on one particular theory and that if you look outside, there are

lots of competing ideas and yet you are only presented with one way of doing things. I found that particularly frustrating' (ESEst3).

Perhaps this observation identifies one of the hallmarks of an initial *training* course, aimed at producing 'competent practitioners' as opposed to an initial *education* course. However, it also provides a rare insight that signifies critical intellectual engagement rather than common sense truisms.

It comes as no great surprise that student teachers found it difficult to express clearly their understanding of theory. We can account for this in part by the content and structure of the PGCE, but another significant factor is the amount and type of reading that student teachers engage in during their course. Four student teachers reported that they had no time for reading, another that she read only what the tutor gave out. Two read only the core texts, one only read what was necessary to enhance her subject teaching, and a further five said that they only read for their course work assignments. Thus, thirteen out of the fifteen student teachers interviewed undertook very limited amounts of reading on educational matters. Of the other two, one said she had 'read so much that I can't remember all the titles', and the other, a mature student had read all the books on the recommended reading list before beginning the course. This student teacher demonstrates how both college sessions and reading had helped in her professional development:

'I actually read what was on the list. Macaro - the Target Language Book, I found really interesting. I liked the Pachler Field book because we talk about it a lot and I kind of see it as a friend now. Although now when I revisit it, it seems more simplistic than it did when I first started. So I can see that I must have moved on in my thinking. The language journals I found useful and quite often I go

into the library to look for something for an assignment and then I get side-tracked and find myself reading something else that is interesting and not what I came in for. So I think the college sessions have obviously sparked a natural interest' (ESEst1).

Course assignments do require background reading, but this is often limited and is generally orientated towards practice. One student teacher commented on this:

'The assignments are beneficial because you do have to think, you have to reflect, you have to do research and I found out stuff when I was doing my assignment but at the same time I felt it was more added pressure. 4,000 words. It is quite a bit when you are doing other things as well. For the assignment I read Kyriacou, so that is quite a helpful one and I have also been reading *How to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary Classroom*. To be honest the only time I have read anything is for the assignments to be perfectly honest' (ENEst11).

Course work enabled one interviewee to feel more confident in her school experience:

'We had another assignment in professional studies about teaching and learning styles in assessment. So it was two aspects that I'm bringing in on this long placement now more than on the first placement which was only four weeks. Now, it's prepared me for the placement because it's made me think about these issues already' (ENEst12).

The most frequently read work was *Learning to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary School*, by Pachler and Field (11 mentions) .

Six student teachers said that they referred frequently to the CILT *Pathfinder* series which were 'easy to understand', and four had read articles from the *Language Learning Journal*. Besides three interviewees cited this Kyriacou's *Essential Teaching Skills*, one of whom referred to it as 'my bible'.

As some courses provide their own 'readers', some of which include extracts of theoretically-orientated works, it is to be assumed that these would have been read too, although no mention was made of this by student teachers in those institutions. Disappointingly, responses to the question 'Has anything you've read inspired you?' were mostly negative although one person cited Kyriacou and another Pachler and Field, but there seemed little expectation on the part of the interviewees that reading about educational ideas might be inspirational! Furthermore, very few strong views were held about educational 'issues' and responses here tended to be about things like school uniform or detention.

Although student teachers stated that they read for assignments, the selection that were available for scrutiny for this study, for the most part, had fairly restricted bibliographies. This may be accounted for by the type of written work required on different courses. However, most institutions set course work that includes classroom investigations and all expect student teachers to draw on classroom experience to a greater or lesser extent in their written assignments, as this student teacher indicates:

'I've read articles and things, and I've been on the internet and looked at things on there as well, but mainly we have a reading list and I look down those. But most of it to be honest is summarised in the Pachler and Field or the other one the general introduction to secondary teaching, *Learning to Teach in Secondary School*, and most things you can find in there, and I think it's only if you are going into a lot more detail that you need to read further. Everybody on the course I think has found that interesting. I have read the Language Learning Journals I read those for my assignment on grammar, but I find with the assignment it's more writing about personal experience and I think, you know, I need to back it up, but you know I think it's mainly based on personal experience, the assignments, anyway' (ENEst12).

Student teachers' reading seems consistent with the requirements of a training course that aims primarily at developing competence in classroom teaching and rigidly circumscribed professionalism which seems to promote an instrumental attitude to the theoretical underpinnings of teaching and learning. Moreover, the study of education in a broader sense appears to be seen by student teachers as of marginal interest or importance.

Nevertheless, the English context at least requires student teachers to support their practical development by a minimum of reading progressively throughout the course. Lack of time was cited by four students as being the reason for not doing any reading and two others said they would like more time to read, but found that all their time taken up by lesson planning and preparation.

5.4.3 Student teachers' attitudes to theory on *CAPES* courses

How does the interview data from *CAPES professeurs stagiaires* inform the issue of theory in ITT in England? Firstly, the data further supports the claim that a predominant preoccupation with developing practical teaching skills generates a very instrumental attitude towards theoretical issues and a belief that 'theory' should have a direct bearing on practice. *Professeurs stagiaires* commented variously that 'You do need a theoretical background, but practice is what gives meaning to theory', 'Theory is needed at the beginning because you have to have something to go by, but as you develop, the skills come with practice'.

It has already been noted that the *professeurs stagiaires* interviewed regarded their first year of *CAPES* study as 'theory' referring to both the academic aspects of their study and the module on didactics. They acknowledge implicitly, its importance. Like many of the student teachers in England, they seemed to regard anything that wasn't 'practice', that is, *doing*, as being 'theory'. FCps13 expresses this view:

'Our first year was not like PGCE in England, there was no practical experience in school. It was very theoretical, it was a university course and based on knowledge about the language, civilisation, literature and translation. That sort of thing. There is an exam on didactics but it is very theoretical and vague, so much so, that when we started teaching in September we didn't have any idea of how to go about teaching in practice.'

Two *professeurs stagiaires* thought that *sciences de l'éducation* should be part of their course:

'General educational theory is not part of what we do in our training. But we ought to do something on child development, adolescence, individual differences - teachers should know about that, but it isn't in our training programme. It is a gap in our training that could be in our FGP sessions but it isn't, but it might be in the optional modules, I haven't looked yet. But in primary training they do sociology, psychology and so on - they might be less up on their subject, because they have to know a lot of different subjects, but they have a much better pedagogical knowledge than we get' (FNps5).

This comment highlights some areas of theoretical knowledge that should be included in initial training courses and echoes similar criticisms of both student teachers and tutors on both sides of the Channel.

What emerged from the interviews with French *professeurs stagiaires* was that at the time of the interviews eight out of thirteen interviewees had read nothing in relation to their course or education in general. A variety of

reasons were given, including lack of time (3) and lack of interest (4). This response, although reflecting a functional attitude towards learning to teach, but it is important to note that *professeurs stagiaires* in France are not required to undertake course work throughout the year, but write a *mémoire professionnel*, a dissertation of between thirty to forty pages during the latter stages of the course. So while these interviewees admitted that they did not choose to read to support their professional development and develop their professional knowledge, they confirmed that they would be required to read a number of texts for their final dissertation. Three *professeurs stagiaires* said that they read to get ideas for teaching and one in particular provided some interesting insights and said that she did not think it was true that there was not enough time to read:

'I bought lots of *Guides Belun* to look for practical ideas for lessons, so that lessons have variety and are fun. Getting pupils' attention and keeping it is the most difficult thing. I read things that help to develop my teaching. I've also started to read about linguistics, but nothing more general on *Sciences de l'Éducation*. (...) What you read in books you have to interpret and put into practice. You can't always find answers to practical questions within the practice, but often need to refer to theory' (FNps5).

However, this comment does not exemplify *professeurs stagiaires'* attitudes to reading. On the whole, they had a more instrumental attitudes than student teachers in England. These attitudes are consistent with a practice-based course where reading, for the most part is to find solutions to practical problems.

5.5 How student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* would change their courses

No big changes (5)
More theory (2)
More micro-teaching (1)
Less practice (1)
Possibly a bit longer (1)
More on classroom management(1)
Change format of 1 st term (1)
More work on Nat. Curriculum(1)
More individual tuition (1)
Longer course but similar format (1)

Table 5.viii Student teachers views of how PGCE could be improved England

More practice (3)
IUFM training before school practice(2)
More theory (2)
More integration of theory & practice (1)
Compulsory period abroad for language teachers (1)
No FGP (1)
Less theory (1)
More practical work in IUFM (1)
More informed by research (1)
No changes (1)

Table 5.ix Student teachers views of how PGCE could be improved - France

The two Tables above summarise how student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* thought their training programme could be improved. One third of PGCE interviewees said they would not make significant changes to the course. One student teacher gave her course the highest praise:

'I think this one is really good. It isn't perfect, but almost. The school placements are really well organised, we are led into it quite gently. (...) I think one year is just enough because now I am already beginning to feel like a teacher. I wouldn't want another year of having to sit there and be told what to do' (EEst6).

There are inherent problems in asking student teachers to comment on their courses because they are only able to do so from their subjective experience which is not necessarily helpful to the forming of judgements about how to proceed in the future. Most comments made by student teachers in this study were of the kind that we might expect of an end of course evaluation - more work on the National Curriculum, more individual tuition, for example. On the whole, the comments suggest a shift in balance of activities rather than significant change.

There was little desire for the course to be longer, and little comment about the course content. However, some responses were more reflective and addressed directly the question 'What would be your ideal 'model' of training be?' One student teacher had quite clear ideas of how ITT could better support her professional development:

'I think if we had had, if the time had been used for looking at things like how to counsel kids, how to form relationships with them and how to be positive rather than negative because I know they teach us for example when the class is driving you crazy don't start screaming immediately because it is counter productive but sometimes that does happen and you do tend to do that and it doesn't help. Maybe if we were taught more how to cope with things like this. I think it would be better if we had longer, more than a year, if maybe it was a 2 year course and maybe if we started off with just like I said I like the fact that we were in school twice a week and then we were 3 days in the department. I like that. Just slowly getting into it. Then maybe have periods of a whole week or a whole 2 weeks of teaching and then come back to university and talk about it and then deal with some more theory. Maybe something like that' (EW1st13).

These comments draw attention to three key issues: firstly, the need for more time to develop professionally in the initial training period; secondly, the need to find more effective ways of enabling student teachers to develop their classroom management skills and thirdly, the need to draw Higher Education back from the margins of influence on student teachers' professional development.

Both sets of data from PGCE student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* regarding how they would improve their courses relate closely to their comments on their expectations and experiences of the training period. In England, student teacher expectations were clearly informed by what they knew in advance that the course would offer and perhaps this goes some way to explain the level of satisfaction of one third of the group. In France, *professeurs stagiaires* largely came with their individual set of expectations with little previous knowledge of what would be offered. The French group's suggestions implied more fundamental changes to their training programme concerning the 'theory-practice' relationship, and more specifically, the link between the first and second years of the course. These two extracts cover most of the concerns expressed by other *professeurs stagiaires*:

'There is a need to bring theory and practice together and right from undergraduate level so that you get an introduction into teaching. You could have short teaching practices in the second year of the *licence*. I really would like more teaching - with support of course - right from the beginning. And then from the point of view of theoretical knowledge of literature, language, culture, I think it was well done here - individualised so you could choose things you liked, so you stuck to it. But I only had one week in the first year of the *CAPES* in school and that wasn't enough, so I'd like more practical

experience. (...) Language teachers should also have a compulsory year abroad because it makes a real difference in terms of language and culture, knowing the country and so on. There were students with me who never went to England' (FNps5).

'Theory and practice should be better integrated between the first year and the second year. We shouldn't leave learning about discipline until it is too late because we're not ready to face some of the violence that there is in schools. We should also do some adolescent psychology to learn how to understand them and get on with them. The theory should be more concrete and have more give examples. We need more work on methodology' (FCps12).

Do *CAPES professeurs stagiaires* want more significant change in initial teacher training than PGCE student teachers because the system did not meet their training needs? Interview data provide some evidence that this is partially true. However, unlike ITT in England, the French system is not bound to a prescribed curriculum, to Standards of competence to be achieved that entail 'evidence' gathering and the systematic monitoring, recording and assessment of professional development that characterises a training ethos. Paradoxically, French *professeurs stagiaires* seem to combine a desire for training in classroom competence with a broader educational intellectual attitude. If student teachers in England have less to suggest in terms of how ITT could be improved, perhaps it is because, in its own terms, the system is effective in producing 'competent practitioners'. However, these terms are restrictive, and codified in such a way that a broader educational intellectual attitude and perspective are stifled and that, it might be concluded, strongly influences the way in which student teachers view their training.

5.6 Conclusions on student teachers' and *professeurs stagiaires*' views on and attitudes to their initial teacher training

In the second phase of the MOTE project (1996), 75% of respondents in Higher Education Institutions confirmed that they had 'supplemented official competences with their own "reflective competences" to "sustain a broader definition of professionalism"' (Whitty 2002:75). One of the findings that emerged from examining course documentation for this study, and observing course sessions in Higher Education institutions in Chapter 4 together with tutor interviews in Chapter 6, was that despite the imposition of national standards to be met, there was still some distinctiveness between the five PGCE courses studied. As was seen in Chapter 4, course programmes can be differentiated and characterised. The extent to which the 'type' of student teachers they aim to develop is actually realised is less clear. It might have been expected to be able to identify a similar distinction between student teachers on those courses: that student teachers might have more academically-orientated or more pragmatically-orientated expectations; that their experiences might be distinguishable; or that they might have a greater or lesser knowledge of and more positive or negative attitudes to theoretical perspectives. However, the evidence of any great differentiation on this basis is limited. It has not been possible to make 'characterise' student teachers on the basis of where they did their training. Differences in views and attitudes between student teachers appear to be individual and not distinctively influenced by HE context, although the sample taken as a whole suggests a roughly equal mix of nascent 'competent practitioner' and 'principled professionals'. There is little

evidence of 'educational thinkers' in the making. This data suggests, therefore, that the idea of 'going beyond the standards', as some HE tutors and some course documentation suggest, does not have a noticeable effect, even when HEIs are more academically orientated. The combined effect of extended time spent in school and the achievement of the standards expressed as the urgent need to develop practical teaching skills exert a dominant influence on student teachers and are what shape their views and aspirations.

CAPES professeurs stagiaires, on the whole, were less predisposed to 'theory' than their English counterparts, and this seems to be partly because they thought they had 'done the theory' part and now expected practical guidance. Both groups had similar views on the role of theory and a simplistic expectation that theory could be turned into practice in a straightforward way. This suggests that most student teachers confused 'theory' with 'principled guidance on practice' and this conclusion is also supported by the data on their expectations and experiences of the PGCE and even more so, of the *CAPES* programme.

In fact, what student teachers meant by 'theory' on both sides of the channel is similar to what the 1996 MOTE project found: that it is not theoretical knowledge of foundations disciplines, but 'something that is more professionally focused and practical'. (Furlong *et al*: 132). This seems to approximate to what Hirst calls 'practical theory', which 'formulates general practical principles for practice appropriate to types of

circumstance' (1990: 77). The term 'principled guidance on practice' has been used here to describe the content of subject/curriculum studies and General Professional Studies programme of the PGCE, as this is how student teachers describe their courses. Student teachers on both the PGCE and the *CAPES* expressed high expectations of their courses in terms of developing their practical expertise, but relatively low aspirations of becoming autonomous professionals. Neither group proposed sweeping changes to ITT. *CAPES professeurs stagiaires* experienced a less demanding, less prescribed and possibly less coherent period of initial training and have had the benefit of studying and developing their professionalism over a two year period.

The PGCE, on the other hand, offers an intensive, highly structured and regulated period of initial professional training which student teachers saw as coherent and generally meeting their needs as they perceived them, but that appears to limit the development of broader perspectives on education (Whitty 2002: 76).

Chapter 6

What PGCE and CAPES tutors think of Initial Teacher Training

Summary

This chapter examines data gathered from interviews with higher education PGCE tutors and CAPES tutors. On the whole, tutors in England, are more critical of current training framework than their French counterparts. The interview data suggests that 'principled guidance on practice' and 'reflective practice' have replaced theory in initial teacher training in England. Despite a concern to provide a distinctive higher education contribution to student teachers' initial professional development, and to defend the role of HE, the overriding concern in England is the achievement of the standards required for Qualified Teacher Status. Teacher trainers in England and France share the common concern to support student teachers in the development of practical skills. Tutors in England are more secure in their role and vision of initial teacher training than tutors in France, who are still developing a professional identity.

Introduction

This chapter is based on the empirical data gathered from some of the semi-structured interviews with staff involved in the initial training of modern foreign languages teachers in England and France. Views of the current models of initial teacher training (ITT)

- The significance of changes since the introduction of the 'partnership model' (England only)
- Views of *reflective practice*
- Views on the role of Higher Education in ITT
- Views on the role of theory and research in ITT
- Views on what an ideal model of ITT would be

In addition, tutors in both countries were invited to talk briefly about their professional background of experience and qualifications and their role

within their HE establishment which enabled a *profile* to be built up of teacher trainers currently involved in ITT work. What is presented here are the most significant comments made, categorised in such a way as to show the range and priority of tutors' concerns.

Because of the very different models of training in both countries, Section 6.2 on tutors' views of the current model of initial teacher training in both countries is presented separately with a contrastive analysis at the end of the section. In other sections, the French data are drawn upon to highlight areas of interest to the English context. The data collected in France is less focussed and less comprehensive than that collected in England.⁶⁹ Tutors in England, on the whole, responded more specifically to the lead questions within the framework of the national curriculum for teacher training. Tutors in France, working in a much less prescriptive context, reflected institutional developments in ITT within the broader framework of the national requirements of the *Bulletin Officiel No. 22* discussed in Chapters 3 and 4.

6.1 Teacher trainers in England and France - a profile

6.1.1 Tutors in England

The profile of HE tutors interviewed in England varied a great deal. All had at least 5 years' teaching experience in schools teaching mfl, during which time they had taught in at least two schools. As Table 6.i indicates, the tutors who had spent the longest time teaching in schools had the least years' experience in ITT. Equally, one tutor, nearing retirement age, had

⁶⁹ See Chapter 2 on research methodology for a full description and explanation for this.

spent most of his working life as a PGCE tutor, spending just five years teaching in school which was the shortest period of all the sample.

However, it should be noted that this tutor's extensive writing and research during this time has been mainly practice-based with a strong focus on pupil learning. Apart from this observation, one common element between the other tutors regarding the duration of their school/HE experience was that they all had at least seven years teaching experience. All tutors had experience in comprehensive schools. Two tutors were foreign nationals who had qualified abroad, but subsequently had spent all or most of their professional life as qualified teachers and HE lecturers in England. All had been Heads of Department for at least two years and three had been Local Authority Advisory Teachers prior to moving into teacher training. Five ITT tutors had been school-based mentors or had been invited to get involved in the HE part of the course by HE tutors, and this was eventually their route into HE. Others had gained significant experience and studied for a higher degree and had applied directly for a PGCE post. Several tutors had moved into HE prior to getting a higher degree; two stated that they have since gained a M.Ed., (but not all gave explicit answers here) and several had registered for doctoral studies. Only four tutors had obtained doctorates although it was not established whether this was post or prior to becoming a PGCE tutor.

All tutors interviewed had been working as HE ITT tutors for a minimum of two years. One was part-time and several combined a subject specific with teaching general professional studies. The most common combination of

responsibilities, was substantial teaching on PGCE mfl, visiting/observing student teachers in schools, supporting partnership arrangements with schools, mentor liaison and training, assessment of written work and practical teaching and other general and administrative duties associated with the course such as recruitment of student teachers, record keeping, reference writing, etc. Several tutors also undertook either general professional studies tutoring and support, various CPD activities or M.A./M.Phil./PhD tuition/supervision in addition to their duties as PGCE tutors. One significant point to note is that two tutors out of the sample had been appointed to their post without a higher degree qualification. One of these, however, was in the process of completing her MA in Education at the time of the interview.

Tutor Profiles - England		
Experience - school	Experience - HE	Qualifications
5-10 years (9)	2 - 5 years (7)	PGCE (on entry)
11 - 15 years (4)	6 -10 years (5)	MAEd
16 - 20 years (2)	11 - 15 (2)	
	25+ years (1)	MBA
HoD	Part-time PGCE (mfl)	PhD
Mentor	Course tutor PGCE (PGCE/M) - mfl	
CPD with other teachers	PGCE mfl + CPD	
Advisory teacher	PGCE mfl + GPS	
EFL teacher	MA tutoring	
Involvement with interviewing and recruitment of PGCE student teachers	PhD supervision	

Table 6.i: Profile of Initial Teacher Trainers interviewed

6.1.2 Tutors in France

Of the tutors interviewed in French *IUFMs*, three came from university backgrounds and had no school teaching experience (these were *FGP*⁷⁰ tutors), six were ex-secondary school teachers (either *collège* or *lycée*), now working full-time as teacher trainers. These were all *Maîtres de Conférence* which requires a doctoral qualification and is roughly equivalent to a lecturer or senior lecturer post in England. One tutor (FMt3) was a *Professeur Associée* which meant that she was seconded for half of her timetable (9 hours per week) from her *collège* to run the *formation disciplinaire* in English. Her qualification was the *CAPES*, no higher degree being necessary for this work. The policy of the local *Académie* (equivalent to L.E.A.) is to draw predominantly on experienced practitioners for subject-based training in the *IUFM*. This was not the case in the other institutions studied where school teachers were only seconded on a sessional basis. The three tutors with university backgrounds had previously taught in *Sciences de l'Education* departments in universities and specialised in educational psychology.

6.2.1 PGCE tutors' views of the current model of ITT

Unsurprisingly, tutors commented both positively and negatively on the changes that have taken place in recent years in ITT, since the introduction of school-based teacher training and competence-based assessment.

⁷⁰ *La Formation Générale Professionnelle*. Broadly equivalent to General Professional Studies in England.

There were over twice as many negative comments made than positive ones (see table 6ii below of categories of responses), but both sets of responses reflect in different ways, tutors' commitment to their work and the extent to which they have conformed to or embraced, to the partnership model.

'POSITIVE' COMMENTS	'NEGATIVE' COMMENTS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development/progression (7) • NQT Standards (7) • Partnership (5) • Mentoring (3) • Course Content - quality (4) • Improvement on former models (3) • Reflective Practice (2) • Focus on Subject Knowledge (1) • NQT Year/CPD (1) • Bridges theory/practice gap (1) • Retained institutional philosophy (1) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School-based model (33) • NQT Standards (19) • Course Content (14) • Length of Course/time available (14) • Quality of courses (9) • Prescription (8) • Comparisons with past models (6) • Partnership (2)

Table 6ii Tutors' views of current model of PGCE

The greatest number of positive comments about the current model pertained to student teachers' development and progression. Tutors commented that the need to identify clear evidence of progression during the course was an improvement on former models that better supported the development of future teachers who understand the basics of teaching, who have developed a deeper level of understanding about teaching and learning and who have developed a long-term vision of language learning. As one tutor pointed out, somewhat guardedly 'Within its own framework, within its own limits, it works effectively' (ECT8). It was felt in two cases that there is now more possibility of tutors working collaboratively with schools and for student teachers to engage in small-scale research projects, thus influencing change. While interviewees confirmed that some excellent

mentoring goes on in schools and they saw the role of the mentor as being more developed as they are better trained and able to influence the rest of their departments, nevertheless, they pointed to a great deal of variability in the quality of mentoring, 'There are mentors that have a sink or swim mentality and mentors have said to me this year that they can't see the value of collaborative teaching' (ENEt10). HEI/school partnerships were seen as being stronger now, as being important in the building of good practice and in strengthening the course. But it was also noted that 'The notion of equal partnership in schools which has to be a good idea, in practice is very difficult in terms of accountability' (EEt2). This was a key preoccupation that is commented on further below.

It is the shift towards a school-based model of training that aroused the most concern and criticism. A total of 33 negative comments were recorded in relation to school-based model. In different ways, concern was expressed with regard to the variability in quality of school experience in general terms (6 comments). 'Is a PGCE done at school X worth more or less than one done at school Y?', asked one tutor. Specifically, concerns were raised regarding the quality of mentoring (5 comments), experience over the range of the Key Stages and different classes (3 comments) and the amount of course time spent in school (7 comments). While the first two sets of concerns could also relate to previous models of initial teacher education, the latter comments relate specifically to the current model of training, where tutors felt that there was a lack of contact between student teachers and tutors (although elsewhere it was felt by one tutor that the

one-to-one tutorial support was stronger now) which promoted a functional attitude in students and the impact of the HE in-put was lost with students becoming 'entrenched in bad habits' and their pedagogical development reduced.

'The 120 days in school... changes the emphasis on what the students think to be valued, which is being in school rather than necessarily thinking about what they *do* in school in a more detached, slightly more principled - and I'm not going to use the word academic, but I mean *principled way*' (EEt6).

A preoccupation with variability and inconsistencies has become a major concern for tutors in the current competence-based training framework, where consistency of training outcomes, is a focus of tutor and HEI accountability (not least through Ofsted inspections). Feelings that HE tutors had lost control of PGCE in terms of quality and also the level of externally imposed prescription (5 comments) were strong. But the view that the theory/practice divide has not been bridged by the partnership model, and that there is a lack of continuity from year to year, was countered by a feeling that work with schools was much improved and an integrated approach was thought by some to have been achieved,

'Well I think the move towards school-based teacher education is a significant and thing and very, very positive. I've just always felt it a privilege, I suppose to work in either a local school or here on the partnership scheme. Because it is a true partnership - whilst there are always things you want to do to improve, I do think that we see it as an equal partnership' (EW1t11).

This comment, however, was from a tutor working in a prestigious institution that had been running a partnership scheme long before the one imposed by government. Chapter 4 identified this HEI as one that sought to develop 'educational thinkers' and it was evident that there was much less

of a narrow preoccupation with the NQT standards in its PGCE mfl programme. A contrasting one, comes from a relatively new tutor:

'I'm quite worried by the amount of time that students spend away from college and in schools, in the sense that, not because I think that classroom experience is a bad thing, it certainly isn't, but because I think that the quality of the experience they're getting is so much in the lap of the Gods, it really does depend whether they get a good mentor or not, that influences how successful they are going to be' (ESEt2).

The comments referred to above seem to express anxieties about pressures unique to the present model which, as has been discussed fully in Chapters 3 and 4, is characterised by a very high level of prescription and inspection which was seen by one tutor as 'the bare minimum in some respects, but very time consuming'. As another tutor stated:

'... there is a sort of almost competition between what we are statutorily expected to do and what we as education lecturers think is important. This seems to be something that is on going. I think the main developments really are to do with being forced as it were, by several government initiatives to deliver particular aspects in a particular way' (ECT7).

Good quality, in the way it is defined by Ofsted and the Teacher Training Agency, seems to be achieved, in spite of, rather than because of, the imposed model. This is revealed in what interviewees said about course content:

'I like to think we haven't in any way abandoned our own philosophy, our own approach to teaching languages, but we have had to spend less time on it in order to accommodate all the things that come under the 4/98 standards and the things that came before' (ECT7).

'I think in this particular institution because we have still got people from those days (prior to 1994) who would consider themselves to be sociologists, psychologists or philosophers of education, they will inevitably have an effect upon the nature of the materials that it has produced. For example, we have a core studies book called Key Issues and that is authored by several people who would consider themselves to be sociologists' (EEt5).

These comments relate directly to points raised in Chapter 4 regarding course content and institutional ethos. Both the above institutions were characterised as developing 'principled practitioners'.

Other criticisms of course content related to the superficiality of the professional knowledge that students gained, the elevation of process over content, the feeling that was much too much to cover and that the ethos of the training programme encouraged student teachers to expect 'tips for teachers'. Some tutors felt they were locked into a skills orientated, compartmentalised model where theory and practice are separate. These views are supported by student teachers' comments in Chapter 5. The idea that student teachers spend too much time presenting and not enough in discussing and reading is reflected in the observation that,

'I think in the past there was more time to talk about issues in a more philosophical, reflective way. Now there is too much information passing, rather than debate, discussion and opinion-sharing' (EW1t15).

The lack of access to books due to the extended time spent in schools far away from the HEI, affected the quality of written work student teachers produced, reported one tutor, who added that only 4 out of 25 of modern languages departments in his partnership schools had 'little libraries of their own' (EEt4).

The overall flavour of tutors' attitudes seems to be one of ambivalence and is exemplified by one observation on the NQT Standards:

'I feel ambivalent about them. On the one hand I feel it's very good to have criteria, criteria which are clear, which can be conveyed to

people being trained and trainers. Before the introduction of Standards, there was a great deal of vagueness about what constituted good and effective practice, so from that point of view it's positive, and the Standards are an advance on the competencies which were from the vocational model and applied very restrictively. But the ambivalence comes in to the way in which the Standards fit in to a performance and management agenda, where outcomes are supposed to be clearly tickable, clearly measurable. (EEt5)

One tutor commented on the value of having a shared language for all involved in the training process that the Standards represent, and another that it was good to have a framework to work within, both echoing the comment above. One tutor saw the Standards as enabling a 'much better focus on the individual, on what they need to improve' (EEt4). But these positive comments face a whole barrage of criticisms of the Standards, notably, that they are unrealistic for student teachers to achieve, that they represent a reduced notion of professionalism, and various critical comments concerning the collection of evidence, the promotion of a 'tick-box' mentality and the feeling that they 'haven't led to any consensus as to what is a good teacher'. As one tutor commented,

'You can find evidence really if you try hard enough, but evidence that they can engage with pupils on a consistent basis... I don't think you can prove that, it's impossible to prove that. I mean, it's entirely subjective what makes a good teacher. I mean, as I say, you can say, 'Well this person has got enough of the bits but can they pull it together?', I'm not sure.... (ESEt1).

This ambivalence towards aspects of the current model is the thread that runs through all the HE tutor interviews. There was a dislike of 'straitjacketing' and the 'lack of flexibility' which suggests a lack of trust in teacher trainers to do their jobs. The interviews with more experienced tutors showed an acknowledgement that some aspects of the current model represent an improvement on what went before and offered more

coherence to the training, nevertheless also seemed to reflect a sense of loss.

'So I feel that in the end, and research does show that sadly, the impact of what we do at the university is limited and students in the end tend to want quick fixes rather than reflection' (EW2t12).

Newer tutors with less experience in an academic environment seemed to have a more functional approach to teacher training when they talked about 'covering what was needed' in terms of lesson planning, classroom management and a knowledge of the National Curriculum. As one pointed out,

'By the end of the year.... Okay, they still have faults with their lessons, but by and large, you know, the classroom management is there and they know what they're doing' (EMt10)

But, echoing student teachers' comments, shortage of time has become ever more acute, with new initiatives introduced each year. Two tutors commented on key aspects:

'But I genuinely think, and I know I keep saying this, but I think that time is the, is the enemy, and that we are saying to them we want them to be reflecting and we want them to be reading and we want them to be analysing and yet we are saying, get the 50% solid teaching and get this paperwork done and do this...' (EMt10).

'I think we don't have enough time with them probably and I think in the end what seems to have more impact on students is their experience in school' (ENWt13).

These two comments reflect a sense of frustration that tutors have of being both the task-masters of their student teachers, charged with ensuring the quality of their training but in a much more marginal position than used to be the case. These remarks also emphasise the dominant role of school practice. All the above comments support the assertion made in chapter 4

that the achievement of the standards required for Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) is an overriding concern.

