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Exploring Understandings of the Competence Vocabulary: Implications for Understanding Teacher Competence

Research Thesis
Submitted By:-

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in fulfilment of the requirement for the award of

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To My Wife Linda
and in
Honour of my Father
Maj., *William M Dougall Macintyre* RA., (TA)., TD.
and
Mother
Georgina Longridge Macintyre

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In my time at the University of Glasgow I have been fortunate to have been guided in study by some of the most eminent of scholars and professors. In particular, I would like to extend grateful thanks to Professor Walter M. Humes and Mr Malcolm McKenzie with whom I embarked upon this thesis. Their counsel was often sought and I took great pleasure from the knowledge that I would benefit from their insights and critique.

This was fortunate indeed, but on Professor Walter Humes' move to a faculty in another university and with Mr Malcolm McKenzie's retirement, I came under the wing of Professor Michael A. Peters. I did not fully appreciate the need for an aspiring candidate to study under several masters until then. The freshness of outlook and the sheer inspiration that such a transition fostered was invigorating. The path that this thesis now follows would not have been trodden if it were not for the deep enthusiasm for understanding the underlying philosophy that I inherited from this union with Professor Michael Peters.

Abstract

The aim of this thesis is to explore the vocabulary of competence, to analyse conceptualisations of competence and to unravel understandings that then have implications for preparation and professional development of teachers in Scotland.

Through discussion of the context for assessing teacher competence and a presentation of the accountability movement's proposals for criteria that purport to measure teacher competence, differing conceptualisations of teaching are examined. At one end of the spectrum there are conceptions of teaching as a dialectical activity while at the opposite end there are conceptions of teaching as a mechanistic activity. It is the contention of this thesis that the conceptualisation of teacher competence reflects directly on the conceptualisation of teaching that dominates current political thinking on the purposes of education. An analysis of the discourse of competence and the vocabulary of competence is then revelatory of the underlying dimensions and conceptualisations of teaching held by the 'leadership class' or 'policy community'.

Following a lengthy critique of alternative conceptions of competence where it is realised that there is little real consensus – even among advocates of competence approaches to training and education – about what constitutes a definitive conceptualisation of competence, there is an attempt to regain ground through an understanding of competence that accords with a more traditional understanding of what the 'notion of competence' implies. Competence in this regard is considered as a deep understanding that is actually constitutive of action. Understood, this is not just that understanding lies behind action, but that understanding determines the approach to action. Such a notion of competence reflects how a person conceives their world and what then drives them to action.

Finally, a model of this notion of 'real competence' is presented that is not dependent upon simple outcome statements, but is infused with an entreaty to reclaim conceptions of teaching by teachers for teachers. In this, there are overtones of the need to understand authentic teaching and for teachers to claim ownership of their own teaching.

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INTRODUCTION

Introduction

A Critical Concern

Towards Nihilism

In beginning to address a general introduction to this thesis on Sunday 27th March 2005, the day after the passing of Lord Callaghan, the writer has been moved to express a ‘critical concern’ rather than simply build a formalised pre-amble to the content of the work. Holding a view of education that takes as part of its most fundamental conception, the more eloquently expressed regard of James Callaghan, that the

... goals of our education, from nursery school through to adult education, are clear enough. They are to equip children to the best of their ability for a lively, constructive, place in society, and also to fit them to do a job of work. Not one or the other but **both**. ... (emphasis added) (Callaghan, Ruskin College, 1976)

imbues the holder with a sort of general ‘duty of care’. A ‘duty of care’, in at least a Scottish context, towards Scottish educational traditions and *myths* properly recognised (See Gray, *et al*, 1983, pp.39-46) as well as a ‘duty of care’ in dispelling myths of simple liberal/ vocational *educational dualisms*. (See Winch, 2000, pp.83-86) In addition, also holding a view of teaching as an activity that is deeply personal and

... not experienced ... simply as a dispassionate technical activity nor only as socially imposed form but as a project that daily we either feel good or bad about. ... (Smith & Coldron, 1996, p.3)

further instils in the holder a sort of belief of teaching as a ‘service of conscience’. Teaching is a hard act and the hardest part of the act is that it requires that the teacher ‘lets learn’. (See Peters, 2002, p.2) Learning is not an absolutely ‘directable’ pursuit, it is only orchestrated by the teacher. but it is in fact impossible for the

apprentice not to learn. Teaching from this view therefore, recognises the ‘need to cater for a child’s personality to let it flower in its fullest possible way’, (Callaghan, Ruskin College, 1976) through conduct that often produces the impression that nothing was properly learned from the teacher at all. Indeed, ‘the teacher’, from this perspective, ‘must be capable of being more teachable than the apprentices.’ ... because ‘the teacher is ahead of her/his apprentices in this alone, that s/he has still far more to learn than they – s/he has to learn to let them learn.’ (Heidegger, 1968, pp.15-16 cited in Peters, 2002, p.2)

The critical concern is, however, that education and schooling, teachers and teaching are not generally viewed in anything like this light. All are, in fact, becoming ever more sensitive to centrally directed initiatives and are simply viewed as functional, with teachers, as simple functionaries, their effectiveness as such assessed against their adherence to lists of functionally inspired criteria. Such a development is reminiscent of a reversion to a view of mass education as requiring to do no more than to fit ‘a so-called inferior group of children with just enough learning to earn their living in the factory’, (Callaghan, Ruskin College, 1976) now simply being applied more universally, effectively acting as a scientific classificatory device. Learning itself is thus compartmentalised and teachers become mere ‘custodians of knowledge’, administering packages of learning in a mass ‘consumerised’ market place. There is no ‘duty of care’ or any room for a ‘service of conscience’ in such functionalism, simply an increasingly technological understanding of being – a version of Heideggerian nihilism.

Overcoming Nihilism

For Heidegger, overcoming nihilism requires getting over this technological understanding of being, but not necessarily technology *per se*. That is, the benefits of technological advance can still be enjoyed – there is no need to be Luddite about it. The question is how might this technological understanding of being, be overcome, in an increasingly technologically orientated cultural milieu. The answer might appear quite simple, but the practical implementation of a solution appears to run hard against the grain. To overcome nihilism actually requires no more than taking part in marginal practices – those practices that are not efficient – but the

difficulty is in taking part as an authentic *Dasein*. Thus, art appreciation, the enjoyment of poetry, backpacking into the wilderness, running, and so on, all constitute an overcoming of nihilism. Of course these activities might be engaged in, precisely for the goal of greater efficiency, but that is to slip back into nihilism. In educational terms such engagement with marginal practices might translate into learning simply for the sake of learning. That is, appreciating the underlying aspects of learning. An example of this might be in developing skills of creative thinking through extra-curricular activity such as ‘mind mapping’ or ‘brain gym’ (after any number of gurus) or watching a movie such as ‘Billy Elliot’ and appreciating psychological constraints, familial constraints, social constraints and the deeper significances of metaphor within the narrative – or even just enjoying it as entertainment. For a teacher, even just the joy of letting someone learn something that they themselves, the apprentice, can claim to have learned alone. In the words of Antonio Gramsci, ‘To discover a truth oneself is to create, even if the truth is an old one because it demonstrates a mastery of the method.’ (Gramsci, 1971) Of course this can all again slip back into nihilism, but the point of this is to show that there is always a means of engaging in marginal activity that may be beneficial for nothing more than putting a smile on someone’s face, or, from a teacher’s perspective, making someone feel good about their learning. The significant difficulty as noted however, is in engaging in this type of marginal activity through schooling in the current educational context with its goals orientated outlook, driven as it is by the obsession with targets and results. But, feeling good about getting a result is not the same as feeling good about learning something by oneself for oneself. Getting a result is ultimately not sufficient for the transfer of ownership of the enjoyment of learning. Nor is it ultimately satisfying for teaching.

A critical concern with a general technological understanding of being is then what is primarily at the centre of this thesis. More specifically, the critical concern is that for teachers and teacher education the use of functionally derived and ideologically inspired criteria in competence-based approaches to assess teacher effectiveness, endorses such a technological understanding of being to the exclusion of alternative perspectives on teaching and education which lie outside the structure provided by the ‘framework of competences’. Moreover, not only does adherence to

competence-based approaches in general distort learning, rendering ‘marginal learning’ inefficient if not redundant, it also, perversely, absolves teachers of a need to develop their own conceptions of a ‘duty of care’ and of developing their own understandings of a ‘service of conscience’, allowing them then, to ever engage in inauthentic practice.

Introduction to the Thesis

In taking issue with understandings of the competence vocabulary and the enactment of a competence based approach as a means of evaluating the effectiveness of teachers, the focus is on the difficulty of articulating sufficiently the criteria, on the fulfilment of which competence to teach depends and is thereafter bestowed. There is really no question that failure to fulfil such criteria is problematic for the candidate, even although there may be mitigating circumstances, but that is not what is in question. It is rather, whether the fulfilling of the criteria has any real meaning beyond that of the criteria’s own simple limit as a hurdle, preventing a candidate from being classified as competent. If minimally competent, sufficiently competent, adequately competent and maximally competent are not all the same, then the question must be, how do the criteria of competence, which rely on a simple have or have not dualism, distinguish among such levels. On the other hand, if such distinctions are being drawn, then the corollary is that judgements must be being made about the degree of accomplishment of the competences. This however, is simply indefensible in the competence structure because the criteria of competence are considered to have a specificity that can approach that of a science. There should be no need therefore for judgements in this context, notwithstanding the additional possibility of a capriciousness in the construction of such judgements and the relevant level of accomplishment for success. If competences as such are then minimal requirements only, they are not adequate for the task of distinguishing degrees of effectiveness in teaching. But more than this, if the task set for competences is simply to act as benchmark standards, then their function has political overtones because questions must then be asked about who sets the standard and why certain standards have been included while others excluded.

Simply stated, it is the contention of this thesis that lists of so called 'competencies/ competences' in 'competency/ competence' structures, have merit only in so far as they restrict entry to a profession, but that in accomplishing this they are relegated to little more than lists of obligatory criteria with little to offer by way of an understanding of what constitutes competence at all. Further, with regard to teacher education in Scotland, in the conceptualisation of such competencies/ competences, there is a deeper conceptualisation of what constitutes 'competence' in teaching that results in a narrow view of teacher professionalism characterised by a tight control over what counts as standards and legitimate responses to situations and that thus there is a view of knowledge that is definitive with regard to the preparation of teachers. Such a contention leads inexorably to the conclusion that adhering to 'competencies/ competences' in a 'competency/ competence' structure is tantamount to the Initial Teacher Education (ITE) equivalent of biological cloning.

Structure of the Thesis

In structuring the thesis, the approach has been to divide the work into sections, which then deal with specific aspects in some detail. The sections are sequential to a large degree and understanding the whole requires that all be scrutinised, but it is possible also to consider the section on the Context, the two sections on the Movement and the Measures, and the section on the Concept as robust enough to stand alone. Indeed the chapters in the Concept section might be read initially so as to gain an insight in to the underlying conceptual analysis of the thesis. Having followed this path, reading the work in sequence thereafter will be enriched by the understanding so gained.

In Section I, the methodological aspects are set out so as to give a focus to the justification for this being a theoretical as opposed to an empirical work. The data collection is an amassing of informed and informative critique of the central concept of competence and in the round there are philosophical, historical, social, political, ideological and professional considerations that are pertinent for a full appreciation of the argument. This also leads to a themed approach where within, repetition of some aspects is inescapable. Nevertheless, it is such that certain points are so central

to all of the wide arc that inevitably this must be the case. Indeed, some aspects are so central that they in fact form a nexus.

The methodology is itself a form of discourse analysis which follows a pattern of questioning that attempts to elicit the power nature of the discourse as it unravels with regard to the vocabulary of competence and its implications for understanding what constitutes teacher competence. It loosely follows a path akin to that of 'critical theory', but in so doing there is no assertion that there is a 'grand narrative' that provides deep explanation. There is instead, simply the desire to foster a deep understanding of the nature and conduct of the discourse in order that the reader form an opinion as to the validity of competence claims in competence based structures.

In Section II, the two chapters outline the general context within which the drive to have some form of evaluating teachers and teaching has arisen. The public, political, ideological and professional context are all inextricably interlinked and originally the consideration was to treat them all together in a single chapter. However, as progress was made it became evident that each element of the context in its own right might just as easily demand a chapter. But the possible burden of being overly repetitious in this, demanded that some attempt be made to treat them as interlinked. While there is some repetition then, it is because there is also no clear and distinctive dividing line between the elements of the context. The distinction thus, between, on the one hand the public and political context and on the other, the ideological and professional context, is simply convenience. Nevertheless, the pairing of the elements of the context in this way allowed a particular focus to develop through each pairing. Thus latterly in the public and political chapter there are shades of the ideological which then leads on to the full consideration of the ideological and professional context.

In Sections III and IV there is a concentration on the 'accountability movement' and the 'measures' that emanated from many sources as attempts were made to find a means of evaluating teachers and teaching. There is a long history of such attempts and it is inextricably linked with developing a sort of productivity relationship for

teaching. The means by which advances were made in increasing productivity in the factory allowed the consideration of their applicability more universally and teaching in particular was viewed as an activity that could become more productive if such means were applied scientifically. The behaviourist mantle in psychology was in its prime and with advances in intelligence and psychometric testing there was ever the spectre of schools as manufactories of human capital. The search was on for a 'production function' of education.

The lists of measures and criteria that have been developed is testimony to the tenacity with which this search was prosecuted, and their survival and development is testimony of their transformational ability. That there are so many such lists and that there are so many criteria contained in such lists is almost mind numbing. The lists cited and presented in this section firstly cover the general Western world with a particular emphasis on America and the UK before covering the particularly Scottish developments. That all such constructs have elements of commonality is without doubt and an in depth analysis of such lists themselves might prove worthwhile in determining such commonality, but the real point is that the commonality is expressive of a particular view of teaching and the purposes of teaching. As such, and following the argument made in the context section, this view must be considered to have politically inspired motivation. Judgements have been used in the construction of lists and in some examples, such as 'does not comb hair in an odd way' (see Chapter 5, p.87) the arbitrariness of such judgements are evident. This is an extreme example and for the most part the more recent and more refined lists do not contain so blatant a provocation. Nonetheless, the example serves to underscore the fact that judgements are often founded on prejudice. That is pre-judice or pre-judgement, in the sense used by Gadamer, (1989 [1960]) recognised as that which makes *any* kind of discrimination possible. (Lawn, 2004, p.101)

In Section V the real conceptual base of the thesis is presented. Contained in the four chapters in this section is a mass of informed and informative critique of the central conceptual basis of 'competence' as it relates to competence structures in education and training. There is need however, for forewarning in this regard. The

vocabulary is somewhat complex and throughout the thesis it will be noticed that there is reference to competent, competence, competency, competences and competencies. In addition, at certain junctures it has been felt necessary to allude to the 'double-ups' of competency/ competence and competencies/ competences. Indeed this sort of reference has already been used above. Where a particular spelling has been used or where a double-up has been used, it has been used deliberately. In instances of the use of, competency and competencies there is needful recognition that this is an Americanism and has particular connotations in this regard. In instances of the use of competence and competences, there is a peculiarly British usage with a subtly different connotation. However, as will be revealed in this section such distinction, is not always adhered to by commentators on this side of the pond. Nevertheless, in this thesis an attempt has been made to maintain the difference, particularly when the use of a reference is from this or the other side of the Atlantic, or indeed from the antipodes, but a full appreciation of the difficulty in maintaining this stance can only be realised from following the argument as presented in this section. That there are differences is without doubt. That there are confusions is without doubt. That there are mixed usages is without doubt. But that there are also general arguments about the conceptualisation of competency/ competence is also discernible in the round.

Following the critique of the conceptualisation of competence there is, in the last two chapters in this section, an attempt to come to terms with the burden that this places on conceptions of competence. There is a suggestion of moving beyond competence, but in such a way that competence is re-evaluated and re-conceptualised so that the understanding of what constitutes the notion of competence or 'real competence' is articulated not as a possession, but as a 'way of doing' or even a 'way of being'. It is articulated essentially as 'how people approach their work' and not as 'whether they should be judged as qualified to do it'. (see Chapter 12, p.206) In this, there is the notion that 'real competence' is essentially a deep understanding that is the cause of action. That is, it is not just that understanding lies behind action, it is indeed, that understanding is 'constitutive of the action.' (Barnett, 1994, p.76)

The next two sections, Sections VI and VII, are not really sections as such. It is a convenience to have them separated however, as if they were true sections because they deal with the beginnings of building a model of 'real competence' and an overall 'conclusion', respectively. Initially, they were both more complementary as a sort of 'reappraisal' section or a 'reconsideration' or 'reconstruction' section. But they are distinctive enough to deserve separate status.

In beginning to build a model of 'real competence' the focus follows on from the conceptualisations that were part of the previous chapter. The shift, however, is from outcomes to inputs and the understanding of process. The notion is that having indeterminate ends does not necessarily imply having indeterminate means. Indeed it is the fact that inputs are so specifically specifiable, that permits of the building up of a model. Nevertheless, the move from the explicit practice of defining outcomes to inferentialism in understanding process is not achieved without some difficulty in building up an evidential basis. The thrust, however, is that the precision demanded of 'competence statements' is such that the burden is just as great on a competence based approach as it is on a more inferential approach. In conclusion therefore, there is an argument presented that considers that the only means of gaining direct access to process is through the authentic voice of practitioners daily involved in constructing the narrative that is real competence.

SECTION I
THE METHODOLOGY

Chapter 1

Methodological Considerations

The task of carrying out an enquiry is complicated by the fact that there is no overall consensus about how to conceptualize the doing of research. ... There are, for example, different views about the place and role of theory; also about the sequence and relationship of the activities involved. One model says that you collect all the data before starting to analyse it. A different one has data collection and analysis intertwined.

These differences fall within two main traditions which continue to engage in sporadic warfare. One is variously labelled as positivistic, natural-science based, hypothetico-deductive, quantitative or even simply 'scientific'; the other as interpretive, ethnographic or qualitative – among several other labels. (Robson, 1993, p. 18)

Introduction

The research methodology adopted in this thesis is more openly aligned with the interpretive tradition and its sympathies are with this side of this engagement in sporadic warfare. There is no direct 'data' collection as such, but rather an amassing of informed and informative critique surrounding its subject matter – issues of ascertaining a means of gauging teacher quality. In the round, it partakes of historical, sociological, cultural, and philosophical perspectives of the discourse contiguous with the central themes of effectiveness, accountability, and particularly competence as they have developed and as they relate to Scottish Education. This does not ignore the relevance of the 'scientific' prong however, and in actuality respects 'scientific' traditions properly observed. Indeed, the analysis will at times incorporate aspects of the scientific paradigm, particularly as regards conceptions of competence when in relation to the desire for 'a precision in the use of language ... approaching that of a science', (Jessup, 1991, p. 134) it alludes to developments in teacher education and training and the penchant for assessment of teacher

effectiveness along the ‘accountancy style’ frameworks that now appear prevalent. The writer, however, does not and cannot profess expertise in all of these fields. But a rather eclectic (some might say chequered) background – which starts with Electronics and Physics, (pre-university) goes on to cover Political Economy, Geography, and Economic History, further expands in to Education Theory & Management, develops a sideline in Computing Studies, and is suffused with a long standing, now significantly deepening acquaintance with 20th Century European Philosophy, not to mention, twenty years of classroom teaching experience, the latter four of which having been devoted to the teaching of Psychology – at least equips the writer with broad understandings and should entreat the reader to consider that technical terms and technical analyses are used at least with the knowledge that they must reflect a considerable degree of precision. Notwithstanding this catholic backdrop however, and lest the epithet ‘jack-of-all-trades’ be applied, it must be emphasised that a significant number of University specialist qualifications have also been gained along the way. If eclecticism be applied then better to generously engage with it in an understanding of the writer as a modern day equivalent of that ever mythical Scottish character – a ‘lad-o-pairs’.

But, the writer is not a philosopher nor a psychologist nor a sociologist nor a scientist nor even a historian. This makes things all the more fraught because in the realm of the discourse on teacher quality, the easier option is always to follow the route through which *why* questions or ‘questions about values’ quickly become *how* questions or ‘questions about technique’ in a ‘goals-objectives-assessment-feedback-improvement model’. (Taylor, 1978) The weakest link in this model, however, is its first and this weakness itself is not difficult to understand.

Pluralism, the existence within our society of ‘entrenched and apparently unshakable differences of approach to and belief about fundamental questions of morality, religion, politics, and some other topics’ ... raises awkward questions about truth, relativism, power, normative order and a host of other issues about which philosophers and social scientists have wrangled for generations, and never more strenuously and publicly than today. (Taylor, 1978, p. 26)

In attempting to explore the issues surrounding teacher quality then, depths of meaning must be plumbed and fundamental ‘value’ questions must be asked, with the ever conscious knowledge that parts of the analysis, however plausibly

accomplished, might actually be ‘hacked to pieces by any philosopher, political scientist or sociologist of any other particular hue who deigned’ (reflection after Taylor, 1978) to give them real attention. Nevertheless, the realm of this thesis is precisely this discourse.

Principally, the methodology will engage some of the techniques of discourse analysis, following the style of Humes, (1986, 1995, 1999, 2003, 2005) which involve asking a series of questions about the language in which policy proposals, formulation and enactment are delimited and as such, how they then pertain to assessing teacher quality. Thus in the case of teacher quality, it might be asked:

- Why has a certain term evolved or developed as fundamental for the principles of policy in the first place? Why has it come to the fore at this time? Where has it come from?
- Why has it been chosen and what other terms have as a consequence been squeezed out?
- Whose interests are served by the turn to certain terminology – teachers, pupils, parents, policy makers?
- What knowledge base or ideology underpins its usage?
- How has political and professional power been used to promote the concept? To what ends? How has it then actually shaped educational thinking? (Adapted from Humes, 2005, p.7)

Each of these questions will receive varying degrees of attention and some are obviously much more important than others at particular stages of the analysis. They are themselves variously *why* questions, *what* questions, *how* questions and *for whom* questions. But there will be no attempt to address them systematically. This style of questioning itself however, is very much associated with certain aspects of Critical Theory and indeed the claim from within Critical Theory, that knowledge is not neutral and that schooling is ideologically contestable terrain, is fundamental to the analysis. Thus there is also interwoven, a sort of policy analysis that requires consideration of ‘the infrastructure of power/knowledge which speaks policy’. (Ball, 1994, p.108) There is therefore similarly, consideration of the *how* and the *why*, but most importantly of the *because* of policy.

- the ‘how’ of policy, which provides a descriptive account of what happened;

- the ‘why’ of policy, which refers to the dominant discourse which permits some conceptualisations and philosophies and omits others; and
- the ‘because’ of policy, which considers the wider structural and social context in which policy development takes place. (Ball, 1994, p.108)

The approach of critical discourse analysis then, goes beyond issues of factual meaning to explore the social interaction which produces the discourse as well as the historical and ideological concepts which help to shape its meaning. (Wodak, 2001) It also involves analysis, not only of what is included in the discourse, but also of what is not, (Ball, 1990; Fairclough, 1995; MacKenzie, 1999) because this too, is under the control of the dominant ideological turn. Additionally, in conducting the analysis through this style of interrogation, the corollary must be that much will necessarily have to address the weakest link alluded to above. Much of the preliminary analysis will therefore attempt to remain detached, seeking answers that involve understanding and explanation, while accepting all the time that disinterestedness is a devilishly difficult perspective to maintain.

In all of the analysis there is indeed a distinctive emphasis on understanding positing explanation. Understanding the *context* within which assessing teacher quality has arisen; understanding the accountability *movement* and its motivations; understanding the *measures* proposed as instruments of accountability; understanding the *conceptual* base of the movement’s terminology and terminological intrigues in addressing issues of assessing teacher quality; understanding alternative conceptions and the *model* and *narrative* of ‘being a teacher’; understanding the consequent inexorable drift towards a *conclusion*.

But understanding itself is slippery. What is actually meant by understanding? Indeed, ‘our understanding of understanding’ may be ‘heading for a major shift’ when ‘public documents’ regarding ‘education and training ... either omit the term ‘understanding’ or suggest its meaning can simply fall under other concepts’. (Barnett, 1994, p. 100) Understanding then, requires to be understood. To understand, for example, a complex topic requires, in the first instance, a number of criteria.

First, for an understanding to be perfect it must be a true or correct or valid understanding rather than a misunderstanding. Secondly, it must be a profound understanding - one which goes deep to fundamental principles.

presuppositions and motivations. Thirdly, it must be comprehensive, not ignoring anything of significance. Fourthly, it must be synoptic, getting a view of the thing as a whole. Ideally, it will also relate this whole to ever broader backgrounds. Fifthly, it must be sensitive to hidden significances, delicate shifts of emphasis and nuances of expression. Sixthly, it must be critical: a person does not fully understand ... [something] ... if ... blind to ... errors, weaknesses and omissions, and to the possibility of alternative descriptions or explanations. Seventhly, it must be steady, not insecure or intermittent. Eighthly, it must be fertile or creative: a person does not really understand ... if he cannot begin to apply ... principles to any topic [otherwise] unexamined Appropriate evaluative response may be a further, ninth, criterion, since we might be reluctant to allow that anyone fully understood ... [something] ... if he did not have even a grudging admiration for ... [the] ... achievement. An understanding which is true, comprehensive, profound, synoptic, sensitive, fertile, critical, firm and justly appreciative would be a fully developed or excellent one. The characteristics named in this list are more or less separate virtues or excellences of understanding. In particular cases some may be present to a much higher degree than others. (Barnett, 1994, p.100 citing Elliott, 1975, pp. 47-8)

To understand understanding therefore requires no less than the application of this set of criteria. To have an understanding then is to have more than the simple ability to describe, it is to have a state of consciousness. Indeed, a fundamental aim of this thesis is to bring the reader to such a state of consciousness about its subject matter. Only then will the conclusion, entailing as it does a view with normative overtones, appear inexorable.

Parameters, Data and Discourse

The parameters of this thesis are primarily a study of the discourse that surrounds issues of teacher quality as it has unravelled in Scotland. A little more parochially perhaps, the parameters might be further delimited as the study of the discourse ensuing the publication of the '*Guidelines for Teacher Training Courses*' (SOED, 1993) within which for the first time in a Scottish Educational context 'competences' were endorsed as the basic accounting block for assessing aspiring teachers progress through their Initial Teacher Education (ITE) years. Notwithstanding such strictures however, the study does have wider significance and the discourse does have a genealogy. Teacher quality is indeed a concern of such consequence that the amassing of informed and informative critique from a more eclectic dimension has as much and in some instances even greater relevance

than the parochial. But this is not to diminish the relevance of localised study. The context of Scotland itself may indeed be considered a 'case study' in a wide sense.

Additionally, socio-cultural influences pervade the discourse both temporally and spatially, which then require historical, national and supranational perspectives be considered. All nations initiate their young in to their own socio-cultural milieu and all nations rely to a large extent on teachers as functionaries in this endeavour. Their quality in accomplishing this is therefore of principal concern. However, it is teacher quality or pedagogical quality that is probably *the* major stable entity in this enterprise. Thus while there are nuances, there is also commonality. It is this commonality that then demands the inclusion of philosophical perspectives because it is through *philosophy* that the most coherent structures are discerned. But it is also through *philosophy of education* that certain delimitations must ensue. It is not therefore the purpose of this thesis to provide a world-view, simply to endeavour to include the world-view where it is relevant in a particularly Scottish and in a generally Western educational context. Answers to *why* questions do demand recognition of underlying philosophy and it is such philosophy that is wider than any parochial view or any narrowly defined educational practice.

However, it is not intended that this be a philosophical thesis as such. As pointed out above, the writer is not a philosopher and is therefore not adequately equipped to embark on a rigorous philosophical analysis. But neither is it intended, after

... having made ritual genuflection with a sly textual reference or two to Plato, Whitehead and Peters, and [the incorporation of] a bibliography that contains a few more of the right names, ...[simply then, to] skip thankfully to the more manageable business of building item banks, devising testing procedures and planning dissemination programmes. (Taylor, 1978, p. 26)

Such an escape route through to *how* questions while requiring to be addressed at some stage, is just not open when *why* questions underpin the analysis. This then raises the fundamental question of how deep an understanding of philosophy is required by educational researchers in general and this educational researcher in particular. This is indeed problematic, especially when it is easy to draw freely on justificatory philosophical sources to strengthen an argument without necessarily having the command of any specific expertise in philosophical analysis that might

warrant such use. The ‘positivistic’ versus ‘interpretive’ approach to research alluded to above quickly breaks down in to, for example, ‘empiricist/ positivist’ versus ‘rationalist/ idealist’ versus ‘phenomenological’ philosophical traditions and each of these have their own further sub-divisions and schools of thought. Indeed, educational research in the arena of teacher quality is replete with allusions to these traditions and schools of thought and to the ‘*Being*’ of being a teacher. There is, however, such debate over so many philosophical concepts among philosophers themselves that when similarly as many teacher researchers simply fail to apprehend the nuances, the end result is often confusion. But such issues must be addressed, even risking misrepresentation, in this exploration of issues of teacher quality.

Thus the use of secondary sources for data collection is highly problematic and each source has to be scrupulously researched and original works, where cited, have to be consulted to ensure legitimate use. Indeed where possible, reliable secondary sources have simply been used as starting points for a lead-in to premises which have then been dealt with using original texts. The boundary, in a philosophical sense, between secondary and what might be considered primary sources is therefore necessarily blurred. Nevertheless, the vast area to be covered, because it partakes so liberally of historical, sociological, cultural and philosophical perspectives, justifies the use of secondary sources in building the contextual and conceptual base from which actual practice will be critiqued. But this does present a further problem of citation. While in the main primary sources will predominate when issues of assessing teacher quality in the context of Scottish Education are being addressed and when the analysis turns to narrative, models and practices, the preceding analysis will draw heavily on citation, presented as evidence. Regardless of scrupulous research therefore, the problem of misquoting or quoting out of context is ever present and one compounded when attempts are made to contrast one commentator with another to highlight contrasting and/or conflicting views. This procedure, however, can be rewarding of insights and enlightening of further subtleties as well as being illuminating and revelatory of implications for addressing issues of teacher quality. Thus while considerable effort is expended in fairly ‘scrupulous research’ of the philosophical standpoints of commentators, it is often their, ‘the commentators’, understanding of the philosophical implications which are

used to draw out contrasts. Indeed, many commentators express their own concern that they have attempted to extend the views of others from a general to a specific case or *vice versa*. (See Lum, 1999 for example) In such instances, it is the understanding of the commentator that is then open to critique.

This leads to an additional complication regarding language. There is indeed a distinctive difference between British and American vernacular, raising a question mark over the universality of English in the discourse. An attempt has been made to always bear this in mind, but to add to the list of what the writer is not; the field of linguistic analysis is not a specialism that can be claimed. Nevertheless, the writer attempts to let the nuances of British/American language speak for themselves. Where there is a distinctive difference it is held up and analysed as such. Where there are possible contradictory notions they have been explored. Where there is commonality it has been exploited in drawing generic inferences to the fore. Again, however, there is the question of ‘understanding’ of commentators who interpret French and German philosophical texts, often disputing the real meaning and opening up debate on the fundamentals of the underlying philosophy. In such debates, while the writer has had to assume the veracity of the commentator, attempts have been made to rely on the recognised foremost authorities and further attempts have always been made to cross-reference sources in order to maintain consistency. If misrepresentations there be, then they are in most instances attributable to a recognised authority’s interpretation and as such are possibly more a general concern for philosophy and philosophy of education.

Notwithstanding such specific and general reservations, the analysis is necessarily approached in a wide arc. The discourse centred on issues of teacher quality ranges freely incorporating all philosophical standpoints in relation to education and schooling that have made a mark. Each standpoint in turn is often set up as a ‘straw man’ by any of the others in order that the debate may be swung in this or that direction of favour. But, and without pre-empting the succeeding analysis, there is often a pattern to such ‘see-sawing’. The advent of mass state sponsored schooling demanded some form of ‘accountability framework’ be applied to those individuals and organisations charged with the delivery of a curriculum.

Research subsequently centred on the *how* of delivery eschewing reference to the *why* of the curriculum and the *why* of the need for mass state sponsorship. There is however, no real mystery to the *why* at this stage even though there is no single simple treatise. The advance of industrialisation with concomitant urbanisation made state sponsored schooling both necessary and convenient. Particularly in the specific case of America, research into teacher quality early took the form of scientific method. Efficiency was at a premium. Some might contrast this with a supposed more philanthropic development of state sponsored schooling in the U.K., but it also has a heritage of the application of scientific principles to the evaluation of the teacher. The salient point to emphasise is that there was a scientific methodology applied at the starting point of mass education and the evaluation of teacher quality, which follows upon industrialisation and urbanisation. This in itself is hardly revelatory, but how such approaches to assessment of teacher quality develop over the one hundred and twenty or so years of state sponsored mass schooling is inextricably linked with the development of the curriculum and the development of state schooling itself. Values everywhere permeate the development of state sponsored education.

‘Scientific’ approaches to teacher evaluation dominate the discourse right up to the present day even in the face of sustained critique from a number of philosophical traditions. Initially, the scientific approach was quickly subsumed by the behaviourist tradition, but this itself goes through several transitions from incorporating the ‘scientific management’ principles of Fredrick Winslow Taylor, breaking down the task in to individual practices, and the ‘Fordist’ factory mass-production line practices, through to adopting systems theories of organisational structures. The use of terms such as quality, effectiveness, competence have all been prefixed by ‘teacher’ in an attempt to have some kind of quantifiable scientific means of assessing, evaluating, appraising how well a teacher teaches. However, the common thread is the analysis of competence as it pertains, and the rigour is in treating this terminology with some respect. Thus, while these other terms are not strictly interchangeable, in the analysis some limited licence has been taken in order that the text be broken with the variety of terminology that this permits because, invariably, measures for assessing, evaluating and appraising actually end up relying

on how well a pupil learns and what pupils say about teachers rather than on the finer points of the process of teaching *per se*. Indeed, what pupils say has actually come well to the fore again in the most recent comprehensive report on teacher effectiveness (DfEE, 2000a) and this permits of a tentative genealogical contrast.

A Note on Genealogy

Since the publication of Foucault's *Surveiller et punir: Naissance de la prison*, (1975) it has become common practice among commentators on the history, sociology and philosophy of education to attempt to incorporate something of Foucault's conception of *genealogy* within analyses of systems of education and schooling. As many others have then eschewed, criticised and/or countered such notions. Experts on Foucault have thereafter been dismayed somewhat on both accounts citing lack of understanding, misunderstanding and even misrepresentation for the confusion that surrounds Foucault's conceptualisation. Indeed, in a general sense, some historians appear outraged at the apparent arbitrary juxtaposition of the *execution* of Damiens in 1757 and publication of Faucher's *rules* 'for the House of young prisoners in Paris' some eighty years later in 1838. (Foucault, 1977, 1991, pp. 3-6) The tactic, however, permits of Foucault's intent,

... to juxtapose upon one another two procedures which are quite dramatically different. It would be mistaken to see this as a mere stylistic point. It is a key aspect of genealogical method. [thus] ... it may be best to see Foucault as writing a different kind of history. (Marshall, 2001)

Notwithstanding the controversy that still exists on this point and at the risk of contributing to confusion, the tactic of juxtaposition of such 'procedures which are dramatically different' has intriguing consequences for an analysis of teacher quality. The juxtaposition of the following two lists about the 'best teacher' and 'a good teacher', written more than a century apart, might be seen to contain some of the essence of Foucault's genealogical methodology.

The following characteristic statements about the "best teacher" are highly suggestive and need no comment:

"She could stand some fun."

"She had no pets."

"The children feel as if she was one of them."

“The principal reason I liked her for was because she liked me and showed it once in a while.”

“She always got our attention.”

“She always wanted me to be thoughtful.”

“Her actions helped me to do better.”

“If you did not get your lessons, she was so sorry that it made you ashamed.”

“She don't feel satisfied when her pupils don't have a good lesson.”

“She took a great deal of interest in us.”

“She was interested in her pupils' habits and readings.”

“Put us on our honor.”

“By making things pleasant, so I felt like working.”

“Her manner seemed to give me an inspiration to work.”

“She never punished the pupils because she didn't feel good.”

“Does not scold us one time and then be awful good for a while.”

“Never flew off the handle.”

“Always meant what she said.”

“Always thought before she spoke.”

(Kratz, 1896, p417)

A good teacher . . .
is kind
is generous
listens to you
encourages you
has faith in you
keeps confidences
likes teaching children
likes teaching their subject
takes time to explain things
helps you when you're stuck
tells you how you are doing
allows you to have your say
doesn't give up on you
cares for your opinion
makes you feel clever
treats people equally
stands up for you
makes allowances
tells the truth
is forgiving.

(Hay McBer, 2000, Preface)

This kind of contrasted analysis will be reflected upon in subsequent chapters and will specifically receive some consideration in later chapters which devote some time to the notions of teacher quality and teacher effectiveness, as contained in the Hay McBer (2000) report. But suffice at this juncture to reflect on the underlying

nuances in the Kratz and Hay McBer lists. While both are compiled from statements of children around age eight to eleven and both reflect on their descriptions of teachers, these two lists, written one hundred and four years apart, show a quite subtle but also quite distinct contrast. The Kratz list, while not absolute, contains much which might reflect what teachers ‘do to’ pupils while the Hay McBer list reflects more on what teachers ‘do for’ pupils. Too much should not be made of this, but it does suggest a Foucauldian change of emphasis in relation to the exercise of power and if this is the case then the rôle and purpose of state funded education may have changed very little over the last one hundred years or so. Indeed, as will be suggested in Chapter 3, the conditions that pertain today are reminiscent of the conditions that pertained in the 1860s. What has changed then is simply the power relationship between teacher and state, between pupil and teacher and between pupil and state. This is an interesting area for deeper analysis because the object of attention is then the teacher as functionary of the state. This indeed is much of the thrust of this thesis and such points are reflected upon throughout – the contrast between how teachers are perceived and how they perceive themselves is fundamental to an understanding of teacher quality.

A Themed Approach

The basic approach to the subject matter will be themed. That is, the analysis will follow a sequence which distinguishes the context, the movement, the measures, the concept, the model and ultimately the conclusion. Within each theme, succeeding chapters will address particular aspects of the theme from particular perspectives. The result is that certain components will be alluded to in more than one chapter. However this may compromise repetition, the need is to view such as a nexus where cross theme aspects have distinctive relevance and distinctive repercussions that beg indulgence of the view from a competing or contrasting perspective.

In the opening theme for instance – the context within which issues of teacher quality, effectiveness, accountability and competence arise – the focus is on public, political, ideological and professional aspects. Each might have been dealt with separately but the risk of pedantic repetition in this tactic was too great. An opening chapter on the Public and Political context therefore precedes a chapter on the

Ideological and Professional context. Each chapter then addresses the issues from that perspective but the central facet, which joins both, is the political/ ideological. The chapters are therefore a convenience in viewing the context from at least two broad perspectives, but crossover there must be.

Conduct and Methodology of the Analysis

In an exploration of the vocabulary of competence any number of methodologies might be used. However, there are implications for the conduct of the research and the structuring of the research question consequent upon the choice of methodology. In this exploration of the understandings from the vocabulary, therefore, the thesis title implies a subliminal choosing of a methodology which necessarily begs the question, 'What is Competence'? As pointed out therefore there is an affinity with an interpretivist approach.

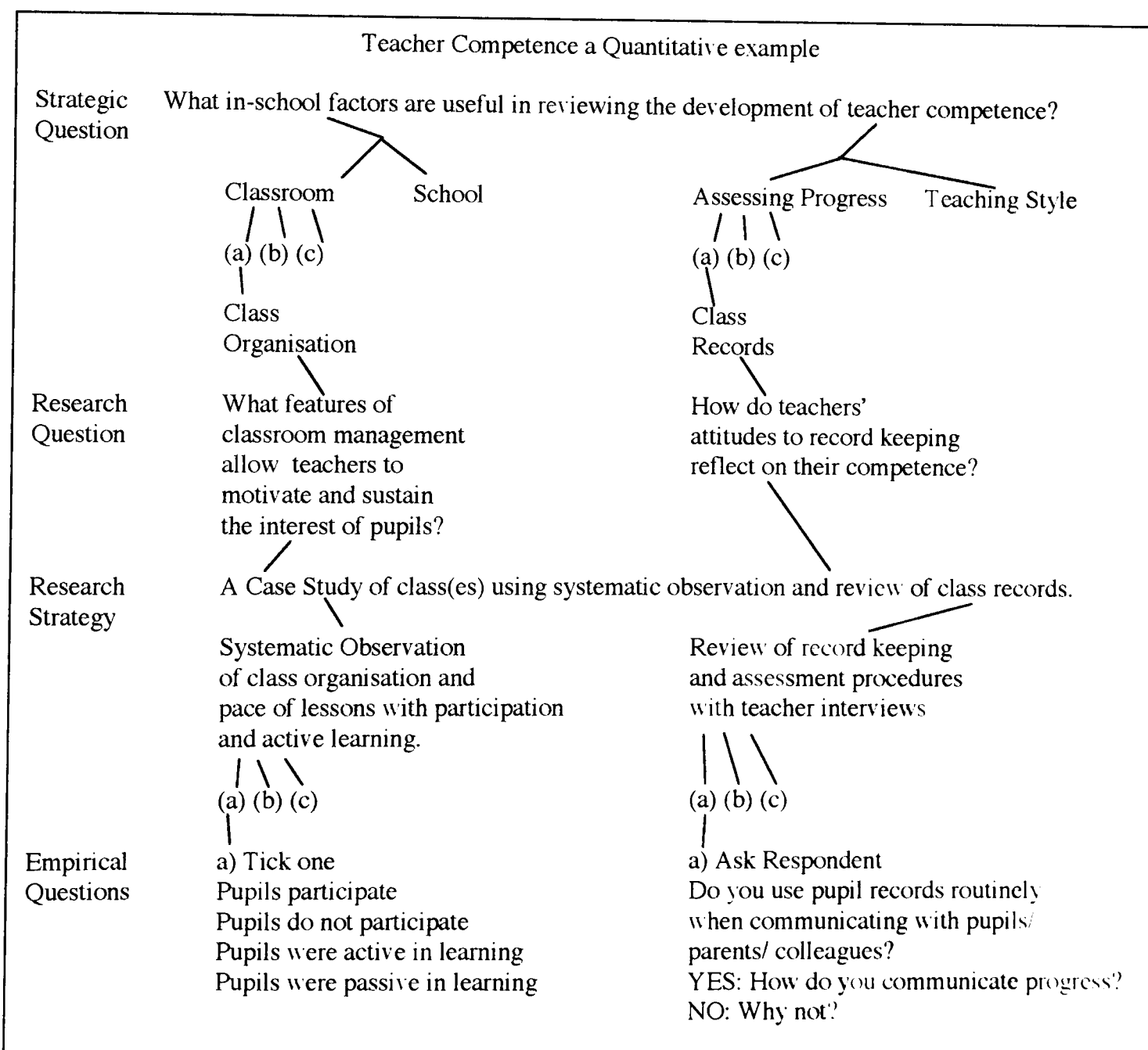


Figure 1. A Quantitative Research Structure

Reframing the question along the lines of a more quantitative approach might consider a more direct phrasing of the Strategic Question such as, ‘What in-school factors are useful in reviewing the development of teacher competence’? This would then lead naturally to the consideration of the question under a number of headings directly related to the operative words in the question. Under ‘in-school factors’ for instance there might naturally be areas such as ‘classroom’ and ‘school’ with sub categories of the types of data collection on class organisation that then leads on to individual research questions of the type, ‘What features of classroom management allow teachers to motivate and sustain the interest of pupils’? Under ‘development of teacher competence’ there might be a similar hierarchy with a number of headings such as ‘assessing progress’ and ‘teaching style’, leading through to similar questions such as, ‘How do teachers’ attitudes to record keeping reflect on their competence’?

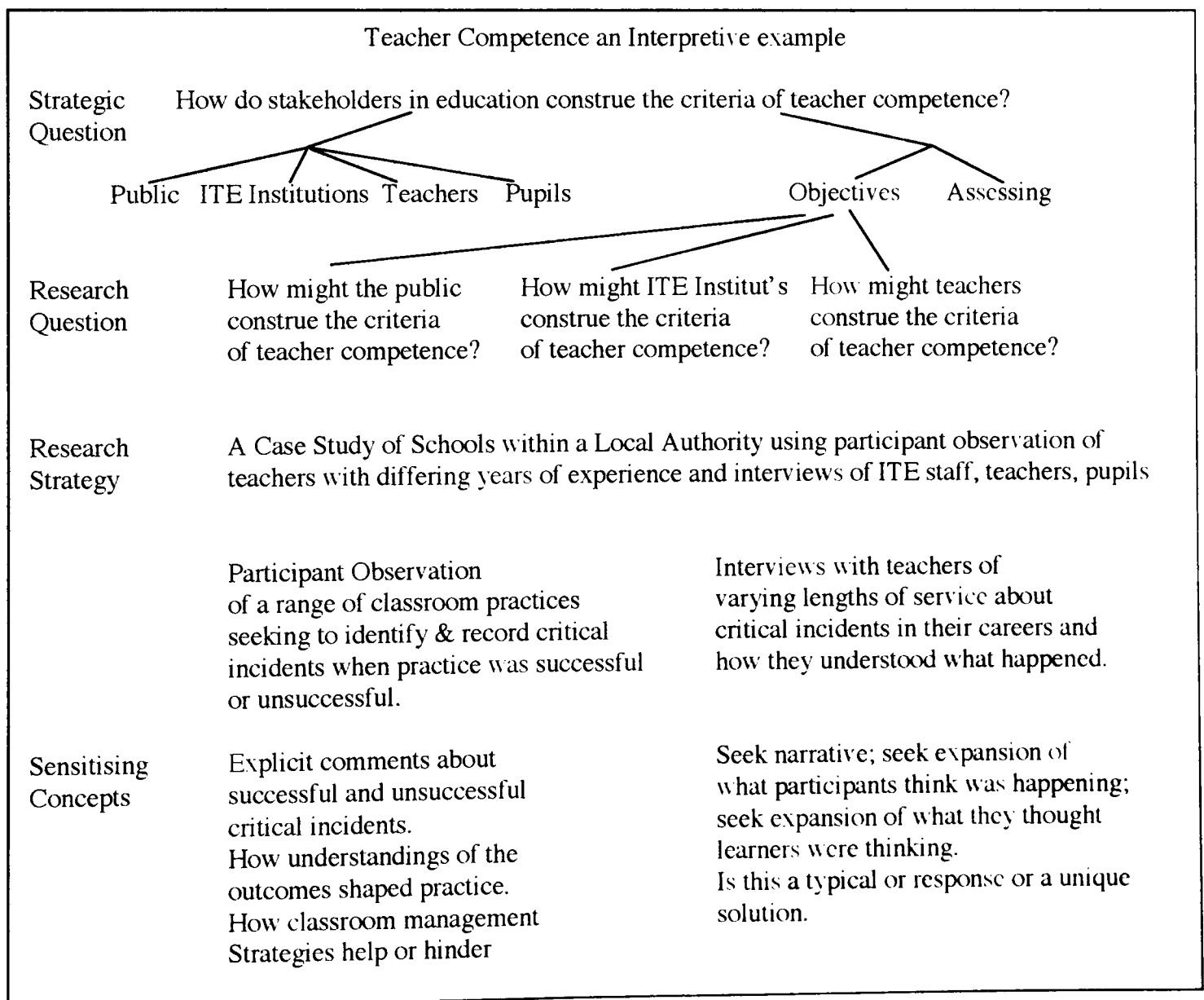


Figure 2. An Interpretive Research Structure

This kind of breakdown might then lead to a research strategy which involved direct observation of the teacher and possibly the use of structured interviews with the teacher along the lines of a case study of the classroom management of a single class or series of classes and the kind of records of pupil work recorded by the teacher. In Fig 1, there is an attempt to replicate this procedure in a hierarchical diagrammatic format. It suffers from being a little contrived but it is no less valuable for this in that it conveys the essence of a style of research construct that is associated with a more positivistic or scientific approach.