In summary then, the evidence from tutor interviews in England is that there was a high degree of critical awareness of the strengths and shortcomings of the present programme of modern foreign languages initial teacher training which they had to implement. But the data suggests that the level of prescription and bureaucratisation is burdensome both for tutors and student teachers. There was some sense of disillusionment with the system in that HEI tutors are responsible for the quality of their training courses while at the same time their role has been reduced in favour of school-based training. Nevertheless, an overriding feature of the interview data was the desire to foster the development of imaginative, knowledgeable teachers. This, however, was seen to be curtailed by the pervasive preoccupation with the achievement of the QTS standards.

6.2.2 CAPES tutors' views of teacher training in France

When tutors in France commented on the current model of teacher training, they did so more from an institutional or individual perspective than their English counterparts in that they were working in a much more flexible system as has already been seen in Chapters 3 and 4. They were not commenting on a rigid framework, but more generally on how the training worked in their context. The French interview data is not presented here as a straightforward comparison. Table 6.iii shows the main points commented on by tutors and from that I have selected a number of areas

that either are either a common concern, or that serve to highlight interesting issues for consideration in the English context.

Two common concerns of tutors in England and France were the nature of school practice and some aspects of the perceived attitudes of *professeurs stagiaires*.

POSITIVE COMMENTS	NEGATIVE COMMENTS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Course development (4) • Move away from domination of subject discipline (3) • Individualised training (3) • Shift towards student-centred focus (2) • Developing contacts between tutors (1) • Practice/expertise based (1) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Professeur stagiaire</i> attitudes • Domination of subject disciplines • Mentors (2) • FGP a waste of time (2) • Isolation of tutors (1) • Lack of collegiality (1) • Contested status of IUFM (1) • Separation of theory and practice (1) • Tensions in dual role of teacher and trainer (1)

Table 6.iii: Tutors' views of initial teacher training in France

Besides these, a number of issues identified by French tutors are of particular interest to this study in the way that they promote reflection on the English model. The freedom that institutions and individual tutors have to develop locally their teacher training courses and the orientation to individualised training programmes to meet student teacher needs, while at the same time carrying out the 'mission' outlined in the *B.O. No. 22*, was seen by tutors as a positive feature that, that is currently absent in England. They expressed a concern, along with their English counterparts about student teachers' school experience, and *professeur stagiaire* attitudes. The issue of subject disciplines versus general professional studies

professeur stagiaires' negative attitudes is an on-going debate that also has relevance to England.

French tutors were much less concerned with the detail of the quality of school experience than English tutors partly because they had virtually no involvement in their students' practical experience except as a sounding board for their problems. The lack of contact between the *IUFM* and practice school was only raised as a problem by one tutor in this section of the interviews⁷¹ who considered that it reflected the complete separation of theory and practice inherent in French academic tradition and also encouraged *professeurs stagiaires* to attach less value and importance to their *IUFM* training. On the other side of the Channel, even with a highly evolved partnership model, as was seen in section 6.2 above, HE tutors in England also felt that the extended period spent on school experience changed the focus of what student teachers considered as important. This perception was also borne out, in the data presented in Chapter 5, by a number of *professeurs stagiaires* and student teachers in their interviews. The school-based ITT initiative has already been referred to in Chapters 1 and 3 as being a politically motivated move to undermine the role of the university, based on the assertion that teaching is a practical occupation which should be learnt *in situ*. In France, the idea that subject knowledge is all that is important, still largely pertains. This is a fundamental tenet of the French education system, and the 'domination of the disciplines' is, as we shall see, still an important issue in initial teacher training there. The three

⁷¹ This issue re-emerged in section 6.7 below

FGP tutors interviewed for this study all felt that an over-emphasis on subject specialism gave teachers a very narrow view of their role that is seen by some as no longer viable⁷²:

'... the problem with the PLC trainees is that there is a very strong subject tradition which is good in some respects, but at the end of the day they don't make any contribution to other aspects of the job, or see anything as important outside their teaching subject..... like one of the trainees said this morning (referring to a teaching session I had observed in my research) "We don't need to ask all these pedagogical questions about pupils' knowledge, it's a straightforward subject teaching issue" '(Fct9).

This issue is raised again later in this chapter in relation to the role of the *IUFM*. What is interesting is that it is still one of heated debate and rivalry in France. Three of the subject specialists interviewed here were critical of *FGP* and tutor FSt7 went so far as to call it a waste of time:

'This 'general training' came in when *IUFMs* were first created and I know people talk about the importance of the wider professional role and cross-disciplinarity, but it's so vague, I think it's completely bad. It's bad because it takes time away from English. The things they deal with, like violence for example, should be discussed in a concrete way in the context of the subject being taught. I can't see any good in it and if I were re-creating the *IUFM*, I would get rid of *FGP* and work on a practical project.'

Of course the FGP tutors interviewed were very aware of the way their work is regarded, but see themselves as developing new approaches to ITT and as breaking down the traditional subject-centred mould. Tutor FNt5 was very clear about the need to develop the teachers' broader professionalism:

⁷² It is well known that teachers in France are not required to assume wider professional responsibilities to the same extent as English teachers as there are a number of 'para-professionals' employed in French schools who have responsibility for what we would call 'pastoral' duties. Nevertheless, it is widely recognised that schools and school students have changed considerably over a period of time, that teachers must adapt to changing circumstances and can no longer rely on their traditional 'natural authority' in the classroom. The FGP programmes in the 2nd year CAPES were designed to address broader professional issues such as classroom management, violence in schools, pupil disaffection, social exclusion, citizenship etc.

'What we call general professional training is about the wider role of the teacher, it's about the social aspects of the classroom, citizenship, what it means to teach in difficult schools. The official aim of this type of training is to help teachers to build their professionalism, which means integrating knowledge about teaching and going beyond their subject disciplines. The sort of things we work on are pupils' experience and needs, on the education system, the role of the teacher, on the social aspects of education as well as teaching. The whole point of *IUFMs* is to enable teachers to develop their professionalism'.

In England, the in-depth study of education as a form of knowledge has been considerably watered-down, if not entirely removed in recent years. In France, it has never been regarded as an appropriate area of study for trainee teachers nor has it penetrated the dominance of the subject discipline. So England and France have a similar situation in that the general professional development of teachers is confined to a limited, largely technical introduction to school life and initiation into respective education systems; what Bourdoncle (1993) calls 'socialisation'. Tutor FCt9 reflected this view most explicitly when she stated that the present model of teacher training in France is a socialisation process where new entrants to the profession learn and create their identity as a young teacher and become part of a professional body.

The value and purpose of general educational theory as perceived by tutors links to the attitudes of student teachers and *professeurs stagiaires* in both a particular and general way. The broader issue is the one that this research examines: the ways in which, at the level of society, the prevailing ethos dictates policy and the influence this has on the individual.

In the particular sense, and this point also relates to subject/curriculum studies, tutors in France observed that trainee teachers want 'recipes'⁷³ for teaching to enable them to survive their practical teaching experience and although they claim to resist this approach, nevertheless, they respond to this need⁷⁴ and thereby reinforce *professeurs stagiaires'* functional attitudes.

There was a complete rejection of the lecture or *cours magistral* by tutors,

'...I am strongly criticised if I give a lecture, because that isn't what they want, because they have immediate problems that they need help with because they have a class every week....(sic). On the other hand if I just run a discussion group they are frustrated and that doesn't work either. There is always a tension because you have to create a training situation and put in place what I call multi-level structures for investigating problems' (FNT4).

Based on how tutors talked about their teaching, what seems to be a common approach in IUFM sessions is to take a problem recently experienced in the classroom, examine it, and try to extract general principles and suggest a solution. However, the same tutor made a further telling point:

'... I have lots of knowledge of the sociology of reading and psychology of reading that I could introduce to students, but if I go too far they switch off. So it's a balancing act. But one of the criticisms of IUFMs that is now made is that we have replaced tutors' waffle by trainees' waffle and I don't know what's worse!'

Another tutor echoed this sentiment:

' There is absolutely no possibility of lecturing to them, they don't want to listen to me. I discussed the problem with colleagues and now don't do any lecturing and I've cut out any theoretical contribution. We've (a small group of colleagues) organised our

⁷³ The word 'recettes' was frequently used by tutors in France and 'tips for teaching' was a phrase coined in England.

⁷⁴ See observation and course content data presented in Chapter 4.

sessions around themes which we ask students to reflect on in relation to their own practice' (FSt8).

As someone recently recruited from a university *Sciences de l'Education* department, this tutor was finding it difficult to make the transition from a research and theory-focussed role to one where practical knowledge was what *professeurs stagiaires* most valued and one in which she felt ill-at-ease because she had no secondary school experience. She was having to completely re-think her approach and her dilemma is pertinent to teacher training on both sides of the Channel:

'You can't bring theoretical ideas in straight away, you have to start at ground level and move on to ideas and thinking about general problems, looking at what has been written. Arrive at theory and I realise that it's not easy. Sometimes things stay in the particular context, it's difficult to get away from the particular example or situation. I need to work on that and at the moment, I can't see where or how to do it. I'm going to have to work on that'.

These comments bear out the point made in Chapter 3 that *IUFMs* are still in the process of developing their distinctive identity and that there is a tension between tutors' own beliefs and the pressures from *professeurs stagiaires* and policy-makers to be more 'relevant' to practical training needs.

However, despite these problems, the comments made by tutors in France about the way that they have been able to develop both their courses, their own professionalism and contribute to the ideal of the *IUFM* as an institution reflects the greater freedom that they enjoy to experiment in developing initial teacher training. This suggests that they should be currently in a better position than their English counterparts to explore

creatively the theory/practice relationship in their approach to ITT.⁷⁵ To some extent, again, as points made in Chapter 3 suggest, this is true, but the prevailing concern of tutors does seem to have shifted towards developing practical teaching skills and professionalism in the 'socialisation' sense referred to above rather than in an intellectually critical sense. Nevertheless, tutor interview data in France conveyed more of a positive sense of an evolving system with numerous possibilities as well as problems, not least that of resolving the tensions between theory and practice.

Some developments are familiar to the English context: the whole area of 'transdisciplinarity' as exemplified by the various FGP programmes is one example, the greater integration of initial training and continued professional development is another. The difference in the way these developments have happened, is that in England they have been worked out and imposed by policy-makers, while in France, it is the experts in the field who have been trusted to experiment and initiate developments. There is much less emphasis on homogeneity and conformity and *IUFMs* seem to have been able to more easily build on their strengths. One example of this is in *IUFM FN* which has introduced a large programme of options in the *FGP* for *professeurs stagiaires* based on the principle that they should identify their own training needs and also have the opportunity to pursue their individual professional interests and orientations. Whatever the flaws one might point to in the concept of trainees constructing their

⁷⁵ See the summary of the current position of *IUFMs* in Chapter 3.

own training, nevertheless, the degree of institutional and professional autonomy conferred on *IUFMs*, no longer exists in England. Comparisons such as this serve to remind us what has been lost in England.

6.3 'Reflective practice', bridging the theory/practice gap? An Anglo/French comparison

Chapter 1 of this study discusses critically how reflective practice is promoted as the exemplar of 'best' practice and is now seen as the principle underpinning all ITT courses in England and is increasing its appeal in France. In practice, at least in the interview data gathered for this study, the development of reflective practice in *professeurs stagiaires* seems to be more of a desire and ephemeral goal of some tutors than a focussed objective.

The following questions were asked in order to identify how tutors interpret and promote the notion with student teachers: What do you understand by reflective practice, what does it mean to you, how important is it?

Respondents in England commented on its importance in teaching (5), on its limitations and problems (8) and made thirteen statements relating to a definition. The majority of comments assumed the legitimacy of reflective practice as the essential feature of the 'good' teacher, as being 'crucial' to the professional development of student teachers and the start of becoming 'creative, resourceful, professionals'. In France, the majority of tutors' comments related in some way to lesson evaluation, analysing lessons and improving teaching. The term '*analyse des pratiques*' which is perhaps

more modest than 'reflective practice' was a term more frequently used by French tutors.

The term 'reflective practice' was defined broadly by English tutors as 'thinking about what they're doing and seeing', 'looking analytically', and 'relating the reflection to reading'. A somewhat simplistic representation of the relationship between theory and practice was attempted with reflective practice apparently playing some mediation role. Some descriptions amounted to little more than self-evaluation, for example:

'...So I feel that part of being a reflective practitioner, the ability to analyse what is good practice in themselves and in others and to use pupils as the starting point and so, again, trying to encourage them to move away from thinking about how they feel, to looking at whether the pupils' needs are actually being met' (ESEt2).

This was also true of all the French tutors' definitions. '.... Helping students to acquire a dexterity in self-analysis and analysing what is going on in their class', was how tutor FPt2 saw the process. Others talked about understanding what happens in lessons, making choices about a course of action, 'the capacity to go over what they have done and being conscious of what they have done (in a lesson)' (FNt4).

Other tutors in England saw reflective practice as relating to reading or theory as the following descriptions suggest:

'I think in day-to-day practical terms it comes down to evaluating individual lessons, what was successful and unsuccessful about them and why, within a general context of drawing upon what they know about educational theories and reflecting upon the learning that has taken place in their lesson' (EEt3).

'Well, everything we do with them is trying to encourage them to reflect on what they're doing and what they're thinking from the very beginning, and from when they observe lessons we're trying to help them to understand what they're seeing and to reflect upon it and to relate to the sort of things we've given them to read' (EEt2).

However, the same tutor also raised what is a recurring concern in ITT and in teaching generally: the issue of relating reflection to reading,

'... But I don't think that people have the time and space really to think about what they're doing, in inverted commas, at a deeper level, and to read, people haven't got time to read' (EEt4).

These remarks articulate a dilemma for the tutor who sees effective reflective practice as more than self-evaluation and as being dependent on relating to reading and objective knowledge.

Another tutor (EC3t15) also emphasised the need for student teachers to go beyond their own experience and relate what they wrote in their reflective diaries to what they had heard, read or said. Importantly, he also pointed out that his was a research-based institution with a 'large number of very clever, committed PGCE tutors' with a high level of academic engagement in research issues which not only informed their own teaching, but also the way they encouraged student teachers to engage with research and scholarly works. The only reference to theory in relation to reflective practice by a teacher trainer in France emphasised that any underpinning theory should relate to a teacher's practical needs in relation to what works and doesn't work in his or her classroom. This confirms the point made in Chapter 1 concerning the orientation of the literature on reflective practice in France.

Only one tutor (ESEt3) made very strongly critical comments about reflective practice, calling it the 'ultimate expression of relativism', pointing out that reflection only enables people to look at their own situation and '... reflective practice, without some theoretical injection, simply becomes a concentric circle where you just simply go in ever-decreasing circles into your self...'. This statement, in fact echoes the concern of others that reflective practice should involve more than just an evaluation of one's practice, and all highlight the unresolved issues raised in Chapter 1 regarding the subjective nature of the activity of reflection and the legitimacy of the assumption that 'some theoretical injection' transforms straightforward self-evaluation of lessons into something else.

In common with the caveat raised by McIntyre (1991) in Chapter 1, two English interviewees commented on the amount of practical experience needed before teachers can begin to reflect: 'sophisticated levels of reflection are something that you can't possibly expect student teachers to do' (EW1t11), said one, and another observed,

'I'm not quite sure that it's realistic to expect (to be a reflective practitioner) at the end of the first year, given that they've got so many other demands on them... maybe it's realistic by the end of the training year to have sort of inducted them into what's involved in reflecting on practice. But to actually, you know, put it into practice... I think that may be a longer term development' (ENEt9).

This tutor expressed a reservation not shared by all, but perhaps reflecting a more realistic view of the initial training period. However, if we add a further reservation made by another, that

'I think some of our students don't feel that they have very much time for reflection, and yet they have much more time for reflection than

the people on the *Maîtrise fle* programme. And they certainly have more time for reflection than they will have when they're in their jobs' (EMt10),

further questions are raised as to whether the rhetorical support of reflective practice matches the reality of the training process.

As evidence from this data suggests, most tutors in England see reflective practice as a desirable, but unrealistic goal within the initial training period.

As one tutor put it, '... sophisticated levels of reflection are something that you can't possibly expect student teachers to achieve' (EW1t15). In some instances, what tutors referred to as reflective practice, might more accurately be described as simply the basis of good professional practice, such as 'look(ing) at the learners rather than their own teaching', 'the beginnings of the sort of philosophical foundation for yourself as a teacher' and 'looking at whether the pupils' needs are actually being met'. In this sense, the term is little more than a label used to credentialise the induction into classroom practice that is being fetishised. Equally, the emphasis placed on getting student teachers to engage critically with reading and research to inform their reflection implies a functional approach in which reading and research are selected only on the basis that they shed light on issues or problems that a student teacher may be experiencing. However, as has already been noted earlier, this may be more a feature of the attempt by HE tutors to assert a conceptual underpinning to the training programme and hold on to philosophical principles that the NQT standards are considered to ignore. In this sense, reflective practice has indeed become what passes for theory.

The French data gathered suggest strongly that reflection is seen more as self-evaluation and a part of the teacher's professional development, but no special claim is made by teacher trainers for reflective practice as distinct from good teaching. Who, after all, would promote *unreflective* practice? It is largely among university *Sciences de l'Éducation* academics that Donald Schön's work is promoted (Altet, 1994; Zay, 1999), and evidence from this study suggests that reflective practice has been less of a concern and a guiding principle in *IUFMs*. This is not the case in England, however. The development of the reflective practitioner has been absorbed into the culture of Higher Education in ITT and has become an essential feature of its work, as will be seen in the next section.

6.4 The distinctive role of Higher Education in ITT in England and France

The overall consensus among tutors in England was that the contribution that Higher Education makes to the initial training of teachers is essential and could not be re-produced elsewhere. There was a strong sense, however, that policy-makers did not value the work of HE and that it had been 'downgraded'. One tutor (ESEt3) expressed the view that although *he* thought higher education has an important role, the 'present administration' does not. Evidence for this, he suggested was not only to be found in the focus of the NQT standards, but also in the increasing emphasis on alternative, school-based routes into teaching which 'see it as a technical, operational job'. This point would support one aspect of the analysis of the partnership model offered in Chapter 3.

Tutors in *IUFMs* were ambivalent about the status of their institutions. Whereas the last ten years in HE education departments in England has been a time of enormous change and a withdrawal of autonomy from without, the same period in France has been one of development, a degree of experimentation and a struggle to establish a distinctive identity. Tutors in France however, were no more optimistic about the status and future of their institutions than were tutors in England. As one tutor put it:

'(The role of *IUFMs*) is somewhat contested. I think we're in a fairly fragile position at the moment because *IUFMs* are in danger of being eaten up by the universities that want more control over the first year of training and the students and at the same time the employer, that is the rectorat and the schools service are contesting the right of *IUFMs* to be involved in the support of *professeurs stagiaires*. So we're being eaten up on both fronts.... We're in a pre-election period... so it's a period of waiting and uncertainty' (FNt4).

The experience of the past ten years in teacher training in England and France highlights the very insecure position of secondary ITT. In France the position is perhaps more stark because *IUFMs* do not have proper university status and have no strong research base. As one tutor pointed out, although he considered that the past five years had seen an improvement in the status of *IUFMs*, they were still 'embryonic' and that the division between them and the universities was a problem. As has been noted earlier, tutor interviews convey a sense of an evolving institutional and professional identity. However, in England, it is very apparent that university status offers little protection at the present time, as tutors' comments about 'downgrading' indicate. What is more pertinent to both situations is the status of the knowledge and expertise that they offer and

the ability of teacher trainers to defend themselves in an academic and political arena.

In England, the main focus of responses was on what HE can offer student teachers (14 comments). Most of these emphasised in various ways that the higher education component offered student teachers a broader overview of professional practice, the opportunity to take a step back and look objectively at practice, to gain a theoretical and deeper understanding and to promote reflection. However, as Chapters 4 and 5 have shown, this is rarely achieved. One tutor expressed explicitly the firm belief, reflected by all tutors interviewed: that their job was vital to teacher professional development. The following comment suggests loyalty to a principled view that sees beyond the development of practical skills:

'Of course it has a distinctive role to play. And practice alone, experience alone, doesn't make an effective practitioner. We do have a role to play in terms of where theory and practice play off each other and can influence each other. Em... and I think it is important to be scholarly in our education system. ...there is such a wealth of information there, of research that's already happened ... and we certainly have a role to open our student teachers' eyes to that' (EMt10).

The HE part of PGCE was also seen as a sort of haven for student teachers to meet, discuss and explore new ideas and to talk about their practice - a key element in the development of reflective practice which echoes comments made above about how this part of their professionalism is developed. This was also the case, if not more so, in France. Indeed, as comments from tutors indicate, the focus of much of the *IUFM* work, both in subject and FPG sessions is on discussing practical experiences and seeking solutions to problems and attempting to draw general conclusions

about teaching and learning from those experiences (5 comments). Tutor FSt8's comments is one example:

'We get them to think about general themes and try to relate those to their own practice. I think the aim in this training is to develop their ability to think about the way their practice is developing'.

This approach also aims at drawing together principle and practice.

However, it must be said that tutors in England spoke more confidently and offered more insights into what goes on in the classroom and how student teachers are best supported in their development. The obvious difference here is that tutors visit schools regularly, observe student teachers regularly and are often engaged in either classroom based research or aspects of teaching and learning. This would appear to be a great strength in terms of relating theory and practice as the following section suggests.

Seven tutors in England emphasised the relationship of HE to practice, suggesting that higher education is at the 'cutting edge' of good practice, that it should 'blaze the trail a little bit, lead the way in terms of what good practice is' (ESEt2). However, this tutor then immediately back-tracked, suggesting that this might be seen as an arrogant view and one that she would not express openly because it might be seen as running counter to present notions of partnership, but nevertheless suggested her approach within HE was to develop 'competent practitioners' by being at the forefront of 'good practice'.

Some tutors were careful to suggest that schools simply did not have time to offer what HE provided. One felt that part of what Higher Education did

was to 'plug the gaps' in school experience. Others, while not wishing to downplay the role of school experience, were clear that there were differences. One observation encapsulates these:

'I think we have different purposes, there are things that we can do, obviously what we look at are things in a decontextualised way. We can't provide the actual context that schools can, but we can take an overview of things. We have the time, expertise, perhaps to draw a variety of sources together to present a point of view or a different perspective. We have more access to theory and theoretical perspectives than the teacher and I think it's taking a more objective view, of being able to be a little more analytical than there is scope to be in schools. While it would be easy to give lots of handy hint, I don't think that's our job. That's the school mentor's role and the teachers in the school - they are there to give all the contextualised help and support, the hint and tips and stuff, but we are there to give more of an overview' (EW1t11).

Another tutor (ECt14) pointed out that the main functions of schools was to educate young people and that the training of student teachers was a secondary function that was taken more seriously in some schools than others. The same tutor saw QTS as a baseline and that in his institution, the aim was to do more, to 'build on this and provide a wider, more conceptual approach that the QTS standards require', suggestive of a principled view of his role. This wider, more conceptual approach is possible only through Higher Education. As tutors in England recognised, it is not only important for them to be engaging in their own research, but that their contribution to the PGCE should always be informed by research findings, so that, for example, ' (the students) don't come to see that what goes on in that particular school is the whole picture' (ENWt13).

Nevertheless, it was considered explicitly by one tutor that her job was also to give student teachers ideas for their teaching and this is borne out by observations of HE teaching sessions undertaken for this study and student

teacher interview data. But there is a sense in which this is either replicating or 'plugging the gaps' of school experience. Moreover, from a practical point of view, HE tutors, besides their own background as teachers in a number of capacities, draw on a broad experience through their work as tutors, 'someone in a position of being an education lecturer will often go into maybe 50 different schools in a year and the average mentor in a school might not have been in more than 2 or 3 schools in her entire career' (EEt5). What might be described as the increased parochialism of teachers was referred to on several occasions in tutor interviews in England and was explained largely by the shift in staff-development and continued professional development activities to be entirely school-based, and the competition between schools which has meant that neighbouring schools are seen as rivals and the sharing of ideas and practices is therefore discouraged.

There was a stark contrast here with *IUFM* tutors in France which serves to underline the strength of the Higher Education contribution to ITT in England. Although one tutor interviewed in France was still a practising teacher, she pointed to the tensions in exercising a dual role and she felt that her greatest strength was to be able to use her immediate practical experience to inform and use as examples with her student teachers. However, this expertise seems to be more in line with that of the experienced mentor in England and her insights and ideas about ITT were akin to views expressed by mentors interviewed in England. The trend towards similar appointments in England may have the same effect. Other

tutors in France were conscious of being remote from the school situation and as we have seen some had no school experience at all. This might not be a problem if they were not required to perform a practice-orientated role. The issue of research is interesting to compare. Roughly two-thirds of tutors interviewed in both countries were active researchers. But the important difference is that tutors in England were working in institutions where there was a greater or lesser, but nevertheless relatively long-standing, tradition in educational research of various kinds. This was not the case in France given the relatively recent establishment of IUFMs.

While tutors remained committed to the involvement of HE in the initial training of teachers, three tutors in England referred with reservation to the growth in alternative routes into teaching, which they saw as a deliberate attempt by government to further marginalised the role of Higher Education.

‘You can see very clearly that what they want to do is to create a culture where people can go straight into school and by-pass Higher Education.... it’s about political power and wresting influence away from HEIs because they’re seen as subversive and challenging and all that sort of thing’ (EW1t11).

he observed. While one might not disagree with the *facts* of the situation, it may be that the *reasons* for this shift are more to do with the specific intellectual and political climate of the present time as discussed in Chapter 1 than the willful ‘wresting of power’ away from the universities that characterised Thatcherite educational policy. Nevertheless, these concerns are another reflection of a degree of uncertainty that tutors feel about their professional role and status. Tutor ECT14 suggested that it was not the role

of HE to 'model', although tutor EWt12 pointed out that her Ofsted inspector was categorical that HE teaching sessions should be based on modelling,

'The last time we had an inspector, it could have been something to do with the inspector herself, but we had someone who was just very keen on modelling and for her that is all it should be. Teacher training at university had to be modelling and she just wanted us to model a session. So instead of getting students to reflect, she wanted us to present what we would do with 6th formers and put the students in a position of 6th formers...' (EW2t12).

These observations, not only indicate a disparity between the principles held by HE tutors and the requirements of (at least one) Ofsted inspectors, but also an erosion of the distinctiveness of the Higher Education contribution to ITT. As was noted in Chapter 4, some courses seem to provide a complimentary rather than distinctive contribution in that they do indeed focus on 'plugging the gaps' and the 'overview' provided is not so much from a theoretical stance but a more generalised view of practice.

Taken overall, this interview data indicate that Higher Education in England has a more focussed role in the initial training of teachers and for historical reasons has an established research tradition although the distinctiveness of its contribution is being eroded. The comparison with the French context has highlighted some of the strengths of the English HE system. France has benefited from an albeit short-lived experiment in developing teacher training which a conservative government appears to be about to dismantle more for political than educational reasons. The '*IUFM* experiment' has undoubtedly developed and flourished enormously over the last ten years (see Chapter 4), because institutions enjoyed a large measure of autonomy in determining their own programmes and expertise. That is perhaps their

most distinctive feature in comparison to HE Departments of Education in England.

6.5 Tutors' views of theory in ITT in England and France

For the sake of clarity, this section will first examine the English interview data as a whole and then the French data will be used to comment on these findings.

6.5.1 Tutors views in England

As platitudinous as it may sound, it is nevertheless worth stating here that, as in many aspects of life, when we talk about 'theory', we make an assumption that there is a common understanding of what is meant.

However, as far as the interviews examined here are concerned, it became clear that the term means different things to different people and that the way people talk about theory reflects their own conceptual understanding, or sometimes, misunderstanding. The ideas of teacher trainers in England about what theory is and its role in ITT provided some interesting insights into their conceptual understanding and approach to their work. Their responses have been categorised in the following way: what theory is (19), how theory is approached (12), why theory is important (12), the theory/practice relationship (6), tutors' own knowledge (4), consequences of the absence of theory (2) and one comment on reading.

Comments on how tutors understood the term ranged from the clichéd: 'there's nothing as practical as theory and nothing as theoretical as

practice⁷⁶ (EMt10), the superficial: 'For a theory to exist someone has had to a) thought about this and b) maybe done some research into it, investigated it in some way, put it together as a package (EEt4), the partial: '...it's to provide the researched underpinning for 'why' the pedagogy' (ECt8), to the thoughtful: 'I think it sets a framework, it can give a set of guiding principles and it gives us a sort of benchmark, something against which to compare experience' (ECt7) and incisive: 'The whole purpose of theory is to make sense of practice' (ESEt3). These comments are taken as a reflection of the level of engagement that tutors in England have themselves with theory. These were mostly related to the applied theory of modern foreign teaching although some reference was made by subject tutors as well as general professional studies tutors to the foundation disciplines of education. What they all seem to ignore, however, is the dialectical relationship of theory and practice.

The three themes of the explanatory role theory that enables understanding, the relationship of theory and practice and an emphasis on research findings were prominent in tutor's comments.

'I think part of theory is to help us make sense of things when things don't go according to plan or things break down, explain why we did things, to help us explain why things worked out that way. Also if they worked well' (ENEt9).

A tutor from EW1t15 gave an example of how theory is explanatory. For him, theory is

'a set of general principles that attempt to explain and account for a given phenomenon or empirical data. Basically it's the best explanation you can possibly give for a phenomenon. So, you know, why are our kids demotivated in England? I want a theory or the

⁷⁶ This expression was also used by one of the CAPES tutors in institution FN in France.

best explanation you can give for why they are demotivated..... I think there is a second language specific element to motivation ... I think you need educational theories of motivation and also the language specific ones'.

This comment indicates not only an understanding of the role of theory, but also the essential relationship between theory and practice. Other tutors were divided in their view of which informs which: 'Theory to me is practice observed, reflected upon, analysed and written up... real theory comes from practice', observed tutor ENWt9, to which she added

'I think the theory is actually the framework on which you hang practice. It makes you aware of why you are doing those things, how to do it, the reasons, the background. You could come into a classroom and you could observe a teacher and mimic whatever the teacher does without really understanding why you were doing those things, why the reasons behind it (*sic*)'.

Is she contradicting herself here, or is she suggesting that what a teacher does is initially based on trial and error and that theory is developed out of what works? Tutor EW1t15 takes a different view:

'Theory is really important... 'It's OK in practice, but is it OK in theory? is a question I ask students. It's always the other way round - but actually you wouldn't ask that of an aeroplane designer - you wouldn't say, well it's flown ten times, so it must be OK, it's got to work in theory as well. And it's the same thing in teaching languages. You can't say that lesson worked five times so it must be the right lesson. So that's why theory is important and that's why I don't like the model (of ITT) we've got now. It's not that you say look here is the theory, now let's see if it works in practice. You say this is the practice that goes on out there, which theory actually supports that practice best'.

There seems to be an assumption here, however, that theory always has, or should have, a practical *application* which is not the case. It may be more true of the applied theory of mfl, but as has been discussed in

Chapter 1, the value of theory is not conditional on its direct application. The theory/practice issue was taken up by a number of tutors. Two contended that teaching is a practical occupation, but that a purely practical initiation leads to a functional, narrow attitude in student teachers. Two others added that individual practice needs a wider context and understanding and that this was why theory is necessary. One tutor felt that there is a deliberate attempt at present to separate theory and practice entirely through the competence-based model of ITT.

Tutors' views of the role of theory in ITT in many respects mirrored their views on the distinctive role of HE insofar as, as we have already seen, they saw Higher Education as being the provider of theoretical understanding. Nevertheless, taken overall, the content of most tutors' responses in relation to theory indicates more of a rhetorical commitment to theory than an actual one. This assertion is borne out by the examination of course documentation analysed in Chapter 4 of this thesis, where there emerged three characterisations of institutions. The interview data support the findings that there is a correlation between the ethos of the course/institution and the ways tutors talk about theory.

This section of the interview required more abstract reflection than all the other areas of questioning, and drew out distinctions between tutors more clearly. Tutors' talk about theory was revelatory in that what emerged were distinct groups of tutors: those who acknowledged the importance of theory at a rhetorical level, but who clearly had a stronger orientation towards and

commitment to practice, those who saw theory as important, but who saw the present model as precluding a more theoretical approach, and a much smaller number with a clear academic research focus who demonstrated the importance they place on theory through anecdote and concrete examples.

6.5.2 Tutors' views in France

Interview data from France gave more specific, thoughtful, accounts of what theory is in education, one or two interesting insights and in several instances, revealed a confidence that was somewhat lacking in other parts of their interviews. That is not to say that some tutors were not sceptical about the role of theory in ITT. Five tutors commented in one way or another that theory should be *useful* and three considered that theory should be introduced through discussion of practical issues. Tutor FPt1, a tutor of English, gave a wide-ranging account of her understanding of theory in which she refers to the three themes raised by English tutors: the explanatory role of theory, the theory/practice relationship and research.

' As I understand it, (theory is) a knowledge of the development of research into methodology, techniques. The ability to analyse classroom practice, materials, methods that student teachers encounter in school. The ability to look critically and understand the reasons for doing things, to be able to refer to theoretical underpinnings. As far as language teaching is concerned, I can't see how you can use school textbooks without knowing what is behind certain approaches, how they came into being and why they are used. Why in France we have a conceptual approach to language learning, for example. And then as far as pedagogical expertise is concerned, the ability to understand classroom interactions, and be able to look objectively at it - and the best way is to have a variety of tools for observation and to learn to use them, analyse their own classroom practice. These are tools that allow for a reflective approach. These things can only happen if there are basic theoretical understandings. In various areas like the didactics

of language, and in more general ones, like psychology, sociology - *Sciences de l'Éducation*, in fact. It is difficult to understand why *Sciences de l'Éducation* is not in the IUFM - perhaps because it sees itself as experimental and not in keeping with teacher training, but I can't see any justification. But has *Sciences de l'Éducation* a bad name, as being expert in nothing - whereas the *discipline* is very important'.

A preoccupation with developing practice seemed to override concerns about theoretical content on the part of this group of tutors. The history of the IUFMs, as we have seen earlier in this study was one of supporting practice and the interview data regarding the distinctive role of the *IUFM* suggests that this is so. However, when tutors spoke about the role of theory, their responses suggest that they were still working out approaches for themselves. As tutor FNt5 suggested:

'Another way of looking at the question is how to draw on information and research findings, or academic knowledge and use them effectively in teacher training and I admit that is one of my main preoccupations.... We are nowhere near achieving a critical perspective'.

Tutor FNt4 from the same institution noted that theory has a 'bad name' in teaching because it is seen that 'from a common sense point of view that theory has nothing to do with what goes on 'on the ground'... but another way of looking at theory is as a challenge for tutors is to integrate objective knowledge gained from research and observation'. Equally, as was posited in Chapter 1, theory has a 'bad name' in England. This tutor went on to observe that the idea of integrating general educational theory into teacher training is recent because of the dominant, conservative role of the academic subject discipline and that its introduction has been very much 'through the back door' and seen as 'heretical, almost revolutionary'. From

a subject perspective, one tutor outlined what she saw as a vast field of theory, including *Sciences de l'Éducation*, which she concluded was too vast to contemplate within initial training and so she was content to accept that theory did not feature explicitly in her teaching, but was what is 'behind' as a foundation. This honest appraisal is a good example of what most tutors in both France and England saw as their primary aim: the development of classroom skills. Another approach sought to draw theoretical principle out of practice - a sort of reflective practitioner approach:

'It's a sort of collaboration between the student and the tutor where one is able to bring in theoretical knowledge when the student says 'this is my experience in this situation, a problem I've come up against that I don't understand. That's where the trainer could say, 'This is what I know about this' and to present it to the student for them to grasp what is important in the situation - that's the theory /practice relationship. Theory isn't there to tell you what to do, it's there to illuminate'. (FCt9)

This last sentence, however, was the most succinct understanding of the role of theory expressed by any of the tutors interviewed. The same tutor went on give a further insight into the relationship of theory to practice:

'What is interesting too with theory is that a person is never alone. A theory tells you that others have had these problems, the case is not unique, it's a human experience, a social experience that is shared and that puts you into a group - a group of professionals. That knowledge makes you part of a community of professionals' (FCt9).

This section ends on a note of clarity, which was by no means characteristic of tutors' views on theory in either France or England. What the preceding data indicate is a conceptual confusion amongst teacher trainers as to what theory is, and a conflict of ideas as to how and when theory should be taught on ITT courses. But beyond the level of improving

practice, the question that few tutors articulated was *why* theory is important.

6.6 An ideal model of ITE - views from France and England

6.6.1 Tutors' views in England

What did tutors think an ideal model of initial teacher education would look like? In summary, first and foremost it would be longer, student teachers would have less class contact time and would spend more time in their HE institution where they would have time to read, reflect and discuss. Student teachers would undertake classroom research. A minority thought that PGCE course content should contain some study of the foundation disciplines as well as a more in-depth study of the applied theory of modern foreign languages. Higher Education would continue contact with and responsibility for the further professional development of newly qualified teachers during their first year of teaching – effectively that the NQT year would be seen as part of the training programme.

Two categories of responses emerged from the interview data, those expressing *practical* ideas which centred around the duration of the PGCE course (11), the course content (10), the format of the course (10), the link with the NQT year (5) and the link with schools (5), and those expressing concerns of *principle*. Tutors contributed more ideas of a practical nature than of a principled one and the extent to which their practical ideas were an expression of their more principled concerns is explored below. Tutors'

views that reflect a more conceptual perspective are summarised in Table 6.IV below.

PRINCIPLES OF AN IDEAL MODEL OF ITT	
1.	Adopt a holistic approach to education (2);
2.	Broaden perspectives and open minds; encourage a critical approach;
3.	There would be more time to reflect and evaluate along theoretical and research-based lines;
4.	Need for an 'injection of heavyweight thinking about education';
5.	We should be dealing with education, not schooling;
6.	Student teachers should be aware of their subject within the general domain of human knowledge;
7.	Student teachers should develop their potential in a creative way;
8.	Student teachers would be well-informed in terms of their reading;
9.	Create a much better informed profession;
10.	There would be less pressure to achieve specific standards;

Table 6.iv: Tutors' views of an Ideal Model of Initial Teacher Training in England

All the issues of principle raised above suggest a need for a reorientation of initial teacher training towards a more intellectually challenging and substantial knowledge base. As one tutor pointed out, '...within the present nine months, there's about as much theory as you can do', which suggests a longer training period. In fact, two thirds of those interviewed thought that initial teacher training should be longer. This observation was made in response to the question 'If you had 'carte blanche' what would be your ideal model of initial teacher training?' rather than a direct question about the length of the course. Tutor views on the desirable length of PGCE course are all the more significant since they represent the greatest point of consensus within the cohort throughout the entire interview. Five tutors thought the course should be over a two-year period, two opted for an extra three to six months and the others did not specify a period of time. One tutor said that she did not think the course should be much longer because student teachers 'are itching to get out there and teach by the end of our courses, they don't want any more theorising, and they don't want any more

practice, they want to be teachers' (EEt4). There is undoubtedly truth in this statement, and we might add financial considerations as another factor, but as we have seen, there is some doubt as to whether they are really ready to assume the professional responsibilities required of them at the end of the present training period. One tutor would not extend the training but would make fewer demands:

'I'd want to see less pressure on young teachers to achieve specific standards; numbered and ticked off. I'd like to see the same respect for placement practice wisdom, if you like, practical wisdom, practical knowledge and understanding. To have more time, to more leisurely (*sic*) reflect and evaluate, along a theoretical and research based line, the pedagogical research based lines that I talked about earlier.... I don't want to extend the training... I think the demands could be made more realistic' (ECT8).

The idea that too much is expected of student teachers, that there should be less demanded of them, is expressed in the context of a training programme that keeps student teachers very busy but intellectually passive (Lawes 2002). There is a sense in which more should be demanded of them in intellectual terms and this is what a number of tutors recognised.

Comments about the content of an 'ideal' teacher training programme essentially reflected tutors' concerns about the elevation of practice over theory expressed at earlier stages of interviews and reflect also a conceptual underpinning to practical suggestions. The perceived need for 'an injection of heavyweight thinking about education', to include philosophical perspectives, history of education sociology and comparative elements as an essential general professional knowledge base was not explicitly supported by all tutors. Indeed two tutors felt that general

professional issues should be integrated into subject/curriculum studies.⁷⁷ However, three tutors said that their ideal model would include substantial work on learning theory and learning; another pointed to child psychology as being a priority; another, a grounding in theoretical ideas about language learning. One tutor (EW1t15), admitting that he was being a little facetious, said that he thought all future teachers of modern foreign languages should do an MSc in Applied Linguistics before they were allowed to come on a PGCE course! There was a clear indication that subject/curriculum tutors favoured the applied theory of modern foreign languages over general educational theory in their ideal model. This attitude would seem to suggest a partial view of the role of theory. Tutor ECt14 envisaged a progression from 'professional issues' to more scholarly work that would involve engaging with appropriate empirical research, but that was not too abstract. He, along with others favoured a fuller opportunity for student teachers to undertake classroom research.

It would also be wrong to suggest that tutors had an overwhelming preoccupation with theoretical perspectives, this was not the case. Indeed, much of the interview data for this section contains descriptions of content and form, clearly aimed at improving classroom *practice*. Tutor EEt4 perhaps best reflects the general tenor of views on an 'ideal model' as Higher Education having more purchase on the style, content and form of ITT and a better integration of the school/HE components:

⁷⁷ It is not clear, however, whether they were talking about the 'professional studies' as understood within the current PGCE framework, which is not the same as the general educational theory of the 'foundation disciplines'.

'I think I would like a better integration of school and university in the first instance, so that they come here and have some grounding in theoretical ideas about how languages can be learnt in classroom contexts and some methodology. And then I would like that to be linked quite closely to going to do it in school so maybe two days here and then try things out in school or observe first of all how do kids learn, how do kids cope with the demands of learning a language? Then when we get onto the methodological points, to link it very closely with what we do here. So we might spend a day thinking about reading, trying out some texts, going into schools and trying a text, having a peer at the back of the room noticing how well kids cope with it, coming back between school and university would be good because that would engender lots of discussion about the things we want to talk about'.

Despite the criticisms raised earlier in interviews concerning the school experience component of the training, tutors remained committed to the HE/school partnership in ITT. What is needed is a closer relationship and better integration of the two parts of the programme. Tutors ESEt3 and ECt9 would have student teachers in school from a very early stage, having equipped them with 'coping strategies', claiming that such an early initiation would make student teachers more conducive to knowing about underpinning principles once they have some practical experience:

'I would try to, I would want them to be paired up with, you know, people who'd adapt to them well, support them well, give them good feedback, advice. And then I think I'd want to spend maybe a bit longer than we do at the moment, looking at, em, learning, if you like. So the first bit could be sort of coping strategies as a teacher, what you want to do with (*sic*), and the sort of teaching behaviours and eye contact, and actually feeling comfortable. And then be spending a bit longer mulling it over, unpicking that, looking, turning to look at learning, and maybe getting experiences for them to work with, maybe not having to deal with classroom management at the same time, but actually creating opportunities for them to work with pupils or students, where they could actually focus on learning...'. (ECt9)

So conceptually, despite the claims made in the previous section with regard to theory, much emphasis is still placed on the development of practice *through* practice. In fact, six out of the fifteen tutors interviewed in

the English cohort talked mainly in these terms. Of the others, in keeping with their dissatisfaction with the present model, several tutors wanted a reduced teaching load and for time in school to be used more creatively, with regular attendance in the HE institution throughout the year and the opportunity to re-visit topics and explore them in more depth progressively throughout the year. This is taken to exemplify the idea of a more holistic approach to professional development which would enable student teachers to 'develop their potential in a creative way'.

The aspiration that student teachers 'need to be well-informed in terms of their reading' and 'be aware of their subject within the general domain of human knowledge'⁷⁸ echoes a number of tutors' concerns about the current model, although no practical suggestions were made as to how these might be achieved in an ideal model, except in relation to the link between initial training and the NQT year, which, it was suggested by five tutors, should become a second training year in the proper sense. Tutor EEt6 saw the second year of a training programme in the following way:

'I would certainly want them to be *in-situ*, in a job for the second part because they are desperately in need of being paid. But in that time, my ideal would be a little like we have with our students, a 50% timetable and time to engage in some substantial classroom research which is a little bit like an MA or something - partly like the London Institute, if they wanted, partly taught, but always some form of classroom investigation which needs to be very well informed in terms of their reading, but with time given for them to read. Time given for them to reflect upon their teaching in the other 50% of the

⁷⁸ Tutor EEt5 is a General Professional Studies and Art tutor. His comment is taken to mean that subject disciplines should be examined within the broader curriculum and in relation to educational principles. This tutor also observed that ITT should be 'dealing with education and not schooling' and that he would prefer to bring learners into the university, rather than use schools 'as they are at the moment' for teaching experience.

timetable ... And I think you would have a much better, more relaxed profession. A much better informed profession and people who would generally have things to offer each other'.

Five other tutors advocated a second year of training that would be under the tutelage of Higher Education:

'I think the current school-based model could work quite successfully if it were spread over two years, if the induction year were more integrated. I suppose the students would have to be linked to an HE institution definitely in some way. I think it would be quite successful then because you wouldn't have to do quite as much school-based work in the first year and in the second year you would be an employed person but you would still come back and have your practice challenged' (ECT7).

Tutor EW1t11 saw a fifteen or eighteen month training programme as an ideal with trainees getting a proper training salary. He felt this would help the retention of teachers because they would be better supported in the crucial, early stages of their careers.

'But somehow, if people came here, they could expect to qualify, say in the Christmas or February, but by the Autumn term they might actually be working in school fairly full-time, but they would still be in training. I suppose it's still just making sure, that it's actually about still keeping our influence'.

Surprisingly few references were made to the achievement of standards in this section of the interviews, although this had been commented upon elsewhere. One tutor (ECT14) made the point, however, that he had no objection to a set of specifications for assessing success or failure of PGCE student teachers, and that it was helpful for there to be national guidelines, but that he was opposed to the degree of prescription that currently pertains.

All-in-all, with one or two exceptions, tutors did not propose great revolutionary changes to ITT, but gave their considered views based on their own knowledge and experience of working within an imposed framework which has left them with less and less flexibility to develop courses according to their own principles and institutional academic strengths. If their ideal model of mfl initial teacher training lacked vision to some extent, tutor EW1t15 suggested why:

... Emm 'carte blanche'? I think one of the problems is that we've so been taught not to think 'carte blanche' over the past ten years that we've had to say, "What's the best we can do given the circumstances?", that I've lost my creativity. Creativity has gone!

6.6.2 Tutors' views in France

A potential for creativity is what still exists in the French system, where as we have already seen, tutors have the freedom to develop their courses and where trust is invested in them to do this effectively within a looser framework of government guidelines, inspections and local education authority (*Rectorat*) monitoring. These tutors' comments about how they saw an ideal model of initial teacher training therefore reflected more how they would actually develop their courses in a real sense. This contrasts with their English counterparts who talked about how they would *wish* to transform teacher training if they were not working within such a prescriptive framework. Table 6.v summarises all the points made by tutors in France regarding how they would develop initial teacher training.

AN IDEAL MODEL FOR FRANCE
• More 'interdisciplinarity' in training (3)
• Broader experience (2)
• Develop mentoring (2)
• More progressive introduction of practice (2)
• Experience before theory (re 1 st year CAPES)
• Preparation module in first degree
• Progressive introduction of theory
• More team work for tutors
• Longer training period
• Develop teacher research
• More IUFM involvement in schools
• Develop workshop approach
• Development of autonomy

Table 6.v: French tutors' view of an ideal model of ITT

The most striking thing about French tutors' aspirations for their courses, as Table 6.v shows, is the number of areas that are already well developed in the current English model of ITT. Notably, the need for student teachers to have experience with a variety of classes of differing ages, the development of the mentor role, an *IUFM* involvement in student teachers' school experience and the need for a progressive introduction to both practical and theoretical elements of their training programme are key features of the PGCE course that have evolved considerably since the introduction of the partnership scheme. The introduction of a sort of orientational module within first degree programmes already exists in some universities in England in the form of practical work experience in schools which in some instances is accredited within PGCE. In common with tutors in England, one of the French tutors felt that the research experience of teachers in schools was an important area to develop. But perhaps the most interesting area for consideration within the English context is the emphasis

that three *IUFM* tutors placed on integrating general professionals studies within subject disciplines on the basis that the pedagogy and didactics of the subject discipline is informed by broader professional knowledge and theoretical perspectives. Tutor FNt5 emphasised that this approach, encourage the development of a 'common culture' between trainer and trainee which would then gradually filter into schools;

'It seems essential to me that in the same way that you can't dissociate cross-discipline knowledge⁷⁹ (*savoirs transversaux*) with subject knowledge (*savoirs disciplinaires*) - that would be nonsense, so it would be good to associate subject tutors with cross-discipline tutors so that they can speak the same language, a common language of the professional.... The effective 'professionalisation' of the (student) teacher involves a 'rapprochement' between subject and general tutors. Through this, student teachers develop a common culture eventually that transfers into schools'.

The idea of establishing a closer relationship and interplay between the general and the subject-focussed elements of the training programme is an interesting consideration for an 'ideal English model' of teacher preparation, but this does not address the fundamental issue of content. Content was an issue that tutors in France seemed reluctant to address: the comments of French tutors working within the general professional field were not arguing for the introduction of *Sciences de l'Éducation* into the initial training period, merely a broader conception of the teacher's professional interests. However, it appears that in neither country do subject specialist teacher trainers see knowledge of general educational theory as a foundation of teachers' professionalism.

⁷⁹ By this he meant General Professional Studies.

6.7 Conclusion: Tutors' views of ITT in France and England

The comparison of tutors' views in England and France highlights some of the strengths of the partnership model as it pertains in England over the less rigid system in France. Notably a greater consistency and coherence in student teachers' practical experience and the support they receive in their professional development is indicated. This, despite tutors' reservations about the lack of control they feel they have over the whole training process. The greater degree of freedom to develop courses in France is reflected in French tutors' comments, although this is tempered by a sense of 'finding their way', perhaps in the absence of a coherent theoretical framework on which to build.

The absence of both the dynamism engendered by autonomy, and an overarching theoretical framework in which to work has left tutors in England doing the best they can in a situation that they perceive of as not of their making, but there was little sense of development. In England, tutors blame the imposition of a rigid regime of competence-based standards and inspections. But if a similar 'technical' approach to initial teacher development has been adopted in France, where there is more freedom to develop courses, where there is far less prescription at a policy level, where inspections are far less rigorous and frequent, where student teachers are required to attain a much higher standard of subject knowledge, and where, traditionally, greater value is placed on intellectual pursuits than in England, this cannot be the case. Tutors in England and, to a lesser extent in France, seem to believe that practice is ultimately developed through practice and

that theory has a secondary role. There seems to be an assumption that an inexplicit theoretical underpinning, what has been called in this study, 'principled guidance for practice' is sufficient to ensure the effective development of future teachers. This reflects a predominantly ambivalent attitude to the role of theory, at least in the context of initial teacher training, although this was not entirely true of a very small number of tutors, working where there were strong academic traditions. What the evidence of this research points to, therefore, is that both in France and England, there is a certain 'loss of nerve' with regard to the value of theoretical knowledge for student teachers that has led tutors to take a largely technical view of teacher expertise, but which is justified by the adoption of reflective practice as the means through which theory and practice are linked. In this sense, reflective practice offers a refuge from the more challenging rigours of working out how to approach theory that reflects the prevailing mood of the times, referred to in Chapter 1 of this study.

While individual tutors may see themselves as 'going beyond the standards', encouraging a research-orientated culture or a more academic orientation to their courses, as Chapter 5 has shown, the significance of the impact of these principles on student teachers is limited. There is a disparity between intention and effect that is partly due to the level of prescription, but as the French comparison shows, the organisational framework within which individuals and institutions work is not the fundamental issue. The preoccupation with preparing student teachers to perform in the classroom and to reach the standards required for Qualified

Teacher Status is to some extent legitimate, given the level of accountability that teacher trainers are subject to and the low level of trust conferred upon them, but it is narrow and limited in aspiration. The restricted view of teacher professionalism of policy-makers is not only reflected in the narrowing of aspirations of teacher trainers but is transmitted to student teachers. The expectations and aspirations of student teachers are formed in a number of ways, and it is natural that they have considerable concern about learning the 'craft' of teaching. But at the beginning of their initiation to teaching, instrumental and functional expectations are susceptible to challenge and change. Teacher trainers who have a theoretical framework themselves are able to put aside the technicist approach that a preoccupation with reaching NQT standards tends to encourage. If their expectations and aspirations are of developing 'educational thinkers' who have a sound knowledge of educational theory and subject pedagogy, their student teachers will also become 'competent practitioners' and 'principled professionals' who will rise to the challenge.

Chapter 7

The PGCE/Maîtrise français langue étrangère (fle): student teachers' and tutors' views

Summary

This chapter focuses on interview data from the five dual certification PGCE/*Maîtrise Français Langue Etrangère (fle)* programmes that were run by English Higher Education Institutions in partnership with a number of French universities in 2001. The data from student teachers, HEI tutors and one *Maîtrise fle* tutor involved in the dual certification programmes suggest that the majority of PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers achieve a higher level of abstract thinking about the teaching and learning of modern foreign languages and a more academic approach to their professional development than those on PGCE mfl and *CAPES* courses which is attributed to the academic component of their initial training. As such this programme represents a move towards the development of 'educational thinkers'. The data also reveal a number of strengths, weaknesses and problems of dual certification courses.

Introduction

The joint PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programme is unique in that it enables student teachers in England to gain academic knowledge of the teaching and learning of French that is not available on other modern foreign languages ITT courses. As such, it is an appropriate case study to examine in relation to the value of theory in ITT.

The main areas of research interest in the comparison of PGCE and PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programmes with student teachers and HE tutors were as follows: in what ways are the various joint PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programmes distinctive from the PGCE? How is the training experience of student teachers enhanced by gaining two qualifications? To what extent are the

French and English programmes complementary? What evidence is there to suggest that student teachers on joint programmes develop differently from those on straight PGCE courses? Each of the five PGCE HE tutors in England was interviewed. Since they all either had past experience of teaching PGCE mfl groups or continued to work with them in addition to their PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* responsibilities, some of the interview data they provided have already been examined in Chapter 6 of this study. The interview schedule for these tutors was the same as for PGCE and CAPES tutors, but PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* tutors were also asked to consider the distinctiveness of the joint programmes they were involved in, and the differences in student teachers' experience. The data drawn on in this chapter, therefore, focus on issues specific to the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programmes.

Three student teachers from each joint programme were interviewed, using the same lead questions as the PGCE and CAPES groups. As with the PGCE cohort, these student teachers were not prepared in any way for their interviews. These interviewees were asked to reflect on their PGCE and *Maîtrise fle* experiences, both separately and together, in order to draw out comparisons, links and contrasts, to discern the distinctiveness of joint programme. Because this dual certification programme attracts a high proportion of French nationals, eight out of the fifteen interviewees were native speakers of French (including one Belgian). In addition, one *Maîtrise fle* tutor in France was interviewed to gain a further perspective on what is distinctive about the joint programme.

The way that the data are examined in this chapter differs from the previous two chapters in that besides summarising points of commonality and distinctiveness across the five programmes, the majority of the data are presented on an institutional basis. There are three reasons for this change of format to the preceding two chapters. Firstly, there is a greater diversity of programme content on the various *Maîtrise fle* courses that student teachers attended in France than is the case for PGCE programmes. In Chapters 5 and 6, it was more legitimate to examine the various English HE-based components of PGCE *en bloc*, due to the high level of prescription that the Standards and national curriculum for teacher training require that, as Chapter 4 has shown produces a large degree of similarity and homogeneity in course programmes. For this chapter, a comparison will be made of the impact of a differentiated experience of the *Maîtrise fle* on student teachers within the context of their PGCE experience.

Secondly, the decision to incorporate tutor and student teacher interviews in one chapter has enabled a sharper focus on the particular features of the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programme from two different perspectives. This is particularly important given that one of the hypotheses of this research is that the dual certification course provides a more substantial and intellectually challenging initiation into modern foreign languages teaching in English secondary schools. The third reason for organising this section of the interview data in this way, is simply to lend variety to the presentation of and approach to the research, while at the same time retaining the same systematic, rigorous analysis applied to the PGCE and *CAPES* interviews.

7.1 The distinctiveness of PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* - the views of tutors and student teachers

The following points draw together some of the common observations that were made by student teachers and tutors interviewed on all of the five joint courses. Despite a variety of content and varied perceptions of the quality of experience that characterised the courses, several aspects of the *Maîtrise fle* experience were seen by the majority of student teachers and PGCE tutors alike as enhancing professional and academic knowledge.

There are some important findings that confirm the distinctive and complementary nature of the joint programme. Firstly, the programme enabled student teachers to gain a deeper cultural knowledge, secondly, to gain academic knowledge of teaching and learning that would not otherwise have been on offer in their initial training, thirdly to read far more, and more broadly than they would have done on a straight PGCE course and finally, for English native speakers, to develop linguistically. These aspects will be explored further in the examination of data on an institutional basis in section 7.2 below, but attention is drawn to them here as being significant findings of the study. The following three sections: 7.1.1, 7.1.2 and 7.1.3 examine the motives and expectations of PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* student teachers that are distinctive from those on PGCE and *CAPES* courses, together with the views of both student teachers and tutors on how the dual certification programme could be improved.

7.1.1 The distinctive motives of PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* student teachers

A number of student teachers identified very similar motives for undertaking the joint programme as PGCE and *CAPES* student teachers: a love of their subject and for young people and the long-standing desire to teach. Six student teachers took a broader perspective of training to teach: one saw the additional French qualification as being attractive, both in terms of gaining employment and promotion prospects because it 'would be an extra string to my bow that a normal PGCE wouldn't and it also makes you stand out from the crowd as well when you're applying for jobs' (PGMEMst8). Another, saw the opportunity to study in a French university at post-graduate level as a challenge not to be missed. The six interviewees who saw the joint certification programme as offering wider opportunities, recognised the value of having an additional qualification of the *Maîtrise fle* as enabling them to teach French anywhere in the world and not just in the English system. Two interviewees already had experience of teaching French abroad (America and Hong Kong). Four of the six were French nationals who did not expect to spend their entire career working in England, but saw the PGCE element of the programme as offering a sound practical training. Typical of this view was student teacher EW2st11: 'I was a French assistant in a private school in Ascot and became interested in the PGCE, but I'm not sure whether I want to spend my whole career in England, so the *Maîtrise* is a good back-up for teaching French elsewhere'. Although motives for doing the dual programme were largely instrumental in terms of gaining qualifications to teach, they nevertheless reflected broader horizons in terms of career possibilities that were more focussed on

professional mobility, rather than simply training to teach in the English secondary school system.

7.1.2 The distinctive expectations of PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* student teachers

Ten out of the fifteen PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* student teachers expected the PGCE to be a practical course and the *Maîtrise fle* to be theoretical. This view is exemplified by the following comment from MESEst1:

'I think practically I expected it to be far more practical over here and I expected it to be theoretical in France, but I was surprised to what extent it really was theoretical and hard work.'

One interviewee commented that she expected the two courses would give her 'a real, full and complete knowledge of what it is being a French teacher' (MEW2st12).

At the outset, therefore, student teachers had perceived a theory-practice divide between the PGCE and the *Maîtrise fle*, and as will be seen, some continued in this view. Any lack of clarity about expectations, related to *Maîtrise fle* programmes that provided sparse course documentation and also to the fact that the PGCE course to some extent set the agenda for the whole programme as student teachers spent the first month engaged in an intensive induction to PGCE. As the following extract from *The Intercultural problems involved in setting up a joint teacher training programme* explains:

The PGCE is a highly structured, somewhat rigid course, which to some extent, encourages conformity rather than creativity, and therefore, students are given very clear guidelines as to course requirements and expectations. This led them, in turn, to expect similar uniformity of documentation and course requirements in their *Maîtrise fle* experience. The students found the freedom exercised by French universities and tutors difficult to understand, and there

was a tendency to interpret this academic autonomy as uncoordinated. Equally, the different teaching styles and approaches of their various *Maîtrise* tutors were treated judgementally – students did not see diversity of approach as a richness of experience. Having gained a superficial notion of ‘good’ and ‘bad’ teaching from their PGCE induction period in the UK, some students were quick to apply the same criteria to their own experiences in France (Lawes and Barbot, 2001:110).

These reflections on the first two years of one joint programme are echoed in the research data presented here. They relate to the point made in Chapter 6 about how student teachers’ expectations and aspirations are formed at the outset of their training. The extent to which the perception of a theory/practice divide was overcome will be addressed in Section 7.2.

7.2 Experiences of the PGCE/*Maîtrise* fle from an institutional perspective

7.2.1 Institution ESE

The dual certification course has been running in this HEI since 1998. The partnership is with a single French university (FULCO), and close ties developed from the 1997-1998 planning stage onwards. The course tutor in ESE had been in post for just over one year and had not therefore been involved in the original setting up of the course. She had sole responsibility for the course, teaching both subject and professional studies and liaising with schools. Two of the student teachers were French nationals and one was English.

The expectations of student teachers on this programme varied: all three student teachers seemed to categorise the PGCE as practical and the *Maîtrise* as ‘theory’, but saw the two courses as complementary. Student

teacher MESEst1 had expected the PGCE to be more practical and was surprised at how theoretical and hard work the *Maîtrise* was. MESEst.2, commenting on the PGCE course said, 'We learn much more about the professional aspect of the teaching rather than theoretical aspects. And that's what I wanted from the course. (...) The PGCE seems to be much more focused on teaching lessons'. One student teacher commented on how the knowledge gained on the *Maîtrise fle* course had enthused her and given her confidence for when she came back to England for the long block school practice (MESEst1). MESEst2 contrasted the approaches to teaching on the two courses: PGCE, she felt, was more participatory and involved practical planning for teaching, while the *Maîtrise fle* was 'typical of the French system', where the lecturers are more distant. She concluded that the *Maîtrise fle* was more academically enriching and challenging, and the PGCE more 'useful' although challenging too. MESEst1 expressed similar views, but MESEst3 who was altogether more academically orientated, found the *Maîtrise fle* a more interesting, stimulating experience. He found the English HEI experience too superficial:

'I am not very happy about the college session here in ESE, we have got so little time that we don't go in depth and it is really frustrating because there are things I should like to do a bit more, talk a bit more about, but we can't because we don't have the time.... I am frustrated all the time when we have got college sessions because I would like to read all the books, but we don't have the time'.