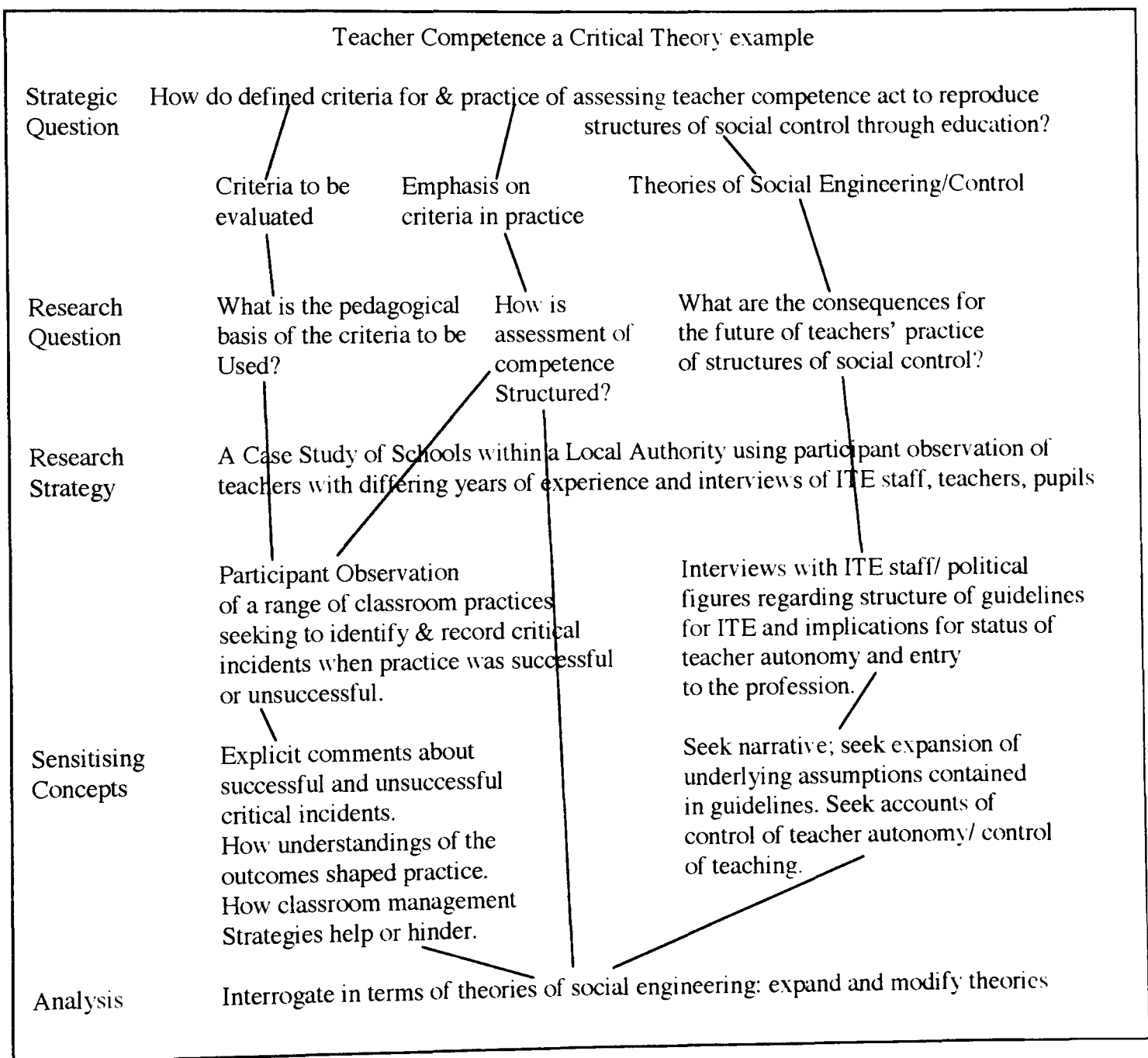


Figure 3. A Critical Theory Research Structure

Similar structures can be produced for a more interpretive approach and for a further approach more aligned with critical theory. These are represented in Figures 2 and 3. In each of these approaches the nature and syntax of the Strategic Question

are necessarily change to reflect the philosophy of the approach and this in turn changes the hierarchy of the research structure. In a more interpretive approach, for instance, the need is for a 'bracketing-out' of pre-conceived notions relating to the topic and for an open approach to the structure of the research. (See Figure 2) The strategic question might then change to one which reflects this interpretive nature such as, 'How do stakeholders in education construe the development of teacher competence'? In this construct the researcher allows the research itself to produce a conclusion.

By contrast, an approach which reflects a style more akin to critical theory, would look for underlying reinforcement of structures construed through discourse. That is, for example, social discourse or economic discourse. The understanding is that there are deep influences which act on and produce the discourse which in turn is then self-serving in some way to reinforce the existing socio-economic/ socio-political structure. For instance, education, law and religion all interact to maintain a particular structure and their interactive discourse then maintains the status quo in a self-serving manner. Thus in this regard, everything is contestable. In regard to the current research then, this approach might produce a hierarchy which attempts to understand the reinforcing nature of the discourse surrounding notions of teacher quality. This then might produce a Strategic Question such as, 'How do definitions of teacher competence act to reproduce current conceptions of teachers and teaching'? or 'How do defined criteria for & practice of assessing teacher competence act to reproduce structures of social control through education?' (See Figure 3) In this approach there is still a recognisable hierarchy but there are also many cross references within the structure and the ultimate end is to uncover reproductive structures in the discourse.

In all of the diagrammatic representations in Figures 1, 2 and 3, the structures and the types of questions are contrived so that a perspective for research might be seen as continuing along lines of a specific methodology. In practice research is rarely so clean cut and rarely so singularly pursued. Often there will be a cross over and even an attempt at a triangulation which will incorporate elements from all three methodologies. In addition, there are many pitfalls in relying too heavily on any one

methodology or following a particularly singular methodological path. In, for instance, following a more scientific or quantitative approach there is ever the problem of what might be termed 'the Given'. This implies that the only relevant information is that which is gained through experiential means or through being directly observable. In contrast, interpretive approaches attempt to include and give precedence to perception and intuition of respondents considering that to emphasise only the directly observable is to be constrained to a limited view of the world. But this then gives rise to the problem of validating the evidence in terms of hard facts. This rejection of the directly observable is also a starting point for methodologies such as Critical Theory which comes under the general umbrella of 'Marxist' approaches where there is an assumption that underlying the socio-economic and socio-political structures so accepted, there are great forces at work which exert a controlling influence. The aim of such an approach is to attempt to access these controlling influences and bring them to the fore as an explanation of compliance with norms. In Habermasian terms there is an 'underlying consensus-bringing norm of correctness' that acts to maintain a discourse that then leads to an understanding of truth and rightness that everyone accepts. (Finlayson, 2004, p.108)

In contrast to any singular path, the conduct of the research in this thesis, as pointed out above, is to follow a structure of discourse analysis that loosely articulates with an exploration of the 'underlying consensus-bringing norm of correctness' as it pertains to the understanding of the truth and rightness of the discourse surrounding issues of ascertaining a means for gauging teacher quality. It also, however, takes on latterly, an approach which gives considerable weight to an interpretive tradition in that after the critique there is a need to rebuild a sound basis for understanding the pedagogical discourse that purports to provide insight in to how the ends of educational practice should influence the conduct and process of the 'underlying consensus-bringing'. The actual research therefore reflects a bridging of these methodological strands.

There is then a need for, if not a complete bracketing out of what competence means, at least an exploration of and a developing of understandings about the vocabulary of competence; there is a need to recognise that there are contrasting

perspectives that bring certain conceptualisations to the fore; there is a need to come to a level of consciousness that acknowledges that these then bear great influence on conceptualisations of teachers and teaching. A methodological strategy then, might pose as its strategic question, 'What do stakeholders understand by teacher competence'? This then might lead on to a listing of stakeholders and a listing of means of ascertaining competence or examples of competence. Research questions then might ask individually of the stakeholders what they understand by competence and how they might measure it. The research strategy then might be to conduct research in a variety of institutions with interviews and case studies of 'critical incidents' making explicit the understandings of resolutions. Taking this a stage further along the 'Critical Theory' route might also then analyse theories of social control, ideological soundness and efficient pedagogic work production. (See Chapters 2 and 3) In this particular research the strategy has not been to seek out directly primary sources of information through interviews and questionnaires but rather has been to amass a considerable amount of informed and informative critique and examples of research which have gathered primary data through such interview techniques. The aim throughout: to explore the hidden depths of conceptualisations of competence as they have been interpreted, rather than to develop yet another conceptualisation.

SECTION II
THE CONTEXT

Chapter 2

Assessing Teacher Effectiveness: Public & Political Context

A Socrates talking in the marketplace, or an Aristotle walking in the Lyceum gardens, gathered around him whoever wished to engage in disputation. To be an effective teacher was to be a person who attracted students. The criterion of teacher effectiveness was objective and definite, even though the reasons why a teacher attracted students were subtle and obscure. (Travers, 1981, p.14).

Introduction to the Public and Political Context

In introducing research on the Criteria for Teacher Appraisal, Macintyre opened his M.Ed. thesis with the above quotation – commenting ‘that issues relating to teacher effectiveness were rarely, if ever, areas of public or political concern in antiquity.’ (Macintyre, 1990, p1). However, in antiquity, Socrates, it might be reflected, was indeed condemned as much as a consequence of his effectiveness as a teacher, as ostensibly for his blasphemy and corrupting influence on youth. That there has always been and always will be at least a political concern in regard to the effectiveness of teachers therefore, is a point that should be conceded. Such concern may not always be dominated by a singular or particularly overt political ideology, but at a certain level of analysis, evidence of the concern, as in the case of Socrates, more often than not points more to an unease with the ‘subtle and obscure’ reasons why a teacher attracts students, than to anything ‘objective and definite’ – even although the objective and definite are to the fore in much of the contemporary political rhetoric with regard to determining a means of assessing teacher effectiveness. Public concern might be more straightforwardly expressed at a local level – many parents do attend parents’ evenings and local councillors surgeries – but it is discernible in much more subtle ways nationally where the motivations behind political concerns with teacher effectiveness and teacher competence, are

myriad in an advanced and complex 21st century democracy. Indeed, there are many interwoven public concerns that political figures ignore at their peril. There is, in the first instance, a general concern in relation to professions as a whole and the

... concept of ‘client rights’ has increasingly gained acceptance so that the identification of need is becoming a joint endeavour. ... As politicians have sensed these changes in public mood, they have sought to increase the role of government in the regulation of professional work. (Eraut, 1994, p.5)

With regard to the concept of ‘client rights’ in relation to education and schooling, among other things, there is genuine public concern that education have a purpose: that children are permitted to achieve their full potential; that children join society as responsible citizens; that educational provision is expanded; that educational standards are upheld and improved; that schools are much more open and responsive to individual concerns; that teachers are answerable more directly to parents; that society gets value for money from its education system. It is the public perception in regard to these outcomes that drives the political will, that fuels the desire of political organisations and education authorities to *effect* policy that reflects an equally genuine concern – even if cynically reflected because political survival depends on it – that teachers are accountable and that teachers are effective and competent. The problem is in ensuring the genuine concern, from the public perspective, that outcomes in the *affective domain* are *effected* by processes and policy being enacted within the educational system by initiatives emanating from central and local government authorities – and that such policy is seen to be, in the perceptions of the public, pedagogically sound and apolitical or, at the very least, not overtly partisan.

The relevance of such an opening quotation therefore in the context of assessing teacher effectiveness and competence, might be considered timeless. It might also be considered *timeous* to reflect on it once more.

Some Background to the Public and Political Context

In antiquity, the onus for evaluating teacher effectiveness and competence might really have lain entirely with the individual who felt driven to seek after education, but, as previously referred to, what is taught and how effectively it is taught – the ‘subtle and obscure’ – are also of fundamental concern to the political authorities

and their modern day quangoesque ‘policy community’ (MacPherson and Raab, 1988, p.403) in Scotland. The more direct politicisation of the evaluation of teacher effectiveness and competence, when children are required to attend school and the public purse becomes the single most important source of funding, is advanced to the fore through sustained public campaigns for increased openness with regard to public institutions in general and schooling in particular. The apparently quiescent immediate post-WWII public attitude toward schooling, teachers, and teaching in Scotland and in the rest of the UK went through successive awakenings from the mid 1960s onwards, culminating in demands for more knowledge about schooling and what teachers actually did in schools. There arose an inclination by the lay-person and a consequent predilection by the state to sit in judgment of the system and those within the system charged with the duty of overseeing children’s education and schooling. The general concern

... for both citizens’ rights and the increasing cost of public services [...gave...] rise to prominent accountability measures to promote the potentially conflicting aims of efficiency, effectiveness, economy, responsiveness and quality... (Eraut, 1994, p.5)

in all areas, dominated by ‘the professions’. Now, some 60 years on from the Education Acts of 1944 and 1945 which introduced compulsory secondary education for all, there is at least a third generation of children attending secondary schools. The corollary is that all parents with children attending school in the present day have themselves experienced some form of secondary, and in many instances tertiary, education and in actuality some have had their own parents attend secondary school. They all have memories of that experience – good, bad and indifferent – but they all also now, possibly quite justifiably, consider themselves less as lay-persons and more as legitimate consultees in a new more open educational order where ‘the identification of need is becoming a joint endeavour’ and in which a parallel emphasis on pupils as consumers is emergent with an emphasis on ‘consumerism, choice, accountability, standards and value for money’ (Humes, 1999, p78) stemming from the adoption of policy based on the New Right ideology of the 1980s and 90s.

From the public perspective this inclination to sit in judgement is manifest in individual parents’ increasing desire to see their individual children get maximum

benefit from a more relevant school curriculum. From the political perspective it is manifest in a general drive toward increased public accountability of publicly funded institutions and the ‘*post post-consensus politics*’ penchant of political figures of the right and now also of the left for getting ‘value for money’ from all publicly provided services.

These twin public and political trends, which have a fairly lengthy history in the UK, have consistently focused considerable attention on state provision of schooling in general. More importantly, however, in the last quarter of the 20th century and at the start of the new millennium, the effectiveness and competence of the individual teacher in particular is under increasingly detailed scrutiny. The two trends may be in tension, one with the other – to the extent that the state takes a more holistic view while parents appear to be much more concerned with local and individual issues – but they do have a singularity of purpose which reveals a relish for having some means of establishing criteria for the evaluation and appraisal of teacher effectiveness and, in more recent terminology, establishing and instituting benchmark standards for assessing teacher competence.

In today’s public and political climate, judging or evaluating and appraising teacher effectiveness and/or competence by such a single criterion as the ability to attract students is simply rendered redundant from a pedagogical perspective, even though some of the popular rhetoric might suggest otherwise. Indeed, the media desire to publish celebrity interviews of the ‘my best teacher’ kind hints at a populist *Goodbye Mr Chips*¹ sentimentality, prevalent among their readership, towards the assessment of teacher effectiveness or competence and,

... [w]hile ostensibly about standards, much of the recent public debate about education has [,in reality,] been about images. What is less readily recognised ... [however,] ... is the extent to which this is also true of much professional discourse. (Eraut, 1994, p.28)

In an attempt to encompass both the pedagogical and populist trends, the policy community – now stipulating benchmarks and standards, but which as such, are still linked to the competences contained in the 1993 *Guidelines for Teacher Training Courses* (SOED 1993) – has pressed to implement teacher review mechanisms that

¹ For a slightly more radical perspective on Mr Chips see TESS, October 5th 2001. p.21

purport to judge teacher competence by reference to observable 'competences'. But, criteria used in such mechanisms must consider the nature and complexity of both the administration and management of modern schooling and of developments in the understanding of the teaching/learning process. Within a wide variety of areas, developments in current educational thinking maintain that an effective teacher facilitates, fosters, and encourages individual pupil learning not only immediately in the classroom environment, but also in the *affective domain* of pupils' future educational needs development. Teachers must not frighten pupils away from learning but, on the contrary, must encourage pupils

... to take responsibility for their learning to enable them to become self-directed as learners, since schools have a crucial role to play in lifelong learning. Above all, it is necessary for teachers to be caring and to establish relationships of trust with pupils to ensure that pupils' emotional and cognitive needs are met, and that learning and teaching become a genuinely shared enterprise. (Kirkwood, 1999, p.425)

Initially, this must be achieved through teacher-directed organisation and management of the actual teaching/learning process in the classroom, but it must also be sympathetically dealt with through extra-curricular activity. Teachers themselves therefore

... must establish a climate for learning which will support all pupils to achieve success and which is not undermined by misbehaviour or by some pupils being labelled as 'swots'. (Kirkwood, 1999. p.425)

In tandem, however, there must be a positive learning atmosphere or ethos induced within the individual classroom, within the school as a whole and within the wider extra-curricular community. Teachers must cultivate and succour individual pupils, but schools, as institutions must also

... establish an ethos of achievement which permeates to the classroom ... (Kirkwood, 1999. p.425)

and local authorities must shoulder a real commitment to ensure more than simply adequate provision, even in the face of needs to economise. To the frustration of many teachers, however, the design of the curriculum and, to an increasing extent, actual syllabi, has been removed from direct teacher control and is now placed in the hands of 'compliance culture' dominated 'sub-policy communities' ensconced within what might better be termed as *cliques* of selected 'policy community' favourites. (Humes, 1999; McPherson & Raab, 1988) The reasons for this are complex and are

intertwined with the drive to push up standards and with the need to have a yardstick for measuring this, but they are also inextricably linked with the thrust to consider and measure teacher competence. Recalcitrant teachers are seen to be standing in the way of curricular progress, their criticisms viewed as obstruction and their concerns read as entrenchment in outmoded practice. Their competence, it might be suggested, is in question and mechanisms must be put in place to weed out the obstructive, the entrenched and the incompetent.

The complexity and need for differentiation in enacting such a task, however, demands that several individual but inter-related criteria be used in any formal assessment of teachers' competence and abilities. Nevertheless and notwithstanding such complexity, the simple use of the curriculum and syllabi as yardsticks now appears as a prerequisite. The exhortation of the HMI that school league tables are 'only one indicator among many' does little to dispel the 'aura of objectivity' that the publication of such statistics generates in the public perception. (Davenport, 2001). The fact that from 2003-04, league tables have been considered less that revelatory has not stopped the collection of league table data nor has it successfully changed public perceptions. The overly simplistic reliance on crude statistical tables has also been used within schools and between schools and within local authorities to justify target setting agendas which purport to assist in the increase in educational standards and attainment of individual pupils. They have also been used *inter* and *intra* departmentally to compare department with department and, in some cases, teacher with teacher in a quite discernibly threatening manner. Indeed, head teachers and SMTs have a relish for exercising management power through calling departmental heads to account, to explain variances which can amount to as little as a quarter of a grade point even when it is made explicitly clear that such variance, even to as much as a full grade point, is within the tolerances for statistical error in some instances.

What is also of import in regard to this complexity however, with reference to issues raised as long ago as in the Munn Report (1977), is the task of balancing societal, epistemological, and individual claims on the curriculum. This requires that schooling should become a more directed and nationally coordinated activity. Accordingly, this implies that the function as well as the skills and abilities required

of teachers, if not teachers themselves, become more amenable to direction and national coordination. This then further suggests that as either the needs of society, or the theories of knowledge, or even the needs of individuals change, both absolutely and relatively, then so too must the balance in the school curriculum and the function of the teacher. But examining even the epistemological claims on the curriculum alone, presents significant problems in any attempt to judge teacher competence.

How, in a professional field in which knowledge is changing, is it possible to specify in advance the knowledge that is needed for professional competence? (Barnett, 1994, p.75)

There are also questions over who might determine the content of that knowledge and questions over the relationship between the *concept* of knowledge and the *notion* of competence that reflects directly on the conception of professionalism. (Barnett, 1994, p.75)

Either the knowledge that will do for today will do for tomorrow, in which case we are in the presence of narrow professionalism, characterised by a tight control – perhaps by a professional body – over what counts as standards and legitimate cognitive responses to situations; or we are in the presence of an open profession, responsive to change, characterised by a debate within and beyond the profession, in which case the knowledge that will do for today will not do for tomorrow. In either case – tight control or openness of response – the application of competence to knowledge acquisition is suspect. (Barnett, 1994, p.75)

The question is whether the evaluation and appraisal of teacher competence, and the direction and national coordination of the curriculum, evident in the National Curriculum for England and Wales and the *pseudo* National Curriculum for Scotland, are attributable to progressive and dynamic features of schooling and teaching, based on genuine developments in pedagogy, or whether they simply represent the exercise of ideological and political control over who teaches and what is taught in state schools in Scotland and the rest of the UK.

A Contemporary Overview of the Public and Political Context

Any contemporary overview of the public and political context for assessing teacher competence in Scotland will necessarily fall foul of historical origins and past policies enacted by successive UK Conservative and Labour governments prior to the establishment of the Scottish Assembly in 1998. Since they and they alone

have formed British governments at Westminster, it is only through the study of their policies that the evolution of the Scottish education system can be understood. (MacKenzie, 1999, p.85). This should not be considered a shortcoming however, but rather evidence of on-going political concern with education in general and schooling in particular that is part of a continuum. It is therefore pertinent to regard at least the post WWII era as being in some manner contemporaneous with the more accepted notions of what might be considered contemporary, at least for the purposes of this overview. This said, initiatives in relation to *competence* in the Scottish and UK contexts have only a relatively short history of some twenty or so years, following on, as they have done, from direct calls for teacher appraisal in the 1980s and more particularly from the 1988 Education Act. In the Scottish context, while the McCrone Agreement heralds a new age, the new Scottish Assembly has only really addressed the issues handed on from the Scottish Office and the policy directives of Michael Forsyth and his successors, Lord James Douglas-Hamilton, Raymond Robertson (Conservative) and Brian Wilson (Labour). But the essence of the McCrone Agreement may still prove to be old wine in new bottles. While some licence will therefore necessarily have to be taken in the interests of reporting the present context for assessing teacher effectiveness and competence, efforts will be made to hold to the contemporary, before a fuller analysis of competence is undertaken in a succeeding chapter.

Compulsory education in the UK has not only experienced considerable change but has experienced an accelerating pace of change in the decades following the introduction of state provision of secondary education in 1944 (England & Wales) and 1945 (Scotland). The introduction of compulsory secondary education itself was probably *the* most fundamental change, but prior to the Labour Government's success in the 1997 General Election, by far the most dramatic successive levels of change took place in the eighteen years of Conservative rule from 1979 – 1997. The catalyst for even that quite breathtaking degree of change, however, might be considered to have originated with James Callaghan's Ruskin College speech of 1976 which itself followed hard on the fight for comprehensive reorganisation. In addition, there was considerable socio-economic change that had significant consequences for education.

The catalogue of such post WWII educational, political and socio-economic change prior to 1997, included – the raising of the school leaving age; the major restructuring of local government – twice with regard to Scotland; comprehensive reorganisation; initiatives in the Initial Teacher Education/Training (ITE/T) system; the contraction of school rolls and the strategy of ‘declaring teachers surplus’ in their current establishments; the populist censure of progressive pedagogy; the criticism of the ‘watering down’ of the curriculum; the ceaseless spate of initiatives aimed at curricular and examination reform; the reversion of HM Inspectorate to a more inquisitorial role; the reform of school government and accession of parental influence; the abolition of corporal punishment in schools; the problems of the economy with its untoward effects on public finance in general; the relative diminution of teachers’ salaries and career prospects and the rewriting of teachers’ contracts; the imposition of career review and legislated appraisal systems in England and Wales and threats of appraisal for dismissal in Scotland; the unhappy demotion of education in the political scale of priorities; the sharp reinforcement of the post war centralising process and consequent erosion of the traditional system of partnership, cooperation and consultation in English and Scottish educational systems. (Adapted from Evans, 1985. p.246 with additions). In addition, in the Scottish context there were a number of measures designed to alter the administrative structure of Scottish education.

These included parental choice of school, enabling parents to send their children to schools outside their immediate catchment area, the establishing of School Boards, comprising representatives from local communities and businesses as well as parents and teachers, provision for schools to opt out of local authority control, and devolved management, whereby schools have direct control for the greater part of their budgets. (Humes, 1999, p.78)

There were also three major curricular reforms in Scotland during this period. Standard Grade, Action Plan, and 5-14, as well as a hotly disputed debate over the Howie proposals and the eventual melding of SEB and SCOTVEC into the SQA leading directly to the fourth major curricular change, Higher Still. On top of this, schools were publicly challenged by the publication of exam league tables and the piloting of a ‘parental vouchers’ scheme was also implemented as the last major reform enacted by the outgoing Conservative administration in 1997.

The uncertainties that this increasingly ambiguously viewed and centrally directed confusion of change engendered in teachers permeated the profession. The result was to give rise to widespread professional as well as public and political disaffection with the education system's apparent inability to 'deliver the goods'. 'The goods' being greater economic and social prosperity. In Scotland, the major figure driving through such reforms was the then Scottish Office Education Minister, later Secretary of State for Scotland, Michael Forsyth and

... although he was unable to carry through all his intentions, what he did bring about was a change of discourse, whereby the language of choice, quality, standards and achievement [became] part of the educational currency. ... he transformed 'the marketplace of educational ideas'. (Humes, 1999, p.79)

MacKenzie (1999) also recognised this shift in the language of education and noted that 'discourse' was a term increasingly in use in describing political policy. Citing Ball, (1990) and acknowledging the work of Michel Foucault, he explains that discourses are not only 'about what can be said, and thought, but also about who can speak when, where and with what authority'. (MacKenzie, 1999, p.85 citing Ball, 1990, p.17). He considers that it was in the era of the government headed by Margaret Thatcher, that the single most dramatic change in the discourse in education occurred. As he inimitably puts it,

... in common parlance one might say 'the goalposts were moved'. ... in the immediate post-war era the emphasis was on equality, the comprehensive school and educational expansion, [in the Thatcher era,] a new language appeared and ... one notes ... a concern with standards and teacher appraisal, skill, school discipline, pre school education, the rights of the consumer, usually defined as parents. The discourse is important not only for what it says but, sometimes even more important, for what it does not say. One notices the sparse reference to equality, structures, or social engineering of the kind endemic in the pre-Thatcher era. (MacKenzie, 1999, p.85)

The rhetoric of the post 1997 'New Labour' Government recognised the desire if not the need for a period of stability in education, but in practice change continued. Admittedly, much of this continuation was as a result of the requirement to follow through with previously instituted policy, but New Labour's

... commitment to tackling problems of 'failing schools' 'failing teachers' and to ensuring professional accountability is, if anything, even stronger. (Humes, 1999, p.79)

Change under New Labour now includes continued reform of the curriculum and syllabi both North and South of the border with Higher Still and reform of the A'

level respectively; (reform of the A' level having stumbled in 2005) the McCrone agreement in Scotland and 'merit pay' in England and Wales; further centralisation of control; proposals for further change in ITE/T; further development of 'competence based' approaches, now labelled as benchmarks and standards, to ITE/T and Continuous Professional Development (CPD); adherence to a Standards Agenda and initiatives for greater social inclusion. Teachers might be forgiven for now viewing the Blair *mantra*, 'Education, education, and education', with a slightly more jaundiced eye. But continued emphasis on certain general themes initiated under the previous administration is central to the 'Third Way' educational policies of New Labour. In particular, the continued emphasis on liberalising the economic structure coupled with an increasing conservatism towards morality – a kind of social conservatism where 'rights and responsibilities' are highlighted, but with a much more distinctive emphasis on 'responsibilities' and indeed on individual responsibilities. This has particular relevance for professional accountability in education.

In 1998 with the words 'there shall be a Scottish Parliament', the Scotland Act finally ended the 'devolution debate' and established devolved Government for Scotland – a Scottish Parliament. The separateness of the education systems north and south of the border had always meant that discrete legislation in the south had had to be followed by discrete legislation in the north, but now, with no need to emulate, the Scottish Parliament can follow a different path. In this new Scottish context, however, the dominance of New Labour is marked and it is unlikely, even with the dual 'first-past-the-post' and 'additional member' electoral system that 'regime change' will ever be properly realised. While there is a New Labour administration at Westminster and a New Labour administration at Holyrood, there need be no conflict of interest, but a change of administration south of the border might reveal certain tensions. Arguably, within this new Scottish administration, education is the most important and prestigious of the Scottish Executives devolved responsibilities and because it was historically, and still is, along with the church and the law, one of the 'three pillars' of national identity, the public perception and identification with, and political control over the education system is a matter of national pride. Indeed it is argued, that the fact that the Conservative party lost all of

its seats in Scotland in the 1997 General Election is due in no small measure to distrust of their education policies north of the border. (Pickard, 1999, p.233)

Over the twenty years of Conservative party rule, however, the balance of power had changed. 'The role of central government and of parents had increased, that of local government and teacher unions diminished.' (Pickard, 1999, p.233) The new Scottish Executive, with Jack McConnell as the Education Minister, maintained this initiative with a full review of the structure of the teaching profession in Scotland. The McCrone Committee was set up and finally reported in 2002. The promise was substantial salary increases and a reduction in teacher workload in exchange for career review mechanisms and a regime of CPD. Now, with the implementation of the 'McCrone Agreement', Scottish teachers have a professional structure in place based on sets of Standards that outline Benchmarks (QAA, 2000, SEED, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c, 2002d) based on competences contained in the *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland* (SOED, 1998).

In this, any parental power has been mollified and assuaged by new emphases on social inclusion and curricular flexibility. Political power is no doubt still in the ascendancy and parental influence through the ballot box, if the foregoing comment about the unlikelihood of regime change has any merit, will now diminish as a real factor influencing policy. Nevertheless, parental influence will continue to increase relative to local authorities, now charged with enacting centrally determined policy. The implications for exercise of parental power at school and individual departmental level is significant. Teachers' records of CPD and their career review reports will become increasingly important documents very quickly.

Catalysts of Change Affecting the Public and Political Context

There were indeed sound reasons for advocating educational change in the 1970s, not the least of which was the glaring fact that traditional post WWII examination structures did not serve the majority of pupils. The pace of change was therefore quickened, in successive decades after the war, in an attempt to counteract perceived shortcomings in the early policy and practice which had been instituted after the 'Butler Act' of 1944. But what had in fact been revealed was a much deeper and

more fundamental problem. By the 1960's there was a growing realisation that compulsory secondary level schooling was not the panacea that it was envisaged it might be for the construction of a more competitive post WWII British economy.

Shortcomings there were. As pointed out, the traditional examination systems did not serve the majority of children, but in addition, vocational education was not sufficiently well coordinated, or in fact even recognised as fundamental (Winch, 2000) and the Eleven Plus, (the Qualifying Exam in Scotland), was based on a flawed methodology. However, in some sort of defence, throughout the post WWII period it was increasingly suggested by some, that schools on their own had little effect on pupil achievement and this gave rise to the conviction that

... compared with the influences of race, gender and social background, educational outcomes were mainly non-educationally determined. (Evans and Tomlinson, 1989, p.13).

All through the 1960's and 1970's there was a significant questioning of the utility and adequacy of state schooling both from within the profession and from without. Teachers themselves were indeed becoming aware of their limited effectiveness given such socio-cultural circumstances as race, gender, and social background and this led to a degree of self-doubt among many in the profession. Teachers of great individual commitment 'manned' the 'chalk face' with renewed vigour and John Cairney as '*This Man Craig*'² inspired a generation of '*wannabe*' teachers in Scotland. But the failure was glaring and, moreover, it was glaring nationally. No amount of individual teacher effort could compensate for the harsh fact that social inequality appeared intractable if not endemic and this, it was professed, was at the root of much school failure. In attempts to address inequality at school level, the Labour Governments of 1964, 1966 and 1974 – with a brief Conservative interlude under Ted Heath from 1970 to 1974 – first tried to persuade then to exhort local authorities to implement comprehensive reorganisation. Finally, the Labour Party under James Callaghan was compelled to legislate in 1976. But this seemed to be the extent of national political involvement in education while there were other more pressing political problems regarding the British economy and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) loans.

² Fictional television character who played the role of a Scottish teacher in a newly formed Comprehensive. From the 1950s and 60s.

Locally devised and internally implemented educational initiatives, such as the ... continuing attempt to mobilise talent by encouraging larger proportions of pupils to volunteer for post-compulsory secondary education ... (Gray, McPherson & Raffe, 1983, p.300)

and designed to combat external social and cultural influences, were subject to local political scrutiny only and were, for the most part, either under-funded or ignored or both. There were two basic reasons for this. Firstly, there was no properly coordinated or centralised structure which could reveal the real extent or depth of the problem, and secondly, national political priorities had continually relegated educational issues to the backseat of the political agenda and thus failed to raise them above the local level. Individual Education Ministers of great commitment had indeed tried to move Education more centre stage since the creation of the post, but

... up until the time of James Callaghan in 1976, Prime Ministers [in particular, and governments in general,] showed little interest in education and rarely pronounced upon it in public. (McPherson and Raab, 1988, p.158).

The extent of national involvement in the area of local provision of schooling was limited, confining itself largely to comprehensive reorganisation and other issues of national concern such as the Raising of the School Leaving Age, (RoSLA) none of which seemed to address the fundamental problems of the economy. The result was a serious loss of public and political confidence not only in the educational system that had been constructed in the post war period, but in teachers as well.

The machinations of the political parties over such major issues of national educational change keenly reflected their ideological views on state provision of education from a national perspective, but these were rarely, if at all, translated into coordinated practical plans of action that could be operated at the local level. One stumbling block was the disjointed nature of provision prior to the implementation of the reorganisation of Local Government in 1974, in England and Wales, and 1975 in Scotland. After reorganisation however, the newly created Local Government structure, with its emphasis on planning and rational management, revealed, quite dramatically, the enormity of the educational problem and it was quickly realised that local initiatives could not provide adequate solutions. Local Authorities were unable to effect change without funding and central government would not disburse funding unless it had greater control. A more centrally inspired undertaking was thus

required, but this was also accompanied by an increased political interest in what actually went on in schools and indeed classrooms. Thus,

... policy makers ... moved from their traditional role of prescribing the inputs to education to one in which they increasingly [sought] to bring both the *process* of education – represented by interactions between teachers and learners – and the *outcomes* of education under bureaucratic and therefore rational control. (Wilcox, 1986, p.1).

Local Government reorganisation helped to reveal the extent and depth of the problem, but it also provided the bureaucratic structure through which a centrally directed management enterprise could now more effectively operate in the provision of state schooling and in the comparison of local authority with local authority, school with school and teacher with teacher.

This change of emphasis seemed to be at once a sudden and all pervasive concern. James Callaghan's Ruskin College speech, of October 1976, heralded the 'Great Debate' which heightened public awareness of the 'crisis in the curriculum' and moved education more centre stage. This followed hard upon the Labour Party's legislative programme for comprehensive reform which was itself a catalyst for the revival of the ideological battle over the form and structure of state provision of schooling. Nevertheless, the 'Great Debate' was considered, initially at least, as a welcome overture from a sympathetic government by the school improvement movement in general and many in the education service in particular even although there were overtones of increasing the level of teacher

... 'accountability', especially regarding curricula concerns and standards of achievement in schools. (Evans, 1985. p.195).

Ideology aside, there was indeed a growing body of opinion, which stressed the need for greater coordination and management of the educational enterprise. The profession was willing to stand back and take stock. It was willing to listen and contribute to a pedagogical debate that appeared to be genuinely interested in the profession's contribution and experience.

The subsequent consultative Green Paper on Education in Schools (1977) then

... directed attention to four leading questions: the school curriculum for five to sixteen year-olds, the assessment of standards, the training of teachers, and the interrelating of school and working life. (Evans, K. 1985. p161),

While this gave rise to a wide ranging debate, two issues of immediate concern for educational accountability followed on from the Ruskin College speech and the Green Paper. These were: schools had to become more effective and teachers had to become more accountable. From the mid 1970s both requirements have tended to exist side by side, giving rise to both professional and political programmes of curriculum review aimed at making schooling more socially and economically relevant. However, with the change of government in 1979, the question of school standards and the training and development of teachers, raised in the Green Paper of 1977, attracted its own White Paper on *Teaching Quality*, (D.E.S. 1983), which emphasised the basic responsibility of LEAs to

... ensure a better match between staff qualifications and teaching tasks and to secure the dismissal of incompetent teachers. (Evans, 1985, p.163).

Teacher competence was thus being highlighted as an area of concern and was therefore proposed as a major contributor to the perceived failure of state schooling. Teachers themselves were to be appraised and, moreover, appraised by a nationally coordinated system if necessary.

Appraisal and Ideological Dimensions of the Public and Political Context

Just how the appraisal of teachers was to be accomplished was rarely, if ever, specifically spelled out and this in turn led to the concept of appraisal being treated with a considerable amount of justifiable suspicion, largely offsetting the initial welcoming response to the 'Great Debate'. The political programme of teacher appraisal and curricular review seemed to be at variance with the professional programme of staff development and career review which teachers sought. Teachers were, and not just for the first time, to be an absent presence in the debate, their contribution and experience viewed with jaundiced eye by the new Conservative administration, under Margaret Thatcher, that would provide an answer to the 'Great Debate' without the need for debate.

Thus, while the political rhetoric of appraisal of teacher competence stressed its positive and constructive aspects, in line with the idea of a programme of 'staff development', underlying it all there was always the threat of sanctions against those

teachers whose effectiveness or competence was in question for whatever reason. Therefore, despite

... the frequent references to appraisal being the key to the provision of properly designed and enhanced levels of in-service education, teachers ... [viewed] teacher appraisal ... as being more concerned with the dismissal of ineffective teachers. (Wilcox, 1986, p.3).

While this is a direct reference to the then Education Secretary, Sir Keith Joseph, (1981-86), neither Kenneth Baker, (1986-89), nor John McGregor, (1989-90), nor Kenneth Clarke, (1990-) nor any of their Conservative Party successors, (John Patten, 1992-94; Gillian Shephard, 1994-97) made any direct attempt to allay the fears of teachers. Indeed, they maintained and strengthened the focus of appraisal on teaching rather than learning and, moreover, on teaching as then and even possibly still now conceived. There was and still is, therefore, a potential danger that appraisal of teacher competence might reinforce and consolidate conservative notions of teaching at a time when there is need to recast fundamentally the conceptions of teaching and learning.

On the one hand, it appears that the teachers' conception of teacher appraisal can be likened more to a system of formative assessment which can then facilitate improvements in practice, and thus improvements in learning, through programmes of staff development. On the other hand, the government's conception was and is apparently of a summative assessment, resulting in a simple pass or fail, based on existing conservative notions of teaching.

This formative/ summative distinction has considerable real significance for later in the analysis of competence, but at this juncture it is pertinent to point out that even a schooling system utilising formative assessment techniques will lead to a widely differing conception of teaching from one which utilises summative assessment. It must be recognised therefore, that there is a fundamental conceptual difference between them as well as a descriptive difference. With regard to teachers and teaching, formative assessment is in fact designed to have incentive effects which not only allow individuals to focus upon perceived shortcomings in their practice, but also encourage initiative and innovation. Summative assessment has no such incentive effects and can in fact have disincentive effects on genuine

pedagogical developments because any attempt to teach outwith the orthodoxy, which always has risk attached, may be perceived as incompetence.

There is then the underlying notion of two distinct models of appraisal. One is a professional development model while the other is an accountability model. The distinction is that a system of appraisal based on a professional development model is

... not a reward and punishment mechanism but a process which should result in development in both the skills and career prospects of the individual teacher and lead to improvements at school or institutional level. (Evans, A. & Tomlinson, J. 1989. p15).

By contrast a system of appraisal based on an accountability model has the aim of assessing

... a teacher's performance in order to make decisions about dismissal, promotion or possible merit pay. (Evans, A. & Tomlinson, J. 1989. p15).

The contention is that the

... two contrasting models are alternatives. They cannot be combined successfully, ... (Evans, A. & Tomlinson, J. 1989. p15).

A system of appraisal can thus address issues in programmes of staff development, whose purpose is to enable the enhancement of learning, or issues of teacher competence and accountability, whose purpose is to enable the dismissal of incompetent teachers, but not both at the same time. Linking teacher appraisal schemes and programmes based on a professional development model, designed to improve the quality of teaching and learning, with teacher appraisal schemes and programmes based on an accountability model, designed to increase the level of control, then, becomes a questionable activity because the very

... nature and effectiveness of this appraisal depend on recognition of the fact that there is irreconcilable conflict between a scheme based on accountability and one whose purpose is professional development. (Evans, A. & Tomlinson, J. 1989. p15).

This sharpens the focus on the underlying purposes of appraising competence and raises misgivings about the ability of any centrally sponsored system, based on accountability, to lead directly to improvements in the quality of pupil learning. It

reflects on whether the real purpose of such a system is an improvement in quality or whether there are other more political purposes that have come to dominate.

Addressing such misgivings about the political dimensions of a nationally coordinated system of appraising teacher competence, then inevitably questions the basic purposes of a system of teacher appraisal and any reflections on such purposes must acknowledge that the

... beginnings of a systematic sociology of assessment and evaluation has brought into sharp focus a recognition that these activities are not simply to do with technical measurements but have ideological and political dimensions [too]. (Grace, G. 1985. p3).

The assessment, or the evaluation, or the appraisal of teacher competence designed to increase the level of teacher accountability is no exception to this. Ideological and political dimensions cannot be ignored.

In a broader sense these ideological and political considerations have always been identifiable in philosophical and theoretical debates about the purposes of, and the differences between, education and schooling. In the present context, however, through public and political calls for teacher evaluation and appraisal, teachers find themselves of necessity at the centre of such ideological and political debates and it is no longer prudent, nor indeed possible for teachers to ignore this. Now, more than at any other time, ideological and political dimensions of education and schooling are being fully recognised both within and without the system of education and schooling. Attention is therefore necessarily focused on Functionalist, Marxist and other interpretations of the intended purposes of education in general and of schooling in particular. The purposes of evaluation and appraisal of teacher competence, it could be argued, simply reflect a more concentrated form of such ideological underpinnings of state provision of schooling and it could be concluded that control of the purposes of education and schooling is best achieved through control of the teaching force.

Remarks on the Ideological Dimensions of the Public and Political Context

Whatever the underlying ideological and political dimensions of schooling today might reveal, there is an uncomfortable spectre which is suggestive of the fact that

many, if not all, political standpoints might only be arguable from positions of self-interest.

On the one hand a liberal reformist strategy in education has emphasised the objective and technical aspects of these procedures, [assessment and evaluation], and has looked toward an increasing refinement of them as the crucial means for the realisation of the meritocratic principle. On the other hand, from various conflict perspectives such procedures have been regarded as primarily devices for the legitimation of the cultural and social status quo. (Grace, 1985, p.3).

The prevailing credo, which will greatly influence the style and function of evaluating teacher competence, as well as the specific criteria which might be used, is, therefore, seen as the one with political power and thus, the

... contemporary educational, social, economic and political conditions are making the assessment and evaluation of teachers and teacher competence a crucial issue for all those interested in the fate of state provided education. (Grace, 1985, p.4).

There is an unmistakable opportunity, then, for ideological and political considerations to outweigh genuine pedagogical developments.

But this conclusion presupposes that in the enactment of policy there is a degree of efficiency and ideological unity among the policy community that still prevails and this is simply difficult to substantiate. There are indeed two competing views of such policy management in general that contrasts pluralist and corporatist forms. In the pluralist form, policy is arrived at through pluralist routes. That is, there are many people and organisations involved in the formulation of policy. By contrast, a corporatist form of policy management is distinguishable by a much more authoritarian structure where influence depends on the differential powers between the members of the policy community. The official view of the Scottish policy community, not surprisingly, emphasises the former. Humes, however, has offered an interpretation of this official view which suggests that the contrast between pluralist and corporatist forms of policy management might be more cosmetic than real (Humes, 1986). On this view,

... the basic style is centralised but the degree of authoritarianism is disguised by various presentational devices or 'strategies of containment'. These include the following: careful control of the flow of information relating to policy initiatives; initiation of those admitted to the policy community into a conformist bureaucratic ideology; employment of a disarming rhetoric of

partnership and empowerment; the marginalizing of dissent; skilful circumscribing of the nature and scope of research enquiries; promotion of a cult of managerialism which encourages concentration on 'how' rather than 'why' questions. (Humes, 1999, p.76)

This unofficial view of policy management highlights the unnerving suspicion that 'behind the charm of pluralism lies the menace of corporatism' (Humes, 1999, p.76) with the spectre of a single personality able to extend great influence over the generation of policy under the guise of consensus.

In this context and particularly in the context of Scotland, the continued emphasis through New Labour and the Scottish Executive on a commitment to tackling problems of 'failing schools', 'failing teachers' and to ensuring professional accountability, gives the unnerving suspicion of an individual's legacy – that individual – none other than Michael Forsyth. The fact that Scottish teachers now seem more willing to accept a system of career review and *pseudo* appraisal might reflect a relinquishing of aspects of professional status in exchange for the opportunity to make salary progress through the newly created Chartered Teacher route which purports to reconstitute professionalism. It might also be that much of the militancy has dissipated with the demise of the Conservative party in Scotland and through the engineered outcome of the McCrone Report (2002) following the McConnell coup for pay review for teachers in Scotland. In any event, the professionalism and professional credibility of Scottish teachers is still under scrutiny.

Chapter 3

Assessing Teacher Effectiveness: Ideological & Professional Context

Introduction to the Ideological and Professional Context

Establishing the impetus for assessing teacher effectiveness and competence within a system of public provision of compulsory schooling, reflects not only on the public and political perceptions of the role of teachers, but also on the perceptions of the desirability, adequacy, and utility of schooling from ideological and professional perspectives. In the era of consensus politics this presented few insurmountable problems even though there were changes that directly affected teachers' working conditions. However, with the breakdown of the consensus, and, more importantly, with the rise of the politics of the New Right, education and schooling experienced increasingly violent swings in fortune with ever increasing demands for changes in practice which have amplified ideological and professional perspectives. Thus, while the present growth in public and political concern over the education of children can be seen partly as a move toward increased public accountability, partly as an expression of public concern over the relevance of the curriculum, and partly as a result of the failure to formulate any definitive criteria to measure exactly what constitutes effective teaching, the fact remains that teaching

... can involve many different tasks, and, as the tasks prescribed for the teacher vary, so too do the criteria that can be used for evaluating the effectiveness of the teacher. (Travers, 1981 p.14).

The implications of this are clear. The enactment of policy is open to ideological control and, if Humes' interpretation of pluralist and corporatist forms of policy management is accepted, can be influenced by 'spin' to a significant degree through the media which in turn fuels the public will to action. Any form of teacher

evaluation, therefore, or appraisal of competence must be, in large part, a reflection of the public and political perceptions of the day, but forged by the dominant ideological turn and concerns of professionalism, and cannot be considered as either universal or static.

This realisation is reflected in the fact that, on the surface there have been many significant educational changes that have had considerable implications on their own for the assessment of teacher competence. The tasks prescribed for the teacher have been transformed by such changes and, in general, it is conceded that the evaluation and appraisal of teacher competence must take them into consideration. However, at quite another level of analysis

... the tightening network of accountability, monitoring and control in education has [other] important repercussions in this area. Expenditure cuts in education, falling school rolls, the redeployment or making redundant of teachers necessarily bring into sharp focus the [ideological and political] principles and procedures for assessing and evaluating teacher competence. (Grace, 1985, p.4).

Thus,

Politically it is clear that a growing emphasis in ministerial and official statements upon the existence of 'incompetent teachers in our schools' has not emerged at this particular juncture merely by chance. Such an emphasis serves a number of very useful ideological functions. In the first place it diverts attention away from the effects which educational expenditure cuts *per se* are having upon educational standards and achievements by concentrating upon purported teacher deficiencies. In the second place, it legitimates policies for closer control and monitoring by implying that excessive teacher autonomy exists and in the third place it provides a useful 'quality control' argument to be used in strategies involving the reduction of teacher numbers and of their training institutions and in decisions involving teacher redeployment and redundancy. (Grace, 1985, p.4).