He also drew attention to what he saw as a narrowness of approach on the PGCE course compared with the *Maîtrise fle*, 'There is one line and you just follow the line'. Two student teachers on PGCE courses made similar

comments (ESEst5, EW1st15) about the prescriptiveness of the English approach.

Lack of time also seemed to be a problem as far as the *Maîtrise fle* was concerned:

'You couldn't reach your complete potential because there wasn't time. That was the crazy thing and it was ever so interesting. (...) you really wanted to go into detail and research it but you didn't. At times I knew I could do something more, but I was so restricted by time' (MESEst1).

Insufficient time to consolidate learning is a familiar issue on PGCE courses, as both student teacher and tutor data in Chapters 5 and 6 confirm. However, the problem is even more acute on the joint programme. Furthermore, the combination of the lack of time to read, research and reflect sufficiently during the HEI parts of both courses and the immersion into school practice that the student teachers experience when they return from France to the PGCE may diminish the benefit that PGCE/ *Maîtrise* student teachers accrue from the joint programme. This was certainly the concern of tutor ESEt2:

'I think there is a huge physical and psychological school/college divide and I think the students possibly are becoming even more entrenched at this time of year (May), saying "Well, that was theory but now we're seeing this in practice and this is how we're going to do it, because experienced teachers do it like this". (...) I'd like more regular contact with the students, so that I can keep sort of chipping away and reworking the same issues.'

She thought that PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers on this programme were at a disadvantage in having to go straight into a long block school practice immediately they returned from France and were unable to benefit from the 'more gentle' introduction to school experience that PGCE student

teachers had. Tutor ESEt2 also felt that time pressures were more acute with this group of students and as far as course content was concerned and as a result the professional studies content was reduced and that as a result, student teachers were very subject focused and less familiar with the wider professional role of the teacher. She commented that school-based mentors sometimes felt that PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* were less well prepared for integrating into school life. This is an interesting observation that was seen by this tutor as a negative point about the joint programme. However, it is possible to shed a different light on the comment. Firstly, the retaining of a strong subject focus is arguably no bad thing in the current situation where the pastoral and other duties of teachers in English secondary schools might be seen to over-shadow the role of the teacher as a specialist in their subject discipline. Secondly, there are differing views as to whether student teachers should or should not integrate fully into schools. Both some tutors, but school-based mentors in particular, argue that they should gradually 'blend in' and become undistinguishable from other staff members in true apprenticeship fashion. Others feel that this is not possible within such a short training period and that this approach runs counter to a true partnership training model in situations where their status of student or trainee might be abused. Full 'integration' might also be considered neither possible nor even desirable since a degree of objectivity and distance in relation to their placement schools is essential to student teachers' effective professional development. This view would see the perceived lack of integration of PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers as positive rather than negative.

However, tutor ESEt2 was confident that there were other positive benefits of the dual certification programme:

'I think it adds a lot obviously in terms of theoretical knowledge and in a sort of widening of perspective that probably straight PGCE doesn't have. (...) To me, one of the most satisfying things about this course is to see the rapid developments during the year. (...) ...the potential is massive and I think the results have been pretty astounding really, the development that you see is tremendous in most cases'.

She saw the further integration of the two courses as an on-going development as a way of addressing what she saw as a theory/practice divide between the two courses. This, she felt, could be better achieved over a two-year training period.

The student teachers, nevertheless, recognised the complementarity of the two courses and how each aspect, the *Maîtrise fle*, the HE-based study and school practice were all linked, as MESEst2 observed:

'In ESE it's all objectives and much more defined in the sessions. In FULCO we called it the *Maîtrise 'flou'* (vague) because there weren't any objectives and in ESE it's the opposite - all the sessions have objectives and it's very structured. Everything we did at ESE we put into practice and much more directly relate to practice. FULCO wasn't like that. But they merge together. At the beginning you don't really see the connection between the *Maîtrise* and the PGCE. For instance, the sessions at college - but then as time goes by you definitely see in your own practice being at school or even in the readings from college that whatever we did in FULCO is useful for here and whatever we did during the start (PGCE induction period) here is useful for the *Maîtrise* as well because we have to write a *mémoire* (dissertation) and basically it is all going to be included. I have become more interested in learner autonomy for instance thanks to the *Maîtrise* and that is something that you can definitely use when you prepare lessons. The same for strategies, reading strategies etc - we have worked on all of these - language learning strategies and that is something I consistently use in my lessons now because I know it is important (*sic*)!'

The 'theory/practice' divide was perhaps more of a concern for the HE tutor than student teachers who were making links and reflecting on what they are learning in three very different settings.

Through these student teachers' accounts of the reading that they undertook for the *Maîtrise fle* it is possible to see that this particular joint programme offers a substantial exposure to theoretical perspectives. It is when what is regarded as the theoretical content of the PGCE is compared with the *Maîtrise fle* that differences in perception as to what is 'theory' emerge. The student teachers have perhaps the best insight into this as only *they* experience both courses. However, the extent to which they differentiated between the degree of theory presented on the PGCE course and the *Maîtrise fle* varied between the three student teachers on this programme.

Student teacher MESE1's account of what she read for both courses provides interesting contrasts and information about the type of reading that was engaged in on each of the courses:

'I'll start with the PGCE because that is more fresh in my mind. A lot of it is based on the Pachler & Field book, *Learning to Teach Modern Foreign Languages* which is good.(...)Other books I've read are the Language Learning Journal and the CILT Pathfinders. In France I did a lot of reading specific to different dossiers⁸⁰ and different subjects. (...) People who have proved to be big theorists but I hadn't heard of before - Bourdieu, Piaget and Vygotsky but over here I haven't heard it mention in ESE which is surprising because they are the big gods in the *Maîtrise* and then they don't come up again which is a bit strange. Well not strange but different. You feel a real difference. But you do refer back to the *Maîtrise* - David Little and Byram, his

⁸⁰ *dossiers* are formative and summative assignments for which students are generally required to make oral presentations to peers.

book is quite nice because it is nice easy stuff, not easy but quite approachable and Genevieve Zarate. Louis Porchez, who is strongly advised by (name of tutor) but actually interesting as well - he came and gave us a *conférence* as well which was really good. The main ones are Porchez, Zarate, Byram and the Piaget and Vygotsky. That is just the *didactique*. And then history books a book on political, social and economic movements of French history from the period which was ideal. For linguistics, different theorists, various reports I did on dyslexia and I found the French Association of Dyslexia so lots of literature from them. For literature we did Tournier. For more *dossiers* for (name of tutor), I did quite a bit of reading on *La Culture des Jeunes* (youth culture). And a psychologist, I can't remember his name, he has done a lot of writing. (...)The majority (of reading) was for the presentations and the *dossiers* that we wrote and the majority was dedicated to our reflecting on theories, analysing well-known theorists and the topics.'

This student teacher makes the point very clearly that the majority of reading that she did for the course, particularly of a theoretical nature, was in the context of the *Maîtrise fle* and that this was orientated towards academic assignments and presentations. She contrasts this with the practice-orientated reading for her PGCE course and conveys her awareness of the difference between the two courses and went on to observe that she wouldn't have known about key theorists if it hadn't been for the *Maîtrise fle* experience. When asked whether that mattered, her response was that it does matter, that knowledge of theory enabled one to 'think more analytically about what you are doing', that it gave a historical understanding of 'why education is what it is today', and a knowledge of why 'you are doing what you're doing in the classroom'. It should be noted that her comments were confined to the applied theory of modern foreign languages since she felt that the course offered very little by way of general educational theory. General Professional Studies, she observed, were very general and very vague. She concluded by commenting on a general comparative point between the PGCE and the *Maîtrise fle*:

'I think you do need it (theory) and it is a shame you don't get it and I think I am very pleased I have done both of them (joint programme) because I don't think I would have got it without doing it. I think if I had just come and done the PGCE I would have had a much narrower idea of it and I would have just seen it in the school environment and education is a lot broader than that. It carries on after children leave school, when they are adults, especially in languages you can carry on learning languages throughout life but I do see it in the whole wider sense of life today '(sic) (MESEst1).

The two other PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers at ESE gave similar accounts of their reading for the French course. MESEst2 said that she hadn't read anything since she had been back on the PGCE course, but would do so for her assignment. Unlike the other two student teachers, she did not seem to differentiate between the 'theory' presented in the *Maîtrise fle* and that of the PGCE, saying that she thought that in ESE she felt that sometimes there was too much theory and that she liked to do practical things, 'because that's mostly what we need to get by in school'. MESEst3 was an avid reader who had a serious academic focus and saw theory as important:

'The *Maîtrise fle* was able to bring a lot about theory which maybe can't always be applied in any school with any kind of pupils. Practically you just have to look at everything we know in theory and only a little part can be applied but at least we have got possibilities and resources to refer to. I think it is important. It is difficult to keep theory in mind when we are in practice. (...) Theory can help to have a broader view and relate one to the other and this sort of thing.'

This was an insight not in evidence among any of the PGCE or *CAPES* student teachers, that is a result of actually having read some theoretical works.

Each of these student teachers saw a combination of subject knowledge and pedagogic theory as essential to the teacher but had differing views of how the joint programme might be made more effective. MESEst3 emphasised the need for more systematic contact with HE and suggested the replacement of the long block placement with slots of time in college at regular intervals. He thought the one year programme was successful and particularly valued the *Maîtrise fle* experience. MESEst2 thought that the demands placed on student teachers were too heavy and that there should be more integration of course work. Her interview data taken overall that she most valued the PGCE part of the programme, but spoke positively of the majority of the *Maîtrise fle* experience. MESEst1's final comments identified the pressures of time as being the most problematic:

'I suppose the fact that what we have done, the double qualification, I don't regret it. I am really pleased I have had the chance to do both of them. We have had a much richer experience from doing both of them rather than just doing one or the other and that it is a shame if you don't have the chance to do both. Maybe a year is optimistic in thinking you can do it, to be honest because it is ridiculous, it really is. Maybe a year and a half, so what if it takes it but we get to do it and the fact that people, nobody met all the deadlines to be honest because it wasn't physically possible so maybe the time. You have got to recognise it is a high standard and not detract from that and detract from what people could be able to give. So add an extra term.'

These three student teachers presented a largely positive picture of their experience of the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programme and illustrated ways in which the French qualification enhanced their initial training experience. They identified similar concerns about the course as their tutor and also gave unique insights into their particular *Maîtrise fle* experience. A key

issue that arises from this interview data is the extent to which student teachers are able to synthesise the knowledge gained on both courses and the opportunities that each element of this particular training programme supports and facilitates this.

7.2.2 Institution EE

Institution EE and had been running the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* joint certification programme since 1996⁸¹, in collaboration with a consortium of French universities. Two of the three student teachers interviewed had completed their *Maîtrise fle* studies at the same university in France (MEEst4 and 5 at FS2). MEEst6 studied at institution FNE along with student teacher MEMst8 from institution EM. Student teacher MEEst4 was English and the other two were both French nationals.

All three student teachers expected the PGCE part of the programme to be practically orientated, commenting on the contrast and complementarity with the *Maîtrise fle* element. MEEst4 compared the content of the *Maîtrise fle* which included sociolinguistics, a historical study of the development of modern languages teaching methodology, the Francophone world and the didactics of teaching French as a foreign language, with the PGCE, which

⁸¹ The programme was set up as a European funded project. The background to the project is described in Chapter 4 of this study. At the time of the data collection for this study, despite the success of this course, a management decision had just been taken to close the course. Two reasons for this were reported by the course tutor: firstly that as the course was no longer receiving European funding, it was seen as being expensive to run; and secondly, the pattern of the course was inconsistent with the normal PGCE.

she described as 'brilliant for all things like lesson planning and all the practical things and ideas for the classroom'. The *Maîtrise fle* 'is largely helpful because it gives us a very solid background for teaching. It improved my French'. She added that in her school experience, she learned 'a lot about classroom management, more than you ever could in a lecture, and that's really important'. She admitted that she had not seen the relevance of the *Maîtrise fle*, because it was quite historical in orientation, but concluded

...but now I look back, and it gave a context to how and why we do things now and you can see what approaches have continued to be used and how methodology has improved. And I think that does help to justify everything in our own minds about why you are doing things, why you are teaching the way you are (...) Without the *Maîtrise* ... I can't imagine it without it - there would have been a lot of things that I would have just not been sure of - even with things like learning about the Francophone world, for example, because the textbooks are so focussed on France and I can now bring that other knowledge in with the children, so that they know more about where French is spoken, about their cultures and so on, the influences of France'.

These comments illustrate how this student teacher recognises the value of developing her own knowledge in academic terms and how, indirectly, this will contribute to what Whitty (2003) calls 'professionalism', that is, her professional identity and inform her professional practice. She observed that the *Maîtrise fle* studies had enabled her better to understand *why* she did things, and this implies a level of reflection that is not confined to a subjective evaluation of lessons, although no doubt, that forms part of her professional practice. The PGCE appears to provide an intermediary between the theoretically based *Maîtrise fle* studies and classroom practice.

MEEst4 seems to have recognised the distinctiveness of each of the three elements of the programme but has been able to make links and draw on each area of knowledge as part of a whole. When she talked about the reading she had done for both courses, there was a clear distinction, but complementarity here too. For the *Maîtrise fle* she had read learning theorists like Piaget and Bruner, but complained that there was not enough time in the four-month period, to really read in enough depth, given the variety of other modules that the course comprised. However, she had developed a curiosity to read more and know more about theoretical perspectives, mentioning theories of motivation as something she was interested in. She gave examples of small research projects that she had engaged in France - one concerned with phonetics and pronunciation, that had involved research into how learners learn new sounds and included a practical exercise recording and analysing a non-native French speaker. Her reading for the PGCE followed a familiar pattern of basic texts and the course reader for Professional Studies, mostly for assignments. But she also drew on texts read in France and mentioned more academically orientated works that she had sought out subsequently to inform her written work. She also commented that her reading was not just for assignments but that she had been looking at research into, for example, Special Educational Needs, that 'helped me not just for my assignment but everything to do with teaching and learning, because it made it clear'. When asked about how she saw the role of theory, her response displayed an understanding of why a theoretical understanding is important.

'I think theory provides a good background before you go into practice. It's almost essential to do theory. I think there is an

analogy with horse riding: some riders are good and don't know anything about the theory and some very bad riders that know a lot about the theory. But the very best riders are the ones that know why they are doing things all the time and they manage to put that into practice. So you can have one without the other, but when you have both, and use them to bounce off each other, that works best'.

The other two student teachers in this group provided similar insights into how they value their *Maîtrise fle* studies. They provide further evidence to support the hypothesis that the dual certification programme offers modern foreign languages student teachers a distinctiveness of experience and greater academic and professional knowledge than the PGCE. Student teacher MEEst5, in commenting on the complementarity of the two courses, pointed to references made during PGCE sessions to the *Maîtrise fle* course and the way in which the studies in France informed her PGCE assignment work:

'... what we learnt in France, actually we do talk sometimes about a few points we talked about in France here, (...) especially for the assignments as a matter of fact. I think what we did in France did help a lot for the assignments and then you realise for instance when we did the taping of the foreigners and everything, this helped us a lot because were taught how, by using the target language yourself, you make yourself understood by a foreigner without using English and that was a very good experience. So that is the link I can see very well there, in this example'.

Although what she says here indicates a limited formal cross-flow of ideas in PGCE sessions, student MEEst5 appears to be making links and drawing on experience and knowledge gained on the French course to inform her PGCE work. This point is strongly supported by her tutor in England when he commented:

'But if you are looking for differences between the standard PGCE course and the European Teacher Programme, that is, I think, one of the most significant differences, the standard post-grads have done reading, but it hasn't had the same dimensions to it that the students

have gathered from French university course. It's a value which they put on it when they've done their assignment and we've noticed over the last three years an increasing number of references which have either been made either in German or in French within their essays, which we allow them to do, with quotations in either of those languages as well. (...) Yes it does come out in their written work, which makes a big difference between the assignments from the *Maîtrise* and the assignments from the postgrads'.

When student teacher MEEst5 talked about the reading she had undertaken for both courses, she further emphasised the links between them, but more importantly, showed that she was not just reading instrumentally for her assignments, but had developed genuine interests in theoretical perspectives of language teaching and learning that were not simply classroom-based issues. She was disappointed that school practice was so time-consuming that she did not have time to read more, but was already contemplating further study. Student teacher MEEst6 commented that the theoretical background to teaching modern languages that the *Maîtrise fle* provided had 'opened my mind' and provided a 'framework of ideas in which to work'. She explained how she saw the links between the two courses:

'But in France there was a lot of theory, a lot of work from books, this is what these philosophers think. All the big names like Chomsky, Bruner, which is really interesting, because once you understand that you understand better what goes on in the classroom and the *Maîtrise* gave me that theoretical part and the PGCE here is concrete examples. What EEt6 tells us is, these are all the things you could do and he makes us actually do the games and he makes us see - this works or that doesn't work and the effect it will have on the pupils'.

She also indicated that the early stages of the PGCE course prior to going to France informed some of the *Maîtrise fle* studies:

'When we were in EE for a month we were introduced to teaching in England and some basic classroom skills which at the time didn't

really mean much. Then we went to France and we had the theory which kind of clarified some of the things we'd done before and also when I went into the classroom I could see where some of the things were coming from and now we are going back over how to do a listening exercise and because I've had practice in the classroom, I can say 'Oh yes, it worked like that' and I can go back to my notes and think about them and we are given even more precise directions'.

Tutor EEt6 threw a slightly different light on this when he commented on the way the course is structured so that the student teachers begin the year with a practical focus on teaching followed by a four-month period of academic study in France and then, he suggests, '...when they come back they have this slightly conflicting interest - how do I deal with this in the classroom? But with some jolly good understandings which have been developed in their French *Maîtrise* course'. He highlights here an important issue regarding the relationship between theory and practice, which is perhaps reminiscent of earlier forms of the PGCE, where the university part of the course was theoretical, with apparently few links made with the period spent in school practice.

But these three students show the different ways in which their PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programme enabled them to see links between the applied theory and practice and how the PGCE HE component provided a kind of mediating link between the *Maîtrise fle* course and practical teaching in schools. It should be noted here that, at institutions EE and ENW, the student teachers spent each Friday afternoon throughout the year in the HEI. This ensured consistent contact between the course tutor and the students, together with access to library facilities that none of the other courses (either PGCE or PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle*) studied in this research,

provided⁸². This is a unique feature that enabled regular discussion, reflection and sharing of ideas that the student teachers valued (MEEst4) and which the tutor saw as an important feature of the course that enhanced their professional development. He also emphasised the value and influence of the depth of cultural awareness and knowledge that the student teachers acquired both from the *Maîtrise fle* course and (for the English student teachers) their experience of living in France. He saw this as a distinctive feature of the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle*:

' And of course a lot of it (the *Maîtrise fle*) is focussed on *l'interculturel*⁸³ which the French have far more experience of and far more knowledge about, they can talk about it, have done it as part of their university courses. It's a totally unexplored area that we haven't used over here. They can use their knowledge from the French course and they like that. And they see how they can use it with their pupils.'

Nevertheless, within the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle*, as the student teachers and the tutor in institution EE suggest in their comments above, the PGCE element does indeed provide an effective mediating link through principled guidance on practice between the theory of the *Maîtrise fle* and school practice. This mediating link seems to be made in this particular programme through the tutor's ability to provide opportunities for student teachers to draw on the *Maîtrise fle* knowledge and experience in their course work and through weekly contact and discussion where the tutor

⁸² Institution ENW also had weekly 'college' sessions during the year. These were based in a school where there were no library facilities and comprised subject/curriculum studies sessions and group observations of teaching.

⁸³ *L'interculturel*, as it is understood in France has a far greater significance than 'cultural awareness' as it features in modern foreign languages curricula in England. It covers a range of broader issues, in some ways similar to what in England we call multiculturalism (Abdallah-Preteuille 1996, 1999, Byram & Zarate 1997).

encouraged them to draw on the *Maîtrise fle* content wherever possible.

This is a particular strength of this programme.

On this programme, student teachers had little to say about how it could be improved. One of the student teachers (MEEst4) said that one year was long enough and that any longer would be frustrating as she wanted to be independent, while MEEst5 said that although the course was not perfect, she had learned a great deal from the year. MEEst6 was unreserved in her praise: 'It's a great course, I would recommend it, especially the opportunity of studying in a French university - that's not to be missed'. Tutor EEt6 had clear ideas, if given *carte blanche* of what improvements could be made. What he suggests is time to consolidate the intensive nature of the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* in a second year that would then lead on to the 'NQT year'. This would answer student teachers' disappointment that the dual certification programme does not allow sufficient time for as much reading and thinking about modern foreign languages teaching and learning to engage in depth with broader educational issues and classroom research:

'I think I would have to make it a two-year programme. I don't think I would change anything about the first part of the course and after that I would certainly want them to be in-situ, in a job for the second part because they are desperately in need of being paid. But in that time, my ideal would be a little like what we have with our students: a 50% timetable and time to engage in some substantial classroom research which is a little bit like M level work – partly like the London Institute if they wanted, partly taught, but always some form of classroom investigation which needs to be very well informed in terms of their reading, but with time given for them to read. Time given to them to reflect upon their teaching in the other 50% of the timetable. And I think you would have a much better, more relaxed profession. A much better informed profession and people who would generally have things to offer each other'.

A sentiment, that would no doubt be echoed by many of PGCE colleagues, tutor EEt6 had a clear vision of what mfl initial teacher training could be, that pointed to the inadequacies of the present system but a commitment to the principles of the dual certification course.

Institution EM

The dual certification programme in HEI EM had been running since the early 1990s. The interviews for this study took place during the final year of the programme as a management decision had recently been taken on financial grounds to discontinue the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle*. The course tutor, had been responsible for the programme for one year, although she had been contributing to it and the PGCE mfl for six years. One of the student teachers interviewed was a French national (MEMst7), the other two (MEMst8 and 9) were both English. MEMst8 had done the *Maîtrise fle* course at institution FNE in common with student teacher MEEst6 from institution MEE. Student teacher MEMst9 did her *Maîtrise fle* at institution FS2.

The tutor and student teachers interviewed at HEI EM were more muted in their comments on the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle*. Tutor Emt10 saw a number of benefits that the dual certification course offered but also had a number of concerns. She identified three main areas of distinctiveness of the programme: the increased cultural awareness that student teachers gained from the *Maîtrise fle* course and living in another country, the 'huge linguistic benefits' for non-native French speakers and the increased career

opportunities that obtaining two qualifications offered. She saw the two courses as complementary, noting that the courses in the French universities varied according to the strengths of particular departments ranging from a literary focus, to ICT, to a more linguistic orientation. Although this led to a differential *Maîtrise fle* experience tutor EMt10 confirmed that:

'(But) there is also the opportunity, when the students get back, to share that. Now they don't share it in a very thorough way, but we hope that there is, you know, an element of cascading. So the ones, for example, who've been and really looked at the problems that learners of French have in terms of making the sounds, I think they go out into schools being very well equipped in terms of teaching pronunciation, and they have very good pronunciation themselves'.

She considered that these experiences contributed to their performance in the PGCE, but was concerned that the theory/practice 'divide' was emphasised in the minds of student teachers⁸⁴ and also 'at the tutoring level on the programme'. She saw this more of a problem of style rather than content:

' They see the (*Maîtrise fle*) element as the theory, and the PGCE as very practical. And yet the PGCE is also certainly based in theory, and we draw on theory all the time. So I think really what they're saying is that there is a difference between the organisation of the seminars and lectures. They are much more interactive here in a way that it's more sort of transmission mode in France' (*sic*).

This observation has some resonance as to where it locates the theory/practice 'divide', that is, in terms of style rather than content. A significant proportion of the student teachers interviewed for this study expressed a preference for the more interactive and participatory teaching style of the PGCE rather than the formal lecture approach common in the

Maîtrise fle. This tutor's comments draw attention to the distinction between 'drawing on' theory implicitly and an explicitly theoretical content which is a characteristic of 'principled guidance on practice'. This is the distinction between the PGCE and the *Maîtrise fle*, where theory *per se* is engaged with.

The principal concerns expressed by tutor EMt10 were essentially derived from the intensive nature of the programme and she thought that should run over an extra three months. The focus of her concern was with the pressure to ensure that student teachers reached the standards required for Qualified Teacher Status. She also suggested that her institution had a rigid attitude towards 'compliance with regulations' whereas other institutions had achieved a degree of 'flexibility' in the interpretation of the 230 days in school that had made it easier to fit in the taught course. She felt that PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers faced particular challenges in this respect:

'It's not possible for them to grow into it gradually and to have the staged progression that I think a standard PGCE offers. They have to hit the ground, wherever they are they hit the ground running, and they're not always quite ready to do that. So some of them, it comes as a culture shock. Where there are difficulties, I think they're traceable back to the fact that they haven't got the opportunity to have the staged progression that is possible otherwise'.

She also cited a problem with adequately covering course content in

General Professional Studies:

'Well, I mean, I don't think they have been squeezed out. But, the way they operate here, is that they are generic and then we take

⁸⁴ One of the three student teachers interviewed from this programme expected 'More theoretical and academic from the *Maîtrise* and the practical side from the PGCE which is how it turned out' (MEMst9).

them forward into subject specific. But it's fair to say that they're not really implemented in the same way on the European course as they are on the mainstream course because there isn't the time element. I think they have less time to deal with that here than on a standard mainstream course. They experience it, but, em, it's sort of one part of many parts and all of them are quite fast. So there's, em, I don't think it probably seems as joined up to the students as it does on our mainstream course'.

The interview material with this tutor reflected a narrow concern for the PGCE element rather than a broader view of how the whole dual certification programme and how the two courses might cohere to enrich the student teachers' initial training. She provided little evidence, beyond an assertion of the complementarity of the two courses, that the links between the two courses were drawn out, although comments made by the student teachers suggest that they do see links. Student teacher MEMst7 thought that the programme as a whole was well designed, that the *Maîtrise fle* was not separate, but was not directly applicable. She thought that the HE part of the PGCE provided an opportunity to 'think at what we're doing, take a step back and share and discuss experiences'. In saying this, she identifies one of the important functions of the HEI component. She had expected to gain practical experience on the French course⁸⁵ and that there would be more theory on the PGCE although she welcomed the practical focus of the PGCE course while acknowledging that practical ideas for the classroom:

'...link back to the theory and there's always the theory behind it, but I think the approach here is quite good and it's less frustrating for us because you think, yeah, I can see how this is useful, I can see what it is going to do when I'm stood in front of 32 year nines who are demanding, you know, to know how the perfect tense works. I can

⁸⁵ In fact, every *Maîtrise fle* course does include a *stage*, practical experience, but this takes place after the dual certification student teachers go back to England. The school practice on PGCE replaces the *Maîtrise* practical module.

say, oh I know the theory behind this, but I don't know if they need to know all the pattern behind it all'.

This student teacher displayed a very practical rather than academic orientation throughout her interview although as we have seen she had made links between the two courses. However, she seems to confuse learning that is part of her own academic knowledge and not directly transferable to practice, and what knowledge is transmittable to pupils. She went on to say:

'And I think the (*Maitrise fle*) courses, like the grammar courses in France - at the time I thought, oh God, I'm never going to need to know all this, which, yeah, it's true, but it gave me a good look into how I could cover ground when in a classroom, but just watching someone trying to teach me the linguistics that I'd never learnt before'.

Her comment was interesting in that she seemed to understand the need for theoretical underpinning, but despite saying that she thought it is not possible to teach properly without theory, other comments suggest she did not entirely believe in its importance, or at least had a degree of scepticism as to the purpose of theory:

'I think it's important, I think you need to look at the general trends, umm, the theories of, you know, how, in theory you should be presenting what you're doing, but I think it's like anything, you can't say, *all* fifteen year olds need to do this because, you know, it's not the case. I think I'm quite a practical person, I think the theories are all well and good and I do think that you need them and you need to have them. You do exams, how things work and look at them, because you need to get the big picture and you can't necessarily do that on your own, but there are times when you think that, well yeah, that's true, but you know, does it apply to this particular class or, I take it all with a bit of a pinch of salt, I don't just sort of swallow everything whole and say oh yes, you know, this big theory says, I think well, okay, yeah, think about it and then weigh it up, try it out for myself'.

Do her views reflect the particular ethos of the PGCE course she is enrolled on, might we conclude that her scepticism is a healthy response to theory that implies a questioning, critical attitude, or are they the response of a 'practical person' for whom it is sufficient to know that her practice is underpinned by theory, a 'principled professional'? Her view of the links between the PGCE and the *Maîtrise fle* were that they exist, but that, 'I think you have to look quite hard for the links that are there, it's not obvious that they are there'. This would seem to support her tutor's perception of the lack of coherence between the two courses.

However, student teacher MEMst9 saw the course 'as a whole and things link in'. She had found the *Maîtrise fle* 'useful as well as informative' and thought that it was interesting to get the level of theory that did not feature in the PGCE course. She had read widely for the *Maîtrise fle*, but had done little reading since returning to England due to lack of time. She referred to second language acquisition theories as 'put (ting) everything into place' and thought that it was interesting to read works of theory on aspects of teaching to learn 'why you teach in a certain way'. Of conflicting theoretical perspectives, she thought that individuals needed to 'make up their own mind by what works and what seems to be true', adding that it is not possible just to straightforwardly implement theory.

The interview data relating to the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programme at EM conveys a less dynamic relationship between the two courses. One significant contributing factor may be that the tutor conveyed less

enthusiasm about the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* than her colleagues in other HEIs,⁸⁶ because this programme was about to close. There was no indication in the interviews that the quality of the programme was affected in terms of organisation and delivery. It may be, however, that the fact that there were no developmental possibilities, the tutor concentrated more on providing a successful PGCE experience than to draw fully on the complementary aspects of the *Maîtrise fle*. The interview data from the student teachers contain less evidence of their drawing on the *Maîtrise fle* experience than student teachers on other programmes. As has already been noted, MEMst8 attended the same course as MEEst6 who talked confidently and at more length of ways in which the two courses were linked and how the *Maîtrise fle* informed the PGCE and provided a theoretical background. If we compare the responses of student teacher MEMst9 with student teacher MEEst4 who both spent their *Maîtrise fle* course at institution FS2, there is less of a difference between the way they reflected on the course and drew out links.

There are perhaps too many variables to draw firm conclusions from this part of the data, but two factors emerge that seem to affect to the degree of additional benefit student teachers gain from the dual certification course. Firstly, the PGCE tutor would seem to play a pivotal role in drawing on and making explicit the links with the *Maîtrise fle* course. This is particularly apparent when tutors Eet6 and Emt10's comments are compared. Secondly, the extent to which the individual student teacher is able to make

⁸⁶ The notable exception is tutor EWt2 that is discussed in section 7.2.5.

links for herself and benefit from the intellectual challenge of the *Maitrise fle*, is an issue of attitudes towards teaching and expectations of the dual certification course that the PGCE can and should address.

7.2.4 Institution EW2

The tentative conclusions posited above are, to some extent borne out by the interview data gathered in institution EW2. The dual certification course here is independent of the consortium to which institutions EE, EM and ENW belong. The programme is run with two French universities, FB and FL. The interviews took place during the first year of the EW2 partnership if FL. The tutor at EW2 had been in post for some time and taught on both the PGCE and the PGCE/ *Maitrise fle*. The three student teachers interviewed were all French nationals. They all repeated the expectation of other student teachers interviewed: that for them, the *Maitrise fle* represented a theoretical introduction to teaching French and the PGCE was seen as a practical course. MEW2st12 said that she had thought at the outset that the two courses would 'give me a full and complete knowledge of what it is being a French teacher'.

MEW2st11 was highly critical of the *Maitrise fle* course she had followed, commenting that it was 'not complementary or useful', had not helped her become a better teacher in England and that it was a typically French lecture style course where the lectures were waste of time'. The course in FL included some study of French literature and history for teaching purposes, exploitation of teaching resources, some linguistics and

sociolinguistics. She pointed out that PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers only did the first part of the course and that she thought the second semester would have been more interesting⁸⁷. She had read very little for the *Maîtrise fle*, while for the PGCE she had read about classroom management and differentiation and singled out *Learning to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary School* as her main reference source.

When asked about how she understood theory, she replied that it was about:

'thinking about education and the way to answer a problem. Theory helps you to be critical and it is important because it makes you think and discover new ways of thinking and reflecting on what you're doing. But in France it was too theoretical. I kept thinking, 'How will this help me prepare for my placement school?'

MEW2st11 gave the example of the 'communicative approach' to modern foreign language teaching, contrasting the PGCE where she had been taught what it is and how to do it, with the *Maîtrise fle* which was very abstract. She gave no indication that she had thought about what links there might be between the two courses. As the interview extract above suggests, she had instrumental expectations of the French course and a limit to the level of theory with which she was prepared to engage. The causes of her disaffection with the *Maîtrise fle*, the formal style of teaching, the level of abstraction, and the absence of practical guidance for teaching suggest that this student teacher had misunderstood the nature of the *Maîtrise fle* course. However, she confirmed that she was glad to have

⁸⁷ In fact the second semester is mainly a period of practical experience, a *stage*, which PGCE school experience replaces.

done the course as it was an additional qualification and that she found her PGCE and particularly, school experience, worthwhile. This profile of one student teacher's experience is presented in this way because it is an example of an almost entirely negative experience of the dual certification course.

Student teacher MEW2st12 had followed the same *Maîtrise fle* course as MEW2st11, but her views were more positive. Talking about the distinctiveness of the *Maîtrise fle* course, she gave a contrasting picture;

'It is very different from what we can have here. I find the two very complementary because we have got lots of theoretical basis over there in France and we have got lots of practice here. So the *Maîtrise* is more linguistics and stuff. So how you would teach grammar. (*sic*) Lots of things about literature as well, about art history, lots of cultural things as well. It is a more theoretical basis really. (...) I found the two really complementary and I feel much more confident.'

She also talked about the importance of the *intercultural* studies for her teaching in England, but was more enthusiastic about the English part of the programme. In the French university, she said, 'you are just sitting on a bench listening to somebody talking to you and you just take notes. You just keep forgetting all the time what you are doing in university because you are not practising what they are saying'. As far as reading was concerned, MEW2st12 said that she had read widely for written assignments on both courses. She had found the assignments for PGCE useful and one that she had completed for her *Maîtrise fle* course on teaching French to primary school pupils had led her to read and research the topic. The way that she described her approach to written work for the

PGCE suggested that she had learned how to approach reading and research as a result of her studies in France. However her understanding of what theory is, was somewhat unclear, but seemed to refer to 'principled guidance for practice' rather than theory.

'Theories really come from what you can read or from what teachers can tell you in universities what you should do with pupils or what you must do to bring them to this point, or what are the things you really have to do as a teacher like you have to adapt to your audience, that kind of thing. I suppose this is really theory. This is what it tells you, this is not always what you can do.' (sic)

For this student teacher, theory is what is on offer in the university and from reading and her reading was practice orientated. The interview data suggest that the *Maîtrise fle* course had had a limited impact on MEW2st11 and had not led her to see value in theoretical knowledge, which has been seen, was not true of other dual certification student teachers.

Student teacher MEW2st10 also confirmed that no great amount of reading had been required for her course and claimed to have read more for the PGCE than the *Maîtrise fle*, although the texts she cited were limited to Kyriacou, Pachler and Field, national curriculum documentation and a book on Special Educational Needs. Her course in France, which included linguistics and culture, 20th century history, and methodology, was in some ways complementary to the PGCE course, but pointed out that they were so different, with different aims and targeted at different learners. But where other student teachers valued to opportunity to consider approaches to teaching a range of language learners, MEW2st10 was more narrowly focused on secondary age pupils. She suggested that there should be more

comparison and synergy between the PGCE and the *Maîtrise fle*. She was somewhat critical of the French course. Like MEW2st11, she thought theory is 'What we've been taught in lectures and practice is what happens in the classroom,' and in common with both the other two interviewees in this group, she placed a limited and value on theory:

'...so theory is important. But now I'm getting my own teaching style, I'm starting to find other techniques and strategies for myself. I think theory is important at the beginning, but then you develop your own teaching. But theory isn't always what happens in the classroom.'

What were the views of the PGCE tutor on the course regarding the distinctive nature of the programme? Tutor EW2t12 had criticisms of the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* that were similar to those of her students. She had doubts as to the complementarity of the two courses although referred to the cultural awareness and text analysis as improving student teachers' subject knowledge and being very useful. But she added that as far as their competence as teachers was concerned, she was unconvinced of the benefits of the *Maîtrise fle*:

...what does the Maitrise add and does it really turn them into something better or different, distinct? I am not convinced that it does (...) they are more willing to theorise. Their assignments perhaps are a bit different. So that is when they come back in January, early February but by this time (June) in the year they have completely become, their work I find is indistinguishable from that of the PGCE, usually.

Tutor EW2t12 points to two important issues here. Firstly, there seems to be an implicit assumption in the above comments that theoretical knowledge should have an immediate impact on practice. Elsewhere in the interview, she expresses further doubts:

It is too difficult to generalise but I can't say after 4-5 years of the PGCE/Maitrise that I think they are better teachers at the end of the year. I think there was a need for research on this and I am glad that you are doing it, but I really can't see it.

This tutor also suggests that the academic benefits of the *Maîtrise fle* that are evident when the student teachers return from France are lost over the following months. This could be partly due to the fact that on their return to England from France, the group with the PGCE mfl cohort, where there was little recognition of the *Maîtrise fle* study. This is a significant difference from other programmes where the dual certification group remain as a discreet group throughout the course. At course level, such an organisational arrangement would seem to disregard the value of the *Maîtrise fle* experience, diminish its impact on student teachers' professional development and discourage student teachers from reflecting for themselves over their studies in France. Dual certification student teachers were unhappy with this arrangement and it was clear that the two groups were not well integrated⁸⁸. Tutor EW2t12's description of the organisation of the PGCE draws attention to how the distinctiveness of the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* experience is eroded:

'They do exactly the same as the others. So first term separately, in the second semester together, but essentially they have to cover exactly the same thing, so that means professional studies programme, the ICT programme, exactly the same. I don't think it works very well. Over the years we have tried several things and it has never really been solved and I think that is a problem, which is inherent with it. (...) So what I have done is that now I have created a bigger block at the beginning of the year so they come, they arrive on the 19th August and we manage to put in 2 modules of the PGCE, so that is 2 full months. So it means they have got 4 weeks ahead of the others by the time they leave. Of course when they come back

⁸⁸ This comment is based on fieldwork observations of PGCE HE teaching sessions where both PGCE and PGCE *Maîtrise fle* groups were taught together.

they are a little bit behind but not so much therefore they join the other group. So the second semester they are taught alongside the PGCE and in addition they get a few extra sessions and then they continue for a couple of weeks extra at the end of the year'.

The existence of a 'group identity', specific to the PGCE/ *Maîtrise* fle cohort, that other tutors interviewed saw as important to develop does not seem to be recognised in EW2. Equally, there seems to be an assumption here that the learning and experience of the first period on the PGCE course is 'carried over' into the second period, four months later, after the *Maîtrise fle* course without any specific intervention on the part of the tutor. It is also difficult to see how the initial induction period could be consolidated since there is no evidence in either EW2 student teacher interviews or course documentation that this first training period is drawn on by French tutors.

Indeed the following observation by the course tutor suggests the contrary:

I think it is pretty heavy on the PGCE/ *Maîtrise* and because it is so heavy I think they take shortcuts. When they come back, that is what I don't like about this joint thing, when they come back in January, we have absolutely no time to bring them back in slowly. They come back and then they have to run before they can walk again and they come back from such a different way of learning and I am not even thinking about the content, I am thinking about the format and the teaching style and suddenly there is this heavy one-to-one contact and that is when typically morale goes down. I think the de-skilling that happens as a result of their long absence during the Autumn, which has got nothing to do with PGCE or not enough to do with it. I think it is a problem.

EW2t12 acknowledges the absence of links between the two courses, and the problem that tutor EMt10 also raised regarding the difficulty in ensuring the gradual progression of professional development as a result both of the demands to meet the QTS standards and for a continuity of contact between the HEI and student teachers during the extended block practice

in school. The result was that the influence of school experience was dominant. However, the organisation of this PGCE experience within the joint programme would seem to militate against the cross-flow of knowledge and ideas. According to the course tutor, there was a certain dissatisfaction amongst some student teachers who, in particular, reacted against the university course in France on the grounds that it did not sufficiently complement the PGCE experience and was too formal and academically orientated. She admitted that she had hoped for more links between the two courses and that this needed more time to achieve. Nevertheless, there was no evidence that there was currently any active attempt either to forge links or develop complementarity, and so it was left to student teachers to synthesise the knowledge gained from the two courses for themselves, much more than in other programmes studied in this research.

In the midst of such negativity, did tutor EW2t12 see any benefits in running the dual certification programme beyond an additional way of meeting recruitment targets? 'I don't know but maybe they are more curious, more intellectually curious. I can't be sure. I think that is what I would hope'.

This tutor and the student teachers on the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programme in EW2 raise some of the problems and issues that can emerge out of projects that involve institutional partnerships. The negative comments made provide interesting insights as to how partnerships do or do not develop, how complementarity between courses is or is not achieved, and how student teachers are or are not supported in drawing maximum benefit from all aspects of their programme.

The distinctiveness of this particular dual certification programmes does not seem to be of the same order as the other programmes. The reasons for this appear to be concerned with firstly, the quality of experience offered by the *Maîtrise fle* course, and secondly the failure of the PGCE course to draw on the French studies. Unless there exists a significant degree of complementarity between the two courses, and this is understood clearly by both tutors and student teachers, theory and practice remain separate and the capacity for theory to transform the individual and their practice as well as the opportunity for practice to inform and develop theoretical understandings, is lost. It is worth reiterating here the point about the pivotal role of the PGCE tutor. In this case, the tutor clearly did not see the value or potential of drawing on the theoretical knowledge of the *Maîtrise fle* course to further the academic and professional development of her student teachers. She seemed less than enthusiastically committed to the principle of the joint programme, unlike the other tutors interviewed. Moreover, her comments, cited in Chapter 6, suggest an ambivalent view to the role of theory.

7.2.5 Institution ENW

In ENW the picture was more positive. There is a marked contrast between tutor and student teacher perceptions of the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* in institution EW2 and ENW. The dual certification programme has been running in this institution since 1993 and it was the original pilot institution in England. The course tutor had been involved in the programme since its inception.

Tutor ENWt13 made a number of comments on the ways in which she considered that the initial professional development of student teachers on the dual certification programme was enhanced. She began by observing that because of the university-based, academic content of the *Maîtrise fle*, student teachers were required to read in depth in a number of areas. As a result they developed 'high levels of abstract thinking' and were familiar with 'technical vocabulary', by which she meant linguistic terms. She went on to infer that their greater academic knowledge contributed to these student teachers' ability to reflect analytically on their teaching:

Again, obviously, the good teacher is one that can pull it off in the classroom, but the best teacher is one who can reflect – thinking about why is this working. So it's not a load of tricks that happen to work. They're thinking about why did that work, why didn't that work, does it mean that I'll never do it again, or does it mean that I'll do it differently? And I think they're very good at working that out and it's really quite astonishing, that in quite a short time they seem to internalise and have an understanding about pupils' learning. It astonishes me. After my PGCE, I wasn't at that level.

Tutor ENWt13 also pointed to two key areas of subject knowledge that the *Maîtrise fle* curriculum offered: firstly, an in-depth knowledge of the French language⁸⁹, and secondly, cultural learning, which led student teachers to place a greater importance on cultural awareness in their teaching. She gave several examples of how student teachers had promoted cultural

⁸⁹ This tutor identified a distinctive contribution that the *Maîtrise fle* offered French native speakers as being the development of in-depth knowledge of the structure of their own language and a greater awareness of the difficulties that speakers of other languages might have. The benefit that English native speakers gained, was from the opportunity to study French grammar and linguistics at a level they had probably not previously experienced in their degree courses in England. She considered that both groups demonstrated greater confidence in their subject knowledge, and that this had a direct effect on the development of their teaching within the context of PGCE.

learning in the classroom in ways that distinguished them from PGCE mfl student teachers:

'They gain a very in-depth knowledge of their own language and as a result of that I think they are better at second-guessing, predicting possible difficult areas that children and young people that they are teaching, will encounter. I really believe that quite strongly. The other thing of course is the cultural learning. I think our students are very keen to develop cultural awareness and I do think that's a missing ingredient in the National curriculum. Our students come back, 'born-again' about using authentic materials. We talked about that a lot, but it tended to be restricted to timetables and so on, which wasn't particularly culturally enriching whereas they will use music, not necessarily for the text, but to get children to give their opinions. We've got a student using 'Amélie' on DVD as a visit to Paris, so they are doing a virtual visit to Paris and so on. I think you don't quite get that with our ordinary PGCEs'.

These are examples of how this tutor saw the complementarity of the two courses and the impact the course has on student teachers' professional development. ENWt13 saw the fact that the two courses are 'so completely different' as a positive feature. The PGCE, although largely practically orientated, involved written assignments and 'mini research projects' that were enriched by drawing on the knowledge gained on the French university course. She also commented that PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers were more used to writing and that 5,000 word dissertations were 'nothing to them'. Drawing on two examples of student teachers' written work, she showed how, in practice, the *Maîtrise fle* experience informed students' PGCE studies:

'Student X, (...) has done some work on e-writing – that was her mémoire for her *Maîtrise*, and it's effect on motivation, it's effect on writing skills, cultural awareness. Another student did his main mémoire on the Francophone world, and what non-French French speakers can offer British students, by way of being West Indian, that they can link into the British West Indies and that cultural similarity and then the differences because of the different imperialisms. And they are academic studies, highly academic'.

On this course, one of the criteria for assessment of written work was that student teachers refer explicitly to their *Maîtrise fle* studies. This fact indicates that the links between the two courses have been formalised at an institutional level in England. Equally, the course tutor interview data suggests that reflection and relating to knowledge gained on the *Maîtrise fle* course is encouraged systematically to inform PGCE work and classroom practice. It should be noted that this PGCE course has evolved a particular approach to modern language teaching and learning that, in itself, differentiates it from other institutions. The course is actually based in a secondary school and there is a heavy focus on demonstration lessons and modelling by the tutor with school pupils which gives it a strongly practical orientation.

To what extent are the views of the PGCE tutor borne out by student teachers' perceptions? Two of the three student teachers interviewed at ENW were French native speakers, a French national (ENWst13) and a Martiniquan (ENWst14); the third (ENWst15), was English. The two French native speakers both expressed particular satisfaction in the professional preparation that the PGCE offered.

Student teacher ENWst13 saw the *Maîtrise fle* as the theoretical part of the programme and PGCE as practical, but added that the theory didn't always link with practice. She had not had any clear expectations of the course except that the PGCE course would offer 'concrete ideas'. She said that she had found both teaching experience and the reading she had done the

most useful parts of the programme. In France she had read a great deal about learning strategies and *interculturel*, and in England she had read for assignments relying heavily on the large number of focused readings, which the course provided. She pointed out that the *Maîtrise fle* was more orientated towards the teaching of adults and that the PGCE was more coherent and 'technically much better'. The interview data for ENWst13 indicates a preference for the more practically orientated PGCE. She made few references to the *Maîtrise fle* experience.

Student teacher ENWst14 had found the dual certification course hard to cope with in terms of workload and felt that the *Maîtrise fle* experience contributed more to his personal development than applicable to teaching, again because it was more orientated towards adults. He also saw the *Maîtrise fle* as 'the theory part' and the PGCE as the 'practical part', adding that theory didn't link with practice and he had not applied what he had learned in France. However, the content of the *Maîtrise fle* seemed fresh in his mind as he talked about the reading he had done and gave some insights into the course content on semiology, didactics, second language acquisition and linguistics. He had particularly valued the *Civilisation et Anthropologie* module of the course and had written his dissertation on *La France Outre Manche*. He had read a number of theoretical works by Vygotsky, Piaget and Martinez as well as on francophone studies and *interculturel*, and he talked briefly about the writers' ideas and theories. By this, he showed that he seemed to have gained a great deal, as he said, in terms of his own academic and personal development. He was critical of

the *Maîtrise fle* module on lexis and grammar, which, he said 'was taught theoretically and not related to how it might be taught, so students were left to draw their own conclusions or work that out for themselves'. This point highlights an important difference between the PGCE and the *Maîtrise fle*: that the majority of lecturers in France are specialists in their field, but not teacher educators. With the exception of specialists in didactics and *interculturel*,⁹⁰ they would be unlikely to have the additional expertise of how their subject might be taught. Although the *Maîtrise fle* is a professionally orientated course, it is still essentially academic, and so when student teachers voice expectations of a theoretical content in France, they expect an approach which applies theory to a teaching situation; an expectation that is often not fulfilled. But it is a misguided expectation, but which nevertheless confirms the assertion made earlier that the initial period of PGCE experience establishes student teacher expectations. However, it does identify one of the problems and weaknesses of the dual certification course.

Student teacher MNWst15 was finding the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* intensive in terms of workload and as an English national, studying in a French university had been a very challenging, but fulfilling experience in which she had been well supported by her tutors on both sides of the Channel. When asked to comment on the complementarity of the two courses, she said she had not really had time to reflect and think about the connections between the two courses, moving from one to the other, but then went on to say:

⁹⁰ Writing in this area is largely from an education perspective. See for example, Camilleri

'But I guess that generally speaking it's to have a broader view of teaching because we're learning about teaching. For example, we were learning about teaching French to adults, things we can use, and these are universal skills in a way. Perhaps the audience there was different, from that in PGCE where we teach secondary school children, but I think that the skills that I developed in France I am continuing to develop now. So that's how I see it - complementarity. It might not seem so obvious at the beginning because they've got a different way of seeing things or because the audience was different, so it might seem that these are like chalk and cheese and it doesn't go well together. But I disagree, because I think that the underlying thing about it, the skills that you pick up from there the things we had to do there we had to do presentations and research for them, we had to discuss things, we had to meet different people from different cultures and that sort of environment is one that you find in the classroom and that has been good experience for placement B (PGCE school experience) where the first language is not necessarily English'.

Her use of the word 'universal skills' is interesting in that it shows an insight that had eluded some of the other interviewees. She also drew a parallel with her own experience as a student of being in a class with a variety of ethnic backgrounds and those of the pupils she taught in school in England which indicates a reflective approach to her professional development. The knowledge gained on the Maîtrise fle was informing her work on the PGCE and, indirectly, her classroom practice. Student MNWst15 thought that the course would have been improved if the Maîtrise fle element could have been longer because she would have liked to study more. She read a great deal in France 'using every minute, even on the Metro'. She had also read a range of books for her PGCE assignments on behaviour management and language learning although the texts she mentioned did not go beyond those on a basic reading list. She observed that the reading in England was not as 'scientific' or in depth as in France, but that she continued to read whenever she could. She considered that theory was important in

1985) as well as authors previously cited.

developing the teacher's personal values and principles. Despite the fact that her school placement was in a very tough inner-city school, she said that this was the other 'highlight' of the course because she was learning a great deal, particularly about discipline. Although she was encountering, she had not adopted a 'survivalist' approach and rather than expecting to be fed recipes for solving problems, as some PGCE student teachers did, she seemed to be confident in her own ability to work at finding her own solutions, although she added that there was sometimes a discrepancy between the expectations of her HEI and what was possible in her particular school placement. She said that reading about issues helped with solving classroom problems.

The tutor on the dual certification programme at institution ENW identifies important ways in which the *Maîtrise fle* experience impacts on student teachers. There is an active attempt to synthesise the two courses and a close working relationship with the leaders of the French course (Vasseur, 2000). The student teachers, valued the course in France and had benefited academically from it. They had now become immersed in the PGCE element which they saw as the 'practical' part of their training, and they still saw the *Maîtrise fle* as the 'theory' part. They seemed less conscious of the complementarity of the two programmes than either their tutor, or indeed, some of the student teachers in other institutions, notably EE.

7.3. The views of a *Maîtrise fle* tutor in France

One single interview was conducted with a PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* tutor (FULCOt1) in France. This semi-structured interview focused on the issues of complementarity, the distinctiveness of each course and how she envisaged the joint programme developing in the future. Tutor FULCOt1 considered that the *Maîtrise fle* course that she was responsible had a similar perspective to the PGCE, regarding the teaching and learning of French. PGCE, she thought, was 'a specific example of the general principles taught on the *Maîtrise*'. She added that student teachers did not always see that, but that most did appreciate the many common aspects, such as how languages are learned, motivation, differentiation, autonomy and the use of ICT and multimedia. Those who had much more instrumental expectations 'just want recipes for practical teaching'. Tutor FULCOt1 emphasised that over the three years that the course had been running in partnership with one HEI in England, the complementarity of the two courses was made explicit to the student teachers. How this was achieved, in her opinion, was through collaboration between course tutors to evolve a common ethos, but this was not without difficulties given the differing aims of each course. She had also introduced a *journal d'etonnement*⁹¹ in which student teachers were encouraged to record and reflect on and discuss experiences they considered important on both courses.

⁹¹ This was a sort of reflective journal in which students noted and commented on features of school life and the English school system, which surprised, shocked or puzzled them during their first period of experience in schools. At a later stage in the course, students were required to return to their first journal entries and reflect further on their initial entries,

When asked what were the distinctions between the two courses, tutor FULCOt1 used the example of multi-media resources, saying that the *Maîtrise fle* had a broader, more critical approach that she described as follows:

'What are the overall aims of using these 'tools' for learning with learners? To help them to learn better, to teach them how to learn in order to become autonomous. So what we give (the student teachers) an analytical approach to using these resources to benefit learning, not just for the sake of using the resources *per se*. The idea of selecting according to what a student teacher's overall aims are, to be able to sort out and select what best suits their learners' needs'.

To emphasise what she considered different about the *Maîtrise fle*, she continued,

'One thing that struck me when we organised a multimedia day with ESE, was that it was all ICT people involved, which means that it is a very technical approach, how to write a programme, how to do this or that, but it didn't pose the issues about what ICT is useful for, because it can't be used for everything. I think our approach is more pedagogic'.

These comments reflect both the complementarity of the dual certification programme run by ESE and FULCO, but also reflects her perception of the practical nature of PGCE courses that encourage narrow, functional expectations of student teachers. However, the majority of the data gathered both in student teacher and HEI tutor interviews confirm that the *Maîtrise fle* experience is seen as a valuable source of theoretical knowledge within the field of modern foreign languages that makes a distinctive contribution to the initial teacher training of mfl teachers.

What this *Maîtrise fle* tutor hoped to achieve with the student teachers, albeit in a very short period of time was that they should start to be 'critical

to re-evaluate their initial reactions and demonstrate their improved understanding or

professionals' (*autonome*), that they should have acquired socio-cultural knowledge, that they should understand different situations in different countries and that they should have grasped the principles of the didactics of French as a foreign language. She hoped that having read theorists like Bourdieu, that they would reflect on ideas when they are in practical teaching situations, adding:

'What we try to do is to open avenues of study and reflection, a critical perspective so that they can take the ideas further and deeper later on for themselves - that is what *autonomie* means'.

However, from a French perspective, this tutor thought that the constraints of the English national curriculum and the PGCE militated against theoretical reflection:

'Some get so immersed in the system and getting to grips with the national curriculum that they put theory aside and even accuse the *Maîtrise* of being too theoretical with not enough practical tips. When this happens, I know I have failed. It's as if the national curriculum is presented as something sacred, uncontestable. And then there's the great variability of experience they have in school - many feel constrained and just have to toe the line. They can't put into practice some of the ideas that they have developed during the *Maîtrise*'.

This observation echoes both some of the concerns of PGCE tutors involved in the various partnerships, and criticisms expressed by some of the student teachers on PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* dual certification programmes. Nevertheless, this tutor felt that the extended experience in schools that the PGCE offered was important, but that the format of the programme did not support student teachers sufficiently well. A two-year programme would be more beneficial in her opinion. A two-year training period would alleviate the pressure that dual certification student teachers experienced and

knowledge.

enable them to develop more effectively. Student teachers, she thought, need to become 'less preoccupied with practice (...) and be able to stand back and look critically at issues'. This statement expresses well an important challenge for initial teacher training at the present time.

7.4 Conclusions on the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* interview data

The PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* dual certification course introduces student teachers to aspects of the applied theory of modern foreign languages that is not offered to PGCE mfl student teachers, nor, to such an extent, to French CAPES *professeurs stagiaires*. The extent to which PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers draw maximum benefit from the *Maîtrise fle* course is in part dependent on the individual's disposition towards theoretical study and an understanding of its value. But more importantly, the Higher Education Institution where the PGCE course is undertaken is of specific significance. The PGCE course tutor has a pivotal role in maximising the benefits of the dual certification programme by providing systematic discussion and reflection on their *Maîtrise fle* studies. This is what makes explicit the complementarity of the two courses. What the research data presented here show is that tutors vary in their understanding of and commitment to and ability to achieve complementarity, since, for some, there is a tendency for the requirements of the English national curriculum for teacher training and the development of classroom skills to be the overriding concern. However, the evidence from this data suggests that tutor EEt6 has been the most successful in developing complementarity and in helping student teachers to make links between the

theory of the *Maîtrise fle*, and the 'principled guidance on practice' of the PGCE.

However, even where PGCE tutors were less committed or less successful in this, as was the case in EW2, there is evidence in the data that a significant number of the student teachers interviewed reflect and draw on the knowledge gained on the *Maîtrise fle* for themselves, particularly in PGCE course work. But, even if they are not conscious of how this course of study has changed how they understand mfl teaching and learning, it is likely that in the course of time as they develop as professionals, they will be more conscious of the value of the theoretical knowledge that they have acquired. Both PGCE and PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* tutors and a significant number of student teachers identify the need for a longer period of initial training in order to be able to read, think and develop practice in a less pressured way.

What informs and shapes student teachers' expectations of the joint programme is another important factor in ensuring that maximum benefit is derived. The initial phase of the PGCE course in England, before the departure to France for the *Maîtrise fle* is very important in laying the way for student teachers to appreciate the distinctive academic and professional benefits that they might gain from this dual certification programme. This is another aspect of the central role of the PGCE tutor. But the student teacher interview data suggests that the PGCE induction period in August/September includes little preparation for with respect to the

preparation of student teachers for the *Maîtrise fle* course, since the focus is very much on 'covering' a large proportion of PGCE course content and an initiation to classroom teaching.

The complementarity of the two courses and the importance of the theoretical study may need to be made more explicit for student teachers to gain maximum benefit from the programme overall. This conclusion is supported by the fact that a number of student teachers interviewed appeared to have largely rejected the knowledge gained on the French university course as important to their professional development because it could not be directly applied to their teaching. The fact that the course has not met their immediate professional needs does not necessarily mean that it was of not value to them in the longer term. Other PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers interviewed did not expect much in the way of immediate usefulness from the course; for them, exposure to much broader perspectives on French teaching and learning, both in terms of methodology and range of learners was interesting and challenging.

The neglect of General Professional Studies may mean that PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* student teachers have a reduced knowledge of wider aspects of the teacher's role and may be at a disadvantage in providing evidence for the QTS standards. However, the virtual elimination of general education theory from GPS programmes remains an issue for *all* student teachers on PGCE secondary courses and is not confined to PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student

teachers. In this respect, student teachers on the dual certification course are at no less of a disadvantage than their PGCE peers.

Concern was also raised by three tutors about the difficulties of ensuring *progressive* professional development when PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers do not have a gradual initiation into school life, spend long blocks of time with little or no contact with HE tutors with the consequence that school has a dominant influence. In institutions EE and ENW student teachers attended the HEI on a weekly basis for one half-day throughout the course and the tutor and student teachers all agreed that this was very beneficial.

The PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* interview data show that the majority of student teachers on the various joint programmes read significantly more than those on PGCE mfl and *CAPES* courses. This reading was largely confined, however, to the applied theory of modern foreign languages and as such remains a partial engagement with theory as general educational theory was largely absent from their studies. Nevertheless, the ability of PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers to engage with the teaching and learning of modern foreign languages at a more abstract level than PGCE mfl student teachers is confirmed by most tutors and is reflected in the student interview data and their course work. This, in itself, is a step forward in re-establishing knowledge of theory in the initial professional development of teachers that is likely to foster 'educational thinkers' .

Chapter 8

Conclusion

Introduction

Chapter 1 of this thesis identified the present anti-theoretical mood in academic literature about education and also in wider society. This raised the question of what impact this contemporary malaise has had on initial teacher training. This question was then examined through an empirical study of teacher trainers' and student teachers' views on a number of aspects of ITT mfl in order to gain insights into their attitudes to theory and its place in the early professional development of teachers. The findings, as has been seen, are that the anti-theoretical mood is clearly expressed by both. However, there is possibility for a revival of theory.

8.1 Theory and 'reflective practice' in initial teacher training: PGCE modern foreign languages

The findings of this study of the role of theory in secondary PGCE mfl at the present time has enabled a number of categorisations to be made in terms of courses, tutors, student teachers and the content of PGCE programmes. The comparative element of the study provides several insights into the strengths and shortcomings of ITT mfl in England as it exists at the present time in relation to both general educational theory and the applied theory of language teaching and learning in modern foreign languages. It also identifies problems and issues common to both systems.

8.1.1 The end of theory and the end of education studies

The research data presented in Chapter 4 included an analysis of course content that supports the conclusion that the study of general educational theory, in the sense of the 'foundation disciplines' of philosophy, psychology, sociology and history of education no longer feature on PGCE courses. They have been replaced by general, 'professional' studies, which, at best, represents and re-interprets some aspects of theory, in a diluted form that is seen as relevant to student teachers' classroom practice, such as elementary notions of learning theory and adolescent development. As the research data confirm however, General Professional Studies is generally more concerned with current practical issues such as pastoral duties, the implementation of new initiatives, such as the citizenship agenda, the Languages Strategy, or of the legal requirements placed on the teacher. As the data in this study also show, student teachers are dismissive of their General Professional Studies programmes as either being irrelevant and uninteresting. This is a result of the reduction of the study of education to technical issues and fashionable policy agendas.