Such ideological underpinnings have manifested themselves in a view of teaching as an activity that has parallels in, and is analogous to, the commercial and industrial worlds and is, therefore, 'manageable' in a similar fashion.

Management, Professionalism and Ideology

There has indeed been a distinct desire to see a much more 'managerialist' approach to the process of schooling by Government and by Local Authorities in recent years. This 'managerialist' emphasis reflects

... an approach which not only conceptualises the educational enterprise in terms of a rational management model but also seeks to ensure that individual institutions and teachers conform in practice to such a model. (Wilcox, 1986, p.1).

This became evident from government's interest in attempts at formalising a system of appraising teacher competence. The National Curriculum, National Testing and the publication of league tables are now separate manifestations of this pervasive interest and reflect the views of current policy makers on teaching and learning. Such policy makers held and hold a

... view of the process of schooling with the school (as) a closed, deterministic system. The relationship of the elements of the system are ... assumed to be known so that the manipulation of one element will have predictable consequences on the other elements. Said another way, given a set of educational objectives and a rational educational management system, the school is assumed to be under complete control. (Wilcox, 1986, p.1. Wise, 1977).

Not only does this approach widen the Aristotelian view of teaching as a *productive art* but it also extends the concept of learning as a mechanistic activity.

Aristotle characterised arts as productive, theoretical, and practical. Agriculture, for example, is productive where increases in production can be gained by proper observance of environmental conditions. Astronomy, on the other hand, is theoretical where the 'laws' of the universe can be constructed from theories based on classical scientific enquiry. Law, however, Aristotle considered as a practical art where theory and practise are dialectically related and the ideas that guide action are just as subject to change as the action is. Using this classification allows an analysis of differing views of teaching and the problems which this may entail for the education 'manager'.¹

A productive art is one that responds rationally within its environment. That is, there are discernible optimal environmental conditions which, once realised, make the outcome of the productive art predictable. What is most important is that the

¹ A historical analysis of Ancient Greece might provide significant answers as to why Aristotle (384-322BC) suggested teaching be so classified. Plato's (427-347BC) warnings of the Sophist ascendancy in the aftermath of the Peloponnesian War, 431-404BC, heralded a time when there would be significant need to re-establish a high culture in Athens. Sophistry was mere teaching. Thus Political and Ideological considerations would be pertinent.

extremes of the conditions are limited and knowable and such conditions can be artificially created and recreated allowing systematic analysis. Such considerations suggest, therefore, that if teaching

... were a productive art then improvements in the quality of teaching would come about if practitioners used knowledge culled from research reports. The teacher would, for instance, be 'advised' how many higher-order questions to use in introducing scientific concepts in secondary science. Then, if he, [the teacher], did what he was told, the students would learn. (Cumming et al, 1988, p.49).

The criteria of teacher effectiveness, therefore, would, once more, be 'objective and definite'.

It is in this area that the difficulty lies. Is teaching a productive art or is it a practical art? Is teaching instrumental or dialectical? Any attempt to answer these questions must raise others of a more fundamental nature. Thus while there is a public dimension to evaluation and appraisal of teacher competence, it is largely within this ideological setting that the criteria for such evaluation must be analysed. Furthermore, it is largely within this setting that questions concerning the professionalism and autonomy of the teacher must also be addressed when considering a rationale for the criteria which might be used in a system of appraising teacher competence. Such questions are at the heart of the debate on teacher evaluation reflecting on all aspects of teaching and learning. They put question marks over the kind of professionalism, autonomy, status, and respect afforded teachers and thus have great bearing on whether or not there is a 'profession' of teaching. Most fundamentally, however, the views of education and schooling to which the answers to such questions give rise determine the kind of criteria used for the evaluation of teacher competence and thus reveal, to a considerable degree, both the overt and covert purposes of teacher evaluation.

The Autonomy and Professional Status of Teaching

Accepting teaching as a practical art necessarily recognises the dialectical relationship of theory and practice at the teaching/ learning interface. It follows, therefore, that this

... dialectical relationship of theory and practice forces the teacher to be, in the words of Lampert (1985) 'a manager of dilemmas' and not 'a technical-

production' manager. (Cumming et al, 1988, p.49. citing Lampert, 1985 pp.178-194).

As 'managers of dilemmas', then, teachers require a considerable level of autonomy and the concomitant professional status if they are to manage their own practice. However, at

... first encounter this idea is inconvenient, to say the least, to those in positions of power and authority who would have teachers 'deliver the goods', as if teaching was a matter of transmission of messages. (Cumming et al, 1988, p.49).

This inconvenience is compounded by the fact that such autonomy and professional status necessitates teachers also having the responsibility for the development of their practice. This entails being given the trust and authority to be self-regulating/self-evaluating in their practice and in their pursuit of improvements in the quality of such practice. In addition, therefore, it must be acknowledged that quality in teaching

... is not to be recognised in how accurately a message has been transmitted, but in terms of the response which the teacher makes to a specific aspect of his practice. (Cumming et al, 1988, p.49).

Further, the fact that teachers deal with individuals and with individual situations necessarily complicates this process. Teachers are compelled to make numerous moral judgments which permeate all aspects of their practice resulting, in many cases, in unique solutions to unique problems.

These considerations appear to be much more than an inconvenience because they preclude evaluations of effectiveness and quality based simply on the results of teaching, as evidenced by exam results. Instead attention is focused much more directly on the teaching/ learning interface and the actual process of teaching and learning as well as the *affective domain*.

The conceptualisation of teaching as a practical art, therefore, presents the prospective evaluator with significant problems since it is inextricably linked with notions of autonomy and professional status. Nevertheless, such a view of teaching does exist and has a considerable history. Matthew Arnold and others of a literary-romantic tradition saw teachers as missionaries and preachers of culture and as such

believed that teacher assessment and evaluation could not be reduced to a mere mechanical process.

This contention itself has gone through several stages of development, but in the latter half of the nineteenth century Robert Lowe's Revised Code of 1862 presaged the 'payment by results' system which had distinct disadvantages for

... teachers who lost their semi-Civil Service status and were reduced to the role of hired drill instructors, attendance officers and register falsifiers whose income came to depend on the results they achieved in circumstances often beyond their control. (Evans, 1985, p.35).

The Code had in fact enshrined certain principles of teacher evaluation which were related to the wider socio-political concerns of the nineteenth century rather than to any specific pedagogical developments.

A scrutiny of the historical literature suggests that three dominant emphases were used in nineteenth century evaluations of teachers in the popular system of schooling. These were principles of ideological reliability, principles of competent social control and principles of efficient pedagogic work production. (Grace, 1985. p.5)

It is also from this period, however, with the inception of the Revised Code, in 1862, that it is possible to discern countervailing principles and agencies at work which attempted to enhance the autonomy of teachers in particular, and the status and professionalisation of teaching in general.

The fact was that teachers had themselves initiated dynamic forms of curriculum development and were becoming more confident and assertive. Thus, teachers

... collectively began their long struggle to have themselves evaluated as professionals and not as pedagogic technicians. They condemned the restrictions placed upon elementary schooling and the narrow and mechanical criteria ... applied to the assessment and evaluation of teacher competence. (Grace, 1985, p.8).

Elementary teachers resisted the application of criteria for teacher evaluation which came close to regarding teachers as mere 'technical production managers'. They objected to the simple analogy with industry and its measured production techniques. In particular they resented the close surveillance of the Inspectorate whose evaluations rarely took into account intelligent and humane teaching, but simply observed the mechanical aspects of the teachers' practice.

Teachers did not, however, make any major progress toward the autonomy and professional status they sought for more than fifty years. Even the 1870 Education Act did not

... make any fundamental difference to the 'payment by results' system which was accepted in principle and thus perpetuated in practice for a further quarter-century. (Evans, 1985, p.43).

In fact, it was not until after WWI that the Board of Education, in 1926, finally dismantled the remnants of code prescription and that thereafter there was a distinct change from a relatively high degree of control to a relatively high degree of autonomy for teachers. Various factors contributed to this, not the least of which was the teachers' own sustained campaign, but in essence it was due to a politically motivated initiative.

According to some commentators the rise of Socialism and the possible affiliation of teachers to working class movements was perceived, by the Conservative Party of the day, as a considerable threat to the Conservative hegemony. Such commentators reflect on the fact that this was a high point of Conservative fears about the political role of education in general and of schools in particular as possible vehicles for the preaching of Socialist ideology. (Finch, 1984; Lawton, 1977; Silver, 1980). The Conservative belief was that if centralised control of schooling was maintained then a Socialist government could use the state apparatus to disseminate Socialist ideology. Acceding to teachers demands for autonomy and professional status coupled with decentralisation of control would thwart any such designs by the simple expedient of the 'inherent conservatism' of a teaching force with newly won autonomy and the rudiments of professional status. (Grace, 1985; White, 1975; Lawn, 1983).

If Parliament still controlled the content of education, the Socialists would change the Regulations ... they would be able to introduce curricula more in line with Socialist ideas. To forestall this it was no longer in the interests of the anti-Socialists, including Conservatives, to keep curriculum policy in the hands of the state ... If they would devise a workable system of non-statutory controls, the Conservatives had everything to gain and nothing to lose from taking curricula out of the politicians' hands. (Grace, 1985, p.11, citing White, 1975, p.28).

The Conservative Party's faith was thus based on the fundamental belief that an autonomous and professional teaching force would be a 'conservative' body which

would resist the reintroduction of any political directive once political influence had been removed.

From the 1930's until the mid 1970's, modes of teacher evaluation in state schools did in fact respect this non-political conservatism and indeed attempted to bolster it by creating the non-political school and the non-political curriculum to complement the non-political teacher. The system thus moved

... from an essentially visible, prescriptive and centralised system to an essentially invisible and diffuse mode. (Grace, 1985, p.11).

The status of 'professional' was a central feature of this change in emphasis. No longer were teachers burdened by a formal apparatus of control and surveillance with prescribed criteria for assessment and evaluation of their effectiveness and competence based on attendance and results.

This was reflected, in particular, in a radical change in the Inspectorate which developed a much more advisory function. Formal inspections were considered as incidental to the role of disseminating 'good practice'. Teachers were thus growing less accustomed to direct classroom observation and the criteria for judging their effectiveness and competence became more and more self-determined. Individual school Heads found that, increasingly, the responsibility for assessment and evaluation of teachers in their schools rested with them alone. Considerable variation in practice was the result, not to mention the considerable increase in power and authority of Head Teachers.

Throughout the post WWII period, then, after the 1944 and 1945 Acts, and at least until the late 1970's, there was a continuing broadening and deepening of professional status and autonomy nationally. In short, the requirements of the post WWII economic recovery and the expansion of compulsory secondary education revealed acute teacher shortages. This provided teacher associations with the means to press home their demands for full professional recognition. In the Scottish context in particular a result was the creation of the General Teaching Council, (GTC), in 1965. (A body with a remit to advise the Secretary of State for Scotland on broad matters concerning teacher recruitment but only with the power to recommend, or

not to recommend, acceptance of new teachers into the profession. The lack of statutory power has indeed been lamented). Later, in the aftermath of the Houghton Report of 1974, which awarded considerable salary increases, basing the justification for such action on the 'expectation of professional standards of performance', there was a high point of teaching as a profession and this seemed a vindication of the long struggle for professional status. The non-statutory code of teacher evaluation through self-regulation appeared, for Houghton at least, not to have resulted in teachers abusing their autonomy.

Critics there were. Rhodes Boyson in particular asserted, in 1975, that teacher autonomy had become excessive and ought to be cut back and much of this political rhetoric and criticism caught the public imagination. The public were willing to be persuaded that there was a 'pseudo-professionalism' in teaching and that teaching itself was not really an occupation that required a tremendously high degree of skill. Etzioni, as early as the 1960s, had classified primary teachers as semi-professionals and primary schools as semi-professional organisations. (Etzioni, 1964, p.87). In some quarters, therefore, the belief arose that the lay person was being prevented from making valid contributions to state schooling by teachers who hid behind a façade of autonomy and professionalism which could no longer be sustained.

Parents in particular had perceived, in the growth of teacher autonomy, a diminution of their control over their children's schooling. Schools had to educate children 'with regard to parent's wishes' but this did not necessarily include parents in the decision making process. This, however, was really more of a reflection of a wider absolute decline in moral and social authority than a relative increase in teachers' influence. The outcome was nevertheless the same, a call for reform and a questioning of the claim to professional status of teachers.

The institution of the school had indeed consistently discouraged direct parental involvement in school affairs in line with the growing autonomy of teachers, closing powerful professional doors on parental enquiries and shrouding what went on behind them in a pedagogical mystique. This was indeed an effective buffer whilst most parents had not experienced anything more than elementary schooling

themselves. By the mid 1970's, however, there existed at least one generation of parents who had all received a compulsory secondary education and, coupled with a wider decline in moral and social authority among the young and a liberalising of social institutional practice, they felt more able to question and criticise this closed doors policy of schools.

Accusations of teacher incompetence throughout the 1970's and 1980's, from major public and political figures alike, thus resulted in many parents fanning the flame of discontent.

As eager runs the market-crowd
When 'Catch the thief!' resounds aloud.
(from Tam O' Shanter by Robert Burns; lines 197-198),

seems a fitting expression of the manner in which public opinion was whipped up by such charges. From this time on, teacher autonomy and professional status came under a considerable degree of scrutiny from both the public and political arenas.

It was teacher autonomy, from this new perspective, that was perceived to be at the heart of teacher deficiencies. Such deficiencies of teacher education were, it was argued, at the root of the education problem, and the education problem gave rise to many of the socio-political and socio-economic ills. Thus, there was a reversal of 'cause-effect'. No longer was inequality intractable or endemic – bad and incompetent teachers were the root cause of the failure of the economy and they perpetuated social inequality by their inability and incompetence in assessing the individual needs of individual children. This charge was not simply because there were instances of abuse of this privileged freedom but because in addition, throughout the early post WWII period, teachers had indeed failed to develop a responsiveness and flexibility of approach which would allow them to address the needs of a dynamic society. The unrivalled position of testing and organising examinations was elevated to a rigid, formal, elaborate procedure which came to tyrannise the curriculum and stultify interest and imagination. The curriculum had become ossified and the reflection was, that because teachers appeared to be in absolute control, teacher autonomy and professional status were inhibiting development. The institution of the school appeared to ignore the fact that pupils

were indeed the progeny of their parents and teachers appeared to be aloof, unresponsive and above all uncommunicative.

Of greater moment for policy managers, however, was the fact that behind the ... protective barrier of professionalism, the teacher[s] ... [were]... infuriatingly out of reach of those who wish[ed] to 'manage' them. (Nisbet, 1986, p.12).

This reflection suggests that

... the real target of the accountability movement ... is the autonomy (or claim for autonomy) of the teaching profession. The teachers' position is resented by parents and administrators alike, ... because professional autonomy (if it is granted to teachers) excludes the non-professional from the right to a view and the opportunity to state an opinion. (Nisbet, 1986, p.12).

This 'accountability movement' is not just aimed at teaching – as suggested previously it actually pervades all professions and these issues arise in medicine, the law, and the church as well. However, it does fall particularly hard on the shoulders of teachers because the development of teacher autonomy and professionalism arose from a political decision to secede control of the curriculum and schooling in the inter-war period.

This fact could not be dismissed easily and it gave rise to the feeling, within the teaching force, that teacher autonomy and professional status were based on nothing more than political patronage. The threat was, and is, that such a political decision could just as easily be reversed. It is this political threat which has resulted in a very defensive but militant stance by teachers. This is the reason for internally devised structures of professional staff development being demanded as both a complement to and an alternative to externally applied systems of appraisal of teacher competence by different factions of the teaching force at the same time.

It is also for this reason that there has been a blurring of the distinction between staff development and staff appraisal/ evaluation/ review by education managers. Appraisal/ evaluation/ review for staff development appears to enshrine teaching as a practical art and has the implication of maintaining teachers at one remove from direct managerial control. Staff appraisal/ evaluation/ review for accountability threatens to relegate teaching to a productive art, with all the attendant apparatus of

rational management modelling, which has implications for the professional status of education managers as well as teachers. This has led to equivocation on the part of managers and teachers alike and opened the door to public and political influence of considerable magnitude.

From Practical Art to Productive Art?

Paralleling Training Commission, (previously the MSC), incursions into schools in England and Wales in the late 1980s and early 1990s teachers in Scottish schools found themselves on the horns of a dilemma. In Scotland, the Action Plan (SED, 1983), which was hastily implemented as a means of halting MSC incursions in to schools in the Scottish context, (Humes, 1999, p.77), promised the carrot of additional resources through the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) for TVEI-related curriculum enhancement of courses. This was considered by many teachers as well as the major teacher unions to have a duality of purpose. At one level of analysis it was quite evident that additional resources could only enhance individual syllabi even if it also entailed a degree of prescription in the curriculum. At quite another level of analysis, however, the emphasis appeared to be on the expansion of *vocational training* at the expense of *liberal education* bringing into sharp focus the debate surrounding differences between training and education.

In 1984, a consultation entitled *School and Further Education: A Single Examining Body?* (SED, 1984) resulted in a negative response from teachers, supposedly highlighting a division between Schools and FE which were considered respectively as educational and training establishments. This consultation itself, however, had followed an earlier HMI report, *Teaching and Learning in the Senior Stages of the Scottish School* (SED, 1983), which raised concerns about the 'two term dash' for candidates at Higher Grade. Notwithstanding the original rejection of an amalgamation, pressure continued to mount throughout the 1980s and 1990s. Thereafter, from the flames of the hotly contested Howie Report (HMSO, 1992) the Phoenix of Higher Still (HMSO, 1994) emerged and the SEB and SCOTVEC were eventually melded into the SQA in September 1996, finally taking the reins of power in April 1997. Consequently all secondary school courses in Scotland were 'modularised' along the lines that existed in vocational courses in FE colleges –

(after implementation of the *Action Plan* (SOED, 1983) in FE) – with the corollary that all now have Learning Outcomes (LOs) with lists of Performance Criteria (PCs) or Performance Indicators (PIs) linked through Range Statements. This has important implications for the conceptualisation of learning, but it also has important implications for the conceptualisation of teaching as a practical or productive art.

According to Antonio Gramsci there can be no difference between training and education because to have a difference of any significance would imply that training entailed, what he has termed, passive learning. That is; learners would be simple receptacles for instruction. This, to Gramsci, is not possible because the process of learning always requires active participation on the part of the learner. Learners, therefore, will always learn more than is implied by simple instruction or training.

If the focus, however, is shifted to the teacher, a distinction must be drawn between

... teaching which exerts *causal influence* on learning and teaching which exerts an *enabling influence* on learning. (Elliot, 1985, p. 103).

The distinction being drawn is a subtle but fundamental one, in that it gives rise to two distinct views of both teaching and learning.

The first view is of teaching as an activity consistent with having a causal influence on learning, which necessarily involves teaching being reduced to a kind of technology because it

... will be primarily concerned with controlling the learning process to maximise its quantifiable outcomes. (Elliot, 1985, p. 103).

This at best makes teachers technologists who attempt to discover the best methods of maximising the production of the desired results. At worst, it reduces them to technicians, that is, those who apply the rules, discovered by the technologist, to the learning process. (Elliot, 1985) The implication is, not only can teaching be reduced to a mechanical process but learning can be too.

Gramsci's distinction, then, between passive and active participation in the learning process as a means of dismissing differences between training and education may be an analysis in one dimension only. If a second dimension is considered which distinguishes between awareness and non-awareness of some kind of psychological manipulation in the learning process a subtle discrimination may emerge.

Passive participants in learning, those who are unaware of such psychological manipulation, may respond in a mechanical way to stimuli. Indeed, some basic forms of training depend on such a mechanical response to stimuli without the respondent thinking of why the response was made. Taken one step further; even if the respondent is aware of the manipulation the fact that they are able to continue making the same response suggests psychological conditioning which is compelling selective attention, or, in Gramsci's terminology, at least selective participation, in the learning process. This is not to deny the claim with which Gramsci dismisses any difference between education and training. Nor is it to re-establish such a distinction as a means of differentiating schools from other institutions. It is simply to draw attention to the fact that such a distinction can be conceived of, at least psychologically. Classical Psychological Conditioning is indeed based on involuntary responses to stimuli.

It is possible to conceive of conditions which have a degree of passivity in learning then, and this is suggestive of conditioning associated with drilling or basic training rather than education. Teaching in this context can then be instrumental rather than dialectical. (It is also interesting, at this point, to reflect on how Foucault actually conceptualises power/knowledge. The discourse of state schooling is not power neutral. What is it about *being* a teacher that makes a person a teacher? What is it about *being* a pupil that makes a person a pupil? What is it about *schooling* that compels).

The second view is of teaching as an activity consistent with having an enabling influence on learning and this

... will be concerned with establishing the conditions that enable pupils to learn in an educationally worthwhile manner. (Elliot, 1985, p.103).

This necessarily involves defining

... intrinsic values to be realised in the concrete activities of teachers, and not extrinsic effects to be produced as a result of such activities. (Elliot, 1985, p.104).

Teaching and learning are then in a dialectical relationship whereby the teacher, in prescribing the conditions for learning, uses moral judgment but eschews any complex prescription of the outcomes. That is; teaching and learning are both considered activities which require active participation without any attempt at psychological conditioning. On the contrary, teaching and learning require a considerable degree of openness on the part of both teacher and learner. Teachers are actually in the business of fomenting dissent from the dominance of the power/knowledge discourse of state schooling. In a Heideggerian sense, teachers try to 'let learn' (Heidegger, 1968 quoted in Peters, 2002). This, if the prior discussion is accepted, is suggestive of education.

Schooling must indeed fall somewhere between these two extremes because schools are necessarily involved in the maintenance of social order and social cohesion. The hidden curriculum contains much that is subtly related to aspects of psychological conditioning. However, teachers who consider themselves as having a *vocation* themselves might more readily claim that their desire is to cultivate a critical faculty in children to allow them to achieve their full potential.

The traditional view then, is one that places teaching in schools at the education end of this spectrum while an emphasis on vocationalism might more readily be placed at the training end of this same spectrum. But this is to deny Gramsci's insight. Schools are not alone in the business of social control through psychological conditioning and, while classical conditioning is accepted for the animal world, psychological conditioning as it relates to the human world has always found perversity. The whole vocational liberal education dualism is indeed a perversion of teaching and learning. Liberal educational philosophers distance the liberal from the vocational as a protection for the 'high culture', while vocational advocates point to the same characteristics as now being the basis of their wider educational enterprise to usurp the position of liberal education. The plain fact remains, there are not two distinct types of knowledge. (See Lum, 2003) This traditional view is also

disingenuous to the spirit and real emphasis of James Callaghan's Ruskin College speech. In this, the assertion is that the

... goals of our education, from nursery school through to adult education, are clear enough. They are to equip children to the best of their ability for a lively, constructive, place in society, and also to fit them to do a job of work. Not one or the other but both. For many years the accent was simply on fitting a so-called inferior group of children with just enough learning to earn their living in the factory. Labour has attacked that attitude consistently, during 60 or 70 years ... There is now widespread recognition of the need to cater for a child's personality to let it flower in its fullest possible way. (Callaghan, 1976)

This emphasis on the twin aims of a lively and constructive place in society and on fitness for a job of work was indeed applauded by many. It gave cause for both *liberal education* and *vocational training* to be recognised as valid under one roof. The continued expansion of state schooling and the drive for 'comprehensive' reform were predicated on the fact that schools had to become more responsive to the demands of a dynamic labour market that not only required transferable skills but also an 'ability for a lively, constructive, place in society'. (See Winch, 2000, pp.82-95 for a very erudite exposition of the confusion that leads to a spurious distinction between Education and Training)

This discourse was captured, however, and the singular aim of 'fitting them to do a job of work' became paramount as the economy suffered and dived in to recession in the early 1980s. Indeed, the call was actually 'fitting them with education for leisure' because the demise of the manufacturing sector resulted in an increase in leisure time for those traditionally employed in the factory. But the contention is that the 'accent' once more returned to simply 'fitting a so-called inferior group of children with just enough learning to earn their living', but this accent has returned in a much more subtle discourse – one which is manifest through the stipulation of Performance Criteria/Indicators (PC/Is) – the root components of statements of competence. Conceptualising learning in this way not only compartmentalises knowledge into bite size chunks for consumption, but also bounds what constitutes worthwhile learning. It dismisses other learning and at best suggests it is unnecessary and at worst irrelevant. Teachers then, need be no more than technicians and simply have to ensure that their charges have consumed sufficient of a chunk to 'perform' and need pay no attention to the whole person. Indeed they

need pay no attention to the process of learning, simply the ability to perform the outcome.

This is not to downplay the role of training with regard to education. In the mould of Callaghan's conception, training and education are both fundamental requirements and rights and they are integrated. In addition, from Gramsci, it must further be understood that there can be no real difference, because learners are not simply passive participants. Indeed, as implied above they will always learn more than is implied by simple instruction or training. They will always learn more than is contained in PC/Is. What is questionable, however, is the dismissiveness with which a system based on PC/Is, ignores other useful learning. What is being highlighted then, is the apparent misconception that all that is learned can be stipulated in PC/Is. What is revealed in PC/Is is that there is concealment of other learning. This is too important a point to be overlooked although it cannot be properly developed at this stage in the analysis, but it is vital for the central thesis – that is, notions of *competence* are not just wrong, they are fundamentally inadequate. (See Chapters, 9, 10, 11, 12)

Returning to the contextual arena, it is this emphasis on competences that does bring in to sharp relief the fact that the New Right's conception and also New Labour's, following their accession to power, is of a Competence Based Education and Training (CBET) model for all in education, including teachers. Under the Conservative government, the establishment of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) in England and Wales followed the report, *Review of Vocational Qualifications in England and Wales* (MSC, 1986) and heralded the competence-based approach. This was paralleled north of the border by building on existing developments, mentioned above, and charging SCOTVEC with the task of being the equivalent accrediting body for Scotland. Under New Labour, and indeed as early as 1991, there is similar enthusiasm for the competence-based approach. Jack Straw, the then Shadow Education Minister, in an interview with Tony Tysome, thrust a copy of Gilbert Jessup's *Outcomes: NVQs and the Emerging Model of Education and Training* (1991) in to his hands declaring: "This is the

future of education and training’ – or something to that effect’. (Gokulsing et al, 1996, p. 35)

This emphasis on National coordination and promotion of a standardised curriculum lends support to the contention that we are

... in a period where the social and political context of state provided schooling in Britain is reminiscent in a number of ways of the climate of reaction in the 1860s. Such comparisons must not be overstated but the parallel features (quite apart from a general celebration of ‘Victorian values’) are striking. (Grace, 1985, p.13).

What is of major concern to teachers is whether such curricular initiatives will lead to a similar set of criteria to that which prevailed in the nineteenth century, with an emphasis on ‘ideological soundness’, ‘social control’, and ‘efficient pedagogic work production’, being translated in to ‘managerialised professionalism’, ‘social inclusiveness’ and ‘teacher competence’, and with them being imposed. That is a kind of ‘evaluation by results’ based on observations of curricular priorities – organisationally meeting League Table targets; comprehensively meeting all the needs of all disaffected individuals in a socially inclusive manner; efficiently meeting only the required Learning Outcomes and Performance Criteria – without regard to the quality of individual practice. The convoluted statistical analysis of Exam Results and the publication of League Tables would appear to be the first major step in this direction. Indeed, it was the unavailability of such measures coupled with the fact that teachers’ appraisals were to be confidential that rendered the imposed teacher appraisal system, in England and Wales in the mid 1990s, redundant. A fully integrated National Curriculum coupled with benchmark competences, however, obviates the need for a breach of confidence in appraisal systems because the criteria are observable – they can be once more ‘objective and definite’.

Teachers’ anxieties are compounded by the fact that procedures

... which employ process criteria for evaluating teaching competence rest on an entirely different conception of teaching as an activity to procedures which employ criteria of instrumental effectiveness. The former assume that teaching is a *moral activity*, while the latter assume it is a *technology* or applied empirical science. (Elliot, 1985, p.103).

The emphasis on 'observable' activities can enhance teachers' abilities to improve the quality of learning, but it can also be used in an unscrupulous fashion to endorse the deficit model of teacher competence and thus facilitate a return to an over-prescriptive syllabus and curriculum with all the attendant problems that this entailed for elementary teachers in the nineteenth century.

Concluding Comments

A critical analysis can therefore be assumed to reveal a considerable degree of political and ideological involvement and influence. The fact is, that while teachers, and others with an interest in state schooling in Scotland and the rest of the UK, were willing to stop, in the late 1960s and throughout the 1970s, and question fundamentally the practice of teaching, they inadvertently left a power vacuum which ideological and political influences were able to fill.

In this regard, teachers have found, to their cost, that the climate of opinion that developed has not been favourable. Their autonomy, professional status and competence have been brought into question from both within the teaching force and without. Parents and political figures alike have responded with a challenge for teachers to provide proof of their professionalism. The nature of such a challenge, however, is primarily based upon teachers voluntarily relinquishing the conceptualisation of teaching as a practical art and showing that they can apply commercial or industrial practices to education. If teachers choose to continue, or are indeed compelled to continue, to operate in this arena then their autonomous and professional status can only be further eroded because it necessarily involves the full scale adoption of the conception of teaching as an activity akin to that of a technical production manager or as teaching as a productive art.

This is of fundamental importance because the most worrying aspect of the universal call for accountability is that professionalism itself, in whichever quarter and whatever guise it exists, appears to be on trial by the lay person. A people's court has been convened with political figures, using ideological and political rhetoric, as the people's prosecutors.

Teaching in particular, as the only profession without a properly constituted self-regulatory body with ‘statutory’ powers, such as those available to the British Medical Association, or the Law Society, or the General Synod, is finding it increasingly difficult to present a defence because such autonomous and professional status, as exists in teaching, was, in essence, manufactured and conferred as a result of a political indulgence between the wars and not principally as a result of any inherent quality of teaching. The verdict of such criteria as might be used in the assessment of teachers competence, however, will either result in a confirmation of a self-regulatory and ‘legitimate’ professionalism for teachers and teaching, or a confirmation of a politically controlled and politically ‘legitimated’ professionalism which requires to be externally regulated.

The problem is that in the post-modern world, neither conception might now be of any real value. Professionalism itself, as an occupational ideal, is part of an outmoded class system, whereby limited social advancement is given to those who are prepared to play by establishment rules. It is also deeply protectionist in character. (Humes, 2004, 1986) The need then, is for recognition and practice of real pedagogy, to really practice what teachers must do. That is to understand that

[t]eaching is even more difficult than learning. We know that; but we rarely think about it. ... Teaching is more difficult than learning because what teaching calls for is this: to let learn. The real teacher, in fact, lets nothing else be learned than – learning. (Peters, 2002, p.2 citing Heidegger, 1968)

Thus teachers might require to venture into unknown or even forbidden territory. Teachers might have to become militant and reclaim teaching not simply for teachers but for learners. Teachers might even have to realise that they have to *become* teachers.

SECTION III
THE MOVEMENT

Chapter 4

Accountability, Teacher Effectiveness and Competence

Introduction

The publication of the Hay McBer report into teacher effectiveness by the Department for Education & Employment in June 2000 for teachers in England & Wales, (DfEE, 2000a) and the publication of the Deloitte & Touche report into the professional development of teachers and initial teacher training by the Scottish Executive and Scottish Executive Education Department in June and November 2001 respectively for teachers in Scotland, (SE, 2001; SEED, 2001) mark important watersheds in the evolution of education policy and of the policy community's drive to increase the level of authority and influence over educational provision and the accountability of teachers and teaching in the UK and in Scotland at the start of the new millennium. They follow in large part as a consequence of the Blair mantra, 'Education, Education and Education': the three priority manifesto commitment in the run up to the 1997 General Election. But they are also the latest reports in a process with a policy history which might be considered to have been thrust to the forefront during the Thatcher administration. It was indeed with the incoming Conservative government of 1979, that there was a singular determination to specifically hold education 'to account'. This resulted in a series of white/green papers from 1982 to 1988, (DES, 1982; DES, 1983; DES, 1985a; DES, 1985b; DES, 1986), the enactment of the Great Education Reform Bill or 'gerbill' in 1988 (Education Reform Act), and the follow through of white/green papers on 'teacher competence', 'appraisal', 'accountability' and 'teacher training' in the 1990s by both the Conservative Government (DES, 1989a; DES, 1989b; DES, 1991a; DES, 1991b) and the incoming Labour Government of 1997 (DfEE, 1998a; DfEE, 1998b;

DfEE, 1999a; DfEE, 1999b; DfEE, 2000a; DfEE, 2000b) – mirrored North of the border (SOED, 1983; SOED, 1992; SOED, 1993; SOEID, 1998a; SOEID, 1998b; SOEID, 1999; SEED, 1999; SEED, 2000; SEED, 2001). However, political pressure for and the concomitant enactment of policy initiatives almost always entail a much more lengthy history than the public and/or media perception might otherwise suggest. The publication of the Hay McBer and Deloitte & Touche reports in 2000 and 2001 respectively therefore, of necessity, must also be viewed in this light.

The Accountability Movements Contemporary Grounding

With the express acknowledgement of historical antecedents, some of which will be addressed later and in later chapters, if there is at least a ‘grounding’ in time of the *current* concern with ‘accountability’ in education in the UK, it must be located within the particular context of the ‘Great Debate’ initiated by James Callaghan through his Ruskin College speech of October 1976. The term accountability itself was not used at any time during the speech, but

... over and over again he stressed the need to open up a general consideration of educational issues and to give the non-professionals a chance to have their say. The implication was that the professionals had tried to keep control of the curriculum and, therefore, of the aims of education in general, to themselves, and had resisted attempts to get them to explain themselves to their paymasters and clients. (Maclure, 1978, p. 9)

In significant regard, this speech was immediately recognised for what it was – a public signal for a real change of official attitude. But it came indeed, as a consequence of the culmination of a number of noteworthy national and international historical events stretching back at least a further twenty years.

Political authorities had in fact been looking for a means of withdrawing from the position that had maintained the myth of the teacher-controlled curriculum that prevailed between the wars and into the immediate post WWII period. The fact was,

... the decentralised nature of schooling meant that governments [had] found it [increasingly] difficult to intervene directly in education. In [1960s] Britain, [however] a two pronged policy emerged – compensatory education on the one hand and curriculum development on the other ... (Norris, 1990, p. 31)

Calls for such curriculum reform had indeed started as early as in the 1950s in the UK, as also in the USA, initially within the field of science education because of

considerable concern over the quality and quantity of students entering applied science & technology courses and careers, as well as about the supply of science teachers in secondary schools. Sputnik in 1957 significantly stiffened resolve, particularly in the USA, but also in the UK. In 1962 David Eccles (Conservative Minister of Education 1954-57 and 1959-62) announced to Parliament the establishment of the Nuffield Foundation Science Teaching Projects and from at least this moment on, it was clear that central government intended, at the least, to enter 'the secret garden of the curriculum', (Lord Eccles term) but to do so by stealth in the first instance. Through the Nuffield Foundation, government could intervene in the school curriculum without raising suspicion about moves towards central control and the direct evaluation of teachers.

By 1964, however, and with the change of administration, it was

... the Labour Party who had captured the rhetoric of technological change and future prosperity ... [espousing] the values of a modern society [built on] the 'white heat' of technological change and the distribution of economic roles through achieved rather than ascribed status. (Norris, 1990, p. 30)

This meant rôles had to be re-evaluated and evaluation of teaching was central. It was thereafter, with the creation of the Schools Council, formed in October 1964, that 'evaluation' was soundly established as a familiar additional feature of curriculum development. The Schools Council itself was in fact formed

... partly as a solution to the political problems caused by the creation of the Curriculum Study Group at the Ministry of Education. ... because ... [t]his had aroused fears that the Ministry were threatening teacher autonomy ... (Norris, 1990, pp. 32-3)

This drive for curricular development, reform & construction, and reconstruction also resulted in the setting up of the Evaluation Advisory Committee one year later in 1965, under the chairmanship of Professor Kerr, who then defined the rôle of 'evaluation', further suggesting that there should also be 'decisions about the training of teachers' (Norris, 1990, p. 32) included within that rôle. By the time of Callaghan's Ruskin speech therefore, it was already a clear and well established fact that government was willing to prescribe the curriculum if necessary and at least to ask questions about teacher autonomy and the training of teachers, if not to intervene directly by implementing a programme of teacher evaluation.

But, however novel the apparently abrupt change in official attitude heralded by Callaghan's speech appeared at the time, it was not something entirely strange or unheard of. Such political interest in the curriculum and the evaluation of teachers may have lain more or less dormant between the wars, and in the immediate post WWII period the concern may have been more with the simple provision and expansion of secondary education, nevertheless, political interest had in fact been simply *assumed* in earlier times through prescribed codes of practice. (e.g. Elementary Code, finally only being completely dismantled in 1926). Now however, it is apparent that such interest is to be *assumed* once more in the light of the Hay/McBer and Deloitte & Touche reports, but *assumed* under a much more business like mantle. In quite another vein therefore, these reports must also be considered as an opening salvo from the policy community and the leadership class in education now seriously bent on finding a more definitive measure of accountability and of assessing teacher effectiveness in the 21st Century than pertained hitherto in the 20th.

The detail contained in each report will necessarily be subject to some scrutiny, but suffice at the outset to establish one important point. Each report, individually, must be considered as somewhat distinct. Not least because they apply to England & Wales and to Scotland respectively – and also because devolved power for Scotland carries with it an increased degree of autonomy for education policy making in Scotland, or at least a further layer of insulation from England – but also because each ostensibly covers subtly different ground in relation to both Initial Teacher Education/ Training (ITE/T), and Continuous Professional Development (CPD). It should nevertheless be noted, that underpinning both is common ground – an emphasis on 'accountability' and an emphasis on a 'competence-based' approach for *evaluating* teacher effectiveness. As linchpins of both reports therefore, the concepts of accountability and of competence are principal areas of interest for this analysis. Indeed, the post WWII accountability movement's evolving rôle in evaluating 'management' in general itself has a significant and pertinent history and the development of models of accountability has entailed the concomitant development of 'measures' of accountability, many of which have been developed to a high degree of sophistication (McLelland, 1973; Boyatsis, 1982; Spencer, S.,

McClelland, & Spencer, L. 1994) and many of which have been further developed and applied within an educational context.

The Accountability Movement's Contemporary Relevance

More generally and in a wider context than education, 'accountability' and accountability models themselves, latterly based on 'competence' approaches for the assessment of individual and organisational effectiveness and efficiency, have become quite commonplace in industrial and commercial settings. Where tangible outputs are more quantifiable, the various constructs of accountability have been applied with considerable success from as distant a time as that of Frederick Winslow Taylor. (Taylor, 1911) Although it has to be said, this 'considerable success' has been accompanied by some substantial controversy. But notwithstanding this emphasis on 'tangibility', attempts have also been made to adapt such approaches and make them applicable in public service and management settings, where outputs are less tangible and less easily quantified, in an effort to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of the provider, be it individual or organisation, of the service being provided. (McClelland, 1973; Boyatzis, 1982; Schroder, 1989) The initial success in such service settings has been less significant as a consequence of the inability to develop simple and comprehensive generic modelling because

... a key number of the standards intended as generic categorical descriptions of required performance are, in reality indexical in nature and are meaningful only in respect of the specific concrete context to which they refer. ... they are effectively context bound. (Holmes & Joyce, 1993, p. 44)

To suggest that this remain the case is to be disingenuous to the advances in the understanding and the continuing improvement of methodologies through more recently perfected theories of management and of organisations, which purport to have developed generic models.¹ But, it also has to be said, that even in modified form and even where advances have been made, such models have yet to gain a universal acceptance and still evoke considerable controversy because the

¹ Boyatzis (1982) developed what he termed a *generic* model, but the term generic was in fact specific to his work with diplomats. It does not appear that it was intended to be generic in a fully global sense. More recent works, however, referenced by Schroder (1989) and Spencer, L., McClelland & Spencer, S., (1994), have attempted to be more universally applicable, but again still largely concede, according to estimates by Dulewicz (1989), at best a 70% - 30% *generic - organisation specific context*.

perception at least, if not the fact, still remains that methods of measuring efficiency reforms developed from within capital-intensive backgrounds do not translate easily into personnel-intensive backgrounds because of the formers' initial emphasis on and grounding in quantifiability of outputs and the latter's plethora of qualitative evaluations. (House, 1978, p. 201)

In the recent UK and particularly Scottish educational context, with the exception of ITE/T (SOED, 1993; SOEID, 1998), competence based approaches have similarly not found great favour among teachers nor their teacher unions, but – and accepting that within government, local authorities and management, as well as teacher education institutions (TEIs), there appears to be significantly increased and increasing support – this general mood of disfavour among many in the profession is about to be 'force-changed' and about to be 'force-changed' quite radically. The spirit and essence of the Hay McBer and Deloitte & Touche reports herald the application of competence-based approaches to ITE/T and CPD and, through these, the further application of competence-based approaches to education in general and the evaluation of teacher effectiveness in particular. (Standard for ITE (SITE), 2001; Standard for Probationary Teachers (SPT), 2001; Standard for Full Registration (SFR), 2003; Standard for Chartered Teacher (SCT), 2003; SQH, 2001) This is not to say that assessing school and teacher effectiveness by means of competence measures is a new phenomenon, but rather, it is to highlight the fact that the passion for accountability that has come to education following the 'Great Debate' has come with increasing zeal, has come with ever more emphasis on industrial and commercial models and has come with a form of summative assessment tools because

[w]e are in a society in which assessment of achievement – individual, group, national – has become a religion. (House, 1978, p. 200)

Such tools for the assessment of achievement have now become ever more elaborate and sophisticated. 'In the round', qualitative measures are of increasing importance in this regard, but their reliance on a more idiographic orientation and interpretation militates against a clarity of differentiation and nomothetic classification. The need, if there is to be a general or generic approach, is thus still for some form of quantification and this has its new incarnation in elaborate methodological analyses,

which purport to produce measures of 'competence' now linked through 'benchmarks' and 'standards', in the case of Scotland, to ITE/T and CPD. (See Chapter 9; Purdon, 2003; Christie, 2003)

The concomitant question to ask therefore might be why now has accountability come to personnel-intensive organisations in general and why now has accountability come to education in particular, with such urgency? A fully definitive answer to this question is certainly wider than the scope of this chapter and quite possibly wider than the scope of this thesis, but the question will nevertheless have to be addressed to some extent if to do nothing more than to engage with the contention of Bernstein (1990) that there is an ideological battleground between 'new professional groups with a collectivist outlook and an interest in expanding public expenditure' and the condemnation of such new professional groups

... as a 'bureaucratised intelligentsia' of 'so-called' experts whose 'trendy' ideas ... have undermined traditional values and authority (e.g. progressivism in education) and the social and economic condition of the country. (Jones & Moore, 1993, p. 389)

Ultimately however, while a simple answer is not easy to furnish, a contextual framework is at least discernable. Indeed, in the opening chapters an attempt was made to outline at least the overall context within which assessing teacher effectiveness arose in the post war period, but this was done without making any really pre-emptive definitive statement of cause, because accountability

... is a social movement, and, like prohibition or democracy, it is the result of no single cause. Groups which have grievances against the schools, reformers who have remedies for the schools' deficiencies, and the disenfranchised who are excluded from the schools' governance attach their energies to the movement. Both the powerful and the powerless see special meanings in accountability, though their perceptions differ. (House, 1978, p. 201)

There are therefore any number of causes which might plausibly be cited and analysed as 'engines of the accountability movement', from failing international economic competitiveness, centralisation of control, demands of the powerless, financial stringency, improved management technology and reactions against professionalism in general – among other maybe less well considered but equally important reasons, all as a consequence of the rise of the New Right and of the

continuation of a New Right policy agenda by New Labour. But the nub of this part of the analysis, is more to focus on the ‘how’ question rather than on the ‘why’ question in the first instance, and in due course then to focus attention on the elaborate and sophisticated tool of ‘competence’ in an attempt to conceptualise its ‘meanings in use’ for teachers and teaching in the abstract before attempting a wider analysis within the sphere of accountability in general which may then more properly address, again at least in part, the question of ‘why’.

Following and to some extent paraphrasing earlier work by Maclure, (1978) therefore, it is important to make clear at the outset that the particular focus at this juncture is not directly on ‘accountability as some kind of timeless abstraction’ (Maclure, 1978, p. 9) incarnated within some deep-seated political *mythos*. Rather it is concerned, initially at least, with concepts, methodologies, techniques and tools of accountability in relation to educational policy in the 21st Century. Partly for this reason, some of the fundamental questions to be addressed must therefore be similar to those posed by Maclure in 1978.

How is accountability to be used as a metaphor to express the community’s claims on the professional administrators and teachers who run the education service? What are the political realities behind the rhetoric? What impact will procedures invented in the name of accountability have on what actually happens between teachers and taught? (Maclure, 1978, p. 9)

These exact same questions, of necessity, may now indeed still be asked, but, in addition, and of possibly greater import, is the question of why few listened to any of the answers furnished by Becher & Maclure (1978) and other commentators at the time. In answer, the year of publication of their work on accountability and the rise of a new political agenda provide a clue.

The Accountability Movement’s Relevance for the New Right

Maclure indeed posited that in relation to education, the

... accountability debate [took] place in the light of a deliberately contrived change of political climate; in particular, in the face of anxiety and uncertainty on four general issues: (Maclure, 1978, p. 13)

As mentioned above, the ‘contrived change of political climate’ was inaugurated at Ruskin College in 1976, but it should not go unnoticed that the Minister for Education in the Edward Heath government of 1970–74 was none other than

Margaret Thatcher and as subsequent leader of the Conservative party, and thus leader of the Official Opposition from 1974–79, she was in an instrumental position to keep to the fore the ‘four general issues’ which caused such ‘anxiety and uncertainty’ for James Callaghan. Later, and as Prime Minister from 1979 with a resolute majority, Margaret Thatcher and her Education Ministers thereafter provided many answers over the following years of Conservative party rule. Answers which radically changed the nature of the debate and *captured* the discourse.

Earlier it was reflected that there might be any number of plausible causes stoking the engines of the accountability movement in general, but for the immediate concern and formulation of education policy in the late 1970s, the four specific issues which were paramount for Prime Minister Callaghan and central to his ‘great debate’ were, *standards of achievement; content of the school curriculum; participation by parents; and managerial responsibility*. In each area there were indeed concerns of public and political mood as evidenced in the opening chapter of this section. At the risk of repetition, but from the need to draw out further the significance in the meaning behind specific contrasts relevant for this analysis, some facts have to be elaborated. Schools were failing to deliver the desired results either because *standards* were falling or they were not rising fast enough to meet the rising demands of modern life; there was a question mark over the *relevance* of the curriculum, vocational preparation and the link between schooling and earning mattered because the industrial world was changing; there was all party desire and support for increased *participation* by parents in the running of schools; there were in addition, attempts by the DES to have its *rôle* in curriculum matters clarified and, by inference, extended. (Adapted from Maclure, 1978, p. 13)

The in-coming Conservative Government in 1979 did not immediately address any of the issues. There appeared much more pressing business. The second ‘oil crisis’ of 1978 had doubled the price of oil, which had already suffered a near quadrupling of price in 1973. The major concern was then with the competitiveness of the British economy and the defence of Sterling as the world’s second reserve currency in the face of the rise of the Deutschmark. However, in the wake of the

1981 urban riots, the growing manufacturing recession, a successful conclusion to the Falklands War and the run up to the 1983 election, the great eye of attention turned slowly inward.

With the appointment of Ferdy Mount, who

... was particularly interested in all that goes under the heading of social policy – education, criminal justice, housing, the family and so on ..., (Thatcher, 1993, p. 278)

as head of Margaret Thatcher's in-house Policy Unit, the Prime Minister had chosen a redoubtable and articulate ally in the area of policy towards which she was now turning her attention. He produced a paper in May 1982 which contained the outlines of an approach to 'renewing the values of society' and which proposed radical solutions in an inimical style.