8.1.2 The decline of reading and 'theoretical' study

Chapter 5 shows that student teachers report favourably on their subject/curriculum studies, commenting, for example, that 'curriculum studies guides, tells you what to do...'. Both student teachers' comments and scrutiny of course documentation confirms that they are provided with useful knowledge and information for their school experience. The focus of all subject/curriculum courses is to assist student teachers in developing

their teaching skills and to promote effective learning in their pupils. The applied theory of language teaching and learning within modern foreign languages is equally absent in subject/curriculum studies in PGCE courses. The principles of communicative language teaching (CLT) are represented in a 'pre-digested' form for student teacher to apply in the classroom. This is reflected in the reading required for courses. As Chapter 5 noted, most student teachers read the well-known texts aimed at supporting the PGCE experience such as *Learning to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary School* (Pachler and Field, 1997/2001) and *Essential Teaching Skills* (Kyriacou, 1991). Very few theoretical works were cited in reading lists. In some institutions recommended texts were entirely guidance on practice. Even where long reading lists including some theoretical works were provided, the reading student teachers undertook was related almost exclusively to preparation for course assignments and reflected a functional approach to reading. Student teachers reported that they had no time to read once they were immersed in school experience. They were more likely to seek practical advice from experienced teachers or tutors than to research issues in books or journals. This experience is likely to limit the intellectual aspirations of student teachers in the future and further reinforce the notion that teaching is a practical occupation.

However, the data pertaining to the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* suggest that when student teachers are required to read substantially works of a theoretical and academic orientation, they achieve an understanding of the value of reading as an integral part of teacher professional development. This

would seem to challenge the notion that student teachers' functional expectations and aspirations cannot be challenged and, furthermore, presents a more positive and optimistic view of the potential of initial teacher training.

8.1.3 Categorisation of mfl ITT programmes

The term 'principled guidance on practice' has been adopted here to describe the content of both general and subject/curriculum studies in ITT, whereby 'theory' is assumed to be implicit, but it is not deemed necessary to make explicit. The emphasis on 'principled guidance on practice' rather than theory, complements the practice-led content at the present time, that leads to a superficial breadth of 'coverage' rather than a depth of understanding that theory would provide. This superficial knowledge that student teachers acquire teaches them what to do in the modern foreign languages classroom and how to do it, but they achieve little understanding of why they adopt certain practices beyond the experience of 'what works'. The absence of any theoretical knowledge leads to a technicist view of mfl teaching and learning that confirms the idea that teaching is a practical occupation.

Nevertheless, in the institutions studied here, both the examination of the aims and values expressed in course documentation and tutor interview data reveal distinctive orientations regarding the type of teacher they seek to develop. These have been characterised in three ways. A preoccupation with ensuring that student teachers reach the standards for Qualified

Teacher Status favours the development of 'competent practitioners'; a desire to go 'beyond the standards' seeks to develop, 'principled professionals'. Institutions that retain a theoretical orientation, if not an explicit focus on theory, are characterised as aiming to develop 'educational thinkers'. A disparity between intention and effect has been identified, however, in that the same characterisation can be applied to student teachers, although this is more on an individual basis rather than in relation to the institution where they studied. This leads to two conclusions. Firstly, that the essentially practice-based nature of PGCE elevates the importance of practical skills for teaching over theory and professional knowledge. Secondly, that the influence on ITT of the 'theoretical' content that the HE claims to provide, has been eroded and the commitment to theory abandoned. As a result of these two factors, what HE traditionally offered is seen as relatively unimportant by the majority of student teachers. Their functional and instrumental expectations of their courses are met, but rarely challenged and very few learn to value theory. Thus the myth that teaching is largely a practical affair is perpetuated in the majority of student teachers minds

8.1.4 Reflective practice constitutes 'theory' in mfl ITT

This myth is further perpetuated by the adoption of 'reflective practice' as a replacement for theory. As the tutor interview data in Chapter 6 and the review of related literature in Chapter 1 confirms, 'reflective practice' has become widely and to a large extent, uncritically accepted as an orthodoxy within PGCE programmes as 'best practice'. The objections to 'reflective

practice' were discussed in Chapter 1 and the argument was put forward that practice has been redefined as theory, through 'reflective practice'. Tutors' understanding of reflective practice was confused, but was often expressed as little more than a form of self-evaluation, that would improve practice. Equally, while the value of reflection was assumed, there was less confidence that student teachers could learn to reflect during the initial training period. In any case, such interpretations go no way to challenging the claim that 'reflective practice' is the exemplification of individuation of thought and an individualistic response to problems that is necessarily subjective and inward-looking. As such, far from encouraging a critical perspective, as theory does, 'reflective practice' is more likely to encourage conformity and compliance, particularly within a competence-based training setting that is guided by the notion of spreading good practice in a functional sense. The usual irony for 'reflective practitioners' and others, who emphasise practice and skills, that the defence of their view is a theoretical project would be missed, particularly by the student teachers in this study. The idea of 'reflective practice' on their HE programmes, is 'theory' to them; therefore, there is no sense of loss or of any need to even defend 'reflective practice'.

8.2 ITT tutors and theory

Most tutors' views on theory were ambiguous and their understanding unclear. Claims that theory is important in ITT implied a rhetorical commitment by some, but a more serious concern by others who nevertheless considered the current model of teacher training to preclude

any serious theoretical study. Some identified a superficiality in the knowledge that student teachers gained on their courses, but felt constrained by the prescriptive nature of the NQT standards. However, when tutors talked about their 'ideal model' of teacher training, their views did not reflect a serious concern for giving theory a more central place, but they were concerned about the perceived loss of control combined with a high level of accountability that they were subject to.

The marginal importance placed on theory is further emphasised by evidence from the national curriculum for teacher training, PGCE course documentation and student teacher and tutor interviews, that practice is best developed by practice, accompanied by 'principled guidance on practice'. This belief has the effect of eroding the distinctive role of higher education by placing practice at the centre of initial teacher training and making teacher trainers the inspiration for practice rather than the intellect. In this way, both government requirements and students' expectations and needs in terms of practical skills are met. Nevertheless, tutors asserted that HE did have a distinctive role as offering a broader, more objective overview; of 'filling in the gaps' or offering a more analytical view, and they clearly believed that teacher training is impoverished without an HE influence. Tutors expressed concern about the variability and inconsistency in student teachers' school experience. They were also concerned about their professional role and status in the context of the current partnership model of ITT, which they saw as both limiting and limited.

8.3 Student teachers and theory in mfl ITT

Student teachers interviewed for this study did not expect their PGCE mfl course to be entirely focused on classroom practice. At the outset some student teachers expected and wanted there to be some 'theory', although their ideas about what theory is, were shaped by their experience of the course: that is, 'principled guidance on practice', how to do things like lesson planning and using resources, and what to do. Their subsequent experience of spending the majority of their time in school led them to be focused on the development of effective classroom management, of their teaching skills and the promotion of effective learning in the classroom, which is mainly achieved through practical experience. Time spent in school was seen by student teachers as the most challenging part of their course. The role of teacher trainers is to contribute a broader perspective to the development of classroom expertise, but the essential focus is to support practice. This assessment is supported by student teachers' approach to the academic side of their courses, notably the reading they undertake. This is almost exclusively related to the assignments they have to write and to obtaining ideas or tips for classroom use. Student teachers on PGCE courses are kept very busy, but intellectually passive, in the sense that they are preoccupied with developing the skills required for them to meet the QTS standards, and they have very little time available to read and think. The suggestion was made by tutors, and some of the students interviewed in this study, that a longer training period is required. However, it is doubtful that a longer period of training would be any more effective unless some radical rethinking were to take place about the consequences

of the abandonment of theory. Policy makers and HE teacher trainers would have to settle the issue of whether practice is developed best through practice or whether, in the light of recent experience in refining the approach to developing practical skills, it is now possible to return to theory and find a way of placing it at the heart of practice. This would involve them in a reconsideration of the HEI/school balance, and a re-evaluation of the content of HE courses, and an active commitment to theory at policy and institutional level, but more importantly amongst teacher trainers. This is an intellectual project which those who express a commitment to theory in ITT would engage with, both in terms of their own engagement with theory and research and the ways in which this might be reflected in their courses. In this way, student teachers' expectations and aspirations of their initial training can be raised and reorientated towards educational thinking.

8.4 Theory in mfl ITT in France

In France, the question of the place of theory remains unresolved. The greater freedom conferred on IUFMs and individual tutors to determine the content of their courses does not mean that theory has a central place in the second year of training. It is more the case that, as in England, teacher trainers consider themselves obliged to respond to the immediate practical needs of their *professeur stagiaires*. These needs were more clearly expressed by *professeur stagiaires* as being practically focused partly because they had already spent one year of academic study and initiation into the didactics of language teaching from a theoretical perspective. One interviewee said explicitly that he wanted practical ideas and no theory,

seeing it as a 'waste of time. *Fonctionnaire* (civil servant) status, that is a prerequisite of the second year of training, has already been achieved; *professeur stagiaires* are already employees of the state. This seems to give them more confidence in a demanding training that they think they need: one with a strong practical orientation. In recognition of these practical expectations and needs, tutors were reluctant to impose theory on *professeur stagiaires*, even though a number of them saw the importance of theoretical knowledge as part of initial professional development.

As in England, supporting the development of practical skills took precedence over theory, but in France, it seems more the case that tutors had not worked out how theory could be made palatable to *professeur stagiaires*, rather than abandoning it altogether. Moreover, the capacity for IUFMs to give the practical advice that *professeur stagiaires* expect is not necessarily available given that some IUFM tutors do not have experience of teaching in schools. As *IUFM* tutors do not have contact with schools or have any role in supervising school experience, their position is more removed than that of PGCE tutors and as such they are perceived as being remote from the reality of their students' experience. At the same time the role of the *conseiller pédagogique* (school-based mentor) is minimal. Student teachers are therefore less likely to be consistently supported in their professional development.

This example highlights the more coherent organisation of ITT in England and the importance placed on achieving continuity of support for student

teachers in developing their classroom expertise. HE tutors are involved, sometimes closely, with the training that student teachers receive in school, and as such are able to ensure continuity in student teachers' training experience and monitoring of their development. However, this can lead to a transfer of 'school culture' to the HE setting particularly when tutors are more comfortable with dealing with the practical problems that student teachers encounter rather than presenting broader, more objective perspectives that should distinguish the higher education contribution to the initial training period. The 'distance' that *IUFMs* have, might not be seen therefore, as entirely disadvantageous.

Moreover, the greater autonomy of *IUFMs* as institutions and teacher trainers as individuals represents the potential at least, for the professionals who are responsible for training teachers to clarify the place of theory, to decide for themselves what is desirable and what is needed in initial teacher training, rather than be subject to a heavily prescribed imposed framework as is the case in England. There exists in France a trust in the knowledge, expertise and professionalism of teacher trainers that no longer exists in England.

Professeurs stagiaires are seen as more personally responsible for their own professional development. This might be interpreted as a largely 'sink or swim' approach as far as school experience is concerned, but there is a question as to whether the high level of support, monitoring and assessment that student teachers are subject to in England discourages

independence and encourages conformity rather than creativity. Equally, professional autonomy is encouraged through optional modules in *IUFM* training that require *professeurs stagiaires* to identify their own professional development needs. In England, course programmes are fixed and mostly very similar in content, in order to conform to both the requirements of the national curriculum for teacher training and the national curriculum for schools. This discourages a developmental approach to the ITT curriculum, which might include the study of theory.

8.5 Theory and the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle*

The examination of the dual certification PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* programme shows ways in which the applied theory of modern foreign languages develops student teachers intellectually and both directly and indirectly, supports their professional development as teachers. Firstly, the interview data show that student teachers read more widely and that their reading had included theoretical works. This, they drew on to a greater or lesser extent, for PGCE assignments, partly depending on whether or how their PGCE encouraged them to make links and draw on the *Maîtrise fle* knowledge base.

Secondly, the value of the knowledge gained on the *Maîtrise fle* course in France was not immediately apparent to one or student teachers, but the majority confirmed that they had come to see the benefits of the course of academic study. One or two remarked that they thought that the theoretical study had been invaluable and that it was what important knowledge for mfl

teachers to have. Most did not expect to be able to make crude links between the two courses, but nevertheless, said that they understood better what they were doing on the PGCE course and in the classroom as a result of the *Maîtrise fle* period of study. One or two rejected the *Maîtrise fle* study because it didn't relate directly to improving their teaching, but this view reflected a complete misunderstanding of the aims and purpose of the course.

Thirdly, tutors reported that PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* student teachers acquired a higher academic level in terms of their course work. One tutor spoke of actively encouraging student teachers to draw on knowledge gained on the *Maîtrise fle* course and to cite French texts in PGCE assignments. Others encouraged student teachers to make presentations of the *dossiers* that they had produced in France. Tutors, in particular, also commented on the deeper cultural knowledge in an academic, as well as a social sense that student teachers gained. This not only provided a rich source of knowledge that could be drawn on directly in the classroom, but also gave student teachers confidence in their subject knowledge and expertise. This was also true for native French speakers who would not have considered their culture from the point of view of a learner from another country.

Fourthly, the dual certification programme shows that student teacher's expectations and aspirations of their training courses are not necessarily purely functional. Although, they may become preoccupied with the development of practical teaching skills and the requirements of the PGCE

course when they return from France, dual certification student teachers have acquired theoretical knowledge that allows them to adopt a more analytical approach to their teaching, and, as one tutor commented, are capable of higher level abstract thinking than mainstream PGCE student teachers. Equally, having gained a theoretical perspective, it may be that practice is viewed less subjectively.

However, the intensive nature of the programme, left student teachers with very little time to reflect on the knowledge gained in France when, on their return to England, they were launched into the challenges of school life. More time is needed for student teachers to maximise the benefit of combining vocationally-orientated academic study with practical professional training. As one tutor commented, this would lead to a more relaxed, thoughtful profession. Nevertheless, as the tutor interview data in Chapter 7 show, the best PGCE tutor encourages links to be made between the theory of the *Maîtrise fle* and school practice through the intermediary of the 'principled guidance on practice' that PGCE subject/curriculum studies offers. At worse, where tutors failed to draw on the *Maîtrise fle* knowledge and experience, many student teachers recognised the complementarity of the two courses and were able to reflect and make links for themselves. As Chapter 7 of this study concludes, the PGCE plays a pivotal role in ensuring that student teachers recognised the complementarity of the two programmes and were able to make links between the two. This required a commitment on the part of the tutor, not just to the demanding nature of the programme, but also to the value of

theoretical knowledge in mfl ITT, although this was not universally in evidence.

The theory studied on the PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programme is partial, in that only broadly subject-specific theory is studied, and this group, in common with all PGCE student teachers, do not study the general educational theory. However, this dual certification shows that it is possible to challenge both programmatically and individually the prevailing anti-theoretical mood in initial teacher training. The PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle*, by initiating student teachers into theory, elevates their expectations of what it means to be a teacher beyond classroom competence and engenders a set of aspirations and an elevated sense of professional identity that provide a more firm foundation for future development.

8.6 The failure and future of theory in mfl ITT

The PGCE/ *Maîtrise fle* programme, while not proposed here as a future model for mfl ITT, identifies the direction in which mainstream PGCE courses could develop. However, the serious commitment to theory that this would involve is, as has been shown, is *absent*. Individual staff may retain their commitment in some institutions. The crucial factor is whether they can resist the current mood. It is not really a matter of numbers but of individuals' willingness to make the case for a return to theory.

However, it was argued in Chapter 1, that theory has a bad name, partly because those that most vociferously promote the role of 'theory' argue for

the renaming of something else as theory. In 1995, Stephen Ball, reacting to a technicist approach to teaching, wrote about the 'urgent role of theory' in educational studies but threw the baby out with the bath water. He argued that the point of theory is that it is 'destructive, disruptive and violent' that it offers a language of challenge' (1995: 266). This sounds radical, but what this new 'theory' challenges is what was previously known as 'theory'. As was argued in Chapter 1, theory is concerned with the search for truth, and what Ball dismissively describes as 'a perpetual process of progressive, orderly growth or development achieved through scientific and technological mastery or control over events' (1995: 267). The critique of 'orderly progress' is probably sound, but the consequences of adopting 'post epistemological' theories re-enforces the anti-theoretical mood. According to Ball we need to 'eschew the scientific claim to originality, discovery and the improvement of the human condition' and grope towards 'a model of the educational theorist as a cultural critic offering perspective rather than truth' (1995: 268). Many of the tutors, and almost all of the student teacher in this study will not have read Ball, and others like him, who reject the pursuit of truth and the desire for human improvement. But similar views are expressed in the subjective and practical philosophies that are also presented as an alternative or complement to technicist education.

8.6 Towards a revival of theory in mfl ITT

What is needed is a defence of the old, once stable and comforting theory and epistemology. Assent rather than dissent is now the disruptive and

imaginative option. Too much is at stake for us to neglect 'old time' theory. Education, being about the future of society, is a serious business. This study has shown that a new generation of student teachers will teach future generations without having any serious understanding of educational theory and therefore of what education means. The consequences will be entirely negative but impossible to measure. But they can be hinted at. The purpose of teaching mfl was part of the universalising project of enlightenment thought (Lawes 2000), rather than practical skills. Language learning opened up culture and took us away from particular local understandings. It made us more human. The triumph of technicism and the anti-theoretical mood of the time, makes us, and will make future generations, less human.

However, the example of the PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* provides some optimism for the future of mfl ITT. The research data presented in this study show that the academic content of the *Maîtrise fle* experience makes a significant contribution to student teachers' knowledge of theory that they would not otherwise be introduced to and its value is confirmed. The impact of this exceptional experience on student teachers' future professional development is worthy of further study. The content of *Maîtrise fle* programmes (see Chapter 4, Table 4.v), while not in any way a model, might inform a discussion of what theoretical content should be included in a initial teacher *education* programme in modern foreign languages. The scientific study of language, that is, an understanding of the nature of language and language learning, of language learning theories as propositional knowledge along with the reintroduction of the study of education through its foundation disciplines, far from being relics from the

past, are what would enable student teachers to have a critical grasp of present-day issues and to become 'educational thinkers'.

Teachers who have studied theory and who have risen to the theoretical challenge throughout their initiation into teaching, will have confidence in knowledge, a vision of education, more commitment of the profession, and certainty about the value of their professional knowledge *as well* as their practical skills. Without such teachers, 'education' will be mere socialization.

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APPENDIX 2A

Interview schedule for PGCE, PGCE/*Maîtrise fle* and CAPES student teachers

1. Why have you decided to become a teacher?
2. What do you expect from your course in terms of professional preparation?
3. In what ways is the course what you expected/not expected?
4. How do you see each part of the course, do they have a distinctive role?
5. Which parts do you find most interesting, most challenging, most useful? Why?
6. Is there a part of the course you would like more of?
7. What do you read in connection with your teacher training course?
8. What inspired you, if anything?
9. What kinds of 'educational theory' are important to you? Why is it important?
10. What do you think are the most important aspects of the teacher's professional knowledge?
11. What would be your 'ideal' teacher training programme?

APPENDIX 2B

HE and IUFM Tutor interview: lead questions for semi-structured recorded interviews.

1. Views of changes in ITE over the past decade
2. What are your views of the current arrangements for mfl ITE (PGCE)?
3. What is it possible to achieve with students in terms of their professional development in the current context?
4. What is not possible?
5. What is desirable?
6. What does the term 'reflective practice' mean to you?
7. How do you see the role of Higher Education?
8. Views on the role and purpose of theory – What does it mean to you?
9. What would an ideal ITE programme look like – if you had *carte blanche*?

FOR PG/M ASK ABOUT DISTINCTIVENESS OF PROGRAMME

Appendix 2C

Data Analysis - coding

THEMES - Tutors' views

1. Tutor profiles
2. Significance of changes - positive
3. Significance of changes - negative
4. Current model - positive
5. Current model - negative
6. Reflective Practice
7. Distinctive role of HE
8. Theory
9. Research
10. Ideal Model
12. Comments on student teachers

PGCE/MAITRISE/file (bold black)

Differences/distinctiveness

Complementarity of 2 courses

Data Analysis -coding

THEMES - Student Teachers' views

1. Student teacher profile & Motives
2. Expectations of Course
3. Didn't expect
4. Experience of Course - positive
5. Experience of Course - negative
6. Theory
7. Knowledge
8. Ideal Programme

APPENDIX 4A

Profile of institutions: PGCE and PGCE/Maîtrise fle

EW1, ENE and EM are what are known as 'Russell Group' universities with research-orientated Education Studies departments. Institution EW1 was a pioneer of the school-HEI partnership model of ITT that informed the present system. It has a fairly small education studies department where 'every effort is made to provide strong social, academic and pastoral support to all students'. It has a very strong research profile and tradition with a history of professorial eminence. Institution EM has one of the largest university departments of education in the country and '...has a well-established reputation for the quality of its research and teaching that focus on issues relevant to teacher training and the improvement of education nationally and internationally'. Its school of Education and Language Sciences 'is a dynamic school with a wide range of research interests'. Institution EC is a specialist institute, 'a world class centre of excellence', devoted entirely to education with a strong research base. It is the largest provider of initial teacher training in England. As will be examined further, the 'category' of institution providing training seems to have a bearing on the ethos of courses and the demands made on student teachers.

Institutions EE, ESE and ENW are former teacher training colleges, now colleges in the university sector. Institution EE has been training teachers since the mid-19th century and continues to provide exclusively education courses for undergraduates and post-graduates, although it has recently been incorporated into the Education department of a prestigious university. As a leading college for teacher training, EE 'will maintain its role as a centre for the serious study of education and the training of teachers'⁹². Institutions ESE and ENW, while retaining large Education Departments, are now university colleges with general undergraduate, post-graduate and

⁹² All remarks in quotation marks in this section are drawn from the various websites of the institutions referred to. In the interests of anonymity, these websites are not referenced here.

large vocationally-orientated departments in areas such as Nursing Studies and Social Work. ESE appears from its web-based information, to have a limited research base apart from two series publications aimed at teachers in training, but asserts that 'the present changes in initial teacher education offer exciting challenges that are being met with enthusiasm and confidence'. It has one of the largest teacher training programmes in the country. Institution ENW also has one of the biggest teacher training programmes in England and 'is proud of its national and international reputation for producing excellent teachers'. These three institutions run both PGCE mfl and PGCE/Maîtrise Français Langue Etrangère (FLE) courses. Institution EW2 was originally a teacher training institution fairly recently incorporated into a 'new' university that was itself originally a Polytechnic. Institution EW2 also offers run both PGCE mfl and PGCE/Maîtrise FLE Courses and emphasises in its publicity that 'Secondary PGCE is a highly practical initial teacher training course for graduates' and the aim of the PGCE/Maîtrise FLE is '...to produce confident, competent and professional teachers of French with a good grasp of current language teaching approaches supported by a sound understanding of French linguistics and comprehensive cultural knowledge'.

In 2001, three Higher Education Institutions in England (EE, EM and ENW) were running joint PGCE/ Maîtrise FLE programmes with a consortium of universities in France, which had originally been developed through a European funded project in the early 1990s. Of these, in 2003, only ENW continues to run the joint programme. Two other HEIs had established independent partnerships with French universities in the late 1990s without European funding, although student teachers benefited from Erasmus bursaries. Institution EW2 has a continuing link with two French universities and institution ESE has had a single partnership with one French university since 1998, that is on-going and has perhaps, of all the programmes, established closer working relationships between staff and an integration of elements of the two courses.

Profile of institutions: IUFMs

The institutions studied in this research are all Instituts Universitaire pour la Formation des Maîtres (IUFM); specialist institutions created in 1992 to provide teacher training in the primary and secondary sectors, to develop in-service teacher education and to conduct research into education. Institution FN is one of the largest providers of teacher training in France with centres all over the north of the country, recruiting over 800 *professeurs stagiaires* each year (this figure varies depending on the number of teaching posts what will be available the following year), across the range of school and further education curriculum. While incorporating a former école normale, the tradition training institution for primary teachers, a large proportion of its staff had been involved in in-service training under the auspices of regional training centres, and many have been, and still are, practising secondary school teachers. Links with the local Universities are not well established and the research activity in the IUFM appears to be limited and orientated very much towards classroom practice. FN employs a high percentage of *professeurs associés* (associate teachers), who are given a fifty per cent remission on their school teaching duties to teach on the CAPES course. There is not a comparative structure of roles and responsibilities between French IUFMs and HEIs in England: the tutor responsible for the General Professional Studies (Formation Professionale Générale, FGP) programme still worked half-time in school, while other FGP tutors had just been appointed IUFM Maîtres de Conférence (Senior Lecturer equivalent) with no wider role other than to teach and conduct their own research.

IUFM FP is another very large provider of teacher training to all age ranges, spread across a wide metropolitan area with several training centres. FP has links with Universities in the locality. Teacher trainers here are predominantly full-time in the IUFM and there is no discreet General Professional Studies programme; broader professional issues are included in the subject specific training programme. There appears to be more of a research focus amongst staff. Within the CAPES d'Anglais area, there is

also a link between the first year, taught in the neighbouring University with the IUFM second year at a colleague-to-colleague level which was not the case in any of the other French institutions studied.

IUFM FE is a much smaller institution than FN and FP with a total of 336 student teachers (2001-2). Housed in a purpose-built campus on the outskirts of the city, it is the most 'compact' of the French institutions studied here. According to colleagues interviewed there, FE still has a fairly strong *école normale* ethos, by which they meant a formal organisation and a 'training college' atmosphere, partly due to the fact that several senior members of staff had come from a Primary education training background.⁹³ There are links with the city's university and close links with the *Institut Universitaire Technologique* (IUT) through collaborative research groups.⁹⁴ Teaching staff in FE IUFM were mostly full-time employees, with few *professeurs associés*, although tutors interviewed reported that there was external pressure to employ more of this category of staff as vacancies occurred as it was perceived that this would respond to student teachers' complaints that the IUFM was out of touch with school life.

Finally, IUFM FS, spread over a very large coastal area in six centres, provided not only a geographical contrast, but also with regard to the interpretation of official guidelines with regard to the second year CAPES. Staff here were recruited from university and school backgrounds, although all staff were full-time. However, there appeared to be little overall co-ordination of programmes offered from one centre to another and little contact between staff. There were close links with one regional university, joint research groups and some collaborative teaching work. Documentation regarding the training programme was minimal.

⁹³ In such a small institution, this is likely to have a greater impact than on the larger institutions, FN, FP and FS.

⁹⁴ In French higher education, academic staff belong to formal research groups which, in order to have any status must be recognised by the Ministry of Education and have to

APPENDIX 4B

Extract from Circular 4/98 relating to the secondary phase

STANDARDS FOR THE AWARD OF QUALIFIED TEACHER STATUS

Introduction

The standards set out in this document replace the more general "competences" set out in DFE Circulars 9/92 and 14/93 and DfEE Teacher Training Circular Letter 1/96. They reflect the Secretary of State's requirements for Qualified Teacher Status as set out in DfEE Circular 10/97. The standards apply to all trainees seeking (QTS) and, except where otherwise specified, should be met by those to be assessed for QTS from May 1998. Successful completion of a course or programme of initial teacher training (ITT), including employment based provision, must require the trainee to achieve all these standards. All courses must involve the assessment of all trainees to ensure that they meet all the standards specified.

QTS is a requirement for all those who teach in a maintained school. QTS is awarded by successfully completing a course of ITT at an accredited institution in England or Wales, either concurrently with, or after, the award of a first degree of a UK university or a higher education institution with degree awarding powers, or after the award of a degree of the CNAA, or after the award of a qualification recognised to be equivalent to a UK or CNAA degree.

The standards are set out under the following headings:

A. KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING

1. Standards for secondary specialist subjects
2. Standards for primary subjects
3. Additional standards relating to early years (nursery and reception) for trainees on 3-8 and 3-11 courses.

B. PLANNING, TEACHING AND CLASS MANAGEMENT

1. Standards for primary English, mathematics and science
2. Standards for primary and secondary specialist subjects
3. Standards for secondary English, mathematics and science
4. Standards for primary and secondary for all subjects:

confirm to certain academic criteria. It is not very common to see joint research groups

- a. planning
 - b. teaching and class management.
5. Additional standards relating to early years (nursery and reception) for trainees on 3-8 and 3-11 courses.

C. MONITORING, ASSESSMENT, RECORDING, REPORTING AND ACCOUNTABILITY

The standards in this section apply to all trainees seeking QTS.

D. OTHER PROFESSIONAL REQUIREMENTS

The standards in this section apply to all trainees seeking QTS.

The standards have been written to be specific, explicit and assessable, and are designed to provide a clear basis for the reliable and consistent award of QTS, regardless of the training route or type of training leading to QTS. To achieve this purpose, each standard has been set out discretely. Professionalism, however, implies more than meeting a series of discrete standards. It is necessary to consider the standards as a whole to appreciate the creativity, commitment, energy and enthusiasm which teaching demands, and the intellectual and managerial skills required of the effective professional.

Each standard will not require a separate assessment occasion. Groups of standards are closely linked and are designed so that they can be assessed together. While providers must be confident that all the standards have been met before they make a final decision to recommend the award of QTS, this should not require a mechanistic, tick-list approach or entail each standard being supported by its own evidence base. To reflect the complexity of the teaching process being assessed, providers are likely to make over-arching judgements, taking account of evidence from the wide range of sources available to them across partnerships. This should enable providers, if necessary, to explain and justify their overall decision, including to trainees and other colleagues. The standards might also be used near the end of training to identify any particular areas where providers may be unclear about a trainee's knowledge, understanding and skills, to help focus the provider's observations of, discussions with, and requirements of trainees, so that a confident decision can be made.

A. KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING

1. Secondary

Those to be awarded QTS must, when assessed, demonstrate that they:

- a. have a secure knowledge and understanding of the concepts and skills in their specialist subject(s) **at a standard equivalent to degree level to enable them to teach it (them) confidently and accurately at:**
 - i. **KS3 for trainees on 7-14 courses;**
 - ii. **KS3 and KS4 and, where relevant, post-16 for trainees on 11-16 or 18 courses; and**
 - iii. **KS4 and post-16 for trainees on 14-19 courses;**

between IUFM staff and university *Sciences de l'Education* departments.

- b. **for English, mathematics or science specialists**, have a secure knowledge and understanding of the subject content specified in the relevant Initial Teacher Training National Curriculum⁹⁵;
- c. have, for their specialist subject(s), where applicable, a detailed knowledge and understanding of the National Curriculum programmes of study, level descriptions or end of key stage descriptions for KS3 and, where applicable, National Curriculum programmes of study for KS4;
- d. **for Religious Education (RE) specialists**, have a detailed knowledge of the Model Syllabuses for RE;
- e. are familiar, for their specialist subject(s), with the relevant KS4 and post-16 examination syllabuses and courses, including vocational courses⁹⁶;
- f. understand, for their specialist subject(s), the framework of 14-19 qualifications and the routes of progression through it²;
- g. understand, for their specialist subject(s), progression from the KS2 programmes of study⁹⁷;
- h. know and can teach the key skills required for current qualifications relevant to their specialist subject(s), for pupils aged 14-19, and understand the contribution that their specialist subject(s) make(s) to the development of the key skills²;
- i. cope securely with subject-related questions which pupils raise;
- j. are aware of, and know how to access, recent inspection evidence and classroom-relevant research evidence on teaching secondary pupils in their specialist subject(s), and know how to use this to inform and improve their teaching;
- k. know, for their specialist subject(s), pupils' most common misconceptions and mistakes;
- l. understand how pupils' learning in the subject is affected by their physical, intellectual, emotional and social development;
- m. have, for their specialist subject(s), a secure knowledge and understanding of the content specified in the ITT National Curriculum for Information and Communications Technology in subject teaching;
- n. are familiar with subject-specific health and safety requirements, where relevant, and plan lessons to avoid potential hazards.

2. Primary

For all courses those to be awarded QTS must, when assessed, demonstrate that they:

- a. understand the purposes, scope, structure and balance of the National Curriculum Orders as a whole and, within them, the place and scope of the

⁹⁵ This does not apply until September 1999.

⁹⁶ This does not apply to trainees on 7-14 courses.

⁹⁷ This does not apply to trainees on 14-19 courses.

primary phase, the key stages, the primary core and foundation subjects and RE;

- b. are aware of the breadth of content covered by the pupils' National Curriculum across the primary core and foundation subjects and RE;
- c. understand how pupils' learning is affected by their physical, intellectual, emotional and social development.
- d. **for each core and specialist subject⁹⁸** covered in their training:
 - i. have, where applicable, a detailed knowledge and understanding of the relevant National Curriculum programmes of study and level descriptions or end of key stage descriptions across the primary age range;
 - ii. for RE specialists, have a detailed knowledge of the Model Syllabuses for RE;
 - iii. cope securely with subject-related questions which pupils raise;
 - iv. understand the progression from SCAA's "*Desirable Outcomes for Children's Learning on Entering Compulsory Education*" to KS1, the progression from KS1 to KS2, and from KS2 to KS3;
 - v. are aware of, and know how to access, recent inspection evidence and classroom relevant research evidence on teaching primary pupils in the subject, and know how to use this to inform and improve their teaching;
 - vi. know pupils' most common misconceptions and mistakes in the subject;
 - vii. have a secure knowledge and understanding of the content specified in the ITT National Curriculum for Information and Communications Technology in subject teaching;
 - viii. are familiar with subject-specific health and safety requirements, where relevant, and plan lessons to avoid potential hazards

3. Additional standards relating to early years (nursery and reception) for trainees on 3-8 and 3-11 courses

Those to be awarded QTS must, when assessed, demonstrate that they:

- a. have a detailed knowledge of SCAA's "*Desirable Outcomes for Children's Learning on Entering Compulsory Education*";
- b. have a knowledge of effective ways of working with parents and other carers;
- c. have an understanding of the roles and responsibilities of other agencies with responsibility for the care of young children.

B. PLANNING, TEACHING AND CLASS MANAGEMENT

This section details the standards which all those to be awarded QTS must demonstrate, when assessed, in each subject that they have been trained to teach. For primary non-core, non-specialist subjects, trainees being assessed for QTS must meet the required standards but with the support, if necessary, of a teacher experienced in the subject concerned.

⁹⁸ A specialist subject may be one of the core subjects.

2. Primary and secondary specialist subjects

For all courses, those to be awarded QTS must, when assessed, demonstrate that they have a secure knowledge and understanding of, and know how and when to apply, in relation to their specialist subject(s), the teaching and assessment methods specified in the ITT National Curriculum for Information and Communications Technology in subject teaching.

4. Primary and secondary for all subjects

Planning

For all courses, those to be awarded QTS must, when assessed, demonstrate that they:

- a. plan their teaching to achieve progression in pupils' learning through:
 - i. identifying clear teaching objectives and content, appropriate to the subject matter and the pupils being taught, and specifying how these will be taught and assessed;
 - ii. setting tasks for whole class, individual and group work, including homework, which challenge pupils and ensure high levels of pupil interest;
 - iii. setting appropriate and demanding expectations for pupils' learning, motivation and presentation of work;
 - iv. setting clear targets for pupils' learning, building on prior attainment, and ensuring that pupils are aware of the substance and purpose of what they are asked to do;
 - v. identifying pupils who:
 - have special educational needs, including specific learning difficulties;
 - are very able;
 - are not yet fluent in English;and knowing where to get help in order to give positive and targeted support;
- b. provide clear structures for lessons, and for sequences of lessons, in the short, medium and longer term, which maintain pace, motivation and challenge for pupils;
- c. make effective use of assessment information on pupils' attainment and progress in their teaching and in planning future lessons and sequences of lessons;
- d. plan opportunities to contribute to pupils' personal, spiritual, moral, social and cultural development;
- e. where applicable, ensure coverage of the relevant examination syllabuses and National Curriculum programmes of study.

Teaching and Class Management

For all courses, those to be awarded QTS must, when assessed, demonstrate that they:

- f. ensure effective teaching of whole classes, and of groups and individuals within the whole class setting, so that teaching objectives are met, and best use is made of available teaching time;
- g. monitor and intervene when teaching to ensure sound learning and discipline;
- h. establish and maintain a purposeful working atmosphere;
- i. set high expectations for pupils' behaviour, establishing and maintaining a good standard of discipline through well focused teaching and through positive and productive relationships;
- j. establish a safe environment which supports learning and in which pupils feel secure and confident;
- k. use teaching methods which sustain the momentum of pupils' work and keep all pupils engaged through:
 - i. stimulating intellectual curiosity, communicating enthusiasm for the subject being taught, fostering pupils' enthusiasm and maintaining pupils' motivation;
 - ii. matching the approaches used to the subject matter and the pupils being taught;
 - iii. structuring information well, including outlining content and aims, signalling transitions and summarising key points as the lesson progresses;
 - iv. clear presentation of content around a set of key ideas, using appropriate subject-specific vocabulary and well chosen illustrations and examples;
 - v. clear instruction and demonstration, and accurate well-paced explanation;
 - vi. effective questioning which matches the pace and direction of the lesson and ensures that pupils take part;
 - vii. careful attention to pupils' errors and misconceptions, and helping to remedy them;
 - viii. listening carefully to pupils, analysing their responses and responding constructively in order to take pupils' learning forward;
 - ix. selecting and making good use of textbooks, ICT and other learning resources which enable teaching objectives to be met;
 - x. providing opportunities for pupils to consolidate their knowledge and maximising opportunities, both in the classroom and through setting well-focused homework, to reinforce and develop what has been learnt;
 - xi. exploiting opportunities to improve pupils' basic skills in literacy, numeracy and ICT, and the individual and collaborative study skills needed for effective learning, including information retrieval from libraries, texts and other sources;
 - xii. exploiting opportunities to contribute to the quality of pupils' wider educational development, including their personal, spiritual, moral, social and cultural development;
 - xiii. setting high expectations for all pupils notwithstanding individual differences, including gender, and cultural and linguistic backgrounds;

- xiv. providing opportunities to develop pupils' wider understanding by relating their learning to real and work-related examples;
- l. are familiar with the Code of Practice on the identification and assessment of special educational needs and, as part of their responsibilities under the Code, implement and keep records on individual education plans (IEPs) for pupils at stage 2 of the Code and above;
- m. ensure that pupils acquire and consolidate knowledge, skills and understanding in the subject;
- n. evaluate their own teaching critically and use this to improve their effectiveness.

For all courses, those to be awarded QTS must, when assessed, demonstrate that they:

- a. assess how well learning objectives have been achieved and use this assessment to improve specific aspects of teaching;
- b. mark and monitor pupils' assigned classwork and homework, providing constructive oral and written feedback, and setting targets for pupils' progress;
- c. assess and record each pupil's progress systematically, including through focused observation, questioning, testing and marking, and use these records to:
 - i. check that pupils have understood and completed the work set;
 - ii. monitor strengths and weaknesses and use the information gained as a basis for purposeful intervention in pupils' learning;
 - iii. inform planning;
 - iv. check that pupils continue to make demonstrable progress in their acquisition of the knowledge, skills and understanding of the subject;
- d. are familiar with the statutory assessment and reporting requirements and know how to prepare and present informative reports to parents;
- e. where applicable, understand the expected demands of pupils in relation to each relevant level description or end of key stage description, and, in addition, for those on 11-16 or 18 and 14-19 courses, the demands of the syllabuses and course requirements for GCSE, other KS4 courses, and, where applicable, post-16 courses;
- f. where applicable, understand and know how to implement the assessment requirements of current qualifications for pupils aged 14-19;
- g. recognise the level at which a pupil is achieving, and assess pupils consistently against attainment targets, where applicable, if necessary with guidance from an experienced teacher;
- h. understand and know how national, local, comparative and school data, including National Curriculum test data, where applicable, can be used to set clear targets for pupils' achievement;

- i. use different kinds of assessment appropriately for different purposes, including National Curriculum and other standardised tests, and baseline assessment where relevant.

D. OTHER PROFESSIONAL REQUIREMENTS

Primary and secondary

For all courses, those to be awarded QTS should, when assessed, demonstrate that they:

- a. have a working knowledge and understanding of:
 - i. teachers' professional duties as set out in the current School Teachers' Pay and Conditions document, issued under the School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Act 1991;
 - ii. teachers' legal liabilities and responsibilities relating to:
 - the Race Relations Act 1976;
 - the Sex Discrimination Act 1975;
 - Section 7 and Section 8 of the Health and Safety at Work etc. Act 1974;
 - teachers' common law duty to ensure that pupils are healthy and safe on school premises and when leading activities off the school site, such as educational visits, school outings or field trips;
 - what is reasonable for the purposes of safeguarding or promoting children's welfare (Section 3(5) of the Children Act 1989);
 - the role of the education service in protecting children from abuse (currently set out in DfEE Circular 10/95 and the Home Office, Department of Health, DfEE and Welsh Office Guidance *"Working Together: A guide to arrangements for inter-agency co-operation for the protection of children from abuse 1991"*);
 - appropriate physical contact with pupils (currently set out in DfEE Circular 10/95);
 - appropriate physical restraint of pupils (Section 4 of the Education Act 1997 and DfEE Circular 9/94);
 - detention of pupils on disciplinary grounds (Section 5 of the Education Act 1997);
- b. have established, during work in schools, effective working relationships with professional colleagues including, where applicable, associate staff;
- c. set a good example to the pupils they teach, through their presentation and their personal and professional conduct;
- d. are committed to ensuring that every pupil is given the opportunity to achieve their potential and meet the high expectations set for them;
- e. understand the need to take responsibility for their own professional development and to keep up to date with research and developments in pedagogy and in the subjects they teach;
- f. understand their professional responsibilities in relation to school policies and practices, including those concerned with pastoral and personal safety matters, including bullying;
- g. recognise that learning takes place inside and outside the school context, and understand the need to liaise effectively with parents and other carers and with agencies with responsibility for pupils' education and welfare;

h. are aware of the role and purpose of school governing bodies.

APPENDIX 4C

Extract from Bulletin Officielle No. 22 (English translation)

Role of teachers in collèges and lycées, technology lycées and lycées professionnel

Text addressed to Rectors of Académies and IUFM Directors

'The document sets out the general competences that institutions should seek to develop in teachers

The document refers to the role of teachers, which is to teach young people, to contribute to their general and social education and to ensure an education that prepares them for future life in society and for professional life.

The document provides a common point of reference fore different partners in initial training of teachers: IUFMs, universities, sections within the Académie responsible for the training of teachers in the state sector, inspectors, schools and future teachers'.

Foreward

'This document sets out... the general professional competences that initial training aims to build, whatever the subject discipline or educational context'

'The competences should be in no way be interpreted as constituting a basis of a basis of assessment for trainee teachers'.

'The competences should not be taken as an exclusive list, nor are they expected to be totally acquired by the end of the initial training period. They will be progressively developed through practical teaching and continued professional development'

Introduction

Teachers in collèges and lycées, technology lycées and lycées professionnel are in the service of the public and are charged with transmitting the values of the Republic, notably the ideal of laicity that excludes discrimination on the grounds of sex, culture or religion.

The teacher, a state civil servant must conform to the rights and obligations thus conferred on him/her.

The teacher is charged with imparting knowledge (savoir), and 'know how' (savoir faire), with helping pupils to develop a critical mind, independence of

thought, and to construct a personal action plan. He must also make pupils understand the fundamental values of the institutions of the State, and to prepare them to become active citizens.

Within the framework of the teaching programmes laid down by the Ministry of Education, teachers have autonomy in their pedagogical choices. But this autonomy respects the principles that: pupils are the central concern of the teacher; the teacher must treat all pupils equitably (respect of diversity and individual differences)

The teacher is charged with developing as a profession throughout his/her career and reflect continually on his/her professional practice.'

The role of the teacher relates to 3 levels of the education system:

1. To fulfil responsibilities within the education system

- Promote equality of opportunity
- Contribute to the development of the education system
- Contribute to the pupils' transition from one phase of the education system to another
- Help pupils to achieve the objectives of a particular phase of education and to contribute to their examination success (national awards)
- Develop collaborative partnerships between school and the outside world (economic, social and cultural).

2. To fulfil responsibilities in the classroom

a)

- **Know his/her teaching subject** - this includes a historical, epistemological, didactic knowledge and current debates on the subject are
- Know how to select knowledge and concepts and present them to pupils drawing on appropriate pedagogical knowledge
- Develop relationships with colleagues
- Forge links between subject disciplines
- Ensure the development of good written and oral use of French
- Be familiar with and use a variety of resources to support teaching

b)

Know how to plan for teaching and learning

By the end of the initial training period, the teacher should be able to plan, prepare lessons within the syllabus, demonstrating the ability to respond to the needs of his pupils and to fix appropriate objectives to ensure continuity and progression in learning, an adapt programmes

- Use ICT appropriately to achieve objectives
- Be able to self-evaluate and modify syllabuses
- Know how to manage a class

c)

- **Know how to manage a class**
- Create favourable conditions for the success of all pupils
- Encourage active participation of pupils in an orderly learning environment, exercising authority fairly
- Promote collaborative work amongst pupils
- Be flexible and responsive and adapt to unexpected situations
- Identify and analyse pupils' learning difficulties and give individual help
- Achieve effective time management
- Know how to use voice, physical space and gesture to good effect and appropriate language register in relation to pupils.

3. Carry out responsibilities within the school

The teacher should

- Be familiar with the specific context in which he/she is working and with pupils, structures and available resource
- Show a commitment to the school's mission statement (projet d'établissement)
- Take part in the life of the school as a part of a mutually supportive team
- Is familiar with the roles and responsibilities of all staff members
- Is conscious of the of the social dimensions of education, particularly regarding citizenship education
- Ensure that pupils obey school rules and safety rules and shows respect for the school as a community
- Be able to engage in constructive dialogues with parents and discuss pupils' progress and difficulties; contribute to pupils' career guidance
- Be familiar with form tutors' (professeur principal) responsibilities
- Be prepared to develop external contacts and develop collaborative projects with other agencies such as youth and community groups, business and cultural organisations

Conclusion: In order to carry out his/her role the teacher must have received a professional preparation in all three of these areas. **However, the full acquisition of all these complex and diverse competences will develop throughout a teacher's career. At the end of an initial training period, a teacher should be able to analyse his/her professional practice in context.** He/she should be aware of his/her role and responsibilities and be aware that over a period of time he/she may be required to work in a different area of education.

Initial training should enable the future teacher aware of the scope of his responsibilities and motivate him/her to continue his professional development throughout his/her career.

Translated by researcher. n.b. Sections in bold are intended to draw attention to particularly relevant points.

Bulletin Officielle No. 22 - original French version



La mission du professeur exerçant en collège, en lycée d'enseignement général et technologique ou en lycée professionnel Circulaire no 97-123 du 23 mai 1997

Préambule

Ce texte se propose de préciser quelles sont les compétences professionnelles générales du professeur exerçant en collège, en lycée d'enseignement général et technologique ou en lycée professionnel que la formation initiale s'attache à construire. Il se réfère à la mission du professeur, qui est d'instruire les jeunes qui lui sont confiés, de contribuer à leur éducation et de leur assurer une formation en vue de leur insertion sociale et professionnelle.

Il a pour objectif de proposer des références communes aux différents partenaires de la formation initiale: les instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres, les universités, les missions académiques de formation des personnels de l'éducation nationale, les corps d'inspection, les établissements scolaires, les futurs professeurs. Ces références, qui manquaient jusqu'ici, faciliteront la convergence et l'articulation des actions conduites par chacun.

Outil de travail privilégié pour les instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres, il contribuera à la définition des orientations du plan de formation initiale qu'ils mettent en oeuvre et à inscrire nettement celui-ci dans une dynamique de professionnalisation progressive.

Il aidera à renforcer la liaison entre la formation initiale et la formation professionnelle continue. Il fournira des indications à ceux qui sont chargés d'informer et d'orienter les étudiants qui souhaitent se préparer au métier d'enseignant. Enfin, il donnera aux futurs professeurs engagés dans la formation initiale une vision claire des compétences qu'ils doivent s'attacher à acquérir.

MISSION ET COMPÉTENCES ATTENDUES EN FIN DE FORMATION INITIALE

Avant propos

Ce document précise, après un rappel de la mission du professeur exerçant en collège, en lycée d'enseignement général et technologique ou en lycée professionnel, quelles sont les compétences professionnelles générales que la formation initiale doit s'attacher à construire, quels que soient sa discipline et son établissement d'exercice.

Il s'agit ainsi de proposer des références communes aux différents partenaires du dispositif de formation initiale : les instances ministérielles et académiques, les universités, les instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres, les corps d'inspection, les établissements scolaires et les futurs professeurs.

Pour autant, l'ensemble des compétences, mentionnées ne saurait d'aucune façon s'interpréter comme constituant un référentiel d'évaluation des professeurs stagiaires.

Les compétences citées ne sont pas exclusives de compétences plus spécifiques. Par ailleurs, elles ne peuvent être totalement acquises en fin de formation initiale et seront progressivement maîtrisées grâce à la pratique de l'enseignement et à la formation continue.

Enfin, le présent document ne peut prétendre à un caractère définitif : il devra être régulièrement actualisé, en fonction des évolutions du service public d'éducation et de la réflexion permanente que mènent les partenaires de la formation sur les objectifs et l'organisation de celle-ci.

Introduction

Le professeur exerçant en collège, en lycée d'enseignement général et technologique ou en lycée professionnel participe au service public d'éducation qui s'attache à transmettre les valeurs de la République, notamment l'idéal laïque qui exclut toute discrimination de sexe, de culture ou de religion. Le professeur, fonctionnaire de l'Etat relève du statut général de la fonction publique et du statut particulier de son corps d'appartenance qui définissent ses droits et obligations.

Le professeur exerce son métier dans des établissements secondaires aux caractéristiques variables selon le public accueilli, l'implantation, la taille et les formations offertes. Sa mission est tout à la fois d'instruire les jeunes qui lui sont confiés, de contribuer à leur éducation et de les former en vue de leur insertion sociale et professionnelle. Il leur fait acquérir les connaissances et savoir-faire, selon les niveaux fixés par les programmes et référentiels de diplômes et concourt au développement de leurs aptitudes et capacités - Il les aide à développer leur esprit critique, à construire leur autonomie et à élaborer un projet personnel Il se préoccupe également de faire comprendre aux élèves le sens

et la portée des valeurs qui sont à la base de nos institutions, et de les préparer au plein exercice de la citoyenneté.

Dans le cadre des orientations et des programmes définis par le ministre chargé de l'éducation nationale, des orientations académiques et des objectifs du projet d'établissement, le professeur dispose d'une autonomie dans ses choix pédagogiques.

Cette autonomie s'exerce dans le respect des principes suivants:

- ☒ les élèves sont au centre de la réflexion et de l'action du professeur, qui les considère comme des personnes capables d'apprendre et de progresser et qui les conduit à devenir les acteurs de leur propre formation,
- ☒ le professeur agit avec équité envers les élèves; il les connaît et les accepte dans le respect de leur diversité; il est attentif à leurs difficultés,
- ☒ au sein de la communauté éducative, le professeur exerce son métier en liaison avec d'autres, dans le cadre d'équipes variées,
- ☒ le professeur a conscience qu'il exerce un métier complexe, diversifié et en constante évolution. Il sait qu'il lui revient de poursuivre sa propre formation tout au long de sa carrière. Il s'attache pour cela à actualiser ses connaissances et à mener une réflexion permanente sur ses pratiques professionnelles. La mission du professeur et la responsabilité qu'elle implique se situent dans le triple cadre du système éducatif, des classes qui lui sont confiées et de son établissement d'exercice.

1. Exercer sa responsabilité au sein du système éducatif

En fin de formation initiale le professeur connaît ses droits et obligations. Il est capable de :

- ☒ **Situer son action son action dans le cadre de la mission que la loi confère au service public d'éducation.**

Le service public d'éducation est " conçu et organisé en fonction des élèves et des étudiants. Il contribue à l'égalité des chances ", (article 1er de la loi d'orientation du 10 juillet 1989). Cela nécessite que le professeur sache, pour des élèves très divers, donner sens aux apprentissages qu'il propose. Il permet ainsi l'acquisition de savoirs et de compétences et contribue également à former de futurs adultes à même d'assumer les responsabilités inhérentes à toute vie personnelle, sociale et professionnelle et capables d'adaptation, de créativité et de solidarité, (rapport annexé à la loi du 10 juillet 1989).

- ☒ **Contribuer au fonctionnement au fonctionnement et à l'évolution du système éducatif.**

Le professeur doit être à même de mesurer les enjeux sociaux de l'éducation et de son action au sein du système. Il doit également connaître les textes essentiels concernant l'organisation du service public de l'éducation, ses évolutions et son fonctionnement. Il pourra ainsi se comporter en acteur du système éducatif et favoriser son adaptation en participant à la conception et la mise en oeuvre d'innovations, de nouveaux dispositifs, de nouveaux programmes et diplômes.

Conscient des enjeux que représente, pour ses élèves, la continuité de l'action éducative, il participe aux actions conduites pour faciliter les transitions entre les différents cycles d'enseignement.

Capable d'aider ses élèves à atteindre les objectifs du cycle dans lequel ils sont scolarisés, il doit aussi participer à la délivrance des diplômes de l'éducation nationale.

Il est également formé à collaborer à la réalisation d'actions de partenariat engagées entre l'établissement et son environnement économique, social et culturel.

2. Exercer sa responsabilité dans la classe

En fin de formation initiale, le professeur doit, pour être capable d'enseigner, conformément à son statut, une ou plusieurs disciplines ou spécialités:

- ☒ **Connaître sa discipline**

Si, en fin de formation initiale, il ne peut être en mesure de mobiliser toute l'étendue des connaissances de sa (ou ses) discipline(s) d'enseignement, il doit en maîtriser les notions fondamentales et pouvoir en mettre en oeuvre les démarches spécifiques.

Ceci implique qu'il sache situer l'état actuel de sa discipline, à travers son histoire, ses enjeux épistémologiques, ses problèmes didactiques et les débats qui la traversent. Il a réfléchi à la fonction sociale et professionnelle de sa discipline, à sa dimension culturelle et à la manière dont elle contribue à la formation des jeunes. La culture qu'il a acquise, disciplinaire et générale, lui permet de situer son domaine d'enseignement par rapport aux autres champs de la connaissance.

Il sait choisir et organiser les connaissances essentielles et les concepts fondamentaux nécessaires à la structuration du savoir mais aussi choisir et mettre en oeuvre les démarches pédagogiques liées à ces connaissances, en fonction des élèves qu'il a en charge.

Conscient du caractère global et de la cohérence que doit avoir la formation de l'élève, il a une connaissance précise des différents niveaux auxquels sa discipline est enseignée et de leur articulation. Il a repéré des convergences et des complémentarités avec d'autres disciplines ainsi que des différences de langage et de démarche. Il a le souci d'établir des collaborations avec ses

collègues de la même discipline et d'autres disciplines ainsi qu'avec le professeur documentaliste. Il évite ainsi que ne se développe chez les élèves le sentiment d'un éclatement des savoirs et d'une juxtaposition des méthodes.

Quelle que soit la discipline qu'il enseigne, il a une responsabilité dans l'acquisition de la maîtrise orale et écrite de la langue française et dans le développement des capacités d'expression et de communication des élèves.

Enfin, conscient de la nécessité de poursuivre sa propre formation tout au long de sa carrière pour compléter et actualiser ses connaissances, améliorer ses démarches et développer ses compétences, il est informé des différents supports de ressources documentaires, des modalités pour y accéder ainsi que des ressources de formation auxquelles il peut faire appel.

☒ Savoir construire des situations d'enseignement et d'apprentissage

En fin de formation initiale, le professeur est capable de concevoir, préparer, mettre en oeuvre et évaluer des séquences d'enseignement qui s'inscrivent de manière cohérente dans un projet pédagogique annuel ou pluriannuel. L'élaboration de ce projet implique qu'il sache, dans le cadre des programmes et à partir des acquis et des besoins de ses élèves, fixer les objectifs à atteindre et déterminer les étapes nécessaires à l'acquisition progressive des méthodes ainsi que des savoirs et savoir-faire prescrits. Elle suppose également qu'il s'informe des choix arrêtés par les autres professeurs de la classe et de sa discipline et en tienne compte.

Pour chaque séquence, il définit, dans le cadre de sa progression, le (ou les) objectif(s) à atteindre, sélectionne les contenus d'enseignement, prévoit des démarches et situations variées favorables à l'apprentissage, adaptées aux objectifs qu'il s'est fixés et à la diversité de ses élèves.

Il prévoit la succession des différents moments d'une séquence et en particulier l'alternance des temps de recherche, de tri et de synthèse d'informations en utilisant de manière appropriée, les différents supports, outils et techniques qu'il a choisis.

Il est préparé à tirer parti des possibilités offertes par les technologies d'information et de communication. Il sait prévoir l'utilisation du centre de documentation et d'information, se servir des équipements nécessaires à l'enseignement de sa discipline ainsi que des salles spécialisées.

Il sait, en un langage clair et précis, présenter aux élèves l'objectif et les contenus d'une séquence, les modalités du travail attendu d'eux et la manière dont les résultats seront évalués. Il sait également être à l'écoute et répondre aux besoins de chacun.

Il conçoit et met en oeuvre les modalités d'évaluation adaptées aux objectifs de la séquence. Il est attentif aux effets de l'évaluation sur les élèves et utilise outils et méthodes leur permettant d'identifier tout autant leurs acquis que les savoirs et savoir-faire mal maîtrisés.

Il sait l'importance à accorder à l'évaluation d'une séquence d'enseignement dans le souci d'accroître la pertinence et l'efficacité de sa pratique. Il s'attache à analyser les obstacles rencontrés dans le déroulement de la séquence ainsi que les écarts éventuels entre les résultats attendus et obtenus. Il en tient compte pour préparer la suite et modifier éventuellement le projet initial et le calendrier prévus.

Conscient de l'importance, pour les élèves, d'une cohérence éducative résultant de pratiques convergentes au sein de l'équipe enseignante, il confronte ses pratiques à celles de ses collègues dans le cadre de concertations, notamment lors des conseils d'enseignement, et avec l'aide de l'équipe de direction et des corps d'inspection.

Dans les voies de formation qui incluent des stages ou des périodes de formation en entreprise, il sait analyser les référentiels des diplômes, veiller à l'articulation de la formation donnée dans l'établissement et en milieu professionnel, participer à la mise en place, au suivi et à l'évaluation en relation avec les autres partenaires de la formation.

☒ Savoir conduire la classe

Les compétences acquises par le professeur en fin de formation initiale doivent lui permettre, dans des contextes variés, de conduire la classe en liaison avec l'équipe pédagogique.

Le professeur a la responsabilité de créer dans la classe les conditions favorables à la réussite de tous.

Maître d'oeuvre de l'organisation et du suivi de l'apprentissage des élèves qui lui sont confiés, il s'attache en permanence à leur en faire comprendre le sens et la finalité.

Dynamisme, force de conviction, rigueur et capacité à décider sont nécessaires pour que le professeur assume pleinement sa fonction : communiquer l'envie d'apprendre, favoriser la participation active des élèves, obtenir leur adhésion aux règles collectives, être garant du bon ordre et d'un climat propice à un travail efficace. Il est attentif aux tensions qui peuvent apparaître. Il exerce son autorité avec équité.

Il sait susciter et prendre en compte les observations et les initiatives des élèves sans perdre de vue les objectifs de travail. Il favorise les situations interactives et sait mettre en place des formes

collectives de travail et d'apprentissage.

Il s'attache à donner aux élèves le sens de leur responsabilité, à respecter et à tirer parti de leur diversité, à valoriser leur créativité et leurs talents, à développer leur autonomie dans le travail et leur capacité à conduire un travail personnel dans la classe ou en dehors de la classe.

Il fait preuve d'ouverture, il peut modifier la démarche choisie initialement. Il est préparé à s'adapter à des situations inattendues sur le plan didactique, pédagogique ou éducatif.

Il est capable d'identifier et d'analyser les difficultés d'apprentissage des élèves, de tirer le meilleur parti de leurs réussites, et de leur apporter conseils et soutien personnalisés avec le souci de les rendre acteur de leur progression.

Il veille à la gestion du temps en fonction des activités prévues, des interventions et difficultés des élèves ainsi que des incidents éventuels de la classe

Il sait utiliser l'espace et le geste et placer sa voix. Il sait choisir le registre de langue approprié ; ses modalités d'intervention et de communication sont ajustées en fonction des activités proposées et de la réceptivité des élèves. Il a conscience que ses attitudes, son comportement constituent un exemple et une référence pour l'élève et qu'il doit en tenir compte dans sa manière de se comporter en classe.

3. Exercer sa responsabilité dans l'établissement

Le professeur exerce le plus souvent dans un établissement public local d'enseignement, ou bien dans un établissement privé sous contrat d'association. Il est placé sous l'autorité du chef d'établissement.

Le professeur a le souci de prendre en compte les caractéristiques de son établissement et des publics d'élèves qu'il accueille, ses structures, ses ressources et ses contraintes, ses règles de fonctionnement. Il est sensibilisé à la portée et aux limites des indicateurs de fonctionnement et d'évaluation des établissements.

Il est partie prenante du projet d'établissement qu'il contribue à élaborer et qu'il met en oeuvre, tel qu'il a été arrêté par le conseil d'administration, avec l'ensemble des personnels et des membres de la communauté éducative.

Un professeur n'est pas seul -1 au sein de la communauté scolaire, il est membre d'une ou plusieurs équipes pédagogiques et éducatives. Il est préparé à travailler en équipe et à conduire avec d'autres des actions et des projets. Il a le souci de confronter ses démarches, dans une perspective d'harmonisation et de cohérence, avec celles de ses collègues. Il peut solliciter leur aide, ainsi que le conseil et l'appui des équipes de direction et des corps d'inspection.

Il sait quel rôle jouent dans l'établissement tous ceux qui, quel que soit leur emploi, participent à son fonctionnement.

Il connaît les différentes instances de concertation et de décision, il est conscient des responsabilités qu'il y exerce ou peut être appelé à y exercer. Il sait qu'il a à participer à l'élaboration de la politique de l'établissement.

Le professeur est attentif à la dimension éducative du projet d'établissement, notamment à l'éducation à la citoyenneté, et ce, d'autant plus que l'établissement est parfois le seul lieu où l'élève trouve repères et valeurs de référence.

Il connaît l'importance du règlement intérieur de l'établissement et sait en faire comprendre le sens à ses élèves. Il est capable de s'y référer à bon escient. De même, il connaît et sait faire respecter les règles générales de sécurité dans l'établissement.