At this stage it was the themes rather than the particular measures which needed to be worked out, ... In education, for example, [the government] wanted to increase parent power, widen the variety within the state sector and see whether [it] could come up with workable proposals for education vouchers. ... This was the beginning of many of the themes and ideas which would dominate [the] third term ... (Thatcher, 1993, pp. 278 –279)

The then Education Secretary, Keith Joseph, immediately began what would be a long process of reform. Fortuitously, falling school rolls had meant better pupil teacher ratios and concomitantly, an increase in expenditure per pupil resulting in some improvement in standards. But for both Thatcher and Joseph, while such extra resources were necessary they were not sufficient. Extra resources

... only permit improved standards: they do not ensure them. So Keith was pressing for changes in teacher training. (Thatcher, 1993, pp. 279 – 280)

This was *the* most significant development. It echoed the sentiment behind the Ruskin College speech, mirrored the concern with the 'secret garden of the curriculum', but unreservedly pointed the finger at teacher autonomy.

The source for much of the immediately foregoing is the chapter in Margaret Thatcher's political memoirs, *The Downing Street Years* (1993), headed 'Disarming the Left'. This is indeed an engaging term for what might be better understood as 'capturing the discourse'. As pointed out above there were four areas of anxiety fuelling the 'Great Debate' and it is worth concentrating on these just a little further

for insight into the nature and conduct of the discourse by the political protagonists. The left wanted to see an improvement in standards *and debated the reasons why post war education policy (comprehensivisation) had not been a panacea*; the left wanted a more relevant curriculum *and debated the need for education 'to equip children to the best of their ability for a lively, constructive, place in society, and also to fit them to do a job of work. Not one or the other but both'*; the left wanted parental participation *and debated how to encourage parents to become more involved in local decision making about schools*; the left wanted a clarified rôle for the DES in curriculum matters *and debated how this could be achieved on sound pedagogical grounds without it appearing as political interference or attempts at control*. The New Right, however, took this debate to its extreme. It indeed overturned the debate. Stiffened with the resolve of a significant majority and into its second term in office, it simply proposed to improve standards by creating variety in the state sector and by rigorous national testing regimes; it proposed the increasing relevance of the curriculum by encouraging specialisation, but also by developing and implementing a national curriculum; it proposed the 'Parents' Charter' and parental choice of school as the means of encouraging parental participation; it proposed an overhaul of teacher training, a more rigorous rôle for the DES and a more inquisitorial rôle for Her Majesty's Inspectorate.

This is noteworthy because it shows two things in particular of relevance for this analysis. The first is that the proposed policies certainly disarmed the left because many were even more radical and extreme than anything that they had hitherto considered in their own debate. The policy solutions were in fact not so much in opposition to left thinking but went far beyond it, but in a way that caricatured existing left thinking, consigning it to a post WWII consensus dustbin and what appeared as an ideological time warp. Secondly, this shows that the emphasis was no longer on abstract education policy *per se*, but on schools and in particular on teachers. The discourse was now dominated by allusions to ideological 'looney-left' controlled local authorities, not the unrealisable idealised aspirations of comprehensive reform; on failing schools, not the lack of relevance of the curriculum for post industrialism; on lack of parental choice, not the meagreness of parental participation; on the inadequacy of teacher training and 'dunce' teachers,

not on the fact that 'teaching & learning' is not a 'systems' programmable enterprise with some kind of 'production function', 'because the complexity of human (as distinct from animal) learning can not be reduced to simple techniques of reinforcement'. (Humes, 1995, p. 40) With this, the discourse had 'summersaulted' overnight from one dominated by a wider debate regarding the interaction of knowledge, education and society to one dominated by narrow deliberation regarding the specification of accountability, competence and individual responsibility. The debate had moved from timeless abstractions to practical implementations of policy. Succinctly, the discourse had moved on from being one concerned with the management of the *provision* of education to one concerned with the management of the *delivery* of the curriculum. In language that reflects the analysis of *narrative* in the mould of Lyotard, 'denotative language-games' were replaced by 'technical language-games' where statements are judged not by whether they are true in the abstract, but by whether they are useful and efficient or not.

In consequence, all that remained was for government to find a way of how to *manage* individual teachers in order to improve their collective effectiveness. (Or, maybe more appropriately, to find a way to assess collective effectiveness in order to manage individual teachers.) The problem was, therefore, simply reduced to a *managerial* problem.

It is important to understand this more as a 'capturing' of the discourse than as a change in the discourse. Ultimately, for the public face of the political protagonists the abstract ends remained ostensibly the same – an improvement in educational standards, more relevant curriculum, greater parental involvement in educational matters and evaluation of the educational enterprise. It was the means to those ends, which were brought in to sharp relief. Drawn as they were on a fractured political map initially dominated by the break down of the post war consensus and the rise of the New Right, the general underlying philosophical emphasis had indeed been shifting from one dominated by the ultimate ends of human activity towards one where the technical means through which things might be achieved had precedence. What transpired therefore was

... a redistribution of significant voices. ... it [became] not just a matter of what [could be] said, but [also of] who [was] entitled to speak. The teacher

[however, was, as ever,] an absent presence in the discourses of education policy. (Ball, 1993, p. 108)

But this gave rise to a substantial problem and one which Thatcher herself had never intended. Managing the *delivery* of the curriculum entailed prescription of the curriculum to a degree which was suffocating. Instead of a basic curriculum, concentrating on Maths, English and Science, as was intended, there was to be a National Curriculum built around the ‘modes of thinking’ model of Hirst & Peters (1970). This drew the Thatcher government deeper and deeper in to the minutiae of school governance at a time when the desire was in fact to delegate responsibility. The penalty was a ‘bureaucracy and ... thicket of prescriptive measures’, (Thatcher, 1993, p. 593), that embroiled the administration in every aspect of school governance and curriculum. It might be reflected that it is testimony to the doggedness of that administration that it was able to maintain distinctive and separate policy agendas in the face of this milieu, but it also meant much of the political desire to bring influence and policy to bear more directly on the teacher and teacher training was dissipated in a variety of curricular interventions which had the perverse effect of raising some public awareness of the plight of teachers faced with policies on appraisal of their practice. By relegating the debate to a simple management problem, the administration had unwittingly unleashed the proto-ideology of ‘managerialism’ on the educational scene and condemned them to a process of ‘mangerialisation’ in an attempt to justify their intervention on pedagogical grounds.

The Practice of Policy on Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness

Initially, the emphasis of Keith Joseph reflected the voiced concern with teacher training. (DES, 1982) An initial series of white papers focused attention on the question of teaching quality and quality of provision in state schooling. (DES, 1983; DES, 1985a) A further series of white papers thereafter focused attention on teachers and teaching and on the government’s expressed desire for some form of evaluation of schools and some form of teacher appraisal. (DES, 1985b; DES, 1989a; DES, 1989b; DES, 1991a; DES, 1991b) The thrust of policy was aimed at the removal of ineffective teachers and by so doing to raise the overall quality of state provided education. Thatcher’s ‘third term’, (1987-1990) then saw the

implementation and reporting on a number of specific pilot studies which focused on teacher development and teacher appraisal. There were six such pilot authorities in England, (Croydon, Cumbria, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Salford, Somerset, and Suffolk), which carried out work on teacher appraisal. Many of these same authorities, and others, as well as Regional Authorities in Scotland, (Lothian, Grampian, and Dumfries & Galloway), were also involved in pilot schemes geared toward establishing a framework for staff development. In addition, in Scotland, there was the setting up of the Scottish Committee on Staff Development in Education, (SCOSDE), which replaced the National Committee for the In-Service Training of Teachers. This new body was given greater executive powers than its predecessor and had a specific remit to evaluate pilot schemes of appraisal systems set up by Regional Authorities, such as Lothian, in session 1988/89.

Evaluation of Schools, Staff Development, and Teacher Appraisal were inextricably linked in the mind of government, but not so in the minds of teachers. There were therefore a considerable number of complications. Teachers expressed a wish to see an appraisal structure which took into consideration individual and local circumstances, and was supportive in the first instance. The ambition of the politicians on the other hand, and of the education authorities, was to have an appraisal structure which would facilitate and secure the dismissal of those teachers considered incompetent. It was this dislocated discourse which gave rise to the problem of discerning the purposes of a system of teacher appraisal/ staff development, and therefore the criteria which might be used in any system designed to evaluate teacher effectiveness. Ever more elaborate lists of criteria were produced and many agencies were involved in producing reports and proposals. (Suffolk Report, 1985; Main Report, 1986; ACAS, 1986; Strathclyde Regional Council (SRC), 1988) The lists varied in form concentrating differentially on teachers – prescribing tasks or traits; and on schools – advocating a form of moderated self-evaluation and independent inspection. In broad regard, systems of teacher appraisal which developed from such reports and pilots, were ineffectual for the purpose for which they were intended – the prescription of teaching competences for existing teachers. In England & Wales for instance, where appraisal was eventually imposed, the fact was that individual participation was initially voluntary and thereafter, it

was guaranteed that interviews would be confidential. In Scotland, even to date, 2005, some teachers have still to be interviewed concerning their development planning. But not so for new recruits in to Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) and also now for probationer teachers enjoying a post McCrone Agreement (SE, 2002) 'guaranteed year'.

For new recruits, initially, the culmination of policy directives in the Scottish context was the publication in 1993 of *Guidelines for Teacher Training Courses* (SOED) (Hereinafter referred to as *Guidelines '93*) (First promulgated in 1983, but revised in 1993 and with a list of some forty 'competences' then appended.) This made it quite explicit that TEIs in Scotland were to implement a competence-based approach to ITE and a specific set of competences were therein identified which were to be attained by anyone completing ITE and about to enter a probationary period as a teacher. This is spelled out in the introduction to the *Guidelines '93*.

The Government considers that greater prominence than ever before should be given in teacher training to the securing of classroom skills by newly qualified teachers and that *competences* in teaching should be the critical factor which institutions must take into account in designing courses. (SOED, 1993, p. 1) (*emphasis added*)

The introduction to the *Guidelines '93* then continues to spell out further, that

... the term 'professional competences', should be taken to refer to knowledge, understanding, critical thinking and positive attitudes, as well as to practical skills. ... All the competences set out ... should be seen in the context of the beginning teacher ... before he or she becomes a skilled practitioner. What is essential is that the competences acquired ... will allow and encourage full development over succeeding years to proficient and expert levels of professionalism. (SOED, 1993, p. 1)

While much of the debate on implementation of such a competence-based ITE programme passed the established practising teacher by, it became strangely polarised in TEIs. There were those on the one hand who considered that the list of competences were half-baked and that an opportunity for a much more rigorous specification of objectives had actually been missed, or, from a more conciliatory position, that really the specification of more sharply defined competences were no more than a consolidation of accepted good practice. On the other hand, however,

there were those who considered this as an intrusively technicist imposition and a significant threat to teacher autonomy and professionalism. (Carr, 1996, pp. 72-3)

The *Guidelines '93* were then further revised in 1998 and re-issued as the *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland*. (SOEID, 1998) (Hereinafter referred to as *Guidelines '98*) The 'competences' themselves were revisited, addressing to a degree some of the criticisms following the publication of the *Guidelines '93*. These competences themselves have now however, become the basis of the 'Benchmarks' contained in *Quality Assurance in Initial Teacher Education: The Standard for Initial Teacher Education in Scotland; Benchmark Information* (QAA, 2000) where a

... cross-reference for each benchmark is given to the relevant **Competence(s)**. These competences are the statements currently in use in ITE programmes and are set out in the *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland* (SOEID 1998).

What is interesting in this apparent change of terminology is that no reference to 'Competence(s)' is contained in the 'Standards Booklets' issued to teachers in 2002 – *The Standard for Full Registration*, (SFR), (SE, 2002a); *Continuing Professional Development*, (CPD), (SE, 2002b); *The Standard for Chartered Teacher*, (SCT), (SE, 2002c); *Professional Review and Development*, (PRD), (SE, 2002d) – but that competences are indeed the backbone of such publications is without question, as is evidenced by the above quotation and by further reference contained in the Deloitte & Touche report. (See also Chapter 9; Purdon, 2003; Christie, 2003)

The competences in the [Standard for Initial Teacher Education] SITE reflect *inter alia* those specified in Section D of the 1998 SOEID Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education. (SE 2001, p.14)

The 'Now' Practice of Policy

Accountability, teacher effectiveness and particularly competence are central themes in this analysis. They are indeed themselves inextricably interlinked. The notion of competence, however, is the dominant concern and 'competence' itself appears reified in current usage and is now the fundamental building block of assessment procedures. The ascendancy of 'competence' in the armoury of the accountability movement nevertheless has antecedent notions, all of which have

been used in attempts to determine effectiveness in some form or other, but more with the express purpose of holding to account than with the purpose of praising achievement. The following chapter will review some of the more prominent antecedent notions, but for the remainder of this chapter the content of the Hay/McBer and Deloitte & Touche reports will be a focus although with the express acknowledgement that much of what they contend will be subsumed in the next chapter and in the conceptual analysis in chapters 10, 11, 12 and 13.

Hay/McBer Report (2000)

As previously mentioned in Chapter 1, an interesting aspect of the analysis of the nature of the power/knowledge relationship in contemporary education, might view the juxtaposition of the two lists about the ‘best teacher’ (Kratz, 1896) and ‘a good teacher’, (Hay/McBer, 2000) written more than a century apart, as containing in some guise the essence of Foucault’s genealogical methodology. At that juncture, speculation pointed to a subtle development of the power/knowledge discourse from one which pointed to what teachers ‘do to’ pupils to one which pointed to what teachers ‘do for’ pupils. It was also mentioned at that juncture, that too much should not be made of this ‘speculation’. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note on two counts, subtle shifts. The first is that ‘effectiveness’ is substituted for ‘competences’ and the second is that ‘competences’ rather than ‘competencies’ are mentioned and mentioned only once in the shorter version of the Hay/McBer Report – that mention itself only being made in the Annex to the report as part of the *The Pupil Progress Project: Executive Summary*. (Hay/McBer, 2000, Annex) This might be considered a little unusual in the light of later analyses which will directly concern the development of the Hay/McBer methodology, but again at this juncture and at the present time, speculation might suggest that the charged terminology of ‘teacher competence’ has been dropped for a more innocuous sounding ‘teacher effectiveness’ terminology. Notwithstanding this semantic shift however, it will be evident from this brief outline and the later analysis that competence, as reflected in a behaviourist mantle, is still at the heart of much policy research with regard to teacher education, training and professional development.

The measures of teacher effectiveness

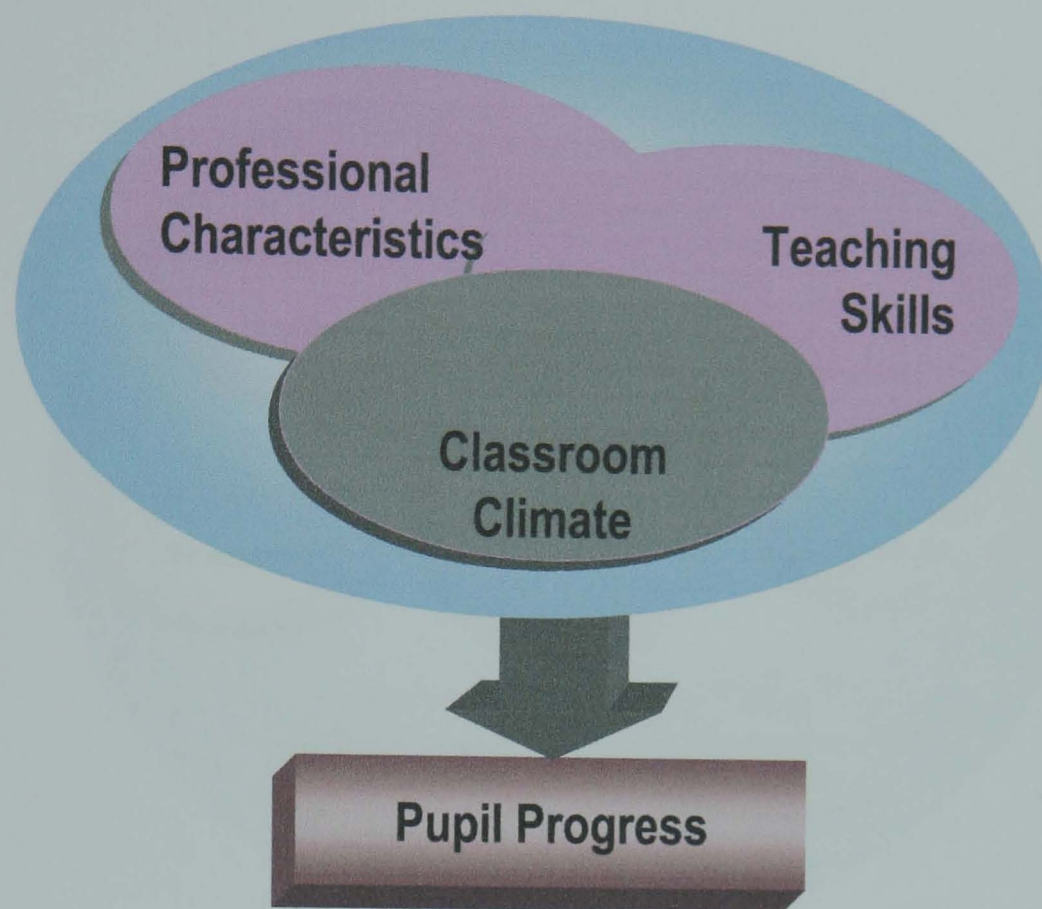


Figure 4. Source: HayMcBer, 2000, paragraph 1.1.1

In outline, the Hay/McBer report is best summed up by its three diagrammatic representations of, Measures of Teacher Effectiveness; the Teaching Skills; and the Model of Professional Characteristics of effective teachers.

From these three representations, the essence of the Hay/McBer approach is discernable. The first two representations provide information on the two factors which relate to 'what a teacher brings to the job' while the third factor of professional characteristics are the ongoing patterns of behaviour that combine to drive the things teachers typically do, amongst which are the 'micro-behaviours' covered by teaching skills. (Hay/McBer, 2000, para 1.1.2)

The teaching skills

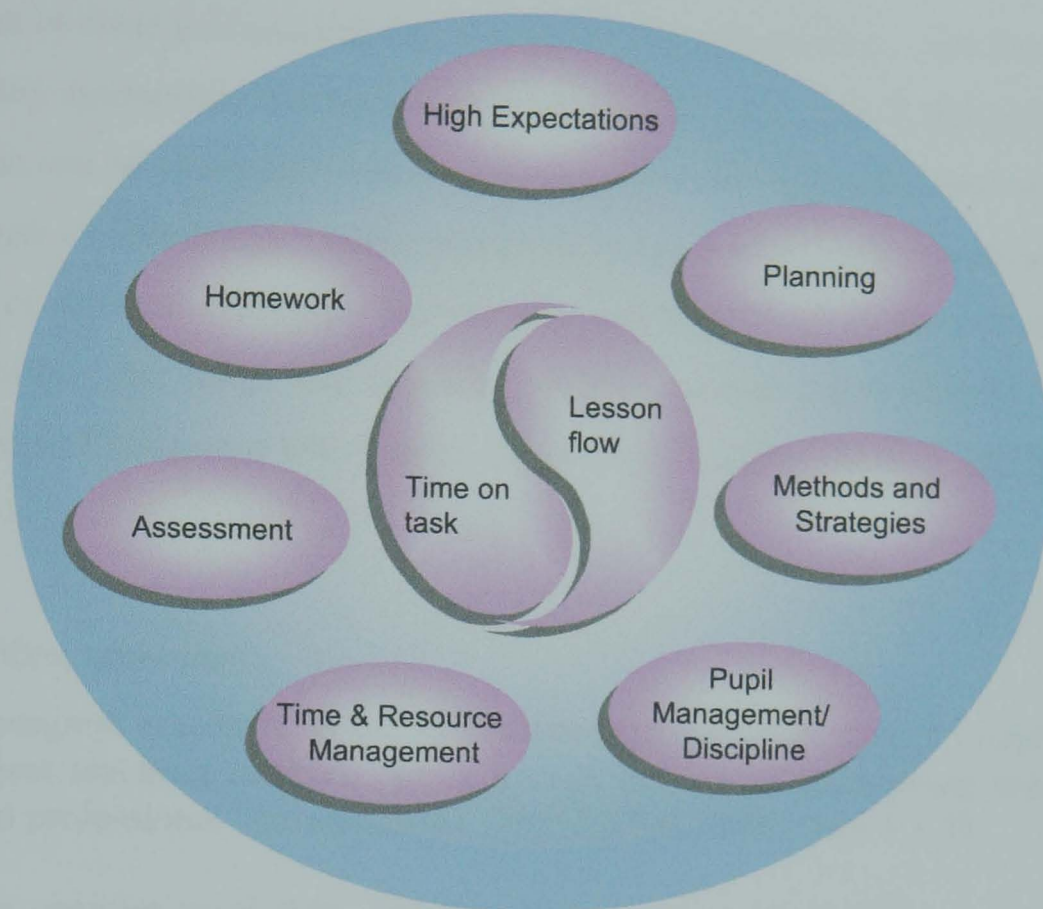


Figure 5. Source: HayMcBer, 2000, paragraph 1.2.1

The model of professional characteristics



Figure 6. Source: HayMcBer, 2000, paragraph 1.3.2

In providing a summary of how the model works, the report states at the outset that all competent teachers know their subjects, but that more effective teachers make the most of their professional knowledge in two linked ways. The first is in how they deploy appropriate teaching skills consistently – the sorts of strategies and techniques that can be observed – *and which underpin the national numeracy and literacy strategies*. (This seems a rather presumptive point to add at this juncture and is suggestive of directed strategies, but analysis will have to await later scrutiny). The second link is the range and intensity of professional characteristics – the ongoing patterns of behaviour which make them effective. (Hay/McBer, 2000, para 1.1.5)

The report then states that,

[p]upil progress results from the successful application of subject knowledge and subject teaching methods, using a combination of appropriate teaching skills and professional characteristics. (Hay/McBer, 2000, para 1.1.5)

Hardly an eye opening revelation, but then the report suggests that professional characteristics can be assessed and good teaching practice can be observed. However the additional factor of ‘classroom climate’ – a measure of the collective perceptions of pupils regarding those dimensions of the classroom environment that have a direct impact on their capacity and motivation to learn – must also be taken as part of the combination that then provides valuable tools for a teacher to enhance the progress of their pupils. (Hay/McBer, 2000, para 1.1.5)

The report finally concludes that by using start-of-year and end-of-year attainment data as a reference, it has been possible, after using the outcomes from the research, to model the impact teachers have on the classroom climate, how that climate affects pupil progress and what aspects of teaching skills and behavioural characteristics have most impact on climate. (Hay/McBer, 2000, para 1.1.7) The result, it is claimed, is that, taken together, teaching skills, professional characteristics and classroom climate will predict well over 30% of the variance in pupil progress. (Hay/McBer, 2000, para 1.1.8)

For the interests of this analysis, however, the overtly behaviourist approach coupled with the compilation of lists of teaching skills and professional

characteristics linked with evaluations of pupil attainment reflect that the concept of ‘competencies’, so directly linked with the original research of McClelland, (1973) a founder of the McBer consultancy, underlie the structure and strategy of this model. Earlier, it was pointed out that the claim was that the teaching strategies and techniques that can be observed are also those that underpin the national numeracy and literacy strategies – the reflection being that observable lists of criteria or ‘competencies’ are fundamental to this model. Thus it is an outcomes based approach which leaves process undefined while entreating teachers to utilise the research as a tool to enhance the progress of their pupils. A more thorough analysis of the implications of this is the basis of this thesis.

Deloitte & Touche Report (2001)

In some ways the Deloitte & Touche report is much more open with regard to competences. The report directly links the competences contained in the 1998 Guidelines with the Benchmark Information contained in *The Standard for Initial Teacher Education in Scotland*, (SITE), (SE, 2001a). Nevertheless, this report is specifically for candidates undergoing a course of Initial Teacher Education (ITE). The link with practising teachers and with the continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers, however, is directly noted in the text (SE, 2001a, p.13) and in a footnote to the Deloitte & Touche report. In this footnote it specifically states

... that the forthcoming ‘Standard for Full Registration’ (SFR) is intended to dovetail with SITE and to build on the three categories of competences or ‘expected features’. (SE, 2001, Footnote 14, p.13)

It is also within this section of the report that specific mention is made of the further report leading to the McCrone Agreement, ‘*A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century*’, (SE, 2001) which spells out in some considerable detail the means of progression through the teaching profession where a restructuring of employment structures and expectations of the profession ... implies a restructuring of the professional development of teachers from ITE, through the induction year in to CPD and, for some, to the Chartered Teacher Programme. (SE, 2001a, p.13)

In this, the Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH) is not mentioned specifically nor is there any mention of a qualification for aspiring Departmental or

Faculty leaders, but that the SQH does entail conceptions of competences contained with the notion of capabilities is a point to be borne in mind as the analysis at the base of this thesis unfolds.

Chapter 5

Competence, Teacher Effectiveness and Accountability

Introduction

While in current expressions competence is developing much more specific ‘meanings in use’ in relation to ‘competence-based’ models, the origins of the term in general, with regard to the assessment of the efficiency and effectiveness of personnel-intensive occupations, are a little more loosely articulated with other, more long standing traditions. In addition, as with many ‘efficiency measures’ initiatives, many formulations, with regard to its use as a measurement tool, can be traced to an American origin. (Adams, 1996; Hyland, 1993; Wirth, 1988) It was through an emphasis on the principles of scientific management, social efficiency and ‘production-line/output’ measures as applied to the early American mass-manufacturing sector, that there arose a penchant for having some ‘accountancy’ framework for assessing how effectively a ‘worker-unit’ might perform an individual ‘worker-unit task’. Some education specific examples of these are considered later, but ‘auditing’ and ‘performance contracting’ are two such early general formulations developed by adherents of the methods of scientific management. The emphasis was on the individual ‘worker-unit’ and the measures were designed to assess the degree of efficiency of performing a specified task in a specified manner. Great emphasis was placed on planning and monitoring and post WW1 psychological testing techniques seemed to hold great promise for a psychologically fitted workforce.

Education, schools and teachers, as something of a unique occurrence within the personnel-intensive organisations and ‘occupations’, experienced parallel

developments of fairly unique, education specific, competence-based models as a direct means of evaluating teacher effectiveness. They too, in many instances, also have a fairly distinctive American origin. (Adams, 1996; Hyland, 1993; Tuxworth 1989) For example, the work of John Franklin Bobbit (1912) and Elwood Cubberly (1916) came to influence school structure, administration and the curriculum early in the American educational system (Wood, 1999, p. 297) through the application of scientific management techniques and the principles of 'efficiency' based on the work of Taylor (1911). This is not to suggest that current competence measures in education do not have a British or even Scottish history. Put simply, it merely reflects a peculiarly pervasive character in the nature of the American preoccupation with research into this 'religion' of 'assessment of achievement' in all walks of life, including education. Nevertheless, there are emergent national differences to be highlighted, revealing quite distinctive and particular interpretations of the term on either side of the Atlantic. It is therefore helpful to develop, at least, a 'broad brush-stroke' understanding of the origins of competence in assessing teacher effectiveness and a feel for some of the 'meanings in use' that it has currently acquired in addressing the 'involvedness' of evaluating teacher effectiveness, before actually addressing the conceptualisation of competence and its rôle in the assessment of teacher effectiveness.

Determining Some Antecedents of Competence-Based Models

In a very general sense, as has been suggested above, the foundations of competence-based models themselves can be traced back through links with offshoots of the 'scientific management' movement 'when the drive for technical and rational management systems first came in to focus' (Brundrett, 2000) and 'social efficiency' theorists were prevalent in the USA in the 1920s. (Hyland, 1993; Wirth; 1988). More specifically, emphases on the skills of workers and their abilities to perform tasks in prescribed ways within allotted time intervals; the breaking down of tasks to provide several sub-tasks at which individuals could become expert; the measurement of output and productivity; all are techniques in the bag of the scientific manager, used to determine the competence or otherwise of the worker. Indeed, the particular managerial aspect where the fundamental belief of Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911) – that management, not workers, should control

the workplace – appears central to the models. It was this conceiving of the drive for increased efficiency as essentially a managerial-technical problem that actually gave impetus to the managerial revolution at the turn of the 20th Century.

This revolution, however, with regard to education at least, *was* merely managerial, (Johnson, 1986, p. 44) it still left tactical policy as a local or professional prerogative, but demanded that such policy be enacted within, however apparently benign, strategic national guidelines. From an educational administration perspective, this managerial-technical problem was then simply interpreted, in similar vein to any productive process, as a scientific management problem. The teacher was thus considered as a worker – ‘just a bit more than a carpenter’ – and the school administrator was the scientific executive, ‘the entrepreneurial leader’, *the* professional. (Thorndike, 1906, p2) This overtly behaviourist model prevailed and in succeeding decades, it was evidenced that there was an increasing emphasis on technique and on a subtle sophistication of measurement. ‘Time activity analysis’ and ‘job analysis’ were augmented by students’ ‘Achievement Quotients’ and thereafter superseded by teacher ‘activity statements’. A distillation of the teacher activity statements themselves resulted in

...some 25 [categories in a]...’Master-List of Teachers’ Traits’. Amongst these traits and actions were ‘conventionality’ (item: ‘does not comb hair in an odd way’) and ‘personal advancement’ (item: ‘investing in securities’). (Johnson, 1984, p. 52)

In the post WWII period, such list techniques for devising traits and actions were extended and incorporated within the ‘accountability movement’ in the USA which itself was based on its own general forerunners of ‘auditing’ and ‘performance contracting’. An analysis of such lists which resulted might be highly illuminating in itself, but suffice it to say, as the example above reveals, there were some very questionable criteria.

When coupled with the development of a ‘systems approach’ to organisational analysis however, where, viewed as ‘natural systems’, organisations were perceived as being composed of a series of inter-related processes, accountability measures were further transformed.

To understand this transformation in full, it is necessary to digress briefly and examine some of the fundamentals of a systems approach, both in the abstract and as it applies in practice to organisations. It is not, however, intended to give a full account of the systems theory of organisations, but simply because systems approaches developed from biological modelling and were initially strongly associated with the 'logical positivist' school of thought, it is fruitful to consider the implications of its melding with behaviourist principles and its subsequent application to organisational analysis of education.

Systems Approaches, Systems Theory and General Systems Theory

Systems approaches have had many guises in the Social Sciences in general and since the advent of what has been termed the 'quantitative revolution' of the 1960s there has been a mushrooming of applications to all forms of social and organisational structures. But often there is little sincere depth of understanding displayed of the need for distinctions which must necessarily be drawn among the various expressions of terminology. The fact is that proponents of a systems approach to social and organisational structures have been charged with employing assumptions contained within terms such as, systems thinking/systems analysis (SA); systems theory (ST), and general systems theory (GST), interchangeably and that by so doing, have introduced an element of ambiguity into the terminology of the systems framework in general. But there are distinctions, and these distinctions reveal underlying assumptions. Briefly, distinctions which should be drawn are; that GST must be considered as an interdisciplinary construct propounding the belief that principles may be formulated and deduced, which are thus applicable to all types of system – physical, biological, and social; ST is similar, essentially being a derivation of this classical GST, although the concern is more with a theory of general models of real systems than with a general theory about reality as sought by GST; SA on the other hand, is one which attempts to resolve complex and interrelated wholes into more elementary units for the purpose of investigating the response of an individualised system to a given input or set of environmental conditions. These differences are fundamental. At one extreme there is an attempt to formulate a unified theory while at the other there is a simple acceptance of the veracity of systematic analysis.

The terminology of ‘systems thinking’ and ‘systems approaches’ because they allude to a more generic understanding of all the meanings under the systems umbrella, without distinction, are the root cause of much of the confusion. But terms are further compromised when terminology used in organisational analysis refers to ‘natural systems’ because this implies that such analysis is concentrating on the homogeneity of real systems as *entities* and not models of real systems as *artefacts*. Thus, there is an implicit acceptance of assumptions more appropriate to a formulation of GST with all the attendant implications of a unified set of principles for a physical, biological and social systems construct.

With the practical application of such systems theoretical principles to organisational analysis, the

... systems notion posits an organisational force or framework which encompasses and gives order to people and events within it. The system – unseen behind everyday affairs – is real: it *is* the organisation. (Greenfield, 1975, p. 78)

Indeed, underlying

... widely accepted notions about organisations ... stands the apparent assumption that organisations are not only real but also distinct from the actions, feelings and purposes of people. (Greenfield, 1975, p. 71)

Systems approaches to organisational structures in general, therefore, have an implicit understanding that there is a dualism which separates the actions, feelings and purposes of people and the organisations within which they work.

A major part of the problem is that in practice little distinction is drawn between living and non-living systems. Non-living systems are better understood as *artefacts* of human endeavour and as such are not strictly in themselves systems. It is only with the explicit functioning of such artefacts of human endeavour, when flows of physical resources or information take place, that an analogy with the living or biological system has any real relevance. But such flows are not recognisable as a result of the system it is rather the system is recognisable only as a result of the flows. Without the flows it is a non-functioning artefact.

It is however, the flows which receive the explicit attention of systems organisational theorists, and thus a systems approach for them then gains relevance. But the implicit assumption is that all systems then have a unified and universal set of operational principles.

A further problem, with regard to bounding the system, also exists. System boundaries always have to be delimited. A system in fact may be defined loosely as a set of elements together with relations between those elements and among their states. A system then, may be considered to comprise three components: a set of elements; a set of links between those elements; and a set of links between the system and the environment. This, however, is necessarily an abstraction and this abstraction in itself can present a problem.

A real biological system is actually composed of an endless number of variables which different research workers with different aims may with good reason analyse in different ways. Thus it is possible to form several different abstract systems from one real system. As an example, the pulmonary system in the human body has both arterial and veinal components both of which interact with the respiratory system and all of which interact with the digestive system. Such system classification, however, is a matter of convention as it pertains to biology and medical science. It is indeed possible to reclassify such conventionalisms and thus alter the understanding of the interaction in such a way as to recast components of one system as integral with another system. In this example, any such reclassification is increasingly unlikely as medical knowledge advances, but it is sufficient to highlight the contention that such is possible. When applying systems analyses to social artefacts then, the possibilities are indeed boundless. There is therefore a problem of delimiting any artificial system boundary.

Compounding this problem, in relation to non-living systems, is the need for differentiating between closed, partially open and open systems. To analyse the internal relations between the elements within an organisation as a closed system, for example, these relationships must, of necessity, be unchangeable or at the least relatively stable. Not only this, objective factors, detected by the observation of the

scientist, must then be able to exert a causal and measurable influence upon behaviour within the confines of the system. Further, if the boundaries of the system are extended or opened so as to include the changing social and political relationships in the society of which the organisation is part, or even to include the social and political relations within the organisation itself, the result of the analysis may well be altered. This is indeed the case, but such analysis should go much deeper. When a system boundary has been arbitrarily drawn and the system/environment links considered so small in relation to the system that they may be thought of as having a negligible effect, then the system may be said to be physically closed. Similarly, if the system/environment links are strong, but the cross boundary flows are calculable and can thus be allowed for, the system may again, in an abstract sense, be analysed as closed although it is in fact either partially open or fully open. However, it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to quantify social and political relationships and to suggest that there is a direct causal link that explains the actions and motivations of those exposed to them. It is also particularly naïve to consider them as negligible. In addition, it is not correct to simply consider only the physical attributes of a system without accounting for internal and external flows – both physical and information.

This fact, the fact of closure, has had little explicit consideration by many systems theorists as they propound the values of this approach, but it is indeed a major criticism. If a system remains unbounded, it cannot really be analysed as a system. If direct influences cannot be measured, explanation is nonsensical. This does not, however, preclude a 'systematic analysis' which uses the scientific method in relation to investigating, for example, an interruption in the flow, or a mechanical failure. Simply, it questions the extrapolation that there are unified and common principles applicable to all systems that are sufficient to go beyond the banal.

Notwithstanding this consideration, organisational theorists were able to apply systems theories universally and created an organisational science and profession of administration. (Silverman, 1970; Thomson, 1967; Etzioni, 1964, 1960) A significant consequence was the move away from explicit autonomous individual behaviours towards the specification of the goals, needs and objectives of the

organisation. Such goals, needs and objectives were nevertheless contested territory, but the individual was not included. Organisations, it was claimed, variously ‘serve functions’, ‘adapt to their environment’, ‘clarify their goals’ and ‘act to implement policy’. (Greenfield, 1975, p. 71)

Systems, Teacher Effectiveness, Competence and Accountability

With such applications of systems approaches in educational administration, auditing was too vague a term for the system and performance contracting¹ was found to be a little absurd and unworkable in an educational context, but accountability contained within it, the right inflection – emphasis on the individual serving the functions, needs and goals of the organisation, itself adapting to the environment and acting to implement policy – and struck the right systemic note in the aftermath of such universal application of systems theories to organisational structures. The *TES* referred to the ‘accountability octopus’ in schooling and education at that time, on this side of the Atlantic, as having some baffling complex tentacles because of the plethora of influences on educational provision. But extending this metaphor, even just a little reveals the significance and extent of the pervasiveness of the systems approach once applied, because even an octopus must have

... a central nervous system. In the new commercial-industrial organism that means a management system. And a nervous system must have clear, logical pathways and processes. It must also have discrete, irreducible message units. ... The message unit? *Competencies*. (Johnson, 1984, p. 47)

It is the ‘discrete, irreducible message units’ demanded by systems theories that insist that an emphasis be on the individual and moreover on the individual with individual competencies, not just the organisation *per se*. Accountability thereafter becomes inextricably linked with systems theory through the ‘discrete, irreducible message units’ and the individual or the teacher with individual competencies is thus made individually accountable and individually responsible for serving the functions of the organisation and following its goals and objectives. Blame then for any system failure lies unequivocally with the discrete irreducible message units in the system – that is the individual with individual competencies or lack of them. It is in this sense that the apparent contradiction between emphasis on the system and

¹ Interesting to contrast this with ‘target-setting’ based on school league tables of pupils results.

emphasis on the individual is resolved. Surgically removing the non-functioning individual permits the system or organisation to return to some form of equilibrium.

This, at first glance, might appear slightly contradictory with the contention of Greenfield (1975) that the view from the systems perspective is that organisations, not individuals, ‘serve functions’, ‘adapt to their environment’, ‘clarify their goals’ and ‘act to implement policy’. But in essence, the ‘irreducible message units’ within a systems framework are not considered as autonomous individuals. On the contrary, individuals on this interpretation are available for manipulation and exploitation as productive units. They are not themselves considered as manipulators and exploiters. This is central to the accommodation between behaviourism and systems theories. Both are from the same philosophical stable, the stable of ‘positivism’ as it developed as an analytical approach to understanding social constructs.

This digression into systems theories, their melding with behaviourist principles and their joint application in the organisational context has considerable relevance for aspects later in the analysis. The view then will be to delimit boundaries of the conception of organisations as entities and to reassert, as Greenfield (1975) does, the importance of autonomous individualism. Indeed, the view will address the conceptualisation of the individual as a collection of competences. For the immediate purpose however – the drawing together of the strands from which competences rise like a phoenix from the flames of scientific management principles, behaviourism and systems theoretical perspectives – it is of importance to analyse the connection a little deeper and to determine some of its antecedents as they pertain to educational practice.

Determining Some Antecedents of Competence-Based Models in Education

It is worthwhile dwelling a little on the strands of the historical connection if for nothing more than greater clarification and for what it ultimately reveals with regard to the development of the fundamental, but dominant assumptions about teaching and learning in this period, some of which, it appears, may still be given credence in certain quarters today. In addition, however, it reveals further, an underlying

intensity of interest, and an explicitly articulated interest, in the actual 'practice' of teaching. In tracing such strands then – this link between competence and scientific management, behaviourism and systems – as alluded to earlier it is specifically in the hands of John Franklin Bobbit (1912) and Elwood Cubberly (1916) that Taylorism, (Taylor, 1911), scientific management and the principles of social efficiency came to have a direct influence on the American educational system in post WWI America.

As widespread public schooling began to take hold, calls were heard for schools to mimic industry. The argument was that schooling for an industrial economy required schools that operated on an industrial efficiency model. (Wood, 1999, p. 297)

Their formula and solution to the need to increase effectiveness and raise standards of educational achievement for the industrial economy was simple and direct – based as it was on the principles of scientific management as applied to the then burgeoning American manufacturing sector.

Schools could best teach the values needed by an industrial workforce through both direct instruction in those values and an experience with a workplace-like structure. ... As for direct instruction, the curriculum was shaped to meet the needs of the workplace. Liberal arts instruction was seen as an impediment to preparation for work...(Wood, 1999, p. 297).

Bobbitt (1912), as social efficiency theorist, worked and wrote tirelessly promoting schools modelled after factories and stressed the need for defining ends, studying the best means to those ends, then holding the teacher to the standards so established, with each teacher then held responsible for performing, or putting in to practice, the exact tasks as defined by the scientific manager. The measure for assessing how well a teacher had performed such tasks was to be an observable 'productive' classroom 'teaching behaviour' or 'practice' and this would be isolated by absolute and specific determination of the ends to be achieved. The logic then, would be the logic of behaviourism and observable individual behaviours would constitute the units of task performance.

A. S. Barr, a methodological protégé of Thorndike, devoted much of his career to the problem of measuring such 'productive teaching behaviours' through 'measuring teachers in action' and applying the scientific method and comparative statistical analysis to numerous additional studies which linked teacher competence with such

things as student performance; administrative judgement; pupil judgement; lay person's judgement; testing procedures; judgements of professional faculty; and judgements of bureau personnel. But, the 'productive' unit was to be the atomised 'teacher behaviour'. That is, unlike the classic case of the solitary shoemaker of the 1880's, disintegrated in to some sixty-five factory located tasks manned by individual workers, it was found that the teacher could not be so disintegrated. The teacher was therefore retained as the solitary worker, but the teaching task itself would be atomised, standardised and made neatly linear. (Johnson, 1984, p 56). This new techno-pedagogy had as its midwife Thorndike who, emulating and acknowledging the debt to Darwin, believed that man's 'original bodily nature' had been discovered. Thorndike had indeed a clear sense of purpose, the principal element of which

... was the reform of man and his institutions through the agency of science, and particularly by science of education, which he ... thought finally possible. (Johnson, 1984, p 57)

This new science of the classroom offered exact guidance for 'practice' in education,

... just as physics can determine directly what constitutes good procedure in engineering, because we have discovered the true nature of the learning process and hence the principal of manipulation and control of any being that learns, from the invertebrates through the primates. This learning is the consequence of an associative mechanism and is definable in terms of stimulus and response. The laws governing this process, are the Law of Effect and the Law of Exercise. (Johnson, 1984, p 57 citing Thorndike)

The link with behaviourism is all too clear and becomes manifest in the reductionist language and policy thereafter enacted. Education and schooling in the USA, following this logic, were to become more directly productive processes. The teacher would be the 'productive unit' and productive units that followed specified 'teaching behaviours' would secure results in predictable 'student outcomes'. This language is reductionist in the traditional behaviourist sense of the term not only because it ignores individual idiosyncrasies but also because it displays a 'rationalistic and reductivist attitude to knowledge'. (Hyland, 1993, p. 63) In addition, the policies enacted enhanced the position of management at the expense of teacher autonomy, but the management model itself was based on the ideals of 'Fordism' where,

[i]n essence, ... [the model displayed a] ... top-down bureaucratic and hierarchical control, designed to achieve technical efficiency in a stable market place, where product demand [could] be predicted with reasonable certainty over a long period of time. The label 'Fordism' [is] from Henry Ford's archetypal use of mass production. (Hodkinson, 1997, p. 69-70)

Applied to education, the rhetoric and policy clearly considered schools as mini-enterprises within the educational enterprise – itself considered as a national commercial enterprise.

Thus, the curriculum was broken down into discrete subjects with a particular time, place, and instructor for each. Students were to move from class to class, utilizing all the building all the time. Teachers were to be trained in a limited range of subjects for work with a particular age group. The curriculum was to be organised and directed from the top, with teachers administering and testing for the approved competencies. (Wood, 1999, p. 298).

The school, so organised, was like a 'natural' system and would function efficiently with the input, throughput and output responding to stimuli. The view was that the result would be mirrored in the wider national socio-economic structure.

Competence-based models then, as applied in education, do have their roots in pre and post WWII industrial and commercial organisation and management theories, particularly, early American 'scientific management' and 'social efficiency' theories. They are first and foremost defined as managerial tools. They are designed to give managers the right to manage by reference to the individual worker and to the individual task. This is not in and of itself a sufficient criticism as such, but it highlights the contention that *competencies* are embedded within the industrial and commercial worlds as defined – as productive organisations or systems – and defined in terms of irreducible message units which produce measurable outcomes or have individuals enact measurable behaviours.

Full Circle for Competence-Based Models in Education?

Now, latterly, with the return of much of this rhetoric from the late 1960s onwards, there has been the resurrection of many of these techniques. The logic of behaviourism intertwined with the systems approach to organisational structures has now given a form of legitimation to the present endorsement of the almost *reified* notions of 'competence' that currently permeate the 'accountability movement's' discourse on education. Attempts to have education and schooling respond just as in

a manufacturing productive process have now been consistently applied throughout the latter post WWII period on both sides of the Atlantic, but the goal in fact still remains elusive. (House, 1978) Notwithstanding, the current trend is to stipulate competencies and assess the degree to which individual teachers possess such teacher competencies – it is also to facilitate a Competence Based Education and Training (CBET) system for learners which gives discrete measurable outcomes. In effect it is to develop an educational productive process that would ‘mimic industry’.

The actual application of a systems approach to schooling in the first instance was indeed essentially an attempt to manipulate this ‘educational productive process’ and was an attempt to find a means of defining what might be termed a ‘production function’ for education. Analysis of the ends in terms of student success and of the inputs in terms of educational resources left only the teacher in the middle and unaccounted for. But in the post WWII American experience, analysts repeatedly failed to discover any general test score gains as a result of the application of systems theoretic principles to school organisation. (House, 1978) This led government officials in the USA to suggest, rather naïvely it might be reflected, that educators and teachers did not know what they were doing, *managerially*. The result was federal funding cuts and calls for properly trained ‘managers’ to be appointed as school principals and administrators. This

... managerial revolution hit education sooner and more vigorously in the United States than in Britain. ‘Performance accounting’ had become a phrase to conjure with in many American states by the early 1970s, as ‘competence-based curricula’ were introduced with regular state-wide testing to provide legislatures with instant evidence of success or failure. Some states tried to link the distribution of resources to the information such management accounting procedures were expected to yield, but with disappointing results. (Maclure, 1978, p.23)

But, this managerial revolution was also latterly implemented on this side of the Atlantic with public spending reviews and devolved management of resources. It was, however, only partial. The call for properly trained managers might have had to wait a little, but latterly,

[s]ince the reorganisation of local government in 1974, the corporate managers of ... education ... have sought ways of introducing an element of

'performance review' into the administration of education. (Maclure, 1978, p.23)

And now, in the new millennium, with new qualifications such as the SQH designed for those aspiring to headship, the idea of management is in the ascendancy on this side of the Atlantic too.

In conjunction and compounding the management problem at a local level, in at least the USA, was always the problem of actually defining teachers' tasks or 'teaching behaviours'. Indeed, while

[i]n spite of the obvious misgivings of teachers' unions, the concept of such an accounting process was largely accepted, ... the interpretation of evidence remained as problematical as ever. (Maclure, 1978, p.23)

In the systems structure however, the proposed solution was quite simple – the teachers' job could be further redefined in terms of the objectives or tasks the student was expected to perform. The teacher could then be held accountable for seeing that students performed their tasks. Behavioural objectives for students were thus considered as the way to bridge the gap. In actuality, the frequently used measure in practice was the further surrogate measure of student test scores. The logic was thus – the higher the student' test scores the more effective the teacher – observe and examine the practice of teachers with students who have the highest test scores, distinguish them from those teachers with students who have the lowest test scores and then catalogue what it is they do that is different – model general teaching practice on this 'best practice', defined in competencies, and universal average student test scores will then improve. The problem was how to define and catalogue the 'practices' in practice – the solution, ask the students to spell out what makes an effective teacher.

In the opening chapter, contrasting the list of pupil statements from Kratz (1896, p.417) with the list of pupil statements from Hay/McBer (2000, Preface) allowed the drawing of a conclusion that there was some form of Foucauldian *genealogy* inherent within the statements. It was also considered that there was a power/knowledge implication in using the statements as some form of definitive of teacher effectiveness. This again, should not go unnoticed at this juncture. The voice of the pupil is being used to command respect in the discourse and to disarm the

professional discourse of teachers. Articulating pupil opinions of what constitutes effective teaching is simply a means of gaining the moral high ground and playing to the public gallery. This is not to deny the validity of pupils' opinions. On the contrary it is testimony to the weight such opinions carry that they are now central to the discourse, but it questions the legitimation of their use by political protagonists.

Thus, it might be reflected, accountability has come full circle from the Bobbitt/Cubberley model of post WWI America, but full circle with a new piece of terminology in its armoury – *competencies*. Together, with a systems approach and revitalised behavioural objectives or outcomes, increasingly sophisticated and newly devised *competencies* have become the proposed standard for assessing teacher effectiveness.

However, in more recent developments, it is now what is termed the 'overarching competencies' of the teacher that are posited as the determinants of the students behavioural outcomes. Technically, therefore, this is a move beyond simple behaviourism. Indeed, looking at overarching competencies of teachers is not too easily reconciled with behaviourism at all because the overarching competencies are considered more as 'qualities' and as such frustrate simple attempts at atomisation into individual 'teacher behaviours'. But in this there is a further complication of conceptualising what constitutes 'teacher competencies'. The significance of this cannot be overlooked for it is the fundamental re-legitimation of a behaviourist mantle in schooling, with the emphasis not directly on the teacher but on the performance of the pupil or student. The paradox is, it is the opinion of the pupil or student that is now sought and is used to thereafter determine the 'atomised teacher behaviours' which are individually important and thence, from which, attempts are made to articulate such individual teacher 'practices' as a conglomerate of generic 'good practice'. This it might be reflected is a change in emphasis from what teachers 'do to' pupils to one which emphasises what teachers 'do for' pupils.

Ideological Overtones

Returning for the present, to the particular importance for policy on this side of the Atlantic, this full circle of accountability is also coincident with the rise of the

'New Right' and the political/economic ideology based on the contention of the superiority of the market in resource allocation. The Austrian School, the Chicago School and the Liverpool School of broadly 'Monetarist' economic principles, following the views of Friedrich August von Hayek, (more correctly von Mises and Rothbard), Milton Friedman and Patrick Mintford respectively, translated easily in to social policy where economic liberalism was partnered with a distinctively moral conservatism. The onus was on the individual to be upstanding and this sentiment dovetailed with the thrust from the accountability movement to hold the individual not the institution to account. But, what is more interesting from an immediate policy impact, in part, in connecting this ideological occurrence with the forgoing outline of the links between scientific management, behaviourism and systems approaches and their application to schooling and education, is the evident naïvety with which many commentators of the time approached this 'ideological earthquake'. In relying on early references for much of the historical detail above, this point is drawn out, through not only the apparent willingness of many commentators to join in discussion and early critique of the 'failure of education' to address intractable problems of social and economic dysfunction, but also through an initial active engagement with and endorsement of the competence model. This willingness belies ingenuousness on the part of 'left of centre' commentators in the 'New Right's' apparently benign invitation for critique and their subsequent proposals for policy at that time in the 1980s. What transpired was anything but benign. The left's critique was turned in upon itself and then used with devastating effect by the 'New Right'. (Taguieff, 1993/94). Johnson's analysis, (1984) in this light, is the epitome of the left's rearguard critique, smarting from its inability to counter the New Right's populist censure of 'failed' leftist policies on both sides of the Atlantic. This interesting incidence of seeming policy proselytisation by the 'New Right' merits attention on its own, and has indeed been alluded to in Chapter 3, because of its influence on the accountability movement in general. Suffice to point out, as suggested above, it reflects an advancement in the discourse of significant magnitude bearing on what Marshall considers as the advancement of 'regulative rules' under the umbrella of 'constitutive rules'. (Marshall, 1999, p. 311; after Searle, 1965). However, for present purposes, noting the coincident nature of the rise of the New Right and the emphasis on competence derived from systems

theories and behaviourist approaches serves only to underscore the view that a simplistic and technicist approach to educational policy formulation thereafter ensued, but ensued for managerial purposes rather than because of pedagogical advances. For some, the actual promotion of competence methods at that time can only really be understood in terms of the aspirations of the 'New Right' and their desire to change the culture of British institutions in the direction of a 'neo-liberal market ideology'. (Jones & Moore, 1995, p. 78; Brundrett, 2000, p. 359). Thus, in this context, there is a 'social disembedding' (Jones & Moore, 1993, p.389, cited by Stronnach, *et al*, 1993, p.119) of knowledge through the use of competence that

... involves a denial of theory in favour of the alleged transparency of performances which can be prescribed, defined and assessed. (Stronnach, *et al*, 1993, p.119)

In a distinctively Scottish context, this view was indeed criticised by Stronnach, *et al* (1993). A technicist interpretation does not do justice to the 'domestication' (Stronnach, *et al*, 1993) of policy in Scotland. On this view, there is a degree of 'horse-trading' that takes place around the consultation process that results in cumbersome compromise. With regard to such procedures involved in producing the *Guidelines '93*, it is suggested that there was a series of political compromises, with liberals insisting on 'critical' and 'reflexive' elements and pushing to identify 'commitments' that go beyond 'mere' competences, coupled with a more hard line demand for a tightening up of language so that passive verbs like 'have' become 'set' or 'identify'. There appeared on the surface at least to be an overall process of 'liberal recapture' of hard line views, but even if there was not, to understand the production of these 'competences' in the *Guidelines '93*, Stronnach *et al* (1993) insist that the actual circumstances of their production have to be taken in to account. Thus, in the case of such 'soft' social technologies as 'competences' the social and political fluidity of their definition and construction is vivid. (Stronnach, *et al*, 1993, p.124)

Some Significances of Competence for Assessing Teacher Effectiveness

The emphasis on competence and *competencies* stemming from management theories and organisation theories, adopted by the New Right political ideology and enacted in policy, is an interesting outcome from this concatenation of

developments. It is significant because of the simplistic and technicist approach to social policy that it appears to endorse. It is also significant because, as pointed out, the crucial element in any system, from a systems perspective, is the unit of measurement – competence. But competence itself, as generally understood, is a global term. For it to apply in a systems approach the conventional *global* notion of competence, of necessity has to be refined to *a* competence. That is, a non-collective, non-abstract singular noun, with a plural; ‘*competencies*’. But as it was ordinarily and historically understood, competence was defined as ‘adequacy for a task’ or ‘the possession of required knowledge, skills and abilities’. That is, it provided a general appraisal of the *nous*, or interaction between the knowledge & understanding and the set of individual skills and abilities in relation to accomplishing a brief, that an individual might possess. However, this short generalised notion is too vague for specific use in a systems framework and a new understanding and a new term – *competency* – is needed. This then requires that ‘competency’ come to mean simply ‘the ability to do’ something, in contrast to the more traditional emphasis on ‘the ability to demonstrate knowledge’ in relation to the execution of a commission in a non specific situation. Competencies are thereafter a logical extension. This is indeed a significant semantic shift which will be addressed more fully in a conceptual analysis of competence. Suffice that it is noted at this juncture, that there has been a semantic shift of some significance and that this calls in to question, or at least demands deeper analysis of, the conceptualisation of the ‘irreducible unit’ of measurement, however it may be conceived in management and organisational theories. (Short, 1985)

This change of emphasis on what constitutes competence coupled with a variety of definitions of the term, however, has further given rise to a number of additional but related difficulties in applying such a model to education. The kinship of the competence vocabulary in education with the accountability movement, the managerial approach to productive activity, and the technological paradigm of thinking, as noted, is not hard to recognise. In truth therefore, it must be conceded that the thrust has always been to find effective and efficient ways to organise schools and minimise expenses. Thus, the problem has always been formulated as a management problem rather than as a problem of pedagogical excellence. (Short,

1985). The teacher as productive unit is there to be managed and the pupils and students as throughput and output are there to be measured and monitored for 'value added'. But this formulation of the problem has serious consequences for those employed at the chalk-face. Indeed there are implications for the independence and autonomy of education in general, but more specifically for the independence and autonomy of the teacher in particular as a result.

Teacher autonomy, it has to be recognised, is actually an inconvenience because it militates against the use of quantification; it is an inconvenience because it militates against effective and efficient ways to organise schools and minimise expenses; it is an inconvenience because it militates against the formulation of the problem as a management problem. The aims of the teacher, it should be concluded, might be somewhat at odds with the aims of the organisation. (Indeed a participative analysis of teachers and administrators 'personal constructs' of teaching might be a salutary experience for many in Scottish Education). In this light, the competency movement must be seen as contributing to the fact that teachers are no longer considered as 'independent professionals' developing their professionalism through the 'evolving reality of life and work in schools'. (Ribbens, 1990, p. 92). Indeed, recasting the criteria for evaluating teacher effectiveness in terms of competencies is politically convenient because it confers additional power on those who seek to control teacher educators and teachers. (McNamara, 1992, p. 273)

With this in mind and, as pointed out previously, while the application of competence models within education has not been wholeheartedly endorsed, it has been suggested that it is appealing to administrators and those researchers who are far removed from the chalk-face. This is so because of the emphasis on the individual teacher and the fact that it permits of much more rigorous definitions of teachers' tasks and of schools as organisations which can be monitored and managed. This appeal, it might be surmised, is rooted in acceptance of the fact that when teacher effectiveness is measured against a collection of competencies – blame for any failure within the system can be laid at the door of the teacher who does not measure up, or with the inadequacy of the list of competencies, which can be revised and enhanced to accommodate eventualities. (And thus, to use the vernacular,

thereafter be used to ‘weed out’ incompetent teachers). Blame, it has to be concluded, is easily deflected from the door of the organisation itself and thus from the administrators. The corollary of this is that teacher autonomy is a significant protection for teachers because such autonomy, in the first instance, if permitted, must be bestowed on the teacher by the organisation rather than claimed directly by the teacher. Any failure of the system under such a formulation must then lie within the organisation because it is the organisation that is ultimately seen to be at fault for having failed to ensure proper levels of propriety in the selection and/ or monitoring process when devolving autonomy to the teacher. Teacher autonomy therefore, is not only an obstacle to the efficient use of competence models as a means of appraising teachers it is also an obstacle to exonerating the organisation from responsibility for any failure. The more general point, systems theory, behaviourism and the unit of accountability – competencies – insulates organisations. The problem – such insulation is dependent on the technological/scientific managerial paradigm deriving from the dominant epistemology of Western society – the mechanist or organicist ‘world hypotheses’ of Pepper (1942) and this is based on increasingly questionable assumptions. (Collin, 1989, p. 22)

Some Implications

In a UK ITE/T context, McNamara points out that the use of the competence-based model is actually a switch from an emphasis on the process of teacher training to a focus on competences and that this switch is a convenience for policy makers because as the requirements of ‘society’ change, so too the list of competences can be amended to meet the new circumstances.

It is a shift in focus from course process to course outcomes and this has considerable implications for teacher training and CPD, because once the emphasis is placed upon ‘outcomes’ the training process itself is called into question and is ‘up for grabs’. There is no longer any difficulty in reconciling criteria so that they relate to different routes into teaching, be they conventional or non-conventional modes of training. In this way the institutional context and form of teacher training ceases to be important, what matters are the competences students can demonstrate after the completion of a variety of training experiences. Moreover, any form of

training becomes problematic; a prospective teacher who has worked in industry, the services, or other walks of life may be presumed to already possess many of the required competences and, so it may be argued, training may need to offer little more than provide the requisite extra competences. Such a view is not far-fetched, as is illustrated by Her Majesty's Inspectors' (HMI) discussion of industrial training and its bearing upon teacher training (DES, 1989a) and Hargreaves' (1989) proposal to reduce the length of training for those students who demonstrate competence before the completion of their course. Finally, prescribing teacher education in terms of competence outcomes does to a marked degree determine the content of the curriculum; teacher trainers are not free to decide how to train teachers as they judge professionally appropriate. For example, the Consultation Document's competence statements have removed reference to gender and multicultural issues, dimensions of teacher education which many teacher educators consider it essential for their courses to address. (McNamara, D. 1992)

For McNamara this use of the notion of competence must be distinguished from that which regards 'competences' as a set of specific attributes or skills which teachers can deploy as circumstances warrant. The distinction must be made between competence in the sense of referring to a person who possesses certain qualities which enable them to perform competently in a particular field of activity, and competence in the sense of referring to one of a number of specific, discrete attributes possessed by someone which enables them to perform in designated ways. With respect to teaching, this distinction articulates in a different guise the debate about the teacher's qualities and dispositions and the particular skills which may be expected from the 'good' teacher. Any adequate treatment of such issues must, of course, raise questions about the nature of teaching. Thus we are reminded that any definition of teaching is normative and that any discussion of competence rests upon values and beliefs; what constitutes competence means different things to different people and a list of competence statements can never provide an impartial designation of how the 'good' teacher should be able to perform. (McNamara, D. 1992) Chapters 9, 10, 11, and 12 will address this fundamental distinction when the conceptualisation of competence is subjected to scrutiny.

McNamara further suggests that 'it does not follow that competent teachers are effective teachers and beyond some reasonably commonplace observations it is not even possible to say in any precise way what competences are necessary prerequisites for effectiveness.'

Undercurrents in the Competence-based Approach

From the outline presented above and from previous chapters there are discernible undercurrents which suggest that there may be two competing conceptualisations of teachers and teaching. In spite of the variety of teacher models one might consider, most models do conform to one or other of two basic ideologies, and consequently two basic models of a teacher. Teaching can be considered as an applied science requiring the training of skills, or teaching might be considered as a reflective practice requiring the education of the whole teacher.

The former of these conceptualisations might be considered to be reflected in the Hay/McBer report commissioned by the DfEE. In its introduction it states,

At the start of our research we had no pre-conceived views about the specific skills or characteristics that lead to effectiveness in the classroom. (DfEE, 2001, p.1)

The reference to skills and characteristics presupposes that teaching is quantifiable in some way which thus lends itself to a competency-based approach to the analysis of teachers. The report is therefore firmly within the industrial/commercial/organisational mould. This is hardly surprising. The Boston-based firm of American consultants, McBer, have been instrumental in developing an approach to management selection procedures which is called 'Competency Analysis' since the 1970s.

SECTION IV
THE MEASURES

Chapter 6

Developing Measures of Teacher Effectiveness and Competence

Introduction

There has indeed been a burgeoning of published literature on the whole notion of teacher effectiveness and teacher competence in recent years in the UK and in all Western democracies, but the focus of this section is ultimately about the development and production of the actual measures that posit criteria for the assessment of teacher effectiveness and teacher competence. Thus, while the published literature that deals with wider justifications for measures or attempts to suggest moral imperatives for the criteria for measures has relevance, it does not have the consequence, at this moment, of the particular literature which attempts to outline and give examples of criteria either in use or proposed. Nevertheless, salient pieces of the general literature that bear on the development of measures of teacher effectiveness and on the criteria of competence will necessarily receive some attention at this juncture, if to do nothing more than address issues of wider justifications and moral imperatives, before introducing the measures proposed in various reports. It is not intended by this, therefore, that this constitute a literature review, just more a pressing need to ‘romp through’ the contemporary general literature and the historical, to somehow ‘set the scene’ before outlining the political machinations that ensued, both north and south of the border in the context of the UK, because there are important parallels and significant background influences that have direct relevance for conceiving of teaching as an activity that can appraised by ‘measures’ of effectiveness and competence. Historical and political precedents have indeed been resurrected and an apparent cyclical return to a ‘conservatism’ with a small ‘c’, is manifest in some of the current conceptions of teaching, it is

therefore valuable, initially in this opening chapter of this section, to consider some of these parallels, background influences and the policy agenda in general in both contemporary and historical guise.

Measures and Orthodoxies

As has been alluded to, but not specifically stated in any direct way, throughout the last thirty or so years, there has been critical industrial and political opinion of education that has suggested the failure of schools to respond to the pressing needs of the economy, represents both a reduction in economic competitiveness and a failing of the children concerned because their education is then irrelevant to their future working situations. A degree of professional opinion too over the same period supported a desire for a radical restructuring of curricula – although as has also been alluded to, this might have been for entirely different reasons – and while many teachers questioned the narrow vocational restructuring implied by industrial critical opinion, they did indeed endorse the need to make education more accessible, less narrowly academic and for it to focus on the needs of the main stakeholders – the pupils. Public opinion swithered, but in general understood the predicament and held at least that education should be a high priority for the Government to address.

The reaction of policy-makers over this same period, however, faced with such public, professional, and industrial concern over the effectiveness and perceived shortcomings of state schooling, was to emphasise ‘value for money’ rather than consider the possibility that more money and more costly resources might be required. This outcome is hardly surprising since the dominant economic orthodoxy that took hold in the nineteen eighties, following the rise of the New Right, had as its basis the fundamentals of late nineteenth/early twentieth century classical and post WWI neo-classical economic theories rewritten as, in the vernacular, ‘monetarism’. The result was an emphasis on the efficacy of ‘market forces’ to promote improvements through economic efficiency and rational management, rather than on a need for any direct increase in the level of fiscal investment *per se*. In line with this mode of thinking, and mirroring early attempts to find a ‘production function’ for education, as outlined in earlier chapters, it was apparent that there was indeed a concerted effort to have schooling, if not all of education, viewed as an

economic commodity that could be bought and sold in discrete quantities. This was most evident in a return to and

... use of language commonly employed in commerce and industry ('audit', 'cost-effective', 'norms of quality') [revealing an] ... adherence ... to an investment-return model of education. (Humes, 1986, p.74)

Applying elements of such a classical/neo-classical model of economic theory to schooling thus implies that the end results of schooling are more directly related to the quality of the investment, ascertained through a cost benefit analysis, and not the level of investment *per se*. From this perspective there was then the need to

... ensure a better match between staff qualifications and teaching tasks ... (Evans, 1985, p.163. citing D.E.S, 1983).

Or, in other words, there was a need to find measures of assessing teacher effectiveness and teacher competence.

This orthodoxy in the 1980s focused on what became known, again in the vernacular, as 'teacher appraisal'. Schemes were developed and proposals were produced with ever more elaborate methodologies. Organisations, faculties of education, and government 'think tanks' all contributed. Fact finding missions cruised the world for exemplars and the Government of the New Right, debated the best means of introducing the direct appraisal of individual teachers. As with the return to a classical economic orthodoxy of the 'market' for the running of the British economy, applied to schools there was a similar return to a conservative orthodoxy of 'codes' for teachers. Reflecting on what has already been pointed out, the Revised Code of 1862 that had endorsed a model of the teacher as a 'hired drill instructor, attendance officer and register falsifier', whose fitness to teach was assessed by means of 'principles of ideological reliability, principles of competent social control and principles of efficient pedagogic work production', now conjures up a striking if somewhat primitive parallel.

It is illuminating therefore, to review a little more of the basis for this 'orthodoxy' and in particular to examine a little of its historical legacy. As previously mentioned, and while it should not be overstated, there are significant similarities in what pertained in the latter nineteenth century and what pertains in the present day, where, within the social and political context of state provided

schooling in Britain, there are reminiscences of a parallel climate of action and reaction. (Grace, 1985, p.13) The strictures of the Revised Code were actually roundly criticised then, for their influence on the curriculum, and the actual feeling at the time was that, as with

... all questions of great complication, the true effect of the Revised Code is difficult to ascertain with accuracy. Its apparent tendency was to contract instruction within the strict limits of the rudiments, and thus to favour the abandonment of those higher subjects, on a due fusion of which depends the training of the intellectual faculties. There is also some evidence in the years following 1861 of a general decline not only in the extent of the subjects of instruction, but in the success with which the purely elementary subjects were taught; and some writers have roundly asserted that the Revised Code discouraged attention to grammar, history, and geography, without doing anything to improve the instruction in elementary subjects. (Mackenzie, 1892, Preface pp.vii-viii)

This is indeed typical of critical professional reaction to schemes of teacher appraisal in the present day.

The Legacy of Nineteenth Century ‘Teacher Appraisal’

From this historical perspective, the principles upon which the formulation of measures of assessing fitness to teach were based, tended to be related more to the character of the teacher than to any particular academic or professional attributes or personal traits. Grace, (1985) as noted earlier, indeed suggested that this reflected a paramount concern principally with *ideological* reliability and that

... the good student and the good teacher was preeminently at this time one whose character and general ideological stance was acceptable to the authorities and one who could be relied upon to act as an agent of social control and social cohesion ... (Grace, 1985, p.6)

The basic contention of Grace's argument is, therefore, that the criteria for assessing a teacher's fitness to teach in the latter half of the nineteenth century were in fact overtly political. Accordingly, such criteria were of a diffuse and highly subjective nature. The criteria of teacher effectiveness and competence were indeed enshrined in the prescribed levels of student or pupil attainment consequent upon Lowe's Revised Code. A view of the Revised Code recorded this, simply stating, the

... two main points of this Code were that the Parliamentary grant should be paid directly to the school managers, who were to arrange all questions of stipend with their teachers, and that the amount of the grant should depend.

largely on the recorded result of the individual examination of the scholars. (Mackenzie, 1892, Preface p.vii)

The system, [was thus] popularly characterised as a system of 'payment by results.' (Mackenzie, 1892, p.121)

In this way the ascendance of political control over education was assured and maintained. Fitness to teach in this context then, had little to do with any real measure of pedagogic competence and more to do with measures of ideological reliability expressed as social control. A duality of theme that should not pass unrecognised.

Nevertheless, as is the case with most far reaching reforms it would appear that there were at least two undercurrents working simultaneously. By the late nineteenth century ideological reliability, social control and 'value for money' were all also articulated with a growing and very genuine desire among educators for more adequate educational provision. There were indeed many concerns about the actual dilution of standards as the teaching force was expanded to meet the demand after the 1870 Elementary Education Act. (1872 in Scotland).

The number of pupil-teachers was rapidly increased and training college courses were shortened and certification manipulated in order to get bodies into classrooms. (Evans, 1985, p.170)

In the face of this rapid expansion, J.M.D. Meiklejohn at St Andrews and S.S. Laurie at Edinburgh, appointed as the occupants of the first two chairs of education in 1876, determined that teachers and teaching should be welded into a profession. They emphasised training and certification and while in actuality training provision lagged behind, there was a concerted effort to have teachers 'certificated'. The teachers' professional pedagogical attributes were now also under scrutiny, but even as late as the 1890s, the conditions for receipt of the Parliamentary Grant reveal the limited nature of such certification.

6. The principal teacher must be certificated.(g) *Exceptions* : –(A.) A school with an average attendance of not more than sixty scholars may receive an annual grant if the principal teacher is provisionally certificated. (B.) An evening school may receive an annual grant if the principal teacher is over eighteen years of age and approved by the inspector. (Mackenzie, 1892, p.122)

Certification, therefore, had only to extend to the principal teacher, and this set of conditions was recorded as late as 1891.

Nevertheless, attention was thus latterly focused upon the actual quality of provision of education in schools and the pedagogical attributes of teachers. The inclusion of the Revised Code of 1862 within the Elementary Education Act of 1870 would, it was argued at the time, regardless of the actual historical outcome, provide for the maintenance of minimum standards in examinations for pupils and consequently there would be the corollary of minimum standards of training for elementary teachers.

Ideological measures for assessing fitness to teach articulated with measures of competence to teach then, were thus both considered necessary to ensure the maintenance of ideological reliability and of teacher quality. The dominance of ideological measures might have disguised a disregard for concerns of contraction of instruction to the rudiments, and with the lack of success with which the purely elementary subjects were taught. But again, however, for the focus of this section, the apparent dual nature of the measures should also not go unrecorded. Fitness to teach and teacher competence were in fact being considered as two quite distinct elements – one ideological, the other pedagogical. More importantly, providing for the maintenance of minimum standards in examinations for pupils and minimum standards of training for elementary teachers was becoming such an important issue, that the pedagogical measures were ever becoming of increasing importance but, it must be reflected, never dominant.

‘Teacher Appraisal’ in the Contemporary Context

As was the case with the far reaching reforms of the late nineteenth century, with at least two undercurrents working simultaneously, the origins of the growing interest in present day ‘teacher appraisal’, according to Evans & Tomlinson, (1989), are also rooted in two streams of activity. One, the general desire for increased accountability of publicly provided services – considered to be ideologically motivated – the other,

... a hitherto suppressed professional agenda among those in the education service who wish[ed] to widen curricula and make them more appropriate - especially to achieve ‘secondary education for all’ – and who welcome[d] the opportunities for broader alliances in local communities and industry in support of education enterprise. (Evans & Tomlinson. 1989, p.13)

This might be considered as both ideologically and pedagogically motivated since it deals with the curriculum, but additionally, as has been mentioned in the previous section, there is also a re-affirmation of the nineteenth century belief in the 'free market' as a mechanism for allocating resources. In relation to schooling, this has resulted in a general re-appraisal of school curricula and of their relevance to the needs of a competitive economy because schools and their 'product' are now considered much more as 'economic resources'. Efforts are therefore aimed at streamlining the process of schooling to address more directly the needs of the economy. That this is reminiscent of the motivations behind the drive for pedagogical efficiency prevalent in the early twentieth century American experience should not be too surprising. Nor should the resultant reactions and actions of present day policy makers.

Against a background of economic stringency, the New Right considered that state provision of education required more national coordination in practice. The realisation that this would be a most difficult task to accomplish, when there was a view of teaching from within which still emphasised the professional and autonomous status of teachers, determined largely the tactics of political involvement and policy formulation. In three basic stages therefore, an increasing centralisation of the educational enterprise was achieved. In the first instance there was a need to highlight the 'crisis in the curriculum', which Callaghan's Ruskin College Speech of 1976 had most conveniently done. While the result of this was the Green Paper, *Education in Schools*, (DES. 1977), which gave focus to the disparate strands of the accountability movement, the suppressed agenda among those in education and the recognised need for economy in provision of public services, it was the incoming Conservative Government of 1979 that capitalised on all of this and ensured that the public were vitally aware of this 'crisis in the curriculum'. Secondly, there was the need to question the actual quality of provision in state schools themselves. The publication of *Teaching Quality*, (DES 1983), and *Better Schools*, (DES 1985) did precisely that, so that particular attention could be drawn to the failings of individual schools and more particularly to the failings of individual teachers. Crude comparisons of school with school directly influenced parental concerns with the quality of provision of education for their own offspring

and provided support for the third stage of the agenda – a simple solution. It was then easily proposed that a national system of school teacher appraisal would remove ineffective teachers and thus raise the quality of state provided education. *Quality in Schools: evaluation and appraisal*, (DES 1985) and *School Teacher Appraisal: A National Framework*, (DES 1989b) were the two papers that paved the way for such appraisal.

This is a highly selective and over-simplified view of this political process, but it is one which the public found easy to assimilate. The major role of the media in propagating this clichéd view of schooling resulted in a proposed solution which many parents endorsed. In addition, many teachers also accepted that there was truth in the contention that there were ineffective teachers in schools. Thus, even if they disagreed with and were suspicious of particular elements of the political rhetoric, teachers themselves desired a more formalised system of determining or appraising the effectiveness or competence of individuals in schools and the education service.

Proposals For Measures of ‘Teacher Appraisal’

From the mid 1970s there has been considerable interest in developing systems of teacher appraisal aimed at improving the quality of educational provision and the culmination of this early interest was indeed then the publication of *Quality in Schools: Evaluation and Appraisal*. (DES, 1985) This defined staff appraisal as an activity which

... involves qualitative judgements about performance and although it may start as self-appraisal by the teacher, it will normally involve judgements by other persons responsible for that teacher’s work – a head of department or year, the headteacher, a member of the senior management team or an officer of the LEA. This appraisal may well (and usually does) include the identification of professional development needs. (DES. 1985)

The implication contained in this quotation is that there would be some form of checklist of criteria against which the effective performance of a teacher might be measured in qualitative, if not actual quantitative terms. The last sentence, however, highlights the contentious nature of teacher appraisal at the time and appears more as an afterthought, possibly directed at the appeasement of teacher unions, still involved, in 1985, in a long running dispute over conditions of service, than a

principal aim of the proposed appraisal process *per se*. Indeed, this same DES publication

... distinguished between staff appraisal and staff development. The latter they perceive to be concerned with 'general matters of in-service training needs and career development and may be based on Staff Appraisal'. (Mathias & Jones, 1989, p.9)

The basic contention, therefore, appears that appraisal of competence is a 'stand alone' necessity and also may be a prerequisite of staff development, thus endorsing to a considerable degree the view of a deficit model of teacher competence.

From the time of publication of this document, interest in and activity on the development of a national system of appraisal of teachers increased dramatically. It was indeed envisaged that there would be an agreed national framework for teacher appraisal and, under Section 49 (Chapter 61) of the *Education Act 1986*, it was made possible for the Education Minister to make regulations which would require LEAs and boards of management of schools in England and Wales to accommodate such a framework without recourse to a further Act of Parliament. It was anticipated that such regulations would be made in the Autumn of 1989, but in the event the then Education Secretary, John McGregor, (1989-90), announced, late in 1989, that such a scheme, following hard on curricular change, would be better served at a later date. In 1991, however, Kenneth Clarke (Education Secretary 1990-92) introduced the *School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Act* and established a review body and again, later in 1992, John Patten his successor (1992-94) established the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) through the *Education (Schools) Act 1992*. These Acts further prepared the ground for 'participatory' teacher appraisal systems in England and Wales, but it was not until 1996, under Gillian Shephard (1994-97), that the *Education Act 1996*, a huge act in itself, mainly consolidating all previous education acts since 1944, legislated for teacher appraisal, making it a requirement, but only a requirement in England and Wales.

In the immediate case of Scotland, the ending of the two year long teachers' dispute in 1986 was accompanied by the publication of the Main Report which recommended that

... those responsible for the education service should be capable of removing inadequate teachers in the interests of the pupils; and that the identification of such teachers should be done by an open, fair and formalised appraisal of competence and by an assessment system that is inextricably tied to mechanisms for in-service training or other forms of help. (Main, 1986, paragraph 6.14, p.69)

In the event the recommendations of the Main Report were not implemented because the report itself was superseded by events. But elements of this recommendation pertaining to the appraisal of competence were included in the *Self-Governing Schools etc. (Scotland) Act 1989*. Clause 64 of this Act gives the Secretary of State for Scotland similar power to that of the Education Minister for England and Wales, namely the ability to effect teacher appraisal by regulation rather than by having to resort to a separate Act of Parliament. Thus, the Secretary of State for Scotland could now also require the education authorities, boards of management of self-governing schools, and managers of grant-aided schools to appraise regularly the performance of teachers. In actuality, to facilitate the dismissal of teachers, Clause 66 of this Act repealed Clause 88 of the *Education (Scotland) Act 1980*. This clause had stated that a two-thirds majority of at least half of the local authority's education committee was required before a teacher could be dismissed of his or her service. It was intended, by the repeal of this clause, that the dismissal of teachers would become the sole responsibility of the local authority, if not in practice the local school board. However, a little known clause in the *Local Government (Scotland) Act 1973*, stated that, 'No arrangement shall be made by an education authority for the discharge other than by their education committee of any function in regard to the dismissal of teachers.' (*Local Government (Scotland) Act 1973*, paragraph 6, Schedule 10) This presented the then Secretary of State for Scotland, Malcolm Rifkind, with a considerable problem. The repeal of Clause 88, it was speculated, had indeed been engineered by his then Minister for Education Michael Forsyth, to make the dismissal of teachers easy. The Government's intention by its repeal was to facilitate the ability of LEAs to wield power and for them to have the potential to 'hire-and-fire' teachers. Thus, the stipulation within paragraph 6, Schedule 10 of the 1973 Act, was in reality more than a simple inconvenience – it effectively nullified any attempt to have measures of teacher competence ratified for the purposes of dismissal of practicing teachers by means of the statutory power granted in the 1989 Act. It also negated the direct legislative

route that was eventually taken in England and Wales. The problem was that unless and until a further Act of Parliament repealed the *Local Government (Scotland) Act 1973*, the threat of ‘hire-and-fire’ power, granted through the *Self-Governing Schools etc. (Scotland) Act 1989*, was a damp squib in the context of Scotland.

Notwithstanding, Michael Forsyth turned his attention to a second strand necessary for his view of teacher appraisal – the curriculum. An earlier but discarded 10-14 report had pointed to the discontinuity between primary and secondary schools. Now this theme was taken up again and with the consultation document *Curriculum and Assessment: a Policy for the 90s* (SOED 1987) a new 5-14 programme emerged. This established a pseudo National Curriculum in Scotland, but more importantly a programme of National Testing. National Testing allowed comparisons to be made and this meant comparisons of local authorities with local authorities, schools with schools, and most importantly teachers with teachers. Ever more elaborate statistical analysis of testing and of exam results has permitted the direct comparison of cohorts of pupils and has provided a statistical cudgel to challenge teachers’ effectiveness. There was no attempt to place the new 5-14 programme on statute, but that it was intended to be a National Curriculum was not in doubt. It is possible that Forsyth had a foreboding, if he were to legislate, of being embroiled in a ‘thicket of prescriptive measures’ (Thatcher, 1993, p. 593) which had actually ensued in the case of a statutory National Curriculum in England & Wales. In the event, the programme was implemented and this established grounds for a legitimate questioning – if pupils from this school with similar characteristics and similar background gained this general level of pass and pupils from this other school gained that general level of pass – the question is, why? The answer, if other things remain equal, must point to the input of the teacher. For the purposes of appraisal, raising the question in this fashion is sufficient, because it establishes in the lay-mind that there must be general if not specific teacher variability that is detrimental to one or other of the schools – there must be explainable variations in the competence level of individual teachers.

The juggernaut of ‘teacher appraisal’ thus continued on its way on both sides of the border – the lived experience of colleagues in England and Wales, testimony to

the full intent of the Government – to have a means at their disposal for the dismissal of teachers considered not competent. But in Scotland, the reshuffle following the ousting of Margaret Thatcher in late 1990, elevated Ian Lang to the top political job in Scotland, Secretary of State, and saw Michael Forsyth move to the Chairmanship of the Conservative Party at Westminster. Immediately the political tone changed, as did the immediate focus of the aim of appraisal. An apparently less confrontational Executive at the Scottish Office viewed initial teacher education as more fruitful ground for regulating teaching and embarked on a consultation exercise that resulted in the publication of *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Training Courses*. (SOED 1993) In addition, however, there was the proposal for local government reform which was finally enacted in 1994, sweeping away the Regions, and particularly Strathclyde Region, created back in 1973 through the *Local Government (Scotland) Act 1973*. The Scottish Office had also embarked upon a consultation exercise in relation to the upper curriculum under the chairmanship of John Howie – a St Andrew’s University Mathematics professor. His committee reported back in 1992 with a plan for a Scottish baccalaureate, but the academic-vocational divide was not welcomed. With the return to the Scottish Office of Michael Forsyth, this time as Secretary of State, in 1995, however, a return to a more dictatorial style ensued and an alternative proposal for a model known as Higher Still with its corollary of melding the Scottish Exam Board (SEB) with the Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC) was tabled. It eventually became the accepted curriculum in Scotland, the SQA being created from the amalgamation of the SEB and SCOTVEC in 1997, but with the first presentations for Higher Still exams not taking place until 2000. The intention was that this would provide a further means of comparison and the formulation of enhanced statistical league tables and comparators of performance. Michael Forsyth, it might appear, would have his day.

With the reform of local government, the establishment of a pseudo National Curriculum in Scotland under the 5-14 and Higher Still programmes, the establishment of competences for initial teacher education through the *Guidelines* '93, the creation of a single examining body, the publication of exam league tables and the hand of Michael Forsyth on the tiller, it might be considered that the ability

to establish a means of direct teacher appraisal was at hand. But in contrast to many initiatives, where Scotland was the testing ground, the astuteness of Michael Forsyth had enabled him to tread a path through the legislative quagmire without resorting to statute and had thus presented him with the possible means of implementation of a programme of teacher appraisal in Scotland, avoiding some of the pitfalls that had beset the process in England. But, before any capital could be gained from the situation, the conservative party had run out of political currency. In 1997, they were swept out of government and swept out of Scotland completely without a single Scottish conservative MP being returned to Westminster. But while the resounding victory of New Labour heralded a change in style, it did not so much herald a change in the agenda.

Nevertheless, and notwithstanding the enormous power now vested in the Scottish Office and directly in the hands of the Secretary of State for Scotland, the question of Devolution was even more pressing. Devolved power and the creation of a Scottish Parliament with Executive powers in 1999 meant effectively, that Brian Wilson, the first Secretary of State for Scotland under the 'New Labour' administration at Westminster, had a limited role in the affairs of Education in Scotland. He did preside over the revision of the *Guidelines '93*, issuing *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland* (SOEID 1998), but he did not directly pursue the appraisal agenda any further.

In the Footsteps – New (Labour) Measures for 'Teacher Appraisal'

With a new 'New Labour' administration taking up the reins of power in 1997, it was anticipated that there would be a less confrontational approach towards appraisal type policy and that there would at least be some kind of moratorium on pressures to appraise teachers. The experience however, has been that to a large extent, the intent is to follow through with established policy. An accountability approach is still being maintained, but now through the adoption of a 'performance management' model. In this, the emphasis has been on the need to improve observation, feedback and target setting skills across the profession. The work of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) in England, into the shortcomings of appraisal in the 1990s, fed in to the 1998 green paper, *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of*

Change. This green paper set out much of New Labour's agenda for modernising the teaching profession through promoting excellent leadership, through recruiting and retaining high quality classroom teachers and through providing better support for all teachers. (Reeves, et al, 2002, p. 22) The aim and the intent, is now to have a means of assessing the effectiveness of teachers, a softer and much less confrontational discourse. Subsequently, the government has continued to publish papers and reports with a direct relevance for issues of 'performance management' and variously, directly/ indirectly, for appraising the 'performance' of teachers. (DfEE, 1998a; DfEE, 1998b; DfEE, 1999a; DfEE 1999b; DfEE, 2000a; DfEE, 2000b; DfEE, 2000c; DfEE, 2000d; DfEE, 2000e; DfEE, 2001; DfEE, 2001a; DfEE, 2001b) Two of these reports are worthy of note – *High Expectations and Standards for All, No Matter What: Creating a World Class Education Service in England* (DfEE, 2000b) or the Barbour Report, outlining New Labour's vision, and *Research into Teacher Effectiveness: A Model of Teacher Effectiveness* (DfEE, 2000a) or the Hay/McBer report which proposes a model of teacher effectiveness based on measures of teacher skills, professional characteristics and classroom climate – a view modelling teaching along outcomes.

North of the border, with New Labour initially at the helm and then with the new Scottish Parliament taking up office in 1999, there have been parallel moves, if somewhat more measured and less intense. (SOEID, 1997; SOEID, 1998a; SOEID, 1998b; SOEID, 1998c; SOEID, 1998d; SEED, 2000; SEED, 2002; SE, 2001a; SE, 2001b; QAA, 2000; QAA, 2000; SE, 2002a; SE, 2002b; SE, 2002c; SE, 2002d) Two of these reports are also worthy of note, *A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century; Agreement reached following recommendations made in the McCrone Report* (SE, 2001a) or the McCrone report, and *The Scottish Executive: Report of 'First Stage' Review of Initial Teacher Education* (SE, 2001b) or the Deloitte & Touche report.

The sentiment in all of these reports reflects the continuation of a policy along established lines and firmly embeds such policy in a continuation of the encroachment of Competency Based Education and Training (CBET) in all aspects of both vocational and liberal education. Indeed, in now referring to Initial Teacher Training (ITT) in England and Wales, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) is

approving a further endorsement of this model at significant political levels. In the case of Scotland, Initial Teacher Education (ITE) is the preferred mode of discourse but this may now be under threat as the pressure to address the disparate nature of ITE in Scotland is brought under scrutiny with the pending 'second stage review' of ITE.

Chapter 7

Producing Measures of Competence – International Perspectives

Introduction

As with the burgeoning of literature on measures of teacher effectiveness and competence, so too is there a burgeoning of literature on the production of criteria for teacher appraisal. It is intended in this chapter to review some of the more influential lists of criteria that have emerged from various quarters, but again, this is not meant to constitute a literature review. It is really meant to raise awareness of the fact that there are distinctive emphases to be discerned and to facilitate understanding of the production of lists which purport to break down teaching in such a way as to disintegrate the practice into atomised observable individual behaviours. Secondly, it is intended that this chapter pertain particularly to both the general and specific literature as it applies more directly to England and Wales, with the implicit understanding that it was always the case, before devolution, that legislation south of the border migrated northwards within a few years. So, this literature still has significant relevance for the Scottish context. But in this Scottish context, as has been pointed out, a different legislative framework prevailed which demanded a more unique approach to the production of criteria for teacher appraisal. In addition, the Scottish educational system's distinctiveness from the system in England and Wales would always mean in practice separate legislation regardless of how closely it followed. This peculiarly Scottish context will be dealt with in the next chapter.

Proposed Criteria for 'Teacher Appraisal'

The clearest early expression of a set of criteria for a national framework of teacher appraisal in the UK, appeared in a prompt list contained in the report of the

Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service, (ACAS). (ACAS. 1986. Annex C) In the main, this profile appears to have been adopted and adapted from a list supplied with the Suffolk Report, *Those Having Torches* (Graham, 1985, Annexe, pp.99-100) (cf. Appendix H). This original list of criteria, from the Suffolk Report, was an amalgam of criteria gleaned from international sources. Countries cited in the Suffolk Report are: France, Germany, Canada, USA, and Australia. In addition there are sections which refer to experience in the Service Children's Education Authority, (SCEA), and to experience in Industry, Commerce and other Public Services.

The ACAS prompt list is divided into five main categories each with sub-sections which contain groups of individual criteria. In total there were some thirty-two individual criteria listed and the prompt list appeared in the following manner.

PROMPT LIST (Source: ACAS, 1986, Annex C)

A. THE TEACHER IN THE CLASSROOM

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| Preparation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The activity was part of a properly planned programme -The aim of the activity was clear -A suitable approach was chosen from the options available -Adequate and suitable resources were available -The learning environment had been considered |
| Teaching Skills | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The Material was well presented -The pupils were actively involved -The teacher adapted the approach when necessary -The teacher was aware of the individual needs within the group -The teacher displayed mastery of the subject matter |
| Follow-up | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Homework is regularly set (if appropriate) -Pupils' work is marked and recorded regularly -Pupils receive appropriate feedback about their work -Parents are informed of pupils' work and progress in accordance with school policy -The teacher evaluates the success of his/her teaching |

B. THE TEACHER IN THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| Care for Individual Pupil | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The teacher is involved in the pastoral curriculum -The teacher actively furthers the aims and discipline of the school <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The teacher seeks, in appropriate cases, to liaise with outside agencies, ie. EWO, psychologist etc. -The teacher is involved in structured liaison with parents |
|---------------------------|---|

-The teacher takes part in extra-curricular activities relevant to the professional development of the teacher

Cooperation,
Teamwork and
Curriculum

- The teacher has contributed during the last year to, for example, some or all of the following: syllabus preparation evaluation, working parties; support for probationers; resource preparation; in-service training; liaison with feeder/receiving schools
- The teacher has been involved in team teaching and/or cross-curricular developments
- The teacher has an awareness of the wider curriculum
- The teacher meets deadlines

C. THE TEACHER AS MANAGER

Management Skills -Where applicable, how does the teacher manage:- own time, finance; ancillaries; other teaching staff?

Leadership -How well does the teacher communicate with colleagues on professional matters; motivate other staff; delegate work to assistant staff; support and advise colleagues; organise work of a group?

Self Determined Professional Development -What courses (Teachers' centre and others) has the teacher attended in the past year? What contribution has been made in any other way to teacher groups?

D. THE TEACHER IN THE FUTURE

Further Training needed -eg classroom management; subject knowledge; general management pastoral.

Further Experience needed -eg visit other schools; secondment; courses; exchange posts.

Potential for additional responsibility in -eg administration; committees; curriculum reviews; staff development.

E. TARGETS SET FOR THE COMING YEAR

- Targets attained in the current year
- Other relevant observations

The ACAS panel point out that this prompt list is neither prescriptive nor exhaustive and that it may need modification in the light of experience. Nevertheless, it is a comprehensive list of criteria attempting to cover a range of activities related to teachers and teaching. In general it appears that the criteria listed under the sections on 'The Teacher in the Classroom', and 'The Teacher in the School and the Community' are more directly related to measuring teacher competence while the criteria listed under the sections on 'The Teacher in the Future', and 'Targets Set for the Coming Year' are more consistent with the

requirements for what might be termed staff development. The criteria listed under the section 'The Teacher as Manager' are a little more ambiguous, with not only reference to Management Skills and Leadership, but also to Self Determined Professional Development. It is indeed interesting that these three latter sections are omitted from the same ACAS report appended to *School Teacher Appraisal: A National Framework*. (DES, 1989, Appendix 1). It is highly unlikely that this was simply an oversight. There is, therefore, a direct attempt to marry apparently disparate sets of criteria from both the staff development and accountability models within this prompt list from ACAS and a direct attempt to elevate only the accountability model in the 1989 DES paper.

It was indeed a principal aim of the ACAS Report to link appraisal with staff development. Paragraph 3 specifically states that appraisal is

... intended to help individual teachers with their professional development and career planning, and to help ensure that the in-service training and deployment of teachers matches the complementary needs of individual teachers and the schools. (ACAS, 1986, paragraph 3)

Thus, the development needs of the individual and the accountability needs of the school are seen as linked, but the former

... will be concerned with ... appropriate INSET activities, providing broad ranging work experience, career counselling, job satisfaction concerns, and so on. The latter ... will concentrate upon the assessment of standards. It will be linked to overall evaluation of a school's performance, the needs of the school as an organisation and the discharge of its responsibilities towards its clients – effectively and efficiently. (Hewton, 1988, p.30)

This prompt list is, therefore, attempting to serve two masters.

In fact, analytically there are indeed at least three separate objectives of staff appraisal that can be distinguished from this prompt list.

The first is a reward review. ... reserved for reviews with ... financial interest. ... A second ... may be performance review. ... designed to remedy defects in job performance, and to encourage the adoption of higher standards ... A third ... may be the review of potential. ... Here the purpose is to identify and realise an individual's capacity to do different kinds or levels of work ... (Stenning & Stenning, 1984, p.78)

The problem for the ACAS report, and for the similar recommendations of other reports, is, that

Exponents of 'good practice' in staff management argue that it is important that these differing objectives should not be procedurally confused. (Stenning & Stenning, 1984, p.78)

On this point, at least, the exclusion of the staff development component of the ACAS report appended to the DES report, *School Teacher Appraisal: A National Framework*, (DES 1989b), might be said to have had consistency. Interestingly, the criteria listed in the ACAS report are not articulated in the vocabulary of competence although underlying their production is obviously some means or other of determining the competence or otherwise of teachers.

The American experience, by contrast, early took the form of 'competencies' and this was a significant influence on research in to teacher appraisal on that side of the Atlantic. A seminal article, *Testing for Competence Rather Than "Intelligence"*, by Harvard psychologist David McLlland (1973), published in January of that year, was not explicitly cited in a publication, *Generic Teaching Competencies*, (Maurer & Wallace, 1973) by the Pennsylvania State Department of Education, in June of the same year, but the terminology was remarkably similar – teaching 'competencies'.

This document actually states that it

... presents 66 statements of generic (common to all areas, subjects and levels) teaching competencies, culled from over 500,000 submitted by 1,400 programs in 83 Pennsylvania colleges and universities ... [and] ... Included as appendixes ... the 403 competency statements from which the generic skills were selected. Maurer & Wallace, 1973, Document Resume)

This sounds like an exhaustive process to produce a list, but it is important for the terminology used and for the means by which it was compiled. This list appeared in the following format.