Le professeur doit pouvoir établir un dialogue constructif avec les familles et les informer sur les objectifs de son enseignement, examiner avec elles les résultats, les aptitudes de leurs enfants, les difficultés constatées et les possibilités de remédiation, conseiller, aider l'élève et sa famille dans l'élaboration du projet d'orientation.

Il participe au suivi, à l'orientation et à l'insertion des élèves en collaboration avec les autres personnels, d'enseignement, d'éducation et d'orientation. Au sein des conseils de classe, il prend une part active dans le processus d'orientation de l'élève.

Il connaît les responsabilités dévolues aux professeurs principaux.

Il est préparé à établir des relations avec des partenaires extérieurs auprès desquels il peut trouver ressources et appui pour son enseignement comme pour réaliser certains aspects du projet d'établissement. Dans un cadre défini par l'établissement, et sous la responsabilité du chef d'établissement, il peut être appelé à participer à des actions en partenariat avec d'autres services de l'Etat (culture, jeunesse et sports, santé, justice, gendarmerie, police ...), des collectivités territoriales et des pays étrangers, des entreprises, des associations et des organismes culturels, artistiques et scientifiques divers. Il est capable d'identifier les spécificités des apports de ces partenaires.

Conclusion

Pour être en mesure d'assumer la mission qui lui est confiée : instruire, contribuer à l'éducation et à

l'insertion sociale et professionnelle des élèves qui lui sont confiés, le professeur doit avoir bénéficié d'une formation et acquis des compétences relatives à chacun des trois aspects de sa mission.

Cependant, la pleine acquisition de compétences aussi complexes et diversifiées exige du temps et doit s'inscrire dans la durée, sur l'ensemble d'une carrière qui permettra l'affirmation progressive d'un style personnel dans l'exercice du métier. A cette fin, il est nécessaire que le professeur possède en fin de formation initiale l'aptitude à analyser sa pratique professionnelle et le contexte dans lequel il exerce. Il doit savoir que la nature des tâches susceptibles de lui être confiées, conformément aux dispositions réglementaires, peut varier au cours de sa carrière : contribution aux actions de formation continue d'adultes, à la formation des enseignants, aux actions d'adaptation et d'intégration scolaires, et aux formations en alternance.

Il doit être capable de prendre en compte les évolutions du métier résultant de l'évolution du contexte éducatif et la politique conduite en matière d'éducation. La formation initiale a développé son attention aux innovations ; il a le souci de mettre à profit les évaluations qui en sont faites pour infléchir son action.

La formation initiale du professeur doit s'inscrire dans une double finalité : la première est de conduire le futur professeur à prendre la mesure de sa responsabilité en l'aidant à identifier toutes les dimensions du métier ; la seconde est de lui donner le goût et la capacité de poursuivre sa formation, pour lui permettre à la fois de suivre les évolutions du système éducatif et de sa discipline et d'adapter son action aux élèves, très divers, qui lui seront confiés au cours de sa carrière.



APPENDIX 4D

Notes on observations: England

1. PGCE subject/curriculum studies: EW1

Tutor fairly recently moved from school to HE. Session notes copious

Session title: Revisiting the 4 attainment targets

Aim: To pull together 4 ATs having looked at them separately in the past

Started with q & a - 'audit of current understanding', then task: in groups, to represent mfl teaching and learning on a large sheet of paper - descriptive, visual - as a framework, to recreate the 'whole picture' from a personal point of view.

Students found task quite challenging.

Plenary based on task - looking at ways they had conceptualised mfl t. & l. Tutor did some analysis of ideas presented on posters and asked quite searching questions.

Tutor moved on to look at 4 skills in turn injecting some theoretical background, looking for reasons for doing things.

After break: group task: list of quotes on language t & l from a range of writers. Group discussion, on meaning and implication of each quote, followed by plenary.

Observations:

Session quite searching, aiming at building 'personal theories', essentially reflecting over practice in relation to quotes.

Research, theories (eg Krashen) mentioned, but not in depth (too short a time). Trying to get st. t. to step back from immersion in practice to ask, 'Why am I doing XYZ'.

Probably most challenging session observed.

2. Subject/curriculum studies - PGCE and PG/Maîtrise fle (EW2) 2 groups together. First part of morning was a talk by a lecturer from another section of Education Department. Course tutor ran 2nd half of session.

Session title: Gifted and Talented pupils, followed by planning for continuity and progression.

Powerpoint presentation on national strategy for able linguists. Outlined policy, definition of 'high ability', multiple intelligences. Referred briefly to

research 'check list' and some underpinning theories (Chomsky, Bloom's Taxonomy - which st.t. had never heard of).

Set group task to consider characteristics of the able language learner, followed by plenary discussion; What are 'higher level cognitive skills'? Some good points made in plenary. Tutor then went on to talk about how the strategies might be developed.

Observations:

Group somewhat subdued - 'visiting lecturer syndrome'!

Speaker had an interesting, critical view of language learning that was refreshing to hear. Session used general principles and applied to mfl as well as using mfl-specific materials.

After break: Presentation on PoS at KS3 and 4, giving examples for teaching, followed by short activities in pairs on exploitation of texts to challenge able pupils.

Final task: Look at text books to think about how it might be amended/supplemented to cater for able pupils in group - select and adapt 2 activities from text book.

Finished session by looking at key points on differentiation and QCA guidelines

Observations:

Feedback rather subdued, but pair discussion animated. Lots of handouts for back up. No reading suggested. Practice orientated follow-up to earlier presentation. Worked quite well, but group(s) not very responsive.

APPENDIX 4E

Summary of observations: France

1. Formation disciplinaire (subject/curriculum studies) (FN)

Relaxed, friendly atmosphere in group, tutor very much like HE tutor in England in attitude and approach. Tutor a *Professeur Associé*: works half timetable in a secondary school.

Session on oral expression (a.m.)

1. Two *professeurs stagiaires* present a lesson they have taught to the rest of the group:

One using authentic video material in the English classroom - used footage of 9/11 (a few weeks after the event).

Second on use of internet resource (less creative ideas) to develop written expression - reading a text.

Group discussion about what they'd done. Tutor questioned *pr.st.* and rest of the group about methodology, content, aims, drawing out points of principle. Tutor critical of 2nd presentation and got *pr.st.* to identify problem. Very detailed discussion and analysis.

Tutor drew out linguistic, cultural, methodological, lexical, grammatical and phonological objectives.

2. After break, in groups, *pr.st.* designed activities/exercise to exploit video clip - discussed ideas with tutor. No plenary.

Observations:

Students seemed very familiar already (early in term) with principles and implementation of CLT and were able to discuss at a fairly abstract level.

The focus of session was practical, useful, but very rigorous, requiring *pr.st.* to think and analysis.

There seems to be more time to discuss in depth and analyse than would be the case in England.

3. Formation Professionnelle Générale (GPS) - FE

Tutor a *Maître de Conférence* - psychologist, formerly worked in Sciences de l'Education in university. Taught group (cross-subject) for 7 sessions during the year. Didn't know them, only 2nd session.

Session entitled: 'The profession of teaching and professional identity' (a.m.)

Tutor asked *pr.st.* to consider individually what profession of teaching meant to them and then in groups to draw up list of professional values. Plenary discussion. Talked about subject knowledge, pedagogy and didactics (general points). Tutor drew on points and then talked about work of 4 writers (Rochex, Bernard, Bautier and Charlot).

Observations:

An interesting session that moved from *pr.st.*'s experience and then went on to more theoretical ideas. *Pr.st.* a bit reluctant, lethargic, not very forthcoming in plenary discussion, but took notes when tutor was 'lecturing'.

2 mfl *pr.st.* appeared disinterested (1 in interview later said the though FPG a waste of time and not interested in 'theory')

Tutor obviously wants to engage *pr.st.* in ideas and some theory.

APPENDIX 5A

Tables from student teacher interview data: England and France

GENERAL	MOST INTERESTING	MOST USEFUL
Coherence/links/ good balance (12)	School experience (10)	Subject studies (5)
Practical orientation of HE (4)	Subject Studies (3)	School experience (3)
GPS valuable (3)	All aspects (1)	All parts of course (2)
Mentor support (3)	HE - ideas (1)	
Theory (2)		
Very intensive (2)		
Good support (1)		
Time to discuss in HE (1)		
Written Assignments valuable (1)		
SS gives theory (1)		
Learn from practice (1)		
Gradual development (1)		

Student Teachers' 'positive' experiences of PGCE MFL programme - England

GENERAL	MOST INTERESTING	MOST USEFUL
IUFM Practical ideas (3) - SS	School experience (3)	Subject studies (4)
Peer discussions (3)	Literature study for CAPES exam (2)	School experience (4)
Sessions informal (1)	Resources (1)	Peer discussions - SS (2)
IUFM tutors interested (1)		English didactics (1)
Ideas for teaching		
IUFM tutors good (2)		
School and SS linked (1)		
Mentor support (1)		
Learn from mistakes (1)		
IUFM learn self-evaluation (1)		

Student Teachers' 'positive' experiences of CAPES programme - France

HIGHER EDUCATION	SCHOOL	OVERALL
GPS (4)	School experience most challenging (10)	Not enough time (3)
Wanted more theory (1)	Not enough observation (3)	Too much to do (3)
Difficulty in implementing HE ideas	Classroom management (4)	Student/teacher - conflicting roles (1)
Need consistent contact with HE (1)	Differentiation/SEN (1)	Too much prescription (1)
	Mentor (1)	Too much pressure (1)

Student teachers' criticisms of PGCE experience - England

IUFM	SCHOOL	OVERALL
Needed IUFM earlier (3)	Thrown in at 'deep end' (2)	Lack of support (1)
FGP (5)	Need more teaching (1)	No links between parts of programme (6)
Poor quality IUFM in-put (2)	Most difficult (2)	School/IUFM clash (3)
Too much theory	Classroom management (3)	Student/teacher - conflicting roles
	Mentor	More teaching experience in 1 st year (1)

Student teachers' criticisms of CAPES experience - France

APPROACHES TO READING	BOOKS CITED
No time for reading (4)	Pachler & Field (11)
Would like more time to read (2)	Pathfinders (6)
Read only for assignments (5)	Language Learning Journal (4)
Only read core texts (2)	TES (2)
Read a lot (1)	Kyriacou (3)
Just read what tutor gives out (1)	Macaro (2)
Read everything on reading list (1)	Moon & Mayes (1)
Reading only on subject teaching (1)	Harris (1)
Good for getting teaching tips (1)	Capel, Leask & Turner (1)
	'Book on ESL'
	'Book about Skinner & Piaget'
	Course 'reader' (2)
	Field (Issues) (1)
	Swarbrick (1)
	Holt (1)
	Grauberg (1)

Student teachers' reading - England

COMMENTS
Can see links between subject & general theory
Course too based on one theoretical perspective
Prefers practical side of teaching
Theory supports practice
No idea what 'theory' means
Hard to relate theory and practice
Important to have basis of theory before practice
Must link with practice
Finding solutions to practical situations

Student teachers' comments on theory - England

READING	VIEWS ON THEORY
No interest in reading books on education (1)	Gives background knowledge for teaching (2)
No time for reading (3)	Sciences de l'Education not part of teacher training (3)
Not read anything that has been useful (1)	Can't always find answers in practice - need theory
Read 2 books on didactics of Eng.	A lot of didactics theory covered in 1 st year (2)
Read for ideas for teaching (3)	Theory needs to be linked with practice
Read enough during 1 st year to prepare for exam (1)	Practice gives meaning to theory
Would only read for personal interest (1)	T
Sometimes reads articles (1)	

Student teachers views about reading and theory - France

IMPORTANT 'TEACHER KNOWLEDGE'
Good subject knowledge (6)
Knowledge of pupils (1)
How to develop good t/p relationships
Good communication skills(2)
Educational issues (2)
National curriculum (1)
How pupils learn (1)

Student teachers' views of 'teacher knowledge' - England

IMPORTANT 'TEACHER KNOWLEDGE'
Good subject knowledge (4)
Practical skills (2)
Knowledge of pupils (2)
Listen to pupils (1)
Adolescent psychology (1)
Classroom management skills (1)

Student teachers' views of 'teacher knowledge' - France

APPENDIX 5B

Extracts from student teacher interview data

ENEst12

I: OK so what's been the most useful part of the course?

12: Again, the teaching. The University has as well but I think you can only, I, it's a practical course anyway because you can only learn to teach by teaching which I think has been the most useful although the University part has as well because we have learnt lots of ideas and we, you know, have been able to share ideas as well.

I: Well, yes, yes.

12: So, but I think actually putting it into practice is the most useful.

I: Right. What have you been reading the course.

12: So far, I have been reading books on language teaching, there's one by Pachler and Field, I've read that one, and I've read one by Sue Calloway, Getting the Buggers to Behave on classroom management because I was concerned by it and then I've read the Essential Teaching Skills in the Classby I forget his name..... and there's another one by him as well that I've

I: So you've read quite a lot of general stuff?

12: Hm.

I: But nothing like Pathfinders or that sort of thing?

12: Not really, apart from what X has given us them, she gives us articles so I read those but I've not actually read more info.

I: Sometimes people are quite a way away from the University and haven't got access to books.

12: No, we have....

I: What about for your assignment, so have you had to read?

12: I've read articles and things again and I've been on the internet and looked at things on there as well, things that weren't on but mainly we have

a reading list and I look down those and Ibut most of it to be honest is summarised in the Pachler and Field or the other one the general introduction to secondary teaching.

I: Yes, yes. Is that the Capel, Leask and Turner?

12: Yes I think so, yes. Learning to Teach in Secondary School and most things you can find in there and I think it's only if you are going into a lot more detail that you need to read further. Everybody on the course I think has found that..... I have read the Language Learning Journal.....

I: Yes, yes.

12:..... at the back there are some articles and we just take those out in the classroom and read them. I read those for my assignment on grammar and Ibut I find with the assignment its more writing about personal experience and I think you know I need to back it up but you know I think its mainly based on personal experience on the assignments anyway.

3. Extract from colour coded comments on theory (students numbered)

5. I've got to now go off and think about all this theory,.... But, I mean, in the end, it's good for us I think to be forced to think about issues, like em sort of class issues and that kind of thing, and em special needs in more detail. But that definitely for me was the bit that I enjoyed the least because it's actual teaching that I really want to be here for. But I know to be well rounded you have to be aware of other issues.

6. (I've read) school text booksschemes of work specifications, all that kind of thing. not much time for reading. I have been going to look at - I can't remember what its called, The Language Learning Journal ... and I also buy the TES about every two or three weeks and read through that. Em, so that's probably, that's about all the reading I do Pathfinders yes and there's a big fat book called Teaching Modern Foreign Language and Secondary School which

And I've got bits and pieces off the internet and off the specifications in the National Curriculum, well not that you can read it but you know referring to.

Em, yeh, I mean it's basically I think basically stuff that we have read..... or extracts that have been copied for us out of the language learning journal.

7. You learn a lot by doing but theory really supports it. I take a lot of ideas that I had from the theory here, I tried them out in the class or classroom management lectures that we had I found really interesting and useful

8. I haven't found the lectures really hard. They haven't been complete lectures, we have to participate, reflect and plan lessons in the lectures, do group work but I haven't found that really difficult or especially challenging. I have been reading what we had to read for the course really and haven't had time to read anything else and if I had I would have read something completely different because I am just working on the course and reading what we have to do and I haven't got time to do anything else especially now with all the lesson planning we have to do. I don't even have time to read the TES anymore which we are supposed to do every week.

I think the Pathfinder series that I used for a few of my assignments they are really good, so some of them gave me a few ideas and were really interesting in relation to what we did in the course and in practice but apart from that no not really.

6. I think the main thing I have realised here and that is really important is that all children have different abilities, some are good and this and some are good at that and even in one subject some are maybe better at oral work and some are maybe be better at written work and all of them have got different ways of learning so that you need to have different teaching styles because I sort of sensed it but I didn't like putting it in words until I was sort of in here that some people prefer to learn visually and others prefer to learn written, others orally and as I said I noticed it in myself as well but being aware you need to use all these different teaching methods to cater for the needs of all the different kids who prefer to learn in different ways. I think that is really important that they learn in different ways. Apart from that other theories are important.

But then most of the other readings we have are relevant and are interesting but as I said they are general theory and when I am writing my

assignments I am talking about what I am doing practically so all I can do is really say ok this is how I do it the same way or differently from the theory but I can't really say this is how the theory, how, not really no.

7. Most of it is like a book from Norbert and Field. I think it is a really good book. It is really interesting. Many tips on teaching. I don't know the name of it. You can get some really nice tips in books.

7. The theory is what we get at xxxxx, they say you have got to do that, you have got to do listening with them, speaking and writing [?] but sometimes you can't do that in a classroom. So sometimes I feel that theory, you can't follow the theory. [?] to xxxxxx. They don't teach you that. Sometimes you are a teacher class, you can't do anything with them. You can do just one little exercise and that is it for the whole lesson [?] and I have come across that. That has been a year and a half now since I have come across that and they don't tell you that at xxx or at any university.

9. I have just read for my assignment otherwise we don't have time honestly. I read Pachler and Field. A little, not all, but part of it. I read a book on ESL pupils because I had to read, but apart from that, I read articles. It is not that I don't want to but I don't have time because when I go home I do my lessons anyway straight away. That is what I plan my lesson but sometimes I go to Pathfinders and look but I don't read. I just look up information. The book I read on ESL yes because it was so interesting because this school in particular I wanted to help.

10. At the moment I am reading something about bringing ICT to the course My bible. Chris Kyriacou. Essential Teaching Skills. That is great. Just summarise everything. Then go into more detail, you have got to read additional things but if you read that I would say anyone before starting the PGCE course read that. It is quite short and easy to understand, clear ideas, development, there is progression. It is great, the perfect book.

So that has inspired you? Yes. I have read Teaching Modern Foreign Languages in a Secondary School too.

11. ...possibly the assignments are beneficial because you do have to think, you have to reflect, you have to do research and I found out stuff when I was doing my assignment but at the same time I felt it was more

added pressure. 4,000 words. It is quite a bit when you are doing other things as well. For the assignment I read Kyriacou, so that is quite a helpful one and I have also been reading How to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary Classroom. To be honest the only time I have read anything is for the assignments to be perfectly honest

11. educational theory, how would you describe it? I would have no idea. I have never even heard of it.

12. We had another assignment in professional studies. I suppose that was one about teaching and learning styles in assessment so it was two aspects that I'm bringing in on this long placement now more than on the first placement which was only four weeks. Now, it's prepared me for the placement because it's made me think about these issues already.

....she gives us articles so I read those but I've not actually read more I've read articles and things again and I've been on the internet and looked at things on there as well, things that weren't on but mainly we have a reading list and I look down those and Ibut most of it to be honest is summarised in the Pachler and Field or the other one the general introduction to secondary teaching.

Learning to Teach in Secondary School and most things you can find in there and I think it's only if you are going into a lot more detail that you need to read further. Everybody on the course I think has found that interesting. I have read the Language Learning Journal..... I read those for my assignment on grammar and Ibut I find with the assignment its more writing about personal experience and I think you know I need to back it up but you know I think its mainly based on personal experience on the assignments anyway.

13.(university does have a role?)Yes definitely yes. I wouldn't have liked to have just gone into school, started teaching like that or even just observing. I like the fact we had some theory before.

APPENDIX 6A

Tables and extracts from tutor interview data - England

1.

Tutors' views of Reflective Practice

What is RP? (13)

Ability to think outside certain parameters; ability to analyse what is good practice in themselves and others; looking at whether pupils' needs are being met; never understood what it means; not sure what it means - easy to claim, but is just lesson self-evaluation?; thinking about what you are doing and relating to reading; Donald Schön; constantly monitoring own practice; looking at the success or otherwise of an individual lesson; looking at learners; I sometimes wonder what a true reflective practitioner is; it's someone who always has a rationale for what they are doing; being open to a whole range of different perspectives;

Limitations/Problems (8)

Only reflecting on own context; the ultimate expression of relativism; need to have injection of theory as well; student teachers don't have time to read; sophisticated levels of reflection can't be expected of student teachers; not realistic to expect student teachers to be really reflective; teachers don't do it very much; teachers reflect on what they're doing, but not on research or theories;

Importance (5)

Reflection is crucial in all aspects of ITT; very important to look back objectively and analytically; reflection shows process of development over PGCE period; we are always training students to be reflective so that it becomes an integral part of their work; RP in PGCE is the start of becoming creative, resourceful, reflective teachers;

2.

HE Tutors' views of the role of theory in ITT

What? (19)

Theory is a result of thinking about and researching an issue; being aware of research; engagement with a set of sound principles that underpin good practice; theory sets a framework of guiding principles against which to compare experience; theory helps us make sense of things; theory explains *why* things work; theory gives you a language to talk about; theory is what research show, and needs to be constantly linked to practice; what students call theory is often reflection arising from practice or the general theory; theory is practice observed; real theory comes from practice, practice comes from theory: an indivisible whole; theory is the framework on which you hang practice; it makes you aware of *why* you do things

PGCE should include: Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences; nature of childrens' learning; applied linguistics; generic discussions: sociology & psychology; values education/philosophy of education help student teachers to position themselves;

How? 12)

not just lecture - need to analyse and discuss otherwise misconceptions creep in; professional studies should be integrated more into subject studies; student teachers relate own theories to college sessions; students do enough curriculum studies; all theory work is integrated into subject/curriculum studies (3) generic theory is absorbed into subject areas; foundation studies not possible because of priority of practice-based standards; need to do more on general theories of learning; they are professional rather than education studies; professional studies in schools is superficial;

Why? (12)

Important to know *why* we do things; outcomes and core processes need to be supplemented by theoretical basis; theory changes attitudes; theory makes sense of practice; to combat all-pervading anti-intellectualism; to enable questioning, challenging; provides researched underpinning of pedagogy (2); theory is crucial, otherwise ITT is an apprenticeship model; enables a deepening of understanding; helps student teachers to keep an open mind; important to have issues raised;

Theory/practice relationship (6)

Teaching is practical, leads to functional, practical attitudes in st. t. (2); individual practice needs wider context/understanding (2); deliberate attempts in training to separate theory from practice; students see theory as what happens in HE and practice is what happens in schools - both venues should involve both aspects;

Tutors' own experience/knowledge (4)

Tutors need an academic perspective to enable them to critique policy intelligently; has learned to analyse critically since entering HE;
Own training: generic foundation studies - lectures, seminars, methods group; I had philosophy, sociology, psychology, history but like a lot of people, I didn't pick up much;

Absence of theory (2)

Leads to poor reflection and dissemination of ignorance; without theory, trainee teachers never understand what is going on in children's minds;

Reading (1)

Course reader; journal articles

3.

Tutors' views of an Ideal Model of Initial Teacher Training PRINCIPLES

- Need for an 'injection of heavyweight thinking about education;
- We should be dealing with education, not schooling;
- Be aware of their subject within the general domain of human knowledge;
- Student teachers should develop their potential in a creative way;
- Need to be well-informed in terms of their reading;
- Create a much better informed profession;
- More time to reflect and evaluate along theoretical and research-based lines;
- Less pressure to achieve specific standards; adopt a holistic approach to education (2);
- Broaden perspectives and open minds; encourage a critical approach;

Tutors' views of an Ideal Model of Initial Teacher Training PRACTICAL IDEAS (categories and frequency)

Course content (10)

More detailed look at Child Psychology; philosophical perspectives, history of education, sociology and comparative elements; grounding in theoretical ideas about language learning; learning theory and learning (3); more time to reflect along a theoretical; good models to observe; enhance subject knowledge; 2nd year 50% timetable and substantial classroom research; more reading;

Format (10)

Intense practice early on as a testing ground but HE coping strategies (2); less emphasis on teaching practice; not 'front-loaded'; bring pupils into HEI; work with groups of pupils more; less class contact; 2 days in school, 2 days in HEI for extended period; opportunity to review and revisit topics in more depth; student teachers should be paid (like GTP) (2); smaller groups;

Length of course (9)

Course should be longer (7): 3 months more, 15-18 month internship; 2 years (3), not much longer; Course should not be extended, but fewer demands; current model would work if spread over 2 years;

Link with NQT Year (5)

HE based induction programme; formal HE responsibility for induction year (3); HE tutors to monitor/support new teachers for 2-3 years to avoid drop-out;

Link with schools (5)

More teacher in-put; develop ways of giving more common experience; better school/HE integration through observation of practice (school) and discussion linking with theory (HE); develop training schools in partnership; closer partnership

Tutors' views of Reflective Practice

1. I think it is crucial em, I think that that student teachers need to be constantly reflecting on not just what they are doing but what they are observing and what they are being told in schools and I think if they are not doing that in the light of theoretical understanding then it can be an awful lot of wasted effort em and, and, mistakes and em, less successful episodes are not going to, they are not going to get the full learning potential out of them unless they can actually look back, backwards onto their theoretical understanding and see em see the way forward and how they are going to progress

2. I think it's very, very important; it's the ability to look back objectively and analytically and also to look forward as well. The ability to think outside certain parameters, so instead of, I mean one attitude I'm trying to encourage is the not allowing statements that start with "Well in my placement school" because this soon becomes a situation where students become very insular, so it's encouraging them to realise that there is a wider picture. So I feel that is part of being a reflective practitioner; the ability to analyse what is good practice in themselves and in others and to use pupils as the starting point and so, again, trying to encourage them to move away from thinking about how they feel, to looking at whether the pupils needs are actually being met. So I think that these are all aspects of being a reflective practitioner.

2. So I feel that is part of being a reflective practitioner; the ability to analyse what is good practice in themselves and in others and to use pupils as the starting point and so, again, trying to encourage them to move away from thinking about how they feel, to looking at whether the pupils needs are actually being met. So I think that these are all aspects of being a reflective practitioner, but yeah ...

3. I don't know, I've never understood what it means.

3. All you do is reflecting on your own context and the problem with it, and I say this on every course I do, is that reflective practice without some theoretical injection, simply becomes a concentric circle where you just simply go on ever decreasing circles into yourself

3. With reflective practice as long as you go back to, in a sense, it it's, you only ever look at your own situation

4. Well, everything we do with them is trying to encourage them to reflect on what they're doing and what they're thinking from the very beginning, and from when they observe lessons we're trying to help them to understand what they're seeing and to reflect upon it and to relate to the sort of things we've given them to read.

4 . I think it's something that teachers don't do much of really in practice in schools, because they're too tired and they're too busy, and that's a real shame. Although of course they do reflect, that's not true either, I don't think they reflect on the latest research and the theories. But they certainly reflect on what they're doing all the time, they're constantly monitoring their own practice. I mean, that's what happens when you become an experienced professional. You're constantly reflecting.

4. It's you know Donald Schon's reflection in action. That's the idea. What you're seeing, what you're doing, you're constantly examining the situation, thinking back to previous situations and reacting to what you're doing. But I don't think that people have the time and space really to think about what they're doing, in inverted commas, deeper level, and to read, people haven't got time to read. I think in day to day practical terms it comes down to evaluating individual lessons, what was successful and unsuccessful about them and why within a general context of drawing upon what they know about educational theories and reflecting upon the learning that has taken place in their lesson.

6 we've been encouraging ourselves to get students at various stages in the course to step back from the practice and look at learners' learning rather than their own teaching

6 Reflective practice, has come very much more as a result of them saying to themselves, what are the learners learning?

6. I think teachers are better, on the whole, at reflecting on what they do, because they see for themselves the interest in seeing what the learners do.

6.And I've been quite impressed, for example by (name of institution) initial statement, middle statement and concluding statement at the way they have been very reflective about what they are doing and you can see that reflection being logged throughout the course

6.When they begin to read more intensively over the Easter holiday and then the first 4 weeks of term, that really does bring them up to stop and think about what and why they have done certain things. And interestingly after that, their practice, after that when they have gone back into schools after the first 3 Weeks of term, has become, and you see in their lesson evaluations, you see it in their notes and their planning, much more reflective.

7. That is your reflective practice that you don't take things at face value, that you sort out where they are coming from and you have discussions with yourself and with the people that you work with and with your peers and your tutor and by the end of your PGCE year it is not fully fledged but you have got the beginnings of the sort of philosophical foundation for yourself as a teacher.

9. Well I think, I think you need quite a lot of practice before you can actually, em, start to reflect

9. Start to reflect on it in a, in a meaningful way. I'm not quite sure what it's realistic to expect at the end of the first year, given that they've got so many other demands on them, and they want to pass this, they want to get a job at the end of it.

9. maybe it's realistic by the end of the training year to have sort of inducted them into what's involved in reflecting on practice. But to actually, you know, put it into practice, if you like, or actually be able to do that, you know, in a way that's really going to move them forward, I think that might be a longer term development.

10. I think some of our students don't feel that they have very much time for reflection, and yet they have much more time for reflection than the people on the Maîtrise FLE programme. And they certainly have more time for reflection than they will have when they're in their jobs. And that's the great shame of education and the way it's organised in this country at the moment

10. I think it, it really means having the space, or making the space to reflect on what you're doing, looking at, asking yourself questions as to why you're doing something in the way that you're doing it, and evaluating how successful that is, and seeing the observations of future practice.

11. I want to say that it's possible to make them really reflective teachers who analyse everything they do, evaluate everything they do, take into account research findings, always look at a range... but you know they still have, their pre-conceptions are still really, really deeply rooted and however much you try and draw them out... So I suppose it is still possible to make them or to develop them towards being potentially creative, very resourceful, very reflective teachers

11. Well I think it's very easy to say 'I'm a reflective practitioner' and does that mean, you know, that you evaluate your lessons and you jot a few notes and change your next lesson? Does it mean that you think about the methodology you're using, bet methodology, the most appropriate for the learners? Does it mean that you are looking at a range of perspectives to inform your practice, reading, discussing with colleagues maybe, research, and all that? I think it means a lot of different things and again it's a label to put on people, but I sometimes wonder what a true reflective practitioner is. And I suppose it's someone who never stands still, who always questions what they are doing to see. It's someone who has always got a rationale for what they are doing. I suppose it's actually in the outcome rather than the process that it's probably defined.

11. I suppose in terms of our students here, when we are asking them to be reflective, I think it is asking them to be open to learning a whole range of different perspectives. Each one of those to interrogate the

other... so you don't do *anything* unless there's a reason for it. Fine, even if it's something that I wouldn't do, as long as there's a reason for it, to show it's not just, 'that's what my mentor does' or, 'that's what the book says', or... well it might be of course, but it ought to be more than that. Informed by pupils' development and progress as well. So there's a whole lot of stuff which you couldn't expect them to be reflective about even. There are different levels of reflection – Donald McIntyre's work – you know, always challenging, but you don't always have to expect high – sophisticated levels of reflection are something that you can't possibly expect student teachers to do.

11. So although we are always training them to be reflective, we don't expect them to be, and we sometimes fall into that trap, I suppose, that the reflection should come as an integral part of their work rather than as something we are preparing them for just the same as classroom practice.

12. I think once they get into the habit of reflecting upon their own practice in terms of the success or otherwise of their individual lesson then that will become second nature to them, or we hope.

13. And it is pretty much always, when it's done well, based on what children are learning, how they are learning, what aids their learning, memorization techniques and so on... And I've been quite impressed by that because that was fairly uncommon before

nb bold type refers to PGCE/Maîtrise fle student teachers