Statements of Competencies (Source: Maurer & Wallace, 1973, pp. 7-14)

Theoretical Knowledge of Educational Concepts

Philosophical and Historical Concepts

1. The teacher will demonstrate knowledge of philosophical implications in the establishment of educational program directions, priorities, and goals.
2. The teacher will evaluate instructional practices in terms of political, social, economic, and religious history of our country

Personal Philosophy, Attributes, and Characteristics

3. The teacher will formulate a personal philosophy of education which is

both theoretical and practical.

4. The teacher will exhibit personal characteristics which reflect enthusiasm toward his/her profession.

Use of Information

5. The teacher will locate, acquire, organize and, analyze information in a manner consistent with established standards of scholarships.

6. The teacher will demonstrate a knowledge of the technique for the analysis of an educational issue, problem, or theory.

Implementation of Theoretical Concepts and Information in the Classroom

Learning Theory

7. The teacher will select, evaluate, and implement the most appropriate principles of learning currently available to educators.

Educational Research

8. The teacher will read, interpret, and evaluate research and relate the findings to teaching practice

9. The teacher will effectively use the tools of research in curriculum planning.

Planning

10. The teacher will prepare comprehensive learning sequences and long range instruction for accomplishing specific educational objectives.

11. The teacher will select, identify and implement class room procedures which are consistent with instructional objectives.

12. The teacher will provide alternative ways for students to satisfy objectives.

Teaching Methods and Techniques

13. The teacher will use methods of teaching which are defensible in terms of psychological and social learning theories.

14. The teacher will demonstrate the application of the latest techniques, methods, and materials in their respective teaching fields.

Developing Students' Abilities

Developing Students' Thinking Skills

15. The teacher will demonstrate the use of skillfull questions that lead pupils to analyze, synthesize, and think critically.

16. The teacher will be able to tolerate and encourage divergent as well as convergent thinking in order to facilitate the functioning of the creative process.

17. The teacher will promote the development of information organizing skills, e.g. note taking, outlining, summarizing and translating by children.

Encouraging Students' Creativity

18. The teacher will guide research and creative projects that are devised by students.

Developing Basic Skills

19. The teacher will use instructional strategies that lead students to make functional use of the basic study skills.

20. The teacher will select materials, from various content areas where pupils apply language arts and reading skills.

Widening Students' Comprehension

21. The teacher will demonstrate to the pupils the interrelationships among

subject matter areas.

22. The teacher will demonstrate the ability to communicate subject matter, including the objectives and vocabulary in concepts and words appropriate to the level of the pupil understanding.

Teaching Technique

Widening Students' Comprehension

23. The teacher will employ a variety of techniques, materials, and methods which will actively involve each student in the learning situation.

Grouping

24. The teacher will demonstrate the ability to apply a variety of instructional patterns and grouping skills.

Motivational Technique

25. The teacher will apply motivational techniques that are appropriate for the level of the pupils.

26. The teacher will use feedback to modify classroom practices.

27. The teacher will demonstrate the ability to direct and participate in group processes in the classroom.

28. The teacher will be able to identify the manner in which the peer group influences each individual in the group.

29. The teacher will be able to establish guidelines for developing and maintaining control in the classroom, including the resolution of individual pupil problems with a minimum of disruption.

Use of Resources

Media

30. The teacher will demonstrate effective use of library facilities, instructional media, and other-educational technology.

31. The teacher will use appropriate school and community resources as well as colleagues and paraprofessionals to facilitate optimum learning for all students,

Evaluating and Measuring Students' Progress

Use of Test Results as Feedback

32. The teacher will use appropriate evaluative procedures as an integral part of the total learning context.

33. The teacher will incorporate pupil progress data from multiple assessment techniques in planning instruction.

Ethical Use of Evaluation Data

34. The teacher will demonstrate the knowledge of and commitment to ethical and professional standards regarding the acquisition, handling and explaining of student evaluation data.

Adapting to Surroundings

35. The teacher will adapt to varying school situations and conditions.

36. The teacher will adjust components of the physical environment to ensure student comfort, health, and safety and facilitate learning.

37. The teacher will maintain an educational environment conducive to developing positive attitudes toward learning.

Relating to Students

38. The teacher will demonstrate a firm commitment to, the ideal that teaching implies compassion and humility with a respect for the dignity of the student regardless of the value system of the teacher.

39. The teacher will evidence fairness, tact, compassion and good judgment in dealing with pupils.

Knowledge of Growth and Development

Individual Differences and Needs

40. The teacher will utilize knowledge of physical, mental, social and emotional growth and development to planning learning experiences to meet the special needs of children of various ages.

41. The teacher will create an awareness among students of their individual differences and have them respond accordingly.

Special Problems

42. The teacher will be able to establish rapport with individual students and make provision for special needs of Students according to their ability and background.

43. The teacher will identify exceptional characteristics of learners.

44. The teacher will demonstrate understanding of the limits of one's professional competencies so that other appropriate professional assistance can be utilized to the benefit of the student.

45. The teacher will discriminate between normal and deviant behavior and make referrals to the appropriate professional agency.

46. The teacher will prescribe remedial action for diagnosed learning problems.

47. The teacher will identify the problem readers and make appropriate referrals.

Awareness of Cultural Diversity

48. The teacher will evaluate and take appropriate steps to clarify with statements many of the cultural biases, myths and generalizations to which they are exposed.

49. The teacher will demonstrate how one's environment and culture influences the development of attitudes toward self and others.

50. The teacher will provide learning experiences which enable students to transfer principles and generalization developed in school to situations outside of the school.

Clarifying Values

51. The teacher will assist students to clarify their values in various learning situations.

52. The teacher will aid students in the selection of, and evaluation of their progress toward personal goal sand objectives.

53. The teacher will use teaching techniques and strategies that aid students in developing a positive self-image.

Professional Attitude

Self-Evaluation

54. The teacher will demonstrate continuing self-evaluation through selection and application of a variety of resources for this purpose.

Accountability

55. The teacher will apply the concept of accountability as it relates to the students, their parents and the instructional process.
56. The teacher will exhibit a professional attitude toward assigned and non-assigned responsibilities.

Relating to Community

57. The teacher will demonstrate the ability to communicate effectively with members of the school community.
58. The teacher will demonstrate an awareness of the relationship of his/her personal ethics to professional ethics and the values of the community.
59. The teacher will demonstrate cooperation in planning educational activities with colleagues, administrators, supervisory personnel and students
60. The teacher will plan and participate in meetings of school and community organizations to assist in developing programs for educational change.

Knowledge of Educational System and Structure

61. The teacher will identify the agencies and agents which affect, make, and implement educational policy at the focal, state, and federal levels.

Career Patterns

62. The teacher will describe the career patterns of teachers – supply and demand, economic and social status, security, benefits, responsibilities.

School Systems

63. The teacher will describe the organization of administrative, instructional, and service units in designated school system.
64. The teacher will be aware of the problems and advantages of teacher negotiations as they reflect emerging change in the relationship between teachers and the administrative hierarchy in education.

School Law

65. The teacher will be able to locate school laws and identify those provisions and legislations essential to the rights, responsibilities and liabilities of teachers, staff, students, and the school as an institution.
66. The teacher will describe essential components of school finance at the local, state, and federal levels.

It would indeed be interesting to analyse this list fully, but the fact that it has an American origin tests some understandings. The particularities of some of the competencies would suggest that they have a specific relevance to aspects of teacher service in Pennsylvania even although they purport to be generic competencies valid for all areas, subjects and levels. It is interesting to note nevertheless, some of the prominent features. For example, While every statement starts with 'The teacher

will', it is variously followed by 'demonstrate', 'evaluate', 'formulate', 'exhibit', 'locate', 'select, evaluate, and implement', 'read, interpret, and evaluate', 'effectively use', 'prepare', 'select, identify and implement', 'provide', 'use', 'be able to tolerate', 'promote', 'guide', 'employ', 'apply', 'able to identify', 'able to establish', 'incorporate', 'adapt', 'adjust components', 'maintain', 'evidence fairness', 'utilize', 'create an awareness', 'discriminate', 'prescribe', 'assist', 'aid', 'plan and participate', 'describe', 'be aware'. (A thesaurus, it might be mused, must have been part of the prescribed reading.) Since these sixty-six statements were gleaned from some 403 such statements of competence, the mind boggles at the possible variety.

This trip across the Atlantic has another purpose, however, because a paper presented at the Better Schools Conference in Birmingham, 1986, (DES, 1986, pp.68-77), supplied an alternative prompt list of criteria to that of the ACAS report for the appraisal of teachers. This prompt list originated in Georgia, USA, and as with the generic list, was based on the identification of 'Competencies' some sixteen of which with fifty one individual 'Indicators' are listed. The indicators are based on task-related criteria rather than on

... personality-related criteria (the 'trait-rating' approach in which teachers are appraised against the possession of qualities judged significant for effective performance as a teacher), ... (DES, 1986, p.71)

An approach to appraisal which uses such task-related criteria is considered, by the authors, to be a distinct advance on an approach which uses personality-related criteria, but it does have a significant problem associated with its use.

Comprehensive lists grow long with the attendant risk of distorted teaching approaches as teachers endeavour to accommodate appraisal competencies by resorting to safe, didactic and unimaginative teaching. (DES, 1986, p.71)

This generic prompt list above, as well as the one which follows, might be considered to exemplify this failing. It might also be reflected, that safe, didactic and unimaginative teaching might not even be practicable if a teacher were to attend to all the competencies. The criticism of the resultant style of instruction with 'a general decline not only in the extent of the subjects of instruction, but in the success with which the purely elementary subjects were taught', that was said to

follow the implementation of the recommendations contained in the Revised Code of 1862, is again most worthy of note.

The full list of Competencies and Indicators was set out in the Annex to the DES presentation to the Better Schools Conference, (Birmingham November 1986), and appended to the proceedings of this conference, (DES, 1986, pp. 74-77), in the following manner.

COMPETENCIES AND INDICATORS (Source: DES, 1986, pp.74-77).

COMPETENCY I: PLANS INSTRUCTION TO ACHIEVE OBJECTIVES

- Indicator 1 Specifies or selects learner objectives for lessons
- Indicator 2 Specifies or selects teaching procedures for lessons
- Indicator 3 Specifies or selects content, materials, and media for lessons
- Indicator 4 Specifies or selects materials and procedures for assessing learner progress on the objectives
- Indicator 5 Plans instruction at a variety of levels

COMPETENCY II: ORGANISES INSTRUCTION TO TAKE INTO ACCOUNT INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AMONG LEARNERS

- Indicator 6 Organises instruction to take into account differences among learners in their capabilities
- Indicator 7 Organises instruction to take into account differences among learners in their learning style
- Indicator 8 Organises instruction to take into account differences among learners in their rates of learning

COMPETENCY III: OBTAINS AND USES INFORMATION ABOUT THE NEEDS AND PROGRESS OF INDIVIDUAL LEARNERS

- Indicator 9 Uses teacher-made or teacher-selected evaluation materials or procedures to obtain information about learner progress
- Indicator 10 Communicates with individual learners about their needs and progress

COMPETENCY IV: REFERS LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL PROBLEMS TO SPECIALISTS

- Indicator 11 Obtains and uses information about learners from cumulative records
- Indicator 12 Identifies learners who require the assistance of specialists
- Indicator 13 Obtains and uses information from co-workers and parents to assist with specific learner problems

COMPETENCY V: OBTAINS AND USES INFORMATION ABOUT THE EFFECTIVENESS OF INSTRUCTION TO REVISE IT WHEN NECESSARY

- Indicator 14 Obtains information on the effectiveness of instruction

Indicator 15 Revises instruction as needed using evaluation results and observation data

COMPETENCY VI: USES INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES, METHODS AND MEDIA RELATED TO THE OBJECTIVES

Indicator 1 Uses teaching methods appropriate for objectives, learners and environment

Indicator 2 Uses instructional equipment and other instructional aids

Indicator 3 Uses instructional materials that provide learners with appropriate practice on objectives

COMPETENCY VII: COMMUNICATES WITH LEARNERS

Indicator 4 Gives directions and explanations related to lesson content

Indicator 5 Clarifies directions and explanations when learners misunderstand lesson content

Indicator 6 Uses responses and questions from learners in teaching

Indicator 7 Provides feedback to learners throughout the lesson

Indicator 8 Uses acceptable written and oral expression with learners

COMPETENCY VIII: DEMONSTRATES A REPERTOIRE OF TEACHING METHODS

Indicator 9 Implements learning activities in a logical sequence

Indicator 10 Demonstrates ability to conduct lessons using a variety of teaching methods

Indicator 11 Demonstrates ability to work with individuals, small groups, and large groups

COMPETENCY IX: REINFORCES AND ENCOURAGES LEARNER INVOLVEMENT IN INSTRUCTION

Indicator 12 Uses procedures which get learners initially involved in lessons

Indicator 13 Provides learners with opportunities for participating

Indicator 14 Maintains learner involvement in lessons

Indicator 15 Reinforces and encourages the efforts of learners to maintain involvement

COMPETENCY X: DEMONSTRATES AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE SCHOOL SUBJECT BEING TAUGHT

Indicator 16 Helps learners recognise the purpose and importance of topics or activities

Indicator 17 Demonstrates knowledge in subject area

COMPETENCY XI: ORGANISES TIME, SPACE, MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT FOR INSTRUCTION

Indicator 18 Attends to routine tasks

Indicator 19 Uses instructional time effectively

Indicator 20 Provides a learning environment that is attractive and orderly

COMPETENCY XII: DEMONSTRATES ENTHUSIASM FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING AND THE SUBJECT BEING TAUGHT

- Indicator 1 Communicates personal enthusiasm
 Indicator 2 Stimulates learner interest
 Indicator 3 Conveys the impression of knowing what to do and how to do it

COMPETENCY XIII: HELPS LEARNERS DEVELOP POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPTS

- Indicator 4 Demonstrates warmth and friendliness
 Indicator 5 Demonstrates sensitivity to the needs and feelings of learners
 Indicator 6 Demonstrates patience, empathy understanding

COMPETENCY XIV: MANAGES CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS

- Indicator 7 Provides feedback to learners about their behaviour
 Indicator 8 Promotes comfortable interpersonal relationships
 Indicator 9 Maintains appropriate classroom behaviour
 Indicator 10 Manages disruptive behaviour among learners

COMPETENCY XV: MEETS PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

- Indicator 1 Work co-operatively with colleagues, administrators and community members
 Indicator 2 Follows the policies and procedures of the school district
 Indicator 3 Demonstrates ethical behaviour
 Indicator 4 Performs extra-instructional duties

COMPETENCY XVI: ENGAGES IN PROFESSIONAL SELF-DEVELOPMENT

- Indicator 5 Participates in professional growth activities
 Indicator 6 Shares and seeks professional materials and ideas

The original numbering of the Indicators in this list has been retained because they relate to

... the general approach to appraisal which has been to build up from discrete competencies through to overall effectiveness. (DES, 1986, p.70)

A summary of this process and its terminology was also given in the same paper.

The numbering of the Indicators appears to match these categories.

Teacher Competency refers to any single knowledge, skill, or professional value position, which is relevant to successful teaching practice. Competencies refer to specific things that teachers know, do, or believe, but not to the effects of these attributes on others.

Teacher Competence refers to the repertoire of competencies a teacher possesses. Overall competence is a matter of the degree to which a teacher has mastered a set of individual competencies, some of which are more critical than others.

Teacher Performance refers to what a teacher does on the job rather than to what he or she can do. Teacher performance is specific to the job situation; it

depends on the competence of the teacher, the context in which the teacher works, and the teacher's ability to apply his or her competencies at any time.

Teacher Effectiveness refers to the effect that a teacher's performance has on pupils. Teacher effectiveness depends not only on competence and performance but also on the response pupils make. Just as competence cannot always predict performance, teacher performance does not automatically lead to intended outcomes.

(Source DES, 1986, p.70).

As the term competency would indicate, this list is very much related to the appraisal of competence with little reference to aspects of staff development. Only in Competency XVI with Indicators 5 & 6, on 'Participation in professional growth activities', and 'Sharing and seeking professional materials and ideas', respectively, is there any reference to aspects which might be considered, more appropriately, within a programme of staff development.

While this is more comprehensive than the ACAS prompt list there are many similarities in practice. In particular the first category in the ACAS report and the first fifteen competency indicators from the DES report show a considerable degree of overlap. However, the next twenty competency indicators appear to go on relentlessly to break down every aspect of teaching.

The ACAS prompt list also contains criteria which are more task orientated but many areas within it also highlight qualities. In particular the third category, on 'The Teacher as Manager', may be considered as suggestive of a trait-rating or personality-related aspect. (One of those omitted from *School Teacher Appraisal: A National Framework*. (DES, 1989), Appendix 1). There are, nevertheless, many individual criteria shared by both reports, even if the categorisation is different.

Professor E.C. Wragg of Exeter University proposes a much abbreviated set of criteria which might be used as the basis of initiating and focusing discussion in a school context. (Wragg, 1987, pp.74-75) The criteria which he proposed, again cover similar aspects to the lists of the ACAS and Georgia reports. There is, however, an additional section within this list which allows for the 'appraisee' to make comments on the appraiser's report.

The structure of Professor Wragg's appraisal form is as outlined below.

APPRAISAL FORM (Source: Wragg, E.C. 1987. pp74-75).

A TEACHING SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE

1. Preparation and planning
2. Class Management
3. Communication skills (questioning, explaining, etc.)
4. Pupil's work
 - (a) appropriateness to age and ability
 - (b) quality and degree of progress
5. Assessment of pupils' work and record keeping
6. Knowledge of relevant subject matter

B RELATIONSHIPS

1. with pupils
2. with staff
3. with others

C OTHER PROFESSIONAL CONTRIBUTIONS

1. Extracurricular activities
2. Pastoral responsibilities
3. Other

D APPRAISER'S REPORT

1. What are the teacher's strengths and how might these best be used and developed?
2. Are there aspects of the teacher's work which might need strengthening?
3. What suggestions would you make for in-service and professional development?
4. General comment
5. Tick one of the following
 - The teacher's work is satisfactory
 - The teacher's work is unsatisfactory

E TEACHER'S REPORT

1. Self-appraisal - comment on your own teaching (including pupil's views if you have elicited these)
2. Comment, if you wish, on the Appraiser's report in Sections A, B. & C
3. What support do you feel you might need in the next year?
4. Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your present teaching programme? (Give reasons)
5. Are you satisfied with the way the school is managed and run? (Give reasons)
6. Do you have any suggestions for improving
 - (a) The quality of your own teaching and pupil's learning?
 - (b) The quality of what is done in the school and the running of it?

This list of criteria, like the ACAS report, contains a considerable number of aspects which are related to staff development. It is not as comprehensive a checklist but the important areas are covered. It is also evident that both task-related and personality-related criteria are included. The whole area of 'Relationships', for instance, is very much a personality-related aspect.

Mathias and Jones, (Mathias, J. & Jones, J. 1989), developed and produced a volume to aid the appraisal process which also lists a set of criteria for appraisal. However, in this volume there are five sets of criteria, three of which are based on a curriculum review framework. The first set of criteria, are specifically for the whole school and are, therefore, related to the school rather than the individual. The second and third checklists are related to the first in that they review the curricular content at departmental and then at classroom levels. It is the fourth and fifth sets of criteria, which are specifically aimed at appraising 'Classroom Processes', that attempt to appraise the individual teacher. The fourth set of criteria, are for self-appraisal while the fifth set are for use by a designated appraiser. In addition, while not listing specific criteria, the areas of 'Wider School Responsibilities' and 'Career Aspirations' are also included as aspects which should be appraised.

It is not intended that all of these lists of criteria be included here since they are very comprehensive and very much related to the curriculum. The interested party is referred to the relevant sections in Mathias & Jones, (1989, pp.41-7). However, the criteria listed are task-related rather than personality-related and, while the area of staff development is addressed, it is not specifically mentioned in connection with the development of the individual teacher outwith curriculum development. The proposed criteria are, therefore, more strongly associated again with competence and effectiveness.

In addition to the lists of criteria mentioned above, several other authors have made similar contributions or have outlined some criteria when reviewing appraisal schemes. Among these are Kent, (Kent, G. 1987.), Darling- Hammond, (Darling- Hammond, L. 1989), and Willis, (Willis, M. 1989). However, they offer little in the way of augmentation of the lists of criteria already cited.

Chapter 8

Producing Measures Teacher Competence – Scottish Perspectives

Introduction

As mentioned previously, in Scotland the ending of the teachers' dispute in 1986 was accompanied by the Main Report, presented to Parliament in October of that year, which recommended that there should be the capability of removing inadequate teachers through an open, fair and formalised appraisal of competence. (Main, 1986, paragraph 6.14, p.69)

This was the first real attempt to formulate a national policy for the appraisal of teachers north of the border. It contained many points of reference commensurate with similar proposals for England and Wales, but in the event the report itself was overtaken by events. In the midst of discussions, the Prime Minister's decision to call a General Election for June 11th 1987, which in the event provided a third term of office for the Thatcher administration, swept away negotiating machinery and left the Main Report high and dry. Malcolm Rifkind was returned as Secretary of State for Scotland, but a reshuffle within the Scottish Office provided a role for Michael Forsyth who had a particular brief for Education and who was determined that there should be a means of appraising teachers. It is widely held that it was his contribution that produced the *Self-Governing Schools etc. (Scotland) Act 1989*, which outlined proposals, through Clause 66, for the repeal of Clause 88 of the *Education (Scotland) Act 1980*, which afforded some protection for teachers from simple 'hire-and-fire' by Local Authorities without recourse to the education committee.

In the interim period, between these two events, Strathclyde Regional Council's (SRC) Department of Education, under the leadership of Frank Pignatelli, produced a report entitled *Progress Through Self-Evaluation; A Way Ahead for Schools*, (SRC, June, 1988) which tried to find middle ground. It was well understood that the thrust of policy pronouncements emanating from Scottish Office was paving the way for a system of imposed individual teacher appraisals, consequently SRC's proposals were for a system of school self-evaluation. Once more, however, as with the Main Report, this report was also overtaken by events. In addition it was not a national framework, even although Strathclyde Region was the largest and most influential region in Scotland with over half the population of Scotland resident within its borders. Nevertheless, this report was compiled of some of the earliest lists of statements purporting to provide measures of appraising the effectiveness of schools in the context of Scotland.

Proposed Criteria for 'Teacher Appraisal' in Scotland

In Scotland then, one of the earliest and most comprehensive lists is contained within this report. (SRC. 1988). This report follows a similar pattern to that of the Mathias & Jones volume mentioned in the previous chapter in that the emphasis is primarily on school evaluation rather than on the appraisal of individual teachers, but with a further emphasis on evaluating staff development needs through the 'self-evaluation' of the schools needs by the Senior Management. Because of the very comprehensive nature of coverage in this publication – the report firstly outlines self-evaluation for primary schools and then separately for secondary schools and then thirdly for departments within secondary schools before finally presenting a short list of what it refers to as 'Departmental Activities' in which teachers may participate – it is not intended that all the criteria be listed. The interested party is referred to the report for the full details. But, sampling from this report reveals, that it considered that the 'senior management team is ultimately responsible for all aspects of teaching and learning in school' (SRC 1988, paragraph 5.4, p.44) and that

... it might be useful for senior staff to make an assessment of their own strengths and weaknesses by adjudging themselves to be a point in a spectrum of descriptive statements. Thus an initial indication of performance can be obtained and decisions made on whether the aspect in question requires more in-depth evaluation, using a checklist approach as indicated in (iii) below/ or a more systematic search for evidence. (SRC 1988, paragraph 5.4 (ii), p.45)

The checklist in (iii) mentioned in the quote is a very comprehensive one for senior management (SM) to address and is laid out over pp. 47-56 of the document covering what it describes as 'Key Aspects' and suggesting areas of 'Some possible evidence' for each.

There are in fact some six Key Aspects listed for the senior management to address and they comprise the following.

SM Key Aspect 1: Management Structure and patterns of organisation – do they really meet the needs of the school and assist its educational aims?

SM Key Aspect 2: Whole school policies – do they exist, are they appropriate, are they made to work?

SM Key Aspect 3: Staff development – is there a policy and is it effective?

SM Key Aspect 4: Curriculum and its development – are the central tasks being tackled as the school's first priority?

SM Key Aspect 5: Monitoring of classroom practice, learning processes and pupil attainment – is there proper professional surveillance of these matters?

SM Key Aspect 6: Home, school and community links – does the school project its own image to the best effect?

(Source: SRC 1988, pp. 45-56)

For this analysis, Key Aspect 5 has probably the greatest relevance. It is this Key Aspect itself that is used as an example in the report and it has bearing because it is based on the contentious issue of 'classroom observation'. It was this particular aspect, 'Monitoring of Classroom Practice', which was most vigorously contested. In its use as an example therefore, it reveals the 'mind set' of the educational directorate in Strathclyde Region at that time. The directorate did indeed wish to establish classroom monitoring and wanted the information gleaned from this to be actionable. The stages of an example of how this Key Aspect may be addressed, outlined below, show this desire if they do not spell out an actual means of achieving a form of teacher appraisal in practice.

Monitoring of Classroom Practice (Source: SRC, 1988, p.45)

- (a) No monitoring of classroom practice is carried out by the senior management team or principal teachers.
- (b) No policy for monitoring classroom practice exists but some principal teachers do so on an ad-hoc basis. One member of the senior management team acts as a regent for probationer teachers.

- (c) There is a policy for monitoring classroom practice. Principal teachers are expected to report on practice of teachers within their department. Information is forwarded to the senior management team.
- (d) Classroom practice is regularly monitored and information acted on. The information serves as a basis for staff development.

It was in fact widely taken that point (d) was the main objective of the self-evaluation model for all of Strathclyde's Schools. Observation itself is not actually mentioned, but it is implicit within the term 'monitoring' and indeed with the use of the word 'surveillance' in the title of Key Aspect 5, it is then made quite explicit. In addition, the two separate sentences of (d) can be interpreted as suggestive of a deficit model conception where the 'information acted on', suggests that the practice is found wanting in some way and the 'serves as the basis for staff development', endorses some form of remediation following from the monitoring of an individual teachers practice. There is, however, no explicit set of criteria against which to judge the practice of teachers – simply the 'checklists' and 'sources of evidence' which directly constitute the Key Aspects themselves.

Key Aspect 5 actually appears in the following manner in the report.

SM Key Aspect 5: Monitoring of classroom practice, learning processes and pupil attainment – is there proper professional surveillance of these matters?

1. Can a plan be devised for the term or session that will ensure that senior staff and principal teachers observe an appropriate sample of lessons as part of the overall process of curricular evaluation?
2. How might principal teachers be encouraged to take more positive measures to monitor classroom performance?
3. How could staff be kept aware of their responsibilities with regard to "permeating elements"?
4. Is the school's language policy having any significant practical effect on the experience of pupils with learning difficulties?
5. Is the co-ordination and evaluation of co-operative teaching being adequately managed, with common objectives and appropriate procedures among the staff involved?
6. Is there scope for the fuller and more effective deployment of A/V and computer resources?
7. How might the work of S1/S2 be more effectively related to the work of P6/P7?
8. Are the teaching approaches at S1/S2 generally appropriate to mixed ability organisation?

9. Could more be done to correlate work in related areas of the curriculum (e.g. maths/science) and to help departments become mutually supportive?
10. Is there a progressive move towards independent study with older pupils and a systematic induction into study skills?
11. What more could be done at every stage to increase the responsibility of pupils for their own learning?

Some sources of evidence

SCE/Scotvec results (especially as they allow inter-departmental comparisons or reveal trends within the school).

Pattern of pupil curricular choice.

Pattern of use of A/V and computer resources.

Pattern of use of library/resource areas.

Data derived from standardised tests e.g. Edinburgh Reading Test.

Reading difficulty levels of books/worksheets as assessed by SMG index.

Data from systematic course evaluation involving e.g. participant observation and pupil questionnaires.

Observation of individual pupils across a range of subjects.

Pattern of disciplinary referrals.

Checking SI performance against expectations of P7 teachers.

Leavers' destinations/entries to further/higher education.

Staying-on rates.

This checklist with its sources of evidence does not contain a list of criteria. It rather directs attention to the compiling of a 'performance profile', the term used in the report to tie up the responses to the Key Aspects for action by the Senior Management Team (SMT). It is only after the senior management, having taken responsibility for assessing their own strengths and weaknesses by adjudging themselves and the school against the Key Aspects of performance, that it then becomes the responsibility of the subject departments (**SD**) to complete a similar exercise. A similar set of Key Aspects then have to be addressed by the head of the department. The relevance of these Key Aspects is then crucial to an understanding of how a form of teacher appraisal was to be accomplished through this report. The Key Aspects for departments appear in the following format.

SD Key Aspect 1: Staff Relationships (Source: SRC 1988, pp.70-74)

1. Are there opportunities for all teachers in the department to be in constructive contact with one another and with the principal teacher? Are these opportunities taken up?
2. Is a demonstrable interest taken in the contribution, welfare and job satisfaction of all teachers in the department?
3. Is a good example of professionalism shown to less experienced and student teachers in terms of appearance, punctuality, diligence, attitude to work and attitude to pupils?

4. Are opportunities provided for staff development? Are duties delegated sufficiently to encourage this?
5. Are all teachers encouraged to participate in departmental planning, in school committees and in in-service training?
6. Is assistance given to all members of staff to keep abreast of new developments in the subject? Are reports on educational matters available to them and are they encouraged to discuss these reports?
7. Are attempts made to develop the talents of teachers and to address their weak points?
8. Is strong support given by senior colleagues to probationer teachers?
9. Are there adequate procedures within the department for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of departmental and whole-school policies?
10. Do all the members of the department have a "balanced" timetable?
11. Are there regular checks to ensure that all aspects of health and safety regulations are complied with in relation to staff activities?

Sources of Evidence?

SD Key Aspect 2: Pupils/Students

("Pupils" refers to "students" also, throughout this section.)

1. Are all learning abilities being recognised and catered for in the courses provided? Are teaching methods being adapted to suit the needs of all pupils?
2. Are learning support staff regularly consulted regarding the suitability of existing materials and teaching approaches?
3. Are all pupils encouraged to participate in lessons to the full extent of their ability?
4. Are activities sufficiently demanding for all pupils?
5. Are the means of assessing pupil progress adequate and appropriate? Do they conform to whole-school policy on assessment?
6. Are there ongoing records of all pupil performance and are they fully consonant with the school's policy on reporting to parents.
7. Are pupils made aware that good habits of work and behaviour are expected of them? Is the whole-school policy on discipline being implemented in the department?
8. Are there regular checks to ensure that all aspects of health and safety regulations are complied with in relation to pupil activities?

Sources of Evidence?

SD Key Aspect 3: Curriculum

1. Are there clearly stated aims and objectives for each course?
2. Are schemes of work with realistic timescales made available to staff and are there mechanisms to ensure that these are implemented?
3. Are all members of the department involved in the monitoring of curricular provision and the planning and implementation of curricular development as appropriate?
4. Is the department contributing to the formulation of whole-school policies?
5. To what extent is there dialogue with other departments on matters of mutual concern?
6. Are there clear-cut lines of communication by means of which the department can contact parents and external agencies?

Sources of Evidence?

SD Key Aspect 4: Teaching and Learning

1. To what extent is there an overview of teaching and learning in classrooms?
2. Do the courses cater for the needs of all learners? Is there sufficient differentiation?
3. Is there a sufficiently broad range of teaching approaches used? Is an appropriate variety of learning opportunities offered to pupils? Are they encouraged to develop skills in independent learning?
4. Is there articulation in the progression of skills, concepts and learning activities as the pupils move from one stage to the next? Is appropriate consideration given to their experience in the primary school?
5. Does the monitoring of department performance include an analysis of the school's results in SCE and other examinations? Are results compared with those in earlier years and are the findings discussed with all members of the departmental staff?
6. Is a consistent approach taken to the setting of homework in relation to the school's policy?

Sources of Evidence?**SD Key Aspect 5: Resources**

1. Does the department have a development plan on which to make realistic bids for an equitable share of the resources of the school?
2. Is the per capita allowance used in ways most appropriate to the needs of the department? Is spending reviewed each year and the perceived needs of all aspects of departmental work taken into account?
3. Are the department's resources organised in such a way that all members of staff have easy access to them? Is AVA software catalogued and stored for easy retrieval? Does the department have available AVA hardware near to hand? Are textbooks, worksheets, exam papers stored with adequate shelving and filing systems?
4. Is the use of the resources properly planned? Are slide tape presentations, videos, etc. relevant to the course and used at appropriate times?
5. Is there adequate supervision of pupil use and care of resources and equipment?
6. Is there an efficient system for monitoring and evaluating the use of resources.
7. Does the department make optimum use of centrally-held school resources?

Sources of Evidence?

At no point, however, is there any direct mention of criteria for carrying out a departmental appraisal of individual teachers. Indeed there are no 'Sources of Evidence' listed, presumably because they are already generically contained within the wording of the Key Aspects or, more likely, it was intended that there would be a compiling of evidence through a departmental 'performance profile' that listed staff strengths and weaknesses and permitted of some flexibility. Additionally, the succeeding section is on 'Departmental Activities'. It is outlined below and it is the checklist which is contained in this section that further focuses attention down and on to the individual teacher within a department. But while this still falls short of a prescriptive list of criteria against which to directly appraise the performance of

teachers, it might be concluded that it is suggestive of a teacher's level of 'commitment', a form of terminological reference that will be returned to again later, or indeed in nineteenth century jargon, a teacher's 'ideological reliability'. The preamble to this section softens, to some degree, the earlier interpretation of a deficit model contained in the example based on Key Aspect 5 because of the suggested 'collaborative review' of departmental priorities.

(vi) Departmental Activities-Staff Participation

A list of departmental activities falling under the responsibility of the head of the department is outlined below. As worded such a list could be used by members of the department to indicate areas where they would be interested in assisting with the smooth running and further development of the department as a whole by undertaking tasks delegated by the head of department. Such activity is in itself a valuable contribution to staff development for the individual teacher and contributes to team building. Again, the list could be regarded as constituting a summary of the possible areas of departmental activity where further development might be called for. The members of the department could then be invited to select a limited number of areas and put them in rank order as commanding priority for attention in their view. A collation of the views submitted could then be the subject of general discussion leading to decisions being made on where efforts might most profitably be directed in planning action for the future. (SRC 1988, p.75)

Cynically considered however, no more than a sop to ownership of the departmental priorities.

Following this preamble the report then lists examples of the activities that might be encountered by a department in the following manner. A tick box was also supplied for noting importance and or prioritisation.

Departmental Activities (Source: SRC 1988, p.76)

1. Supporting departmental colleagues
2. Defining aims and objectives
3. Keeping abreast of change in subject content and philosophy
4. Outlining classroom methodology within the department
5. Helping probationer teachers
6. Keeping in touch with work done in other departments
7. Cataloguing departmental resources
8. Ensuring all members of department have equally appropriate resources for teaching
9. Compiling schemes of work
10. Determining and monitoring methods of pupil assessment
11. Devising and maintaining records of pupil performance
12. Maintaining classroom discipline within the department

13. Monitoring of departmental operation
14. Tailoring teaching resources to local needs
15. Choosing teaching equipment/materials and text-books for departmental use
16. Training and assessing of students
17. Maintaining departmental morale
18. Contributing to the development of whole school policies
19. Encouraging an appropriate uptake for the subject in the school
20. Compiling examination papers
21. Contributing to authority in-service activity
22. Attending in-service courses/conferences
23. Encouraging clubs with subject "slant"
24. Developing links with parents within whole-school policy
25. Developing links with the community within whole-school policy

In contrast to some other publications this report is much more related to aspects of staff development than to any direct appraisal of teacher competence although the contentious issue of observing teachers in their classroom practice and the checklist of departmental activities would suggest that judgments about competence are at the root of the report even although the report actually states that the

... group considered only to discard quickly any approach to evaluation which comprised the imposition of rigid systems of top-down staff appraisal, for example those involving the regular formal interviewing and assessment of every teacher by a member of staff holding a higher grade of post or by one of a team of travelling staff assessors. (SRC. 1988. p11)

The report, however, was rejected by teacher unions under a flurry of activity in relations with the Scottish Office and the subsequent launch of the *Self-Governing Schools etc. (Scotland) Act 1989*. The recommendations contained in the SRC report were therefore not implemented in any coherent form. Nevertheless, and in no small measure as a consequence of the failure of the 1989 Act to effectively remove reference to the education committee from the discharging of teachers, the comprehensive nature of the checklists provided the backbone of many in-school and departmental planning reviews in an *ad hoc* fashion and aspects were written in to departmental handbooks to be regurgitated year on year thereafter.

Partly as a consequence of the ineffectual nature of the 1989 Act to pass control of the 'hire-and-fire' of teachers directly to local authorities, other individual divisional initiatives also attempted to build on the basis of some of the recommendations contained in the SRC report. In Lanark division for instance, there was the setting up

of a steering group to develop a procedure known as 'Cycles of Development'. These individual initiatives, however, were not fully welcomed after the rejection of the SRC report and the squabbling over the provisions of the 1989 Act, even although there were plans for and attempts at piloting such schemes in order to evaluate their effectiveness in session 1989-90 and in 1990-91. It was in fact intended that the funding for such initiatives would be a responsibility of the Technical Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI), but the cutting of the budget allocated to this meant that any such initiatives were under-funded and could not even be implemented on a divisional scale.

Meanwhile, the juggernaut had indeed trundled on. The overtaking of the SRC report with the *Self-Governing Schools etc. (Scotland) Act 1989* was one aspect and as previously mentioned, the proposals for 'hire-and-fire' powers contained within this Act were effectively derailed by provision made in the *Local Government (Scotland) Act 1973*. It was indeed this aspect that created quite a furore in the Scottish Office, but in typical government style, a reshuffle after the ousting of Margaret Thatcher as Prime Minister in 1990 meant change. Malcolm Rifkind's elevation to a more prestigious national post in the Westminster cabinet left a vacuum at the Scottish Office, the top post, a post which Michael Forsyth had ambitions to fill. His appointment to the top job at this time would certainly have been controversial and at a crucial juncture for Scotland. In the event, Ian Lang was appointed as Secretary of State for Scotland. Some two years later, after the General Election of 1992, Michael Forsyth was then appointed to a more senior post in the Westminster cabinet and still had to bide his time. It was not until 1995 that he returned to the Scottish Office, to the coveted post of Secretary of State for Scotland.

A national framework for the appraisal of practicing teachers in Scotland then was not able to be fully accomplished in any of the rounds of legislation, but before Michael Forsyth left the Scottish Office, for his sojourn at Westminster, he made sure that this would not be so for new entrants into Teacher Training Institutions (TTIs). He had prepared the ground for the publication in 1993 by the Scottish Office of *Guidelines for Teacher Training Courses (Guidelines '93)*, the Education

remit then having come under the steersmanship of Lord James Douglas-Hamilton who wrote the foreword to the report. This paper contained for the first time an explicit list of named 'competences' for those entering teacher training, but in addition, great store was also set by 'commitment'. Much controversy followed, but the competence statements contained in the *Guidelines '93* covered very similar ground to the proposed lists from the American and the England & Wales stables even if they were, in the words of Stronnach *et al*, (1994) 'domesticated'.

Criteria for 'Student Teacher Appraisal' in Scotland

The list of competences was laid out under four principal headings – Competences relating to Subject and Content of Teaching, Competences relating to the Classroom, Competences relating to the School, and Competences relating to Professionalism. In conjunction with this last category, there was a list of commitments to be displayed by the prospective teacher and at this point the report laid great stress on the fact that

... professionalism implies more than a mere series of competences. It also implies a set of attitudes which have particular power in that they are communicated to those being taught. (SOED, 1993, p.6)

Thereafter appears the list of commitments that are to be evidenced as professional attitudinal attributes of the aspiring teacher. Quite how these commitments were to be evidenced, however, was not made explicit.

The full list of competences outlined over pages four, five and six of the document appears as follows.

2. THE COMPETENCES (Source: SOED, 1993, pp.4-6)

2.1 Competences relating to Subject and Content of Teaching

The new teacher should be able to:-

- demonstrate a knowledge of the subject or subjects forming the content of his or her teaching which meets and goes beyond the immediate demands of the school curriculum;
- plan generally, and in particular prepare coherent teaching programmes which ensure continuity and progression, taking into account national, regional and school curriculum policies and plan lessons within these teaching programmes;
- select appropriate resources for learning, for example from radio and television broadcasts;
- present the content of what is taught in an appropriate fashion to

- pupils;
- justify what is taught from knowledge and understanding of the learning process, curriculum issues, child development in general and the needs of his or her pupils in particular.

2.2 Competences relating to the Classroom

2.2.1 Communication

The new teacher should be able to:

- present what he or she is teaching in clear language and a stimulating manner;
- question pupils effectively, respond and support their discussion and questioning.

2.2.2 Methodology

The new teacher should be able to:

- employ a range of teaching strategies appropriate to the subject or topic and, on the basis of careful assessment, to the pupils in his or her classes;
- identify suitable occasions for teaching the class as a whole, in groups, in pairs or as individuals;
- create contexts in which pupils can learn;
- set expectations which make appropriate demands on pupils;
- identify and respond appropriately to pupils with special educational needs or with learning difficulties;
- take into account cultural differences among pupils;
- encourage pupils to take initiatives in and become responsible for, their own learning;
- select and use in a considered way a wide variety of resources, including information technology;
- evaluate and justify the methodology being used.

2.2.3 Class Management

The new teacher should have a knowledge of the principles which lie behind the keeping of good discipline and should be able to:

- deploy a range of approaches to create and maintain a purposeful, orderly and safe environment for learning;
- manage pupil behaviour by the use of appropriate rewards and sanctions and be aware when it is necessary to seek advice;
- sustain the interest and motivation of the pupils;
- evaluate and justify his or her own actions in managing pupils.

2.2.4 Assessment

The new teacher should:

- have an understanding of the principles of assessment and the different kinds of assessment which may be used;
- be able to assess the quality of pupils' learning against national standards defined for that particular group of pupils;
- be able to assess and record systematically the progress of individual pupils;
- be able to provide regular feedback to pupils on their

- progress;
- be able to use assessment to evaluate and improve teaching.

2.3 Competences relating to the School

The new teacher should:

- have some knowledge of the system in which he or she is working and in particular of the organisation and management systems of schools, of school policies and development plans and where they relate to his or her teaching;
- know how to discuss with parents a range of issues relevant to their children;
- be informed about school boards;
- know how to communicate with members of other professions concerned with the welfare of schools pupils and with members of the community served by the school, as well as with colleagues within the school and its associated schools;
- be aware of sources of help and expertise within the school and how they can be used;
- be aware of cross-curricular aspects of school work and able to make an input into these;
- have interests and skills which can contribute to activities with pupils outside the formal curriculum.

2.4 Competences related to Professionalism

The new teacher should:

- have a working knowledge of his or her pastoral, contractual, legal and administrative responsibilities;
- be able to make a preliminary evaluation of his or her own professional progress.

However, professionalism implies more than a mere series of competences. It also implies a set of attitudes which have particular power in that they are communicated to those being taught:

- a commitment to the job and to those affected by the job;
- a commitment to self-monitoring and continuing professional development;
- a commitment to collaborate with others to promote pupil achievement;
- a commitment to promoting the moral and spiritual well-being of pupils;
- a commitment to the community within and beyond the school and to promoting a responsible attitude towards the needs of the environment;
- a commitment to views of fairness and equality of opportunity as expressed in multi-cultural and other non-discriminatory policies.

This list then, contains some thirty-four individual competences and some six individual statements of commitment, all of which together constituted the

requirement of entry into teaching in Scottish schools, applied, as they were, to both prospective Primary and Secondary teachers.

The actual competences outlined in section 2.1 and 2.2 are task orientated statements relating to 'Subject and Content of Teaching' and to 'the Classroom' respectively and relate to what the new teacher should be able to do while the competences in section 2.3 relating to 'the School', by contrast, suggest the requirements of an element of knowledge about the working of the school and 'know-how' about dealing and communicating with others. The competences in 2.4 relating to 'Professionalism' emphasise professional responsibilities and self-evaluation and it is this latter section's competences that are referred to as 'a mere series of competences' in relation to professionalism, paving the way for an emphasis on the appended six 'commitments' expected of the new professional teacher.

With Ian Lang as Secretary of State for Scotland (1990-95) and Lord James Douglas-Hamilton as his Education Secretary, both more emollient characters, focus turned away from directly confrontational education policy in relation to teacher appraisal. The second major reform of local government in Scotland took place in 1994, however, and finally removed the troublesome paragraph 6, Schedule 10 of the *Local Government (Scotland) Act 1973*, a legacy of this first major reform of local government in Scotland. This *Reform of Local Government (Scotland) Act 1994*, also swept away Strathclyde Regional Council which had been widely viewed as an effective buffer against the power of the Scottish Office. It was thus with some trepidation that the news of Michael Forsyth's return to Scotland, this time in the role of Secretary of State, was greeted in education circles. His reign however, was brief, lasting only until the General Election of 1997. Nevertheless, a revision of the *Guidelines '93* had been initiated under his rule and new guidelines with a revised list of competences were introduced through the *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland 1998*, (*Guidelines '98*). The Secretary of State for Scotland in the new 'New Labour' administration was Brian Wilson and because of the promise of devolved government for Scotland, he simply had a 'caretaker' role pending Devolution. But this revised list of competences, contained within the

Guidelines '98, were to become the backbone of 'benchmarks' and 'standards' in relation to teacher education and staff development in Scotland.

The competences contained in the *Guidelines '98* follow a very similar pattern to those contained in the *Guidelines '93*, but there are some notable differences. The number of competences was expanded to thirty-eight in total and the section on 'Competences related to Professionalism' which outlined the 'commitments' expected of teachers in the *Guidelines '93*, was renamed as 'The values, attributes and abilities integral to professionalism' and expanded to include ten such statements in the *Guidelines '98*. Additionally, these statements are no longer simply outlined as commitments but are considered demonstrable abilities.

The competences contained in the *Guidelines '98* are presented in the following manner.

D. THE COMPETENCES (Source: SOEID, 1998)

...

1. Competences relating to Subject and Content of Teaching

He or she must:-

1.1 demonstrate a sound knowledge of, and practical skills in, the subject or subjects forming the content of his or her teaching at a level which allows him or her to stimulate and challenge pupils³ and to recognise and address barriers to pupils' learning specific to the subject being taught

1.2 be able, whether at pre-school, primary or secondary level, to play his or her full part in developing pupils' skills in literacy and numeracy

1.3 demonstrate the ability to use information and communications technology (ICT) and appreciate how to apply it effectively in learning and teaching, taking account of legal, ethical and health and safety issues

1.4 demonstrate a knowledge of, and the ability to play a part in, personal and social education, health education, education for sustainable development, enterprise and, when appropriate, vocational education

1.5 be able to plan and prepare coherent teaching programmes and lessons, including homework, which ensure continuity and progression in pupils' learning

1.6 be able to justify what is taught from knowledge and understanding of the learning process, curriculum issues, child development in general and the needs of his or her pupils in particular

2. Competences relating to the classroom

2.1 Communication and approaches to teaching and learning

He or she must be able to:-

2.1.1 motivate and sustain the interest of all pupils in a class

2.1.2 explain to and communicate with pupils clearly and in a stimulating manner

2.1.3 question pupils effectively, and respond to their questions and support their contribution to discussions

2.1.4 employ a range of teaching strategies, including direct interactive teaching and use of homework to reinforce and extend work in class, and be able to select strategies appropriate to the subject, topic and pupils' needs

2.1.5 select and use, in a considered way and in a number of different learning and teaching situations, a wide variety of resources, including ICT

2.1.6 demonstrate the ability to teach individuals, groups and classes

2.1.7 set expectations and a pace of work which make appropriate demands on all pupils and ensure that more able pupils are effectively challenged

2.1.8 identify and respond appropriately to pupils with difficulties in, or barriers to, learning and recognise when to seek further advice in relation to their special educational needs

2.1.9 respond appropriately to gender, social, cultural, linguistic and religious differences among pupils

2.1.10 encourage pupils to take initiatives in, and become responsible for, their own learning

2.1.11 work cooperatively with other professionals and adults within the classroom

2.1.12 evaluate and justify the approaches taken to learning and teaching and their impact on pupils

2.2 Class organisation and management

He or she must:-

2.2.1 be able to organise classes and lessons to ensure that all pupils are productively employed when working individually, in groups or as a class

2.2.2 demonstrate that he or she knows about and is able to apply the principles and practices which underlie good discipline and promote positive behaviour

2.2.3 be able to create and maintain a stimulating, purposeful, orderly and safe learning environment for all pupils, including those with special educational and health needs

2.2.4 be able to manage pupil behaviour fairly, sensitively and consistently by the use of appropriate rewards and sanctions and know when it is necessary to seek advice

2.2.5 demonstrate a knowledge of, and be able to contribute to, strategies to prevent bullying

2.2.6 be able to evaluate and justify his or her own actions in managing pupils

2.3 Assessment

He or she must:-

2.3.1 demonstrate an understanding of the principles of assessment and the different kinds of assessment which may be used

2.3.2 be able to assess pupils' attainments against national standards defined for a particular group of pupils or levels of qualifications where assessment leads to certification

2.3.3 be able to monitor, assess, record and report on the aptitudes, needs and progress of individual pupils

2.3.4 be able to provide pupils with constructive oral and written feedback on their progress on a regular basis

2.3.5 be able to use the results of assessments to evaluate and improve teaching and to improve standards of attainment

3. Competences relating to the school and the education system

He or she must:-

3.1 demonstrate an understanding of the national framework for, and developments in, the Scottish educational system

3.2 demonstrate an understanding of the system in which he or she is working, including: the role and organisation of education authorities; the organisation and management of schools; devolved management of resources; school policies and development plans and how they relate to classroom teaching; quality assurance in schools; staff development and review; and the work of school boards and parents' groups

3.3 demonstrate a working knowledge of his or her contractual, pastoral and legal responsibilities

3.4 demonstrate an awareness of his or her responsibilities for contributing to the ethos of the school, for example by promoting positive relationships between staff, pupils and parents

3.5 be able to report to parents about their children's progress and discuss matters related to their children's personal, social and emotional development in a sensitive and productive way

3.6 demonstrate an understanding of how roles and responsibilities are shared among staff and how to access help from staff within the school, including those with responsibility for the curriculum, guidance, learning support and staff development

3.7 demonstrate an understanding of the roles of other professionals and how to work with them, including teachers in other schools; members of other professions and agencies concerned with pupils' learning, welfare and career development; and members of the community served by the school

3.8 demonstrate an understanding of the informal school curriculum and the contribution he or she might make to it

3.9 demonstrate an understanding of international, national and local guidelines on child protection and teachers' roles and responsibilities in this area

4. The values, attributes and abilities integral to professionalism

He or she must:-

4.1 be committed to and enthusiastic about teaching as a profession and encouraging pupils to become learners

4.2 be committed to promoting pupils' achievements and raising their expectations of themselves and others, in collaboration with colleagues, parents and other members of the community

4.3 value and promote the moral and spiritual well-being of pupils

4.4 be able to self-evaluate the quality of his or her own teaching, and set and achieve targets for professional development

4.5 demonstrate the abilities associated with analysing situations and problems, seeking solutions and exercising sound judgement in making decisions

4.6 demonstrate effective interpersonal skills and the ability to develop them further, in order to respond appropriately in relating to pupils, colleagues, other professionals, parents and members of the community

4.7 value and promote equality of opportunity and fairness and adopt non-discriminatory practices, in respect of age, disability, gender, race or religion

4.8 be committed to promoting and responding to partnerships within the community

4.9 demonstrate that he or she knows about and is able to contribute to education for sustainable development in the school and the wider community

4.10 demonstrate a commitment to undertaking continuing professional development to keep up-to-date in his or her subject area(s) and be ready to respond to changes in education.

This tour through the measures for effecting a means of teacher appraisal in Scotland, proposed and actual, has highlighted both the contentious nature and the plethora of opinions about practice in teaching. A strict analytical comparison might reveal many similarities and some distinctive differences but the purpose of the tour has been principally to end up at this last set of competences rather than to compare lists. The lists, however, are important because they demonstrate a development of thinking from divergent political perspectives and they also demonstrate the combining of dual strands, reflecting ideological and pedagogical measures for assessing teacher effectiveness and competence.

Chapter 9

From Competences to Benchmarks to Standards to Competences

Introduction

In the aftermath of the creation of a devolved parliament for Scotland in 1999, education emerged as *the* singularly most important area of policy that the Scottish Executive inherited. It is therefore, something of a mild indictment, that the education agenda has not been dominated, by a great architect. Even in the consequence of the untimely death of Donald Dewar, the early promise of radical change through the combined efforts of the then Education Minister, Jack McConnell, and the review undertaken by Professor McCrone, has not seemed quite so radical and has simply ‘trundled on’ pending some sort of ultimate closure in 2006. Under the elevation of Jack McConnell to First Minister status in 2001, school education generally, while still of significant import, seems to have been relegated to the ‘back burner’ and, through the lack of any effective political opposition it is quite possibly destined to remain there, raising the spectre of powerful prospective influences able to fill a vacuum in the event of any political upheaval. Also, since the full implementation of McCrone has to await finalisation, ‘the devil which is still in the detail’ is still up for negotiation in respect of many of the finer points that might still affect practising teachers – even those who have worked for and have already achieved Chartered Teacher status.

In this regard however, and notwithstanding the lacklustre political performance, it is also easy to discern a more compliant, less militant and more amenable if not even more congenial structure to the educational dialogue in Scotland. The shakeout from the McCrone report (SEED, 2000) and Agreement (SEED, 2001) resulted on

the one hand, in a significant three-year review of pay scales – now further extended until 2007 – appeasing a significant proportion of the teaching force, but on the other, with a yet unfolding restructuring of teaching posts and promoted posts included as part of the package not being without its critics, particularly in the secondary sector, there is underlying concern for the promoted post structure. But even so, such criticism has not been accompanied with any relish for a ‘dogged resistance’, simply a ‘wait and see’. The ‘package’ meantime, has also now put in place what is considered an integrated national framework for Continuous Professional Development (CPD) for teachers in Scotland. This covers Initial Teacher Education, (ITE) the Standard for Full Registration, (SFR) general personal CPD itself under the banner of Professional Development and Review, (PDR) the Standard for Chartered Teacher, (SCT) and ultimately the Scottish Qualification for Headship, (SQH). The development of this national framework of CPD is ostensibly the responsibility of a Ministerial Strategy Committee for Continuous Professional Development, but this was only set up in October 2000 so, independent development and implementation of many of the components of the CPD framework were already well underway by the time the committee was formally established. (Purdon, 2003, p.423) Nevertheless, the committee now has stewardship of the ‘national framework’.

The framework itself is designed to allow of progression, with teachers opting for either a management route or a Chartered Teacher route through to higher pay scales after they have gone through ITE and achieved the SFR through their guaranteed probationary year employment. As yet, there are few, if any, teachers who have crossed from being full Chartered Teacher back in to a management route, but provision for such an eventuality is clearly to be left to the discretion of the employing Local Authority. But the idea of ‘recognised progression’ from ITE through SFR to CPD/PDR and SCT or management and thence to SQH. while new to the Scottish Educational scene, is nevertheless really based on a consolidation of all that has gone before. Indeed, the various components all had their origins in different concerns and each started life, really out-with any consideration of a national CPD framework. The continued drive to define what professional standards teachers ought to fulfil however, had become a global obsession by the end of the

millennium and in the case of Scotland, resulted in the publication of *A teaching Profession for the 21st Century (The McCrone Report)* (SEED, June, 2000) and *A teaching Profession for the 21st Century: Agreement reached following recommendations made in the McCrone Report.* (SEED, January, 2001) Because of the ultimate emphasis on 'agreement', this implied a more universal acceptance by all stakeholders of the components of the national framework. This emphasis on 'agreement' also helps in some way to explain the more quiescent attitude towards anomalies, but it is probably the anomalies, by their very nature of being anomalies, that isolates individual instances, preventing them from becoming of import. In addition, however, and for the purposes of this exploration, this 'agreement' also implies an endorsement of a 'competences' based approach to the defining of the professional standards teachers ought to fulfil. This is indeed quite clear cut in the case of ITE, which must adhere to the 'competences' outlined in the *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland* (SOEID, 1998). But it is not quite so clear cut with regard to the SFR, CPD/PDR and SCT, where the link to the 'competences' contained in the *ITE Guidelines '98* is not directly specified and is therefore less well defined. That some sort of link exists, however, is without doubt. The question is, what sort of link is there and what are the implications of such a link?

Teacher Competences in the New Millennium, ITE, SFR, CPD/PDR, SCT

The competences contained in the *Guidelines '98* for ITE were eventually generally and quite widely accepted in TEIs although there was still the residue of critique surrounding the earlier *Guidelines '93* with some of the same dissenting voices (Carr, 1993; Stronnach, et al, 1994; Humes, 1995) from that time, continuing to question the need for a 'competences' structure. Nevertheless, as with most of the other enactments of policy, events were set to overtake and the ITE component of the national framework came under scrutiny.

[I]n the wake of the Dearing and Garrick Reports on higher education in general and the recommendations of the Sutherland Report on initial teacher education in particular ... the Scottish Executive's response ... was to set up a Standing Committee on Quality Assurance in Initial Teacher Education (SCQAITE) which was carefully constituted to ensure representation of all the key stakeholders, namely, the higher education institutions (HEIs), local authorities, schools, the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (SHEFC), the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS), HM Inspectors of Schools

– later to become HM Inspectors for Education (HMIE), the Scottish Executive and, crucially, the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA). The significance of the involvement of QAA should not be overlooked: this signified that initial teacher education was to be treated in the same way as other university ‘subjects’, such as Law, Chemistry or Engineering, all of which were to be subjected to ‘benchmarking’. (Christie, 2002, p.954)

This is an instance of the Scottish Executive, after taking power in 1999, firstly acting on a UK wide report, the Dearing Report, (1997) appended to which was the corresponding Scottish version of the report, the Garrick Report (1997) – that itself had emerged from a Scottish committee set up by the then Conservative controlled Scottish Office – and then following through on specific recommendations made in the Sutherland Report, (1997) all of which had been published in the immediate aftermath of the New Labour victory in 1997. It is also an instance of the uniqueness of a Scottish solution to a particularly Scottish situation. The Teacher Training Agency set up in 1994 for England and Wales held control of Initial Teacher Training (ITT) there, and in fact the change in nomenclature emphasised a view of Training rather than Education, as was and still is the case in Scotland. This itself, should not go unnoticed and is not without import. The use of the term Teacher Training was a deliberate change from Teacher Education south of the border and in much of the ensuing political rhetoric, the emphasis was on the vocational training of teachers as distinct from their education with all that such entails with regard to ideological and professional views of status.

This consultative process in Scotland, thus involving all of the key stakeholders in ITE, produced a final document, (QAA, 2000) but in its production, the third of three guiding principles – to ensure that all of the existing ‘competences’ would be subsumed within the new Benchmark Statements (Christie, 2002, p.955) – revealed a commitment to upholding a competences based approach to ITE in Scotland. The emphasis on ‘training’ in the case of England and Wales is revelatory in that CBET programmes are generally applied in vocational contexts. The Training Agency and the Teacher Training Agency are themselves off-shoots of the Manpower Services Commission, (MSC) itself set up as an organisation for encouraging vocational training in education generally and schools particularly. This guiding principle, therefore, is as revelatory in the Scottish context for its adherence to a CBET

programme in at least the case of ITE. The final document, *Standard for Initial Teacher Education in Scotland: Benchmark Information* (QAA, 2000) also makes this quite explicit through

... the level of the expected features, numbering a total of eighty eight statements, [through which] direct comparisons can be made with the competences in the 1998 guidelines and [where] cross references are provided to show that all of these are indeed subsumed in the new standard. (Christie, 2002, p.955)

Lest such ‘expected features’ should then be seen as operating in any way like a behaviourist checklist however, great pains were taken to emphasise their ‘indicative or illustrative’ nature even although the logical inconsistency is then that something that is ‘expected’ is only ‘illustrative’. (Christie, 2002, p.955)

This account, taken from Christie, (2002, pp.952-963) serves to illustrate once more the mythical ‘domestication’ of policy that tends to occur in Scotland. The contradiction alluded to above, is thus supposedly ultimately resolved through the stress placed on the discretion and latitude given to HEIs in the design and specification of ITE programmes. (Christie, 2002, p.955) Nevertheless, the fact that in the published version, the label ‘expected feature’ is retained might be more revelatory of the unofficial view of policy management as alluded to at the end of Chapter 2 of this thesis (pp.40-41) and eloquently expressed by Humes that ‘behind the charm of pluralism lies the menace of corporatism’ (Humes, 1999, p.76) with the spectre of a single personality able to extend great influence over the generation and enactment of policy under the guise of consensus. It is a little difficult also to square the circle with respect to the ‘competences’ contained in the *Guidelines* ’98, being the third part of a set of ‘guiding principles’. The competences in the *Guidelines* ’98 were on statute – it would not have been possible to have ignored them entirely. Certainly the Benchmark Standards could have been constructed without such explicit reference to them, but the legitimacy of such ‘benchmarks’ might then have been in serious question in any real dispute. In addition, starting with ‘benchmarks’ and then ensuring that they subsume the ‘competences’ is simply a reversal of starting with competences and constructing outcome statements that break down such ‘competences’ into more behaviourist orientated or observable criteria. The fact that one benchmark statement might allude to more than one competence might

be construed as simply showing a lack of imagination when compared to the lists compiled and illustrated in the previous two chapters.

This realm of 'legitimacy' however, also extends to the SFR and the SCT if not the 'standard' for CPD/PDR. But to understand this requires a little deeper understanding of the workings of such 'policy consensus' and the influences brought to bear on what is ostensibly a mix of compulsory (statutory) and voluntary (non-statutory) requirements. Indeed, the SFR itself is strictly to

... fulfil the statutory registration requirements in that it claims to provide 'a professional standard against which reliable and consistent decisions can be made on the fitness of new teachers for full registration with the General Teaching Council Scotland' (GTCS, 2001: 3) and in that sense is compulsory. (Purdon, 2003, p.424)

In at least this sense therefore, the expectation would be that the SFR would accommodate the ITE standard, the justification being that the profession would expect coherence between the standards for ITE and SFR. The SFR was itself, however, part of the Teacher Induction Project, (TIP) a joint GTCS and SEED project which was set up to develop a standard that would specifically 'align with the competences outlined in the *Guidelines '98.*' (Purdon, 2003, p425) With the development of benchmarks for ITE, the TIP remit expanded and focused additionally on accommodating the new ITE standard. What is interesting, however, is that there was no consultation either at this juncture, or at the inception of the TIP, to determine the conceptual underpinning of the Standard. (Purdon, 2003, p425) This is not so unusual in that there was similarly no attempt in either 1993 or 1998 to determine the conceptual underpinning of the competences contained in the *Guidelines '93* or the *Guidelines '98*. But, the point to be made explicit is that initially the SFR was to align with the competences in the *Guidelines '98* and latterly, according to Purdon, (2003, p.425) they were also to accommodate the new ITE benchmark standards. In either event, the link with the competences in the *Guidelines '98* is unequivocal. Indeed, the two standards are identically structured around the same three aspects of professional development, namely 'values and commitment', 'knowledge & understanding', and 'skills and abilities', and the

... detailed statements contained in the two Standards [are] ... very similar, with most of the elements of the SFR being identified in the document as

consolidating or extending the relevant expected features contained in the ITE Benchmark statements. (Christie, 2002, p.958)

although some distinctive terminology is also to be found. The dropping of the term 'Benchmark' for 'Professional Standard' for instance and the replacement of 'expected features' with 'Illustrations of professional practice'. As reflected earlier, a cynical view might find in such, terminological intrigue.

A similarly convoluted political path can be traced in establishing a link between the competences in the *Guidelines '98* and the SCT but it is a much more tenuous link in some respects and in fact rests more on the link between the SFR and the SCT. Nevertheless, as will be shown, there are broad similarities, as would be expected from a national framework. The SCT has its origins in *Proposals for Developing a Framework for Continuing Professional Development for the Teaching Profession in Scotland* (SOEID, 1998) The consultation that followed highlighted a need to acknowledge very good classroom teachers and it was suggested that a standard for 'expert teacher' be developed. However, as previously mentioned, in the aftermath of the '97 election result and the commitment to Devolution in 1999, events were set to overtake many policy proposals that emanated from the Scottish Office. With the Scottish Executive taking over the reins of power and the ensuing desire to have a Scottish Executive stamp on policy, publication of the McCrone Report (SEED, 2000) and the subsequent Agreement (SEED, 2001) revealed that the 'expert teacher' had become the 'chartered teacher', with not only professional recognition, but increased salary levels too. (Purdon, 2003, p.428) South of the border there were similar overtures and the establishment of the Advanced Skills Teacher (AST). This entitled teachers there to apply for AST status, but unlike in Scotland where all teachers at the top of the main grade salary scale are eligible to enter a programme leading to Chartered Teacher status, entry is strictly controlled by the school and the DfES whose documentation indicates that only around 3% - 5% of teachers nationally will be eligible. (Christie, 2003, p.961)

In developing the 'standard' for Chartered Teacher, there was an attempt to have an even broader consultation process, but it failed to fan the flames of inspiration for many teachers. The consultation process actually took place in two stages with an

invitation to participate extended to every teacher personally through the GTCS and then, because of an apparent confusion with the returns made through this medium, a subsequent invitation was extended through teachers employers. Overall, the Ministerial Strategy Committee for CPD had responsibility for developing the CPD strategy and within that, one of its specific remits was to oversee the work of the Chartered Teacher Programme, ostensibly in a steering group capacity, but it was able to bring significant influence to bear. It was this committee that in fact requested that the Standard be re-written to cohere more evidently with the SFR and indeed Consultation Paper 1 actually states that the Standard for Chartered Teacher is intended to align with the standards for ITE, SFR, and the SQH. It is this that then prompts Purdon to state that

[i]t is entirely conceivable, therefore, that adherence to this statement might be inconsistent with the earlier sentiment expressed that the project team did not have a pre-determined solution in mind. (Purdon, 2003, p.430)

The pre-determined solution? – Adherence to a competence based methodology that links the ‘competences’ contained in the *Guidelines ‘98* with the ‘benchmarks’ and ‘expected outcomes’ of ITE and thence with the ‘professional standard’ and ‘illustrations of professional practice’ of SFR. The alignment with SCT is then accomplished by extending and adapting the three aspects of professional development from the foregoing ITE Benchmark Standard and the SFR, that is, ‘values and commitment’, ‘knowledge and understanding’ and ‘skills and abilities’, which then become the four ‘key components’ of the SCT, replacing ‘skills and abilities’ with ‘personal attributes’ and adding ‘professional action’ as an independent component.

The criticism of advocating a Machiavellian intent in an overall structure for a pre-determined solution is, of-course, that this signifies a degree of consensus among the stakeholders that is simply difficult if not impossible to substantiate and sustain. But, it is in generally subscribing to a standards-based approach to teaching, that there is in effect, uncritical participation in the ‘standards-based movement’ (Delandshere & Arens, 2001, p.547). This is quite understandable because ‘words like ‘competence’ and ‘standards’ are good words, modern words; everybody is for standards and everyone is against incompetence’. (Norris, 1991, p.331) The corollary, however, is that such adherence ‘makes it difficult to entertain alternative

perspectives on teaching and education outside the framework provided ... by the standards.’ (Delandshere & Arens, 2001, p547) That there are competing alternative perspectives (See Delandshere & Arens, 2001, pp.548-549) is quite possibly a reason for Scottish Executive support of a national framework of CPD based on standards because such a framework then permits of greater control of the teaching profession, who teaches and what is taught – raising again the question mark over the unmistakable opportunity for ideological and political considerations to outweigh genuine pedagogical developments. It is then in this sort of consideration that Purdon (2003) suggests that

... it could be argued that the SFR and the SCT, and indeed the entire CPD framework, are more about encouraging a certain way of thinking about teaching and teachers than they are about planning a coherent framework for the professional development of teaching. (Purdon, 2003, p.434)

It is therefore through such consideration that the implications of linking ‘competences’ to ‘benchmarks’ and thence to ‘standards’, none of which have any real underpinning conceptual justification, that it might be concluded, there is an urgent need to delve deep in to the conceptual basis of competence as it is understood in competence based approaches to education and training in general, but in teacher education in particular.

Concluding Remarks on the Production of Measures

The criteria outlined for systems of appraisal of teachers which have been referred to in this and in the two previous chapters attempt to cover an enormously wide range of aspects related to teachers and teaching. In so doing, they inevitably cross the boundary between aspects related to the direct appraisal of teacher competence and aspects related to staff development. They also combine task related criteria with trait related criteria and ideological with pedagogical measures. However, it is almost of necessity that this should be the case when there is an apparent duality of purpose concerning the appraisal of teacher competence.

Through chapters 7 and 8, it is easy to see that the categorisations of criteria are, in the first instance, designed primarily as an aid to an ‘appraisal process’ that focuses attention on particular areas of teaching. In addition they also attempt to group criteria which have a greater apparent affinity with each other. But the fact

that there are some significant differences among the lists cited is at least testimony to the complexity of teaching and to the fact that some individual criteria are related to more than one particular category.

This might not seem so serious a problem as it initially appears for the compilation of such lists because while the lists of criteria do have marginally different aims they are indeed attempting to evaluate similar aspects. In the main, therefore, it might be concluded that there is a considerable degree of consensus in the literature about most of the criteria which might be used in a system of assessing teacher competence. A fully comprehensive checklist might try to include all criteria, but as has been pointed out such a checklist may well have an inordinate length and lead to distorted teaching approaches as teachers attempt to accommodate all of the criteria. In attempting to be both systematic and brief, therefore, some commentators have included criteria within particular categories which others consider too broad. Thus, in some lists additional categories appear or the teaching task is more extensively broken down. Nevertheless, all of the lists do attempt to cover, in varying degrees of complexity, the work of the teacher in the classroom; the degree of subject knowledge; the teacher's ability to communicate the subject knowledge; the teacher's relationships with, pupils, parents, and other members of staff; the teacher's participation in, in-service; the pastoral or extra-curricular curriculum; school policy construction; and personal professional development.

It is indeed evident however, that such checklists of criteria have been drawn up, to a large extent, behind closed doors, in an obvious attempt to accommodate the multi-purpose nature of evaluation of teacher competence. But for any system of appraisal of competence to be effective, it is recognised that there must be support from teachers. Thus, rather than define what teaching ought to be by prescribing a checklist of criteria drawn up by eager and willing participants it was always advocated that it might well be appropriate to ask teachers what criteria they consider to be of import for the appraisal of teachers and thus arrive at a checklist of criteria which defines what teaching ought to be from their perspective.

What criteria would be used And how would those criteria differ from those currently used Is there indeed any consensus within the profession

This, indeed, would form the base of a very interesting empirical study (Stenning, W.I. and Stenning, R. 1984. pp85-86).

Alternative procedures for determining such classifications were even considered necessary rather than simply desirable. Nevertheless, conceptions of teaching from within the profession might be found to be considerably at odds with conceptions of teaching from without. Indeed, Macintyre (1990) in his initial work into the criteria that might be acceptable for teachers revealed a significant distinction between criteria that would be easy to appraise and criteria that would require significant value judgements, displaying a degree of disquiet about who judges.

In the 1980s and 90s such prompt lists of criteria as are cited in chapters 7 and 8 were actually piloted in many schools, particularly in England, but to varying degrees.

The pilot LEAs ... adopted a cautious approach to observation; in one, the criteria [were] a matter for negotiation between observer and appraisee. In another, the arrangements [were] thorough but [with an] emphasis ... on description rather than judgement and evaluation. (DES. 1989a. p17).

This would suggest that there was in fact a considerable element of mistrust about a system of appraisal which was, in the first instance, based on directly observing teachers and appraising their effectiveness according to a checklist of criteria. But the trend, according to Darling-Hammond, (1989) should have been for even more widespread use of 'objective', low inference evaluation instruments. Although the inherent problem in using checklists of such so called objective criteria is that

... [s]uch instruments are called 'objective' because they require the evaluator only to note whether particular teaching behaviours are present or absent, not whether the actions observed are good or bad, appropriate or inappropriate. (Darling-Hammond, L. 1989. p147).

In adopting a competence check list approach then, there was an attempt to make evaluation 'evaluator proof' by reducing the rating process to a tallying exercise which then required no inference or judgement.

This is consonant with the bureaucratic approach to evaluation, since the designation of who evaluates is a function of role rather than expertise. Without expertise, judgements cannot be trusted. However, the attempt to make evaluation judgement-free makes it instead trivial and meaningless. (Darling-Hammond, L. 1989. p147).

Checklists of criteria would appear, therefore, to be very blunt instruments with which to appraise the effectiveness or competence of teachers.

Thus the more open process of 'consultation' that appears to have emerged in the post New Labour victory of 1997, was indeed welcomed, and in Scotland in the aftermath of devolution in 1999 considerable effort was expended by the Scottish Executive in dismantling the schemes more overtly aligned with 'teacher appraisal' for the purposes of dismissing 'incompetent' teachers. In their place the development of a national framework for CPD, however, has continued to suffuse the profession in Scotland with an elaborate jargon of competences, benchmarks and standards. In this chapter, lists of such benchmark statements and standards are not directly included, as such checklists were in chapters 7 and 8 with lists of criteria and competences, partly because the benchmarks and standards are now in current usage and easily obtainable and partly because the 'expected features' in the benchmark statements, some eighty eight of them, cover some fourteen pages. Mainly, however their exclusion here is because the exploration is of competence and the underpinning conceptualisations of competences. It was sufficient therefore, in the case of Scottish Education now, to establish a link with the competences contained in the *Guidelines '98*.

It is through establishing such a link, however, that the professed openness of the consultation process can be questioned. In drawing together the disparate strands and components of the national framework there has been consultation. But while the level of consultation has been commended the quality of consultation and the handling of the consultation process in particular, it has been argued, show significant influences being brought to bear in coordinating an alignment, each component with the other, but with the competences contained in the *Guidelines '98* as the underpinning value system. It is therefore right to focus on the concept of competence as understood in competence based education and training. (CBET)

SECTION V
THE CONCEPT

Chapter 10

The Turn to Competence

Introduction

From the lists of competence statements contained in the documents cited in the chapters in the previous section, it is evident that there are categorisations into groups and even sub groups, of criteria that purport to have some form of ‘stand-alone’ relevance for features of teaching sufficient to differentiate them from other groups of criteria and, as conceded, there are similarities in how each actually classifies some of the categories. This then, is suggestive of generic structures or understandings that underlie such categories. Nevertheless, there is an attempt in some of the lists to ‘round-off’ while in others there is the attempt to break down relentlessly all the aspects of the teacher’s rôle in the education and schooling of their charges. But such grouped lists of competence statements consequently not only imply a particular understanding of the nature of the teaching task, but also a particular understanding of the nature of the teacher or more correctly of the *desired* nature of the teacher. Thus there is a blending of positive and normative aspects of the rôle of teachers in the education and schooling of young people. This is hardly a surprising revelation and it easily resolves into the pedagogical and ideological aspects of measures of accountability already mentioned. The particular relevance, however, is in the manner that this must thereafter elevate one understanding above another understanding and how each then conflates the pedagogical with the ideological to varying degrees. But while any overt attempt to elevate a distinctively partisan ideological, and thus normative, understanding will always meet with a much wider resistance than one less so, it is the subtlety of the conflation and the level of partisan support that will determine the degree of compromise, if any, that

may thereafter result. This is what, as might be considered, takes place under the heading of 'domestication', a term vividly used by Stronnach *et al* (1994) to allude to the 'horse-trading' that is carried out before the final implementation of policy in the context of Scotland. It is in this process of domestication, however, that there are distinctive persuasions that are then as open to misunderstanding. In order to come to terms with the particular form of domestication or persuasions in regard to understandings of competence, therefore, it is illuminating to explore something of understanding itself.

According to Ryle, (1949) 'misunderstanding is a by-product of knowing *how*'. (Ryle, 1949, p. 58). Thus, to misunderstand requires some facility in knowing *how*. It necessarily follows then that a prerequisite of misunderstanding is indeed, understanding. To elaborate: to misunderstand is actually to anticipate wrongly a procedure of a known process while recognising that such anticipation of said procedure is in actuality a possible procedure of the known process. Take for example a game of draughts, different players will use different tactics and each might anticipate wrongly the others next move. Misunderstanding therefore is not lack of understanding. Lack of understanding, in contrast, by its very nature implies no facility in knowing *how* and leads not to misunderstanding but to untruth. That is, a non-legitimate anticipation of a procedure in an unknown process. Returning to the analogy with chequered board games, an onlooker observing a game of chess for the first time, who is familiar only with the rules of draughts, may experience some early confusion from the different moves of pieces, but then anticipate 'overtaking' rather than 'replacement' of opposing pawns on the board from moves in the game.

By similar token, however, misleading also implies understanding. Indeed, Ryle's own supposedly overtly expressed attempt 'to find out how far he could push analytic behaviourism' (Flew, 1984, p. 310) might be considered by some as masterful misleading. His pejorative 'dogma of the Ghost in the machine' (Ryle, 1949, p.17) thesis quite possibly depends on misleading the nonetheless understanding reader. This is after all, part of the art of persuasion and finesse. It may also be the case however that Ryle's thesis is fundamentally sound and that his own directly expressed concern that 'the general trend of [the] book will

undoubtedly, and harmlessly, be stigmatised as ‘behaviourist’’, (Ryle, 1949, p.308) will ever aid his thesis remain enigmatic. Ryle, according to his own analysis therefore, might not have been trying to ‘push analytic behaviourism’ at all.

But, and although not categorical, talk of misleading is nearly always a deliberate act by a perpetrator while misunderstanding is more likely to be benign anticipation by a spectator. It’s the fact that the result of both may thereafter be offered up as theses that presents a problem of interpretation of critical argumentation, notwithstanding the muddying of waters by lack of understanding. Thus, when dealing with a concept such as ‘competence’ and while dealing with it as it has come to be understood, it must be accepted that there is room for misadventure. The concept of competence then, should not be taken for granted unfailingly simply because the ‘administered world’ needs consistent conceptual certainties in order to exercise control.

The Turn, Understandings of Competence and the Competence Vocabulary

It is precisely in the ‘turn to *competence*’ within Scottish Education, as within other sectors and other countries, that there is advocated, an appealing simplicity and utility argument that has tended to dominate discourse, thereafter leading to the production of technically constructed statements of objective outcomes known as ‘elements of competence’. (Jessup, 1991, p. 32) Consequently, initial teacher education, training, probation, registration and professional development in Scotland all must now conform to formal written ‘Standards’ (QAA, 2000; QAA, 2001; SE, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c, 2002d) that almost profess ‘reification’ of such statements. (Hyland, 1997, p. 492) (Refer to Chapter 9; Purdon 2003; Christie, 2003)

(The ‘administered world’ indeed finds it useful to reify such individual statements because it is in fact much more problematic to fashion a permanent universally accepted concept of competence – a point that will be reflected upon later.)

Such advocacy has some strong support in Scotland, particularly among the ‘*Leadership Class*’, (Humes, 1986) but advocacy itself often has to appeal more to the force of rhetoric, making it

...possible to conclude that a rhetorical broadbrush approach is needed to stimulate radically new ways of thinking ...[with] “careful definition” and “reasoned analysis” ... left to follow at their own pace. (Collin, 1989, p. 21 paraphrasing and citing Fagan, 1984, p. 2)

As such, advocacy is thus much more revealing of the relative strengths of stakeholders than of any justification from precise meaning through critical argumentation. Whether the appealing simplicity and utility argument is as a result of a thesis based on misunderstanding (or lack of understanding), or whether such argument is as a consequence of a deliberately misleading thesis, or whether indeed it is from justified critical argumentation, is then really of some principal concern.

In this ‘turn to competence’ in Scottish Education, there *is* underlying philosophy infused in the competence vocabulary, not always clearly articulated; there *is* interpretation of critical argumentation, whether from misunderstood or misleading theses; there *is* acceptance or rejection of the narrative of critical argumentation, displaying the strength of the ‘*Leadership Class*’. Thus, in understandings of competence, reside a wealth of meanings and connotations. As a consequence there is remaining controversy. There is therefore by no means a settled discourse.

That there is not only maintained advocacy for the appealing simplicity and utility argument inherent in an approach characterised by statements of competence, but also whole scale adoption of such statements of competence within the various ‘*Standards*’ documents (QAA, 2000; QAA, 2001; *Standard for Full Registration* (SFR) SE 2002; *Standard for Chartered Teacher* (SCT) SE 2002; (Now listed as ‘benchmarks’ and ‘expected features’ in these documents, but see Chapter 9.)) in the face of what can only be described as sustained critical counter argumentation to the contrary, (Short, 1984a, 1984b, 1985; Hyland, 1991, 1993a, 1993b, 1993c, 1994, 1995, 1997; Norris, 1990, 1991; Carr, 1993; Stronnach, et al, 1994; Barnett, 1994; Humes, 1995; Lum, 1999; Brundrett, 2000) might suggest that there is something in the competence vocabulary and something in the use of the competence vocabulary in Scottish Education still unresolved. How the parties to the debate therefore

understand competence as a concept and understand its usefulness is worthy of further investigation. Indeed, whether there is in fact understanding, misunderstanding or even misleading predicated on a desire among advocates for a more 'administered world', requires the understanding reader be at pains to avoid misadventure.

To understand competence itself however, does not in and of itself require that a definition be elicited directly and held up as a measure in the first instance. This is so because, following, and paraphrasing a little, the contention of R.S. Peters,

...to formulate a definition of ... ['competence']... and then to see whether this would fit all examples of it. ... would reveal a certain insensitivity ... to the recent 'revolution in philosophy'. (Peters, 1966, p. 23).

On the contrary therefore, to understand competence requires that it be subject to rigorous analytical inquiry in an attempt to elicit its depths of meaning and to establish whether its uses in the context of evaluating teacher effectiveness are really appropriate and fruitful.

For a fundamental understanding of competence then, Peters' further contention, drawn from Wittgenstein, is particularly pertinent.

The uses of a word are not always related by falling under a definition ... Rather they often form a 'family' united 'by a complicated network of similarities overlapping and criss-crossing; sometimes overall similarities, sometimes similarities of detail'. This is particularly true of the sorts of terms in which philosophers are interested; for they are usually very general terms, which have developed a life of their own in a variety of contexts. They have seldom been consciously erected to perform a limited function. (Peters, 1966, p. 23. Using and citing Wittgenstein, 1953, p.32)

With the use of competent, competence, competences, competency and competencies by the 'competence movement' there is certainly a 'family' of words united by a 'complicated network'. There is indeed an extended vocabulary. But what Wittgenstein really meant by 'family resemblance' was of course that within the 'family' of 'uses' of a single word there are often confluences of meanings and indeed inappropriate applications of meaning and thus tortuous relations that might defy falling under a definition.

In the turn to competence, however, it might be suggested that the intent behind the work of McClelland (1973) and the McBer (now Hay/McBer) consultancy – an originator of the modern *competency* movement – was indeed to the contrary and *competency* may actually have been ‘consciously erected to perform’ just such ‘a limited function’. An unravelling of this complicated network of vocabulary is therefore essential. But, there are difficulties because

[a]s tacit understandings of the words have been overtaken by the need to define precisely and operationalise concepts, the practical has become shrouded in theoretical confusion and the apparently simple has become profoundly complicated. (Norris, 1991, pp. 331-332)

Indeed, Barnett (1994), in considering the *Limits of Competence* as opposed to *limits* to *competency* or *competencies*, in the space of a single page, refers to competent twice, competence four times, competences twelve times, competency twice and competencies once (Barnett, 1994, p. 73) and at no time attempts to differentiate. This cannot simply be an oversight on the part of Barnett. It is more likely better explained by faithfulness to original texts. But it is also suggestive of the fact that his analysis on *limits* may not be dependent on differentiation between and among the ‘definitions’, the ‘meanings in use’, and/or the ‘conceptions in use’. Barnett’s analysis therefore might be based on the consideration that there is a possible or actual conceptual limit beyond which *competence*, in all its guises, has lesser meaning or application or usefulness. Barnett’s title, however, implies a *limit* to competence as opposed to a *limit* to competency or competencies, but it is useful to consider if this limit as such is a conceptual limit or a definitional limit and indeed if it is all-encompassing or specific, reflecting on the implied meaning behind the McBer analysis or reflecting on the peculiarly specific NCVQ interpretation of competence. Admittedly, Barnett also fixes any *limit* strictly within the confines of the application of competence to higher education in the context of the UK. A wider conceptualisation of the *limits* of competence may therefore prove more difficult to establish.

Whether therefore, what is emergent from an exploration of the competence vocabulary is revealing of a distinctive dynamic meaning for parts of or for all of the family, or of fundamental differences in underlying philosophy, depends much upon the principal understandings of competence – concept, construct, model, paradigm.

tradition or narrative – and whether there is in addition, illumination of relative emphases on competent, competence, competences, competency and competencies in such elucidation.

Vocabulary: Concept, Construct, Model, Paradigm, Tradition, Narrative

An explanation of why there are multiple understandings of the competence vocabulary to explore, is that within the dynamic of ...‘very general terms, which have developed a life of their own in a variety of contexts...’ it

... may be that “competence” and “competency” have not yet been honed into logical, shared agreed concepts for use... In groping to understand the reality they wish to represent by these terms, individuals may still be largely employing their own personal constructs, and their conceptualisation may even be partly still at the preverbal stage. (Collin, 1989, p. 21)

Indeed, in an educationally unrelated reference to a distinction between American and British interpretations of *competence* itself, Partridge (1973) gives a ‘Usage’ or ‘Abusage’ notion, that competence

... is a fairly high degree of ability (in performance), but it falls short of *talent*, far short of *genius*: the following, therefore, rings oddly: ‘He showed ... extraordinary military competence’: John Gunther, *Inside Asia*, 1939. [*Competence*, to the American reader, is more suggestive of performance and may therefore be a stronger word than *talent* for Mr Gunther's purpose.] (Partridge, 1973, p. 123)

This is an extremely important observation to make, even in this, a most general sense.

More specifically and more specifically related to educational competence however, various commentators on the far side refer to competency and competencies – McClelland (1973), Klemp (1980), Boyatzis (1982), Mangham and Silver (1986), Morgan (1988), Prideaux and Ford (1988) – others refer only to competence – Kolb et al (1986), Raven (1986) – and still others on this side refer more readily to competence and competences – The Training Commission (1988) The Training Agency (1988) SOED (1993) SOEID (1998) Scottish Executive QAA (2000; 2001). This might be considered more than just a snobbish or unremarked UK rejection of a supposed transatlantic form of the word. Differences might indeed be so profound as to actually interfere with a straightforward conceptualisation of competence.

Competency itself, as currently connoted, does have a distinctive American pedigree and many of its ‘conceptions in use’ derive from the work of David McClelland, a Harvard psychology professor. It was he who founded the McBer (now Hay BcBer) consultancy and in a ground-breaking paper (McClelland, 1973)

...argued that traditional academic exams did not predict job performance or success in life, and were also often biased against minorities, women and others. He said that researchers should be looking for ways to identify other variables – “competencies” – that *could* predict success and which were unbiased, or at least less biased. (Adams, 1996 p. 44).

In the early 1970s, the McBer consultancy, following McClelland’s model, attempted to identify the characteristics of successful diplomats – a commission from the US State Department. The method was to identify these ‘competencies’ through looking at a *criterion sample* of diplomats, devising a technique of *behavioural event interviewing* based on the *critical incident method* and then, using a form of *factor analysis*, to categorise the characteristics – competencies – that differentiated successful from unsuccessful diplomats. Succeeding this work, another consultant with McBer, Richard Boyatzis, (1982), was later commissioned to examine the possibility of developing generic competencies. It was he, following the original thesis of McClelland (1973), who is then credited as setting down an explicit definition of the notion of competency that underpinned the original McBer work. But it is actually Klemm (1980), whom Boyatzis quotes, that makes explicit the now commonly accepted definition. However it is worth quoting Boyatzis at length because of the intriguing manner in which he ties it all together and specifically makes reference to generic competencies.

[A]n individual’s competencies are necessary but not sufficient for effective performance in a job. A *job competency* is “an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance in a job” (Klemm, 1980). A *job competency* is an underlying characteristic of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, skill, aspect of one’s self-image or social rôle, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses. The existence and possession of these characteristics may or may not be known to the person. In this sense, the characteristics may be unconscious aspects of the person (i.e., he or she is not aware of them or is unable to articulate or describe them).

Because job competencies are *underlying characteristics*, they can be said to be generic. (Boyatzis, 1982, pp. 20-21)

But this definition contrasts somewhat with that preferred by the occupational standards programme of the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) and

the work of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications, (NCVQ), in the UK. Their definition is based on job-orientated *functional analysis*, to identify the rôles and tasks of an occupation. The Training Commission

...clearly defines competence as: “the ability to perform the activities within an occupational area to the levels of performance expected in employment”. (Collin, 1989, p. 22; Training Commission, 1988; Training Agency, 1988, p.5)

These contrasting conceptual definitions have similarities, but they also reflect a subtle differing emphasis on the *person* and the *job*, respectively (Adams, 1996). They are also respectively indicative of a distinction that emphasises *effective or superior performance* and *expected levels of performance*, even although Jessup (1991) is at pains to point out, in the case of competence as understood by the NCVQ tradition,

... the term ‘competent’ ... does not refer to a lowish or minimum level of performance. On the contrary, it refers to the standard required successfully to perform an activity or function. (Jessup, 1991, p. 25)

It is interesting to point out that Jessup is then at further pains to explain that while the past trend has been for a narrow concept of competence a ‘considerable effort’ is now being exerted on organisations to broaden their concept of competence. Nevertheless, rather than tending towards a generic concept, the accepted NCVQ definition is, distinctively in a much narrower individual performance based mould. (Notwithstanding the ‘performance’ distinction alluded to by Partridge, 1973, p. 123)

It may be, however, that there is a broadening and a more comprehensively agreed conceptualisation of competence, formed by a ‘professional consensus’ within ITE in Scotland, professing that the competence vocabulary reflects no more than the consolidation of good practice, as understood. But nowhere is a conceptualisation articulated other than by inference from the statements of competence themselves. Neither the rationale within ‘*the Guidelines*’ nor the rationales within ‘*the Standards*’ for adopting the competence approach make any precise claim to conceptualisation although they do claim that the statements contained in the *Guidelines* ‘93 and *Guidelines* ‘98 are generic. Nevertheless, if there is at least an ‘understanding’ through ‘professional consensus’, unarticulated but tacit, then there is at least the idea of a consensual *construct*.

But this leads to further considerations because Norris' (1991) identifies three such *constructs* of competence to choose from – behaviourist, generic, and cognitive – although Hyland, (1993; 1997) commenting on and citing Norris' *constructs* considers them both as *models* and as *constructs*. (Hyland, 1997) Again however, Norris and Hyland as well as many other commentators also refer to the *concept* of competence (Norris, 1991; Hyland, 1993; Holmes & Joyce, 1993; Eraut, 1994; Knox, 2001) and Collin actually poses the question of whether the reality of competence is *construct* or *concept*. (Collin, 1989, p. 21)

On a similar tack to Hyland, Mansfield (1989, p. 27 and p. 38) suggests at least six *models* of competence. In tandem, Chetham & Chivers (1996) have also proposed a holistic *model* while Reynolds & Salter (1995) consider three *models*. Brundrett (2000) considers a 'competence *paradigm*' but comments on Glatter's (1997, p.190) 'competence *model*' and the competence *approach* by Bush (1998, p. 327). Indeed many commentators also refer to the competency *approach* or write about competency-*based* approaches. Eraut, (1994, pp. 168-169) on the other hand, interprets Norris' *constructs* as 'research *traditions*'

On something of a heretical tack to the above comment on eliciting definitions, and notwithstanding the problems inherent in any attempt at defining conceptualisations in the argot, standard dictionary and tentative vernacular definitions of concept, construct, model, paradigm, tradition and narrative, are illuminative of some of the difficulties such conceptualisations present for this exploration of understandings.

A *concept* is an internal representation of something that we understand if we can somehow represent the idea to ourselves. Similarly, a *construct* is something that can be composed or framed mentally. A *model* is a type of 'mini-theory' while a *paradigm* is a set of beliefs, shared by a group, of what counts as true and valid knowledge. A *tradition* is something based on established custom or ingrained habit while *narrative* relates to language games which convey rules on which group or social order is based conferring rights to speak and authentication as a group

member, bestowing legitimacy according to the position of the narrator in the group hierarchy.

In conceptualising competence then, it is imperative that we can represent the idea to ourselves in order to understand it. The idea is therefore something that is firstly *accommodated*. It is an attempt to understand what the idea means for others. It is indeed then, a first step in understanding. Conceptualising competence therefore actually entails understanding it as concept, but the conceptualisation may better then be understood in the form of construct, model, paradigm, tradition or narrative.

In conceptualising competence as a construct then, the implication is of composing or framing the idea mentally and this is suggestive of an internalisation that involves greater emphasis on *assimilation*. As a ‘mini-theory’ or model the conceptualisation goes beyond the individual and has some kind of testable structure with some kind of normative overtone and an idealised notion accepted by a group. As a paradigm it should have in addition to this, a substantial epistemological basis with very probably a philosophical justification. As a tradition the conceptualisation relies on custom or habit and is probably therefore predicated on some kind of *closed* or *static* model or established paradigmatic conceptualisation.

Narrative, on the other hand, suggests a more *open* or *dynamic* conceptualisation but also one that is then ‘policed’ by the ‘received wisdom’ with ‘strategies of containment’ that might be suggested to

... include the following: careful control of the flow of information ...; initiation of those admitted ... into a conformist bureaucratic ideology; employment of a disarming rhetoric of partnership and empowerment; the marginalizing of dissent; skilful circumscribing of the nature and scope of research enquiries; promotion of a cult of managerialism which encourages concentration on ‘how’ rather than ‘why’ questions. (Humes, 1999, p.76)

While commentators on competence then, all attempt some kind of conceptualisation of competence or take others’ as given or assume tacit understandings, it is pertinent to investigate what they might actually mean by their conceptualisations, givens and understandings. There are indeed such numbers of commentators, all of whom articulate their understandings of the competence

vocabulary in terms of some or all of the above – at times paying greater or lesser attention to specificity of their terminology – that it may well be germane, now to understand competence as *narrative*.

The Vocabulary and an Initial Conceptualising of Competence

In the Scottish context, statements of competence contained in the *Guidelines '93/ Guidelines '98* have been translated in to competences. (SOED, 1993; SOEID, 1998; QAA, 2000; QAA, 2001) But, as pointed out, there is a family of words, a vocabulary. There is also competency (McClelland, 1973, p. 11) and *competencies* (McClelland, 1973, p. 9). That there is still need for clarification in the use of these terms is evidenced by the continued use of *competences* in the ITE Guidelines and in related documentation back-grounding the Standard for Full Registration (SFR) and the Standard for Chartered Teacher (SCT) (SOED, 1993; SOEID, 1998; QAA, 2000; QAA, 2001) while McNally, *et al* (2003) have used the term *competencies* throughout in their recent paper *Researching Early Learning*. This switch may be to differentiate their Early Learning research from Teacher Education research, but whatever the reason, in the case of McNally *et al*, this is a switch in terminology. (The pamphlet versions of SE Documents issued to teachers for SFR and SCT eschew reference to competence and refer to capacities. (SE, 2002a, SE, 2002c)) It is significantly helpful therefore to be quite clear about the vocabulary and the encompassing of other concepts under the umbrella. (Reference Chapter 9)

Competency is a derived term. As pointed out, in the context of current management education it stems from McClelland's (1973) desire to understand 'competencies' – those attributes of managers which give rise to 'effective or superior performance in a job'. The word competency, in this context, is not always used as a synonym for competence even although dictionary definitions often conflate the terms, but it is now apparent that competency has indeed

... come to refer to a specified attribute that may be possessed by someone, perhaps within a series of related *competencies*, connoting **both** a concrete *category* on which a person's adequacy or sufficiency may be judged **and** that *quality* or *state of being* which categorises a person as being competent, ... The word *competence* has normally been reserved for the second of these connotations, ...and when one is said to have *competence* ...it ordinarily means that he/she possesses this general quality or state of being but we do not

know specifically what he/she is capable of doing. (**bold** emphasis added)
(Short, 1984b, p. 165)

This shift in meaning

...has been great enough to permit synonymizing with the word *competency* another word *performance* that has a connotation corresponding to the first (and only the first) connotation stated for *competency* ... performances have [thereafter, and quite unashamedly] been taken to be *categories of competence* that could be tested and measured for competence, for the *quality* of being competent. (Short, 1984c, pp. 201-202)

This is what has led to competency lists, in a general sense, being derived empirically and set up as expected performance, even 'though attributes evidencing true competence can only be *ascribed* to someone, not *prescribed*' for someone. (Collin, 1989, p. 22; Short, 1984b, p. 166; 1984c, p. 202) It is also pertinent at this point to reflect again on Partridge's observation that '*Competence*, to the American reader, is more suggestive of performance', (Partridge, 1973, p. 123) and to reflect on Boyatzis' contention that the

... existence and possession of these characteristics may or may not be known to the person. In this sense, the characteristics may be unconscious aspects of the person (i.e., he or she is not aware of them or is unable to articulate or describe them) ... (Boyatzis, 1982, pp. 20-21)

The treating of achievements in performance as qualities of persons is indeed a semantic shift that is unjustified, according to Short, (1984b, p. 166) on any grounds. That it has occurred, however, reflects the change in the nature of discourse in the debate on competence. It reflects on the change from a distinctively behaviourist tradition in CBTE to a more generic tradition with overarching qualities as described by Eraut (1996) and Norris (1991). But it also hints at the dogged persistence of behaviourism in the context of the UK, because even although generic approaches 'differed in almost every respect' from CBTE, the NCVQ interpretation still construes it as a description of an *action*, *behaviour* or *outcome* which the person should be able to demonstrate.

This analysis contrasts with the conflation of terms in the competence family of uses noted earlier and reflects, substantially perhaps, more on the rhetoric of advocates of competence approaches. (It might indeed be quite illuminating to consider whom the advocates and stakeholders are in the competence endeavour.)

Competence-based approaches, it must be reflected, are first and foremost a management endeavour and are endorsed by nearly all forms of management institutions, including, it would appear, government Ministries on both sides of the Atlantic. From this management institution perspective, the rhetorical defence often cited is, that a rhetorical broad-brush approach is needed to stimulate radically new ways of thinking – careful definition and reasoned analysis being left to follow at their own pace. (Colin, 1989, p. 21) But the problems that might arise in an educational context however, if the rhetoric is ultimately found to conflict with reality, may result in the educational endeavour suffering significant dysfunction. There is therefore an urgent need to unravel the existing confusions over the conceptualisations of competent, competence, competences, competency and competencies and then to examine whether a use in the context of evaluating teacher effectiveness is really appropriate and fruitful. The difficulty is that the rhetoric has progressed to such a stage that while redefinition might be desirable, such action, for all intents and purposes, is probably no longer practicable. The need therefore, is more to concentrate pragmatically on conceptualising the *how* of how the term is actually used in current practice and then to contrast this, where possible, with the *how* of its original intended use and its use in the vernacular, to discover firstly if it has developed a ‘life of its own’ and secondly to determine whether or not any such conceptualisation can thereafter withstand sustained critique.

A Brief Outline of Commonly Understood Uses of Competence

The term competent itself, in most if not all its conceptualisation in current use, tends to be used in settings or situations where some judgement or verdict is to be implied about an individual. That to be considered a competent ...whatever indeed implies a judgement of some sort, can be evidenced by reactions to being considered competent. For many, it has a subtle pejorative undercurrent. To be considered competent might be to be considered adequate but not exceptional. To have given a competent performance as a ...whatever might be to be adjudged as having given an adequate but not exceptional performance as a ...whatever. That is, a judgement is held about an attribution of the ... whatever, and a comparison is then made based on an observable performance of an individual. The attribution, however, is an attribution of the collective ...whatever and not an attribution of the actual

performance of the individual. This is an example of what Austin, (1976), refers to as a 'verdictive'. It is an *ascribed* attribution based on other more widely observable factors and not dependent on them. It is not correct therefore to reduce the meaning to mere performance terms.

The use of the term also connotes some form of predictive function in both spatial and temporal terms. That is, to be considered a competent ...whatever, regardless of the personal pejorative interpretation, implies being a similarly competent ...whatever in differing situations and at differing times in the future. It is not simply a descriptive term for the individual ...whatever, but a comparative judgement of the individual ...whatever with the collective ...whatever. As a comparative therefore it also has normative overtones because the comparison is with some idealised ...whatever. Neither then, is it correct to reduce the meaning of the term to individual identifiable attributes, even although an individual's attributes may or may not affect their performance, because attributes evidencing true competence can only be conferred or *ascribed* to someone, not simply claimed or *prescribed*. (Short, 1984c, p.202)

It is pertinent to point out that in the forgoing brief analysis of the term competent it has been easier to situate it within the confines of a ...whatever, connoting some specific functional performance. This is an inelegant use of terminology to say the least, but it is used deliberately in first attempting to explicate the judgemental or 'verdictive' qualities of the term and second in attempting to explicate the normative overtones while maintaining the universality of the term. But the corollary is, however this illuminates the use of the term competent, it also illuminates limits to the term.

To explicate, to be described as competent in current use usually carries with it the connotation of being competent at something. Thus, while it is becoming increasingly rare but still not exceptional simply to describe someone as a competent *person*, it is more readily straightforward to describe someone as a competent ...*whatever*. To be described as competent therefore, implies 'displaying competence' in some particular realm of thought or action. But linking the word

competent with this adjectival sense of 'displaying competence', it should be noted. is seldom confused or misused. It is only when, on the one hand attempts are made to break down *competence* understood as a noun, in to specified *competences* that lower limits might be encountered and on the other, when more encompassing *qualities of competence* are invoked that upper limits might be encountered. This point is significant enough to merit repeating. In an educational setting, there is a distinct possibility that there are both lower and upper *limits* to the conceptualisation of *competence* with regard to judging the effectiveness of teachers.

Nevertheless, sidestepping the dangers of such constraints for the present and bringing briefly to the fore the normative overtones, develops this analysis of competent and competence a little further. When categorising a person as being competent or of displaying competence, in the adjectival sense, it is easily understood and there is an accepted hierarchical structure. A person can be more or less competent *at something*, a person can have a satisfactory degree of competence at a specified level *in something*. In this sense there is no confusion because the 'something' is defined in terms of a specified list of concrete categories. But, as pointed out, with competence, in a holistic noun sense, in which there is an understanding that competence means 'the possession of a general quality or state of being without knowing specifically what a person is actually capable of doing', (Short 1984b, p.165) there are no concrete categories.

In elucidating further, to exhibit competence in this sense implies being in command of general qualities that are worthwhile without having any particular commitment to content or to the correctness of the qualities. In other words, in the former adjectival sense competence is defined by reference to the something while in the latter holistic noun sense competence is defined by reference to the qualities of the individual. The relevance of Peters' (1966, p. 25) outline of the normative aspects of 'education' should be recognisable in this. Similar arguments indeed hold with competence. There is, in the latter understanding, a connection with commendation, but the commendation is dependent, not on moral grounds for its authority, but on recognition of the 'worthwhileness' of the general qualities exhibited or commanded for the purpose for which they are being executed. It might

be suggested that exhibiting competence in such a manner require that there be a specific or specified purpose, but this is not so. A purpose may be found or determined, but purpose, in the first instance, follows. It is possible therefore for both tyrants and saints to be commended in terms of their competence. What is interesting is whether the same might apply to incompetence. This is not meant simply as a flippant remark but is inserted to convey a concern with 'managerialism' as a proto ideology and thus an exercise of power with overtones of Foucauldian dividing, scientific classification and self-identification practices.

Conceptualising competence in this *quality* sense may also be likened to the similar conceptualisation of intelligence. Intelligence is intangible and as such is an abstract construct. Similarly, competence in this sense of general qualities or state of being is an abstraction. As such it is not a thing but a concept which postulates an attribution based on an inferred relationship between performance and purpose or function, but what it cannot infer is a direct relationship between actual performance and desired or required performance. In terms of the analogy with intelligence, it is only within the bounds of psychometric testing that any relationship between actual performance and desired performance can be inferred, not within the abstract concept of intelligence itself. Maintaining further this analogy with intelligence can deepen the understanding of the concept of competence in this vein because of developments in theories about intelligence. From Spearman (1904) through Freud and Piaget to Cattell (1963), Gardner (1983,1993) and Sternberg (1985), there have been increasing elaborations of the concept of intelligence. The whole conduct of the nature/nurture debate with regard to intelligence might have further significant relevance for the concept of competence, understood as a general quality or state of being. Indeed, competence might be considered as some form of manifestation of a 'practical intelligence'. It is relevant that Sternberg's triarchic theory actually uses the term *practical intelligence* and it is further relevant that when conducting research, Sternberg studied business executives and intimated that the 'approach to practical intelligence is that underlying successful performance in many real-world tasks is *tacit knowledge* of a kind that is never explicitly taught and in many instances never even verbalised'. (Sternberg, 1985) In addition, the further more recent work of Goleman (1996; 1998; Goleman *et al* 2002) postulates 'emotional

intelligence' as opposed to IQ and it is worthy of note that one of the *et al* of Goleman *et al* 2002, is none other than Richard Boyatzis.

Remarks on the Vocabulary and Understood Uses of Competence

This initial understanding of competence is firmly within traditional conceptualisations of what is ordinarily considered and understood as competence in an abstract sense. It also more readily encompasses understandings of competence as a *quality* or *state of being* attribution. That is, it is a holistic conceptualisation. However, the current and developing conceptualisations of competence, now having more specific 'meanings in use' with regard to accountability procedures, reveal a considerable strain in maintaining the high ground of competence as such an indefinable *quality* or *state of being*. Thus the general acceptance and use of the whole competence vocabulary, with an emphasis on 'concrete categories', now requires that the use of this language be made much clearer and more comprehensible. To do this, however, requires that competence be reinterpreted and that each term in the competence vocabulary be subjected to conceptual analysis. Indeed, conceptualising the irreducible unit of competence itself is *the* most essential part of the process.

Chapter 11

The Concept of Competence in the Turn to Competence

Introduction

In the previous chapter a contrast was eventually drawn between two broad conceptions of competence – as performance with concrete categories and as a quality or state of being. The fact that there are two such broadly recognisable distinctions emergent in the analyses of commentators begs the question of how respective conceptions have actually been built-up. The commonly understood and more traditional conception is being reinterpreted, but it is also being incorporated where necessary as in the case of Boyatzis' conception where it is claimed that job competencies are underlying characteristics which may or may not be known. There is therefore a conflation of meanings in the competence vocabulary and consequently a confusion of interpretations. It is pertinent therefore to look more closely at competence as a concept more in the abstract before further analysing its conceptions in use in educational settings and subjecting such conceptions to critique.

Conceptualising Competence

What follows is based on the work of Short (Short 1984b, p. 169-173; Short, 1984c, pp. 204-206; Short, 1985, p. 4-5) and adheres to the distinctions which he draws. Much of the broad theme of his analysis was used in the previous chapter but the depth of the analysis which underlies, is also an extremely valuable and comprehensive view of conceptualisations of competence. Even so, because Short is referring to the American system, the pertinent understanding is of competency and competencies. However, because of the comprehensiveness of the analysis, it is not

necessarily dependent upon that distinction being made explicit at this stage. Nevertheless, the subtle difference of greater emphasis on the 'person' and greater emphasis on the 'job' should always be held in mind because it does demand attention and it is emergent to some degree through the relevance of Short's analysis.

Short starts his analysis with identified normative conceptualisations of competence suggesting firstly, that if competence itself is considered as being *a competence* or *a competency* with corresponding *competences* or *competencies*, competence is thus being conceived of as 'a' competence and it follows that one conception is indeed that of competence as a thing. Similarly, a behaviour (singular) or a performance (group of integrated behaviours) is also conceived of as a class of things. To demonstrate competence then as a particular behaviour is really to demonstrate something very specific and limited. Indeed to specify behaviours in such circumstances is to designate acts that can be accomplished independently of purpose or intent. But the real test of competence actually comes in situations where purpose or intent obliges someone to choose the most appropriate behaviour as well as how to enact them satisfactorily. Thus to couch an objective or a competency or a competence in terms of 'selecting appropriate strategies' for example, is to specify something very broad and complex, not at all of the same order of specific behaviours or performances. This then begs the question of whether there is a logical connection (or an empirical connection) between specific behaviours and some broader unit of competence. But since there is no real hard evidence for such a connection, this further begs the question of the wisdom of employing this conception of competence at all, except in circumstances where the particular performance is actually commensurate with the largest unit of competence to be judged in a category such as in some simple physical skill. Only in such circumstances therefore, as with the replicative use of a learned behaviour or performance which requires limited cognitive judgement, is competence rightly understood as the doing of particular *things*.

A second conception of competence is of competence as a 'command of pertinent knowledge and/or skills'. This conception implies choosing and knowing why a

choice of a particular behaviour or response is made. A perspective must then be at work within the activity, not just a drive for proficiency of performance through replicative practise. Here, there is then an idea of the selection of particular knowledge or of a skill for use in a given situation. There are therefore in this normative conception, overtones which incorporate purpose or intent in the activity, an intent external to the actual activity and the person engaging in it. Conceiving of competence in this way is more than simply the doing of a particular *thing* as in the previous conceptualisation. It is indeed even much more than the 'skilling' of a person for particular activities because it draws the activities themselves in to scrutiny, where a variety of knowledge and skills at the person's command are utilised in determining what may be the appropriate activity to do as well as how to do it in specific circumstances. Competence of this kind really requires thinking and even although it is not an easy matter to determine what knowledge and skills are required to be competent, it is this conception of competence, as the command of pertinent knowledge and/or skills, that has served as the basis for many programmes including those involving teacher education. In this conceptualisation then, there is the additional implication of *thinking* and it might therefore be characterised by *thinking* and *doing*.

A third conception of competence is of competence as a 'degree or level of capability deemed sufficient in a particular category of activity'. This view of competence builds on previous conceptions but also admits of a judgement of competence being made by someone other than the individual, through the use of some standard or criteria external to the individual's own subjective standard. This requires that competence be compared with some public standard or criteria of excellence with the major problem of course, of determining what the public standard should then be. This concept of competence, however, is thus employed as an indicator of sufficiency in some realm of activity. But, the realm of activity being judged is usually much more complex than the simple performing of certain acts or behaviours, or of the having of certain knowledge and skills at ones command. Value judgements therefore characterise this conception. Value judgements are indeed incorporated into all conceptualisations of competence, but they are easily ignored in the first two outlined above in favour of specifying the things a person

can do or the knowledge and/or skills they can employ, leaving how much of these is enough or how well they should be accomplished unspecified. But in this third conceptualisation if minimally competent, sufficiently competent, adequately competent and maximally competent are not all the same, then there has to be a way to distinguish between them. There has to be a value judgement. The fact that publicly devised criteria for sufficiency may fluctuate does not exempt the employment of criteria and the making of judgements. It simply further compels recognition of the qualitative character of this 'ascription' of competence. But it is difficult to address the problem of criteria apart from concrete statements that pertain to a specific category of activity. The criteria, however, cannot be found ready-made and thus the turning to authorities or to empirical investigations to construct them, represents the incorporation of value judgements, as then does the exercise of using them. The need for some form of discourse analysis questioning why terms develop, why they have developed at a particular time, what other terms are then excluded, what the underlying rationale might be, how the term shapes thinking, and whose interests are served through such construction, becomes only too evident when value judgements are a prerequisite. In addition to thinking and doing therefore there is the implicit understanding that competence under this conceptualisation is bestowed or ascribed, not claimed and that such ascription incorporates political and moral sensitivities. It is also very pertinent to note at this point that such public standards, so devised, both *prescribes* and *describes* the 'idealised performance' against which an 'individual's competence' is ascribed. Drawing out this distinction a little more, it is further pertinent, that in relation to teaching,

... questions, [such as] "What standard ought a teacher meet in order to work satisfactorily?" and "What standards are teachers obliged to meet in order to work satisfactorily?" are similar in form but are very different. Because of the similarity they are easily confused and because of differences this confusion is damaging. The first question, the "ought to" question, is a value question. In this question one is asking for the principles, criteria, standards, etc., that are to guide one's actions. There is no suggestion in this question that the answer will necessarily involve a description of what people in fact do. Rather it asks for a proposal of what they should do. On the other hand, the second question, the "obliged to" question, is a factual question. It asks for those standards that teachers are as a matter of fact expected to live up to regardless of whether those standards are indeed worthwhile. That is, this question makes no suggestion as to the desirability or value of the standards that will be given in response. So, the possible answers offered to these questions are very different. For the

“ought to” question the response will be the statement of a value position. For the “obliged to” question the response will be a description of what people are in fact expected to do. And clearly, an account of what people do in fact sheds little, if any, light on the question of what they should do. Indeed, it is not inconsistent for people to be obliged to do what they ought not to do. One needs only to think of any form of civil disobedience. (Pearson, 1984, p.34)

Thus, it matters that such publicly devised standards that are both *prescriptive* and *descriptive* be held up to scrutiny because the ‘competence’ they allude to can only be *ascribed* to an individual.

A fourth conception of competence is competence conceived of as ‘a quality of a person or as a state of being’. Once the nature of a particular quality has been identified and designated as desirable, then a judgement can be made about whether someone has it or does not have it. By some kind of mini case study technique, a yes or no can be determined regarding whether competence characterises that person or not. This, however, requires defining the particular character of competence holistically. Thus a particular kind of activity competence must be defined not by characteristic behaviours of the person, but by all the conceptual relations that bear upon the full exercise of the actual activity. That is, there must be, if not a theory of competence for an activity, at least a systematic conceptual schema that interrelates whatever dimensions of the activity are considered integral to it, including behaviours, performances, knowledge, skills, levels of sufficiency, and anything else that may seem relevant, such as intents, or motives, or attitudes, or particular qualities, or states of being. What this holistic conceptualisation sets forth is an understanding of what *quality* it is that is to be identified in the person. But descriptors of this *quality* will not be of actions but of characteristic attributes of the person. Thus in teaching, for example, there can be multiple ‘theories’ of teaching defensible in their own *ascriptions*. The ascription of competence to someone in teaching therefore depends upon what is construed as good teaching, qualitatively described. The task is therefore to create a normative theory of teaching that has identified and justified assumptions, technical and ethical guidelines for practice, and qualitative criteria for judging when examples of teaching come within the norms of the theory. This creative and synthesizing enterprise is aimed at fulfilling the inherent implications of a unifying qualitative metaphor and there are already many such metaphors in use: teacher as purveyor of knowledge, as facilitator of

learning, as disciplinarian; teaching as mutual inquiry, as the art of nourishing the contact of one mind with another, as practical rationality. Teaching as “decision making” is indeed a metaphor adopted even by some CBTE programs. The question is whether any such metaphors have been fleshed out well enough to form a complete and adequate normative theory of teaching. Regardless, these metaphors should not be ones that describe things, actions, intents, or even criteria; they must be metaphors of quality or value. Whatever quality or qualities (rooted in their corresponding conceptions of teaching) are considered desirable in the circumstances then, become the basis for a judgment of competence or no competence. So, when competence is conceived as a *quality*, no evaluation can really take place until the *quality* being evaluated is itself clearly understood and identified and designated as desirable. Thus while it is easier to accept certain behaviours, performances, knowledge, skills, or degrees of sufficiency as a valid basis for evaluating competence, even when it is not entirely clear what justified a particular configuration of behaviours as constituting competence, in this fourth conceptualisation there is no temptation to do evaluation until a particular quality is fully explicated and justified. (Based on the work of Short 1984b, pp.169-173; 1984c, pp.204-206; 1985, pp.4-5)

In the forgoing analysis of the conceptions of competence, within the first three outlined there is the implicit issue of competence as an entity, somehow fixed and measurable. By contrast, the fourth, conceives of competence as a quality, a characteristic of someone in relation to an ‘activity competence’ designated as desirable. Recognition of this distinction is fundamental for the analysis of the competence-based model of teacher effectiveness. (Short 1984b, pp.169-173; 1984c, pp.204-206; 1985, pp.4-5)

It is also tempting to conclude from the foregoing analysis that the difference between Boyatzis’ and the Training Agency with emphasis on the person and on the job respectively, is that they start from opposite ends of this spectrum. Boyatzis is indeed at pains to include some conception of qualities in his analysis, maintaining them as underlying characteristics. On the other hand, the Training Agency defines competences with regard to specific behaviours relating to job defined tasks.

In similar vein to Short, Barnett (1994) also draws comparable distinctions, but distinctions between what he determines as *understanding* and *competence*. For Barnett, understanding can be present without it being demonstrated whereas, by contrast, competence has to be revealed in some way. Competences, indeed, 'take their meaning from some kind of public demonstration of an activity'. (Barnett, 1994, p. 75) It can be surmised therefore, that Barnett is framing his conceptualisation of competence in terms of it being an entity, fixed and measurable, and only in these terms. For Short's quality or state of being conceptualisation of competence, Barnett's understanding might be substituted. Barnett, however, also criticises what he perceives as attempts to reduce understanding to observable performance. But, to understand competence as a quality or as a state of being, as in Short's analysis, is indicative of an attempt to raise competence up to the level of understanding. This, for Barnett, is not possible. (Barnett, 1994, pp. 75-77)

While Short therefore suggests the 'need for a new vocabulary' to accommodate the 'quality or state of being' conceptualisation of competence, (Short 1984b; 1984c; 1985) Barnett is at pains to point out that the limit to competence militates against this. In contrast, he calls for a resurrection of a 'lost vocabulary' of 'understanding, critique, interdisciplinarity and wisdom'. (Barnett, 1994). Short in conclusion, however, is just as much at pains to point out, in similar vein to Barnett, the limitations of the notion of competence.

The ... notion of competence itself is not a very useful conceptual tool for the task for which it has been intended. While it has often been misconstrued and one of its several conceptualizations has been used when another one perhaps was really meant ... there is likely to remain considerable confusion in its meaning and considerable misuse of its various connotations. Political or ideological pressures may account for its being introduced into the vocabulary of curriculum and instruction, but competence is not very central to the enterprise of education. It is of use only to rendering a judgment on the status of what someone can do at a particular point in time, and that may be necessary only rather infrequently. To employ the vocabulary of competence on a regular basis has the effect of constricting the rich vocabulary and experience of education to the vocabulary of "status evaluation," excluding that associated with every aspect of it other than "status evaluation." It seems prudent not to force this confusing and imprecise vocabulary onto matters beyond "status evaluation" and thereby constrict or muddle thinking in those other areas of education where reasonably useful and worthwhile vocabularies have developed. (Short, 1984c, p.207)

Thus both Short and Barnett place limits on the notion of competence and both their respective analyses point to a discontinuity that separates 'an entity, fixed and measurable' from 'a quality, a characteristic of someone'.

This discontinuity is also noted in other commentators' conceptualisations of competence. For Holmes & Joyce, (1993), the elements in the attribution of competence are

- 1) the observation of performance in one situation (the assessment context);
- 2) the inference from this to anticipated performance in another situation (the work context);
- 3) the judgement of the extent to which anticipated performance matches required performance. (Holmes & Joyce, 1993, p. 40)

This conceptualisation loosely matches the *doing*, the *thinking* and *doing* and the *ascription* conceptualisations outlined by Short. But it stops short of any conceptualisation of competence as a *quality* or *state of being*.

Chown, (1994) like Barnett (1994) also considers that going beyond competence is a necessity, but doing so because in similar vein to Short (1984c) 'profiles of competence based on simple and restricted conceptualisations provide only 'static and partial models' of the activity'. (Chown, 1994, p. 161). But to go beyond competence might actually be to remain within competence, but to remain within competence only if there is a conceptualisation of competence as a *quality* or *state of being* or through a resurrection of a lost vocabulary with an emphasis on *understanding*, or some other accommodation which recognises and incorporates this discontinuity.

Other commentators have also considered the ambiguity that seems inherent in the competence vocabulary. For Carr, (1993) there is confusion between competence as 'disposition' and competence as 'capacity' (Carr, 1993, p. 255). This distinction views dispositions as

... causal powers or inherent tendencies which enable agents or objects to perform certain specifiable functions either by training or natural endowment. Skills, habits and faculties may all count as dispositions; ... (Carr, 1993, p257)

while capacities

... are rather more than abilities in the sense of causal powers. ... they account for much of our conduct in terms of the free *use* or exercise of one sort of knowledge (not necessarily scientific) or another. ... capacities entail the voluntary and deliberate exercise of principled judgement in the light of rational knowledge and understanding. (Carr, 1993, p. 257)

This results for Carr in the conclusion that 'our dispositions exercise us, while it is we who choose to exercise our capacities.' (Carr, 1993, p. 257). It is interesting at this point also to reflect back on Boyatzis' definition and contrast 'motive, trait, skill, aspect of one's self-image or social rôle, or a body of knowledge' with Carr's definition of dispositions as 'skills, habits and faculties' because this would tie Boyatzis' definition down to the dispositional definition and this is more in keeping with competence observed as in a performance and thus as an entity than as a quality.

The discontinuity being alluded to also appears to be an accepted distinction among supporters of competence-based schemes. In replying to critics of competence, Tarrant (2000) considers that competence based

... schemes appear to be committed to two different theories of knowledge and meaning. On the one hand, behavioural performances presume that knowing means behaving in a required fashion, and on the other hand, underpinning knowledge presumes that knowing means possessing the causal mental concepts which produce the required behaviour. (Tarrant, 2000, p. 77)

This for Tarrant, is 'fundamentally incoherent and requires a reformulation with one coherent theory of meaning and one agreed epistemology'. (Tarrant. 2000, p. 77)

The Problem with Conceptualising Competence

So far, this exploration into 'understandings' of competence has surveyed the vocabulary and the concept of competence, revealing no universally agreed definition and multiple conceptualisations, some complimentary, some mutually exclusive. What is remarkable therefore, is, that even with such ill-defined vocabulary and with such myriad conceptions, the 'unremitting advance' of competence-based approaches 'based on precise standards and explicit outcomes' continues, with such an ill-defined central concept 'at the heart and foundation of the whole process'. (Hyland, 1994, p. 21)

What makes this so remarkable for Lum (1999) is the fact that

... its advocates have seemed able effectively to side-step theoretical censure. Critique has not so much been rebutted as disregarded, and theoretical concerns deposed ... (Lum, 1999, p. 403)

The reason for this, according to Lum, is that the critique, up until now, has been wrongly concentrated upon just such conceptualisations of competence. For Lum,

... 'the concept of competence' has become the focus of critical attention with critics generally denouncing CBET on the grounds that this, its supposed central concept, is fundamentally flawed. In so doing, however, critics may have misperceived their target ... in spite of its deceptive appellation CBET is more properly characterised, not by the notion of competence, but by its highly idiosyncratic and philosophically naïve methodological strategy. (Lum, 1999, p. 404)

Lum expands; competence is not really the central concept of competence approaches that the competence advocate would have us believe because statements of competence, as propounded by such advocates, require that two functions be fulfilled. Firstly,

... to issue a statement of competence is to make a particular form of demand upon the educator; it requires the educative process be directed towards a particular goal. (Lum, 1999, p410)

This is in fact a particularly prescriptive (idealist) (Norris, 1990, p100) function. But secondly, there is also a descriptive (realist) (Norris, 1990, p100) function, when statements of outcome are also intended as criteria for assessment. (Lum, 1999, p.410) There are therefore both 'normative' (what ought) and 'positive' (what is) inflections within this single conception.

Rather then, the focus should be on 'the conflation of these two logically distinct constructs: on the one hand competence as an educational *aim*, and on the other competence as a construct *inferred* from methodology.' (Lum, 1999, p.406)

This form of critique would indeed open up a contrasting view of competence approaches. It is a quite perceptive and distinctive interpretation of the discontinuity already distinguished. It is reminiscent of Short's semantic shift and of Barnett's incommensurability of reducing understanding to knowledge. It accommodates Carr's disposition/capacity distinction and addresses Tarrant's 'fundamental incoherence'. It absorbs the Boyatzis/NCVQ vocabulary and it is revelatory of

‘elliptical reference’ (Lum, 1999, p. 410) contained in Jessup’s ‘emerging model’ (Jessup, 1991). It suggests the reason that advocates of competence-based approaches have held such an unassailable position is because critics are not only playing in their ballpark, but are unwittingly playing with their ball. For, while advocates of competence approaches all concede much of the conceptualisation critique, they simply rebut it by reference to current lack of refinement by endorsing the *emerging* model and citing research into further refinements – the use of the ‘rhetorical broadbrush approach ... needed to stimulate radically new ways of thinking’. (Collin, 1989, p. 21)

Thus, restating the distinction contained in the introductory chapter in this section between understanding, misunderstanding, lack of understanding and misleading. At best, commentators, who have been critics of competence approaches, have misunderstood competence as *the* central concept and commentators that have been advocates, have misunderstood the conflation of aims with methods or, have indeed, misled. At worst, there has been a lack of understanding on both sides.

The question is how has this transpired? In answer – a ‘category-mistake’ in the Rylean sense. *The* category-mistake within the competence narrative has been the conflation of *substantive* and *methodological* discourses. Substantive as used in this sense, however, is not itself without ambiguity. It is taken as conveying ontological inference, but in modern conceptions of this there is the Greek notion of *ousia*, to be rendered as ‘essence’. (Flew, 1979, p.344) However it is in this that the ambiguity lies. In translating the Greek word for ‘being’, *parousia*, the primary meaning is ‘being’ in the infinitive sense of ‘to be’, although it was also used in the nominal sense of ‘substance’. (Watts, 2001, p.11) Thus there is a double conflation. This matters because it is in this

... that there was a historical shift in ancient Greek thought in the concept of Being from *physis* to *ousia* and then to the Roman translation ‘substance’. (Irwin, 2002, p.193)

There is then an implied detachment of the infinitive in this use of the term substantive and this is deliberate because the subtlety of this detachment is simply ignored by advocates of CBET. Firstly, such advocates uphold the substantive, values appeal and delineate competence as an educational *aim* but then incorporate

the infinitive in its underlying concern for the *doing* dimension of human 'being' in a liberal and liberating educational setting. (Bridges, 1996, p364) But what

... this hangs on is our being prepared to accept at face value this identification of CBET with some kind of special aggrandisement of human action: its having some intrinsic, unique or at least enhanced capacity to attend to the 'doing' aspects of human affairs that is found lacking in alternative approaches. (Lum, 1999, p. 408)

Secondly however, the concept of competence, as used by the competence advocate, is also a derived concept – *inferred* from the 'de facto consequences of CBET's methodological strategy, what might be called the 'critical construct' of competence'. (Lum, 1999, p. 406) Critics who then draw attention to the fact that 'knowledge and understanding is ... treated in a paltry way by the advocates of the competence model' (Ashworth, 1992, p. 10) are in effect criticising this inferred construct. It is then the non-commensurability of these two configurations of competence – the *aim* and the *inferred* construct – that delineates the impasse. That is, while competence for the competence advocate contains within 'sufficient knowledge, understanding *and whatever else it takes*', (Bridges, 1996, p. 364) competence for critics has a fundamentally flawed conception of knowledge and understanding. (Barnett, 1994; Ashworth, 1992) But,

... no matter how conclusive the evidence stacked up against the 'critical construct' this does not carry over to, or detract from, 'competence' as an educational end. (Lum, 1999, p. 406)

Competence in this sense, as used by the Training Commission, it may have to be considered, just like competency as used by McClelland, might actually have 'been consciously erected to perform a limited function', albeit one which relies upon conflation of conceptualisations. If so, it might be a telling exercise to ascertain their own particular genealogy.

But if competence and competency have been consciously erected for just such a specific and limited function it is then possible to question the use of such terminology. It is indeed such questioning that leads Lum to conclude that despite its

... deceptive appellation CBET is more properly characterised, not by the notion of competence, but by its highly idiosyncratic and philosophically naïve methodological strategy. (Lum, 1999, p. 404)

Extending this, advocates of the competence approach would all agree that it is an approach which highlights both competent performance and publicly agreed standards or criteria of excellence. This is the third conception of competence from Short's analysis. But it is important to make explicit the concern, alluded to earlier, that publicly agreed standards not only *prescribe* performance but also *describe* performance. It is indeed this descriptive attribute that brings in to sharp relief methodological ambiguities. The problem arises from the need to be ever more precise about educational outcomes as specified in statements of competence and the acceptance of the claim that such statements are uniquely linked with the acquisition of competence. Indeed, it has been suggested that competence

... is assessed as if it were a state that is objectively described by the competencies. In that way written descriptions of behaviour may be seen as substitutes for the elusive notion of objective reality. (Halliday, 1996, p. 54)

It therefore becomes a moot point as to whether the competence approach is actually characterised by 'competence' or simply by reified 'outcome statements'. In the previous chapter it was in fact suggested that the 'administered world' indeed finds it useful to reify such individual statements because it is in fact much more problematic to actually fashion a permanent universally accepted concept of competence.

The notion of the 'administered world' and its needs, taken from the work of Adorno, (Horkheimer & Adorno 1976 [1947]) suggests that modern regimes reify – make in to a thing – and quantify what cannot be fashioned in to permanent concepts and identities, but which nonetheless prove useful to those who rule because such a world needs homogenised certainties, concepts taken for granted unflinching, in order to maintain total control. (Furlong, 2004, p.20) If competence as connoted in the competence approach has a very specific and limited function then, all be it one which incorporates 'sufficient knowledge, understanding *and whatever else it takes*', but is also one constrained by methodological ambiguities to the extent that there is no unique contingent relationship between statements of competence or competences or competencies and actual competent performance, then the competence-based approach as it is *misunderstood* must either be considered bankrupt, misconceived or simply a shroud for the accountability movements need to maintain control.

Remarks on the Problem of Conceptualising Competence

The discourse within the narrative of competence it would appear has indeed been conducted within dualistic parameters. Even when critics have emphasised the need to understand competence as a holistic concept, the dialogue begins with building a case against the claim for contingent relationships between competence statements, understood as performance, and the concept of competence understood as a quality or as ‘understanding’. That is, a case has been developed that attacks the notion that describing competencies is simply a conglomerate of instances of ‘knowing that’ while a defence is posited on subsequent demonstrations through performance as instances of ‘knowing how’. Thus, for the advocate there is a demonstrable *de facto* contingent relationship between description and performance which need not be specifically defined, while for the critic this failure to define the contingent relationship renders the concept illogical. But for this contingent relationship

... to be substantiated ... [there has to be] ... evidence, first of a correspondence, and second of a causal relationship between methodological strategy and aim. (Lum, 1999, p.407)

For the critic and the advocate, the absence of such evidence is problematic, but this then leads to quite distinct analyses. For the critic, the critique follows the behaviourist/ reductionist line with all of its attendant inference of positivistic/ empiricist conceptions of human *being*, whilst for the advocate it leads to the need for deeper levels of specification leaving conceptions of competence thus open to piecemeal modification and improvement in an ‘emerging’ model. But neither the critic nor the advocate, seem to question the normative overtones of competence as an educational aim. There is then a circumstance in which both either inadvertently or deliberately endorse a dualistic model of competence. In upholding the substantive appeal, advocates enshrine the ‘essence’ of competence but require that their methodological strategy has some contingent relationship with the doing dimension of human being. On the other hand, when attacking the conceptually confused, epistemologically ambiguous (Lum, 1999, p.403) methodological strategy of competence based approaches, the critic attempts to rise above the dualism by positing qualities or understanding, but then encounters difficulty in detracting from the laudable aim of competence approaches having competence as an indispensable constituent of a truly liberal education. (Bridges, 1996, p.364)

Chapter 12

Understandings of Competence Beyond Competence

Introduction

The contention from the last chapter is that the real problem within the evolving discourse of competence is that there is an amount of misinterpretation, some misunderstanding and indeed even a deal of misleading. Substantive concepts and methodological strategies have been intertwined in such a thicket of a still developing discourse that it is now extremely difficult to determine if there is any definitive synthesis that might lead to real and progressive understanding. This dualistic approach itself, however, may actually be such that synthesis is impossible within its confines. The notion of substantive concepts and methodological strategies within the discourse incorporates all that is entailed within a mode of thinking whereby ‘subjective’ and ‘objective’ are taken as signifying a basic epistemological or metaphysical distinction (Bernstein, 1983, p12) and that methodology can be contingently related. While the conduct of the narrative is constrained by such dualistic distinctions advocates and critics can forever defend their own position – their respective arguments being born of negative justifications. That is, in the absence of positive abstract justifications for following the contrary position, a defence of the current position is posited. Various, proponents on one side appeal to abstractions when proponents on the other examine specifics and *vice versa*. The narrative, so constrained, thus see-saws. But such partisan defence is then always tenuous.

Narrative by its very nature, however, actually eschews claims to definitive understanding except in so far as there might be staging posts. What is possible and

what is not possible in terms of developing an understanding therefore, is context bound and depends largely on the conduct of the discourse and the relative merits and authority of the protagonists. Tenuous defence is often predicated on tenuous strengths. When with regard to ITE the discourse was determined by HE and ITE institutions, the 'Leadership Class', the 'Policy Community' and the New Right political machinery, such muddying of the waters of the narrative meant that much passed the practicing teacher by. They were as previously suggested, ever 'an absent presence' in the debate and were anyway more concerned with the debacle that surrounded attempts to introduce a structured national system of teacher appraisal based on an accountability framework when they, the teachers, were demanding a structured system of staff development. Now, however, with the wider notion of competence being applied to all aspects of teaching and being used as the basis of benchmarks and standards for induction of new teachers and progression through the hierarchy by practising teachers and aspiring head teachers alike, in some quarters there is a significant questioning that is becoming more urgent. The post-McCrone structure of the teaching profession in Scotland is still to be fully bedded in and will indeed take until 2006, but there are anomalies which will bring in to sharper focus, questions of competence, status and professionalism as the first Chartered Teachers emerge with levels of remuneration that exceed that of Principal Teachers with management responsibilities.¹ The notion of competence may then be further constrained and develop a more definitive structure that is ever more narrowly defined just at a time when the discourse might have held promise of emerging from the thicket.

The notion of competence itself indeed contains within such a subtle pejorative conception in the vernacular that, when applied to practising teachers, and even possibly primarily for this reason, among some spurious others, there has now been a turn to terminology which alludes more directly to benchmarks and standards. It can only be reflected that there must be a realisation that to actually consider a practising teacher as competent is really tantamount to damning with feigned praise.

Proponents of ... conceptions of competence have to deal with the undeniable fact that the term – in addition to being systematically ambiguous and of

¹ There are indeed some Thirty-seven Fully Registered Chartered Teachers already in post in Local Authorities in Scotland in session 2004-05. (TESS, 12-11-2004)

'unclear logical status' (Ashworth & Saxton, 1990, p.9) – is a basic minimum or lowest common denominator sort of concept (standard definitions include synonyms such as 'sufficient', 'suitable', and 'adequate') which does not signify high levels of achievement. Thus, although 'competent' cannot **but** be a term of approbation, any praise involved is neither undiluted nor unequivocal. (Emphasis added) (Hyland, 1997, p.493)

It is thus quite pertinent to emphasise that the benchmark statements which constitute the fundamental requirements underpinning the various Standards Documents (*The Standard for Full Registration*, (SFR), (SE, 2002a); *Continuing Professional Development*, (CPD), (SE, 2002b); *The Standard for Chartered Teacher*, (SCT), (SE, 2002c); *Professional Review and Development*, (PRD), (SE, 2002d)) are in fact directly and indirectly linked to the competences outlined in the Guidelines for ITE. (*Guidelines '98*) (Refer to Chapter 9) Such direct and indirect correspondence, however, is in fact 'finessed'² by reference to benchmarks and standards without explicit reference to the fact that they do emerge from the competences. (See Purdon, 2003, pp.423-437; Christie, 2003, pp.952-963) This simply begs a question that will necessarily be left hanging.

The alternative to this constrained and ever more narrowly defined definitive structure of competence? – An opportunity to restructure an understanding of competence. It might now indeed be opportune to have competence reappraised and analysed within conceptualisations of skill acquisition which view competence more as a stage in the acquisition of skill, based on a formative structure, rather than as the possession or non-possession of an attribute based on a summative structure. In this there is a move beyond competence as currently conceived, but also an endeavour to remain within the confines of a more traditional notion of competence, within a notion understood as a dynamic or as a process. That is, the constructed notion of *competency* with *competencies* or *competence* with *competences* might be discarded in favour of a more traditional notion of competence as a coherent understanding that is itself in fact irreducible.

² This alludes to a term used in Contract Bridge where the lead player, with the highest denomination card in a suit, attempts to win a trick by playing a much lower denomination card by duping the opponent on their right in to believing that they themselves cannot win the trick with a higher denomination card because they think the first player's partner, now on their right, actually has the highest card and will play it to win if necessary. It is a term for a sort Contract Bridge 'sleight-of-hand' tactic.

Examples of such alternative notions of competence already exist

... such as the 'generic' and 'cognitive' versions identified by Norris (1991) ... the 'interactive' model recommended by Hodkinson (1992) ...[and] the Australian 'integrated' model [of] (Hager and Beckett (1995). (Hyland, 1997, p.493)

Only the Australian integrated model, however, can actually claim to be one that has been implemented. This Australian notion is indeed one which tries to combine conceptions of performative skills with conceptions of attitudes and with conceptions of 'judgements-in-context' – in what Hager & Becket, (1995) have termed, an 'integrated conception of competence'. But before embarking on a line of argument that will in some ways encompass such notions, it is pertinent to outline what ensues in the understanding of a model of skill acquisition, so as to be clear about what it is that makes such a model distinctive and to be clear about how such a model deals with this notion of competence. In this, reference to a 'notion of competence' however, there is a deliberate shift in terminology. In Chapter 11, something was made of distinctions between construct, concept, model, paradigm, tradition and narrative. This was considered necessary partly because of the confusion over terminology and partly because of the need to understand what was implied in an understanding of competence as a concept. Now, it is pertinent to draw even deeper distinctions with regard to 'conceptions' of competence because a

... difficulty here – one often encountered in talk about 'conceptions' of competence – is a tendency to compound two very different things: on the one hand, 'conception' as meaning some notion or idea as it appears, to put it crudely, in our head; on the other, 'conception' as meaning a notion or idea as it appears in articulated or written form. Clearly, if everything that can be conceived is capable of being uttered in words, then the need to make this distinction disappears. (Lum, 2004, p.490)

But, it is in the conflation of these two different meanings that the ease of the semantic shift alluded to by Short occurs, whereby there is a 'synonomizing with the word *competency* another word *performance*'. (Short, 1984c, pp.201-202) To maintain the high ground, therefore, reference to the *notion* of competence implies a divorcing of competence from mere performance and a consequent acceptance of Lum's distinction between a notion or idea in the head and its articulated written form.

Conceptualisations of Skill Acquisition and Competence

A conceptualisation of skill acquisition that incorporates a notion of competence is now presented as a significant contrast to those conceptions of competence that have already been outlined. *The* particular model of skill acquisition that will be referred to, which incorporates the notion of competence as a stage, is the Dreyfus (1986; 2001) model of skill progression. In its original form it was a five-stage model, (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986) but in refinements to the model, Dreyfus (2001) added two more stages to make it a seven-stage model. The seven stages range from novice through advanced beginner to competent, thence to proficient, expert, master, and finally to the achievement of practical wisdom. While the full Dreyfus model as outlined is really of secondary importance at this point, the understanding of the structure of the model and of competence contained within, is fundamental. The structure of the model itself shows progression from novice towards practical wisdom, with all that is then entailed in the Aristotelean notion of practical wisdom and how it is achieved. But setting aside such understanding of this structure for the time being; of more immediate moment is to grasp the notion of competence within. In the Dreyfus progression, it is essential that the notion of competence be understood as being ‘based on how people approach their work, not on whether they should be judged as qualified to do it’. (Eraut, 1994. p 126) This is a significant distinction because it at once divorces competence from mere performance and does not conflate the terms. Dreyfus does, however, refer to the performer throughout, but the subtlety is that there is progression to superior levels of performance through the hierarchy of which competence is only one stage understood in the same terms as the other stages. That is, competence is no more fixed to performance than are the terms novice, advanced beginner, proficient, expert or master. Only possibly in the achievement of practical wisdom might there be a semblance of such a correspondence, but only because this is when thought and action are so embodied that the general ability to do the appropriate thing at the appropriate time and in the appropriate way becomes pervasively embedded in the individual. (Shades of Aristotle’s Ethics) There is therefore no directly implied semantic shift in this staged understanding of competence in the Dreyfus model.

Expanding this theme, this notion of competence, as pointed out, is in fact the third stage in the Dreyfus model of skill acquisition and he specifically outlines what is involved.

With more experience, the number of potentially relevant elements and procedures that the learner is able to recognise and follow becomes overwhelming. ... a sense of what is important in any particular situation is missing, ...

To cope with overload and to achieve competence, people learn, through instruction or experience, to devise a plan, or choose a perspective, that then determines which elements of the situation or domain must be treated as important and which ones can be ignored. As students learn to restrict themselves to only a few of the vast number of possibly relevant features or aspects, understanding and decision making becomes easier. ...

... to avoid mistakes, the competent performer seeks rules and reasoning procedures to decide which plan or perspective to adopt. But such rules are not as easy to come by as are the rules and maxims given to beginners in manuals and lectures. ... There are, in fact, more situations than can be named or precisely defined, so no one can prepare for the learner a list of types of possible situations and what to do or look for in each. Students, therefore, must decide for themselves in each situation what plan or perspective to adopt without being sure that it will turn out to be appropriate. (Adapted from Dreyfus, 2001, pp.35-36)

Of immediate significant import for this initial exploration, is this assertion – that rules cannot be prescribed for every eventuality at the level of competence.

For Dreyfus therefore, this stage is a culmination of and a going beyond of, the simple ‘rule following’ of the advanced beginner and it is interesting to reflect on the discontinuity alluded to in the previous chapter because in the progression through this competence stage there is again a transition within this understanding, reminiscent of Short’s transition from entity to quality, but with subtle overtones that progress laterally rather than linearly. It is still, nonetheless, even further reminiscent of Short’s (1984b, pp.169-173; 1984c, pp.204-206; 1985, pp.4-5) thinking and doing conception of competence where ‘choosing and knowing why one chooses what to do’ suggests a ‘perspective is at work within the activity’. (Short, 1984c, p.204) In tandem, it is also reminiscent of Jessup’s

... aspects of competence which go beyond the technical ... classified, under the headings ‘task management’, ‘contingency management’ and ‘role/environment skills’. ... described as the ‘job competence model’. (Jessup, 1991, p. 27)

What is important to note, however, is that Dreyfus makes no claim that this understanding of competence can be *prescribed*. Further, he suggests that it actually involves experimentation by the student, with success or failure being an important motivational factor. On the contrary then, Dreyfus is at pains to point out that achieving competence in this sense is very personal and emotional, learned through instruction or experience. He makes this explicit in a quite compelling manner.

If we were disembodied beings, pure minds free of our messy emotions, our responses to our successes and failures would lack ... seriousness and excitement. Like a computer we would have goals and succeed or fail to achieve them but, as John Haugeland once said of chess machines that have been programmed to win, they seek their goal, but when it comes to winning, they don't give a damn. For embodied, emotional beings like us, however, success and failure do matter. So the learner is naturally frightened, elated, disappointed, or discouraged by the results of his or her choice of perspective. And, as the competent student becomes more and more emotionally involved in his task, it becomes increasingly difficult for him to draw back and adopt the detached maxim-following stance of the advanced beginner. (Dreyfus, 2001, p.37)

This distinguishes the Dreyfus notion of competence, as Eraut (1994) points out, more as an attitude of mind and as based on how people approach their work, rather than based on some judgement of whether they are qualified to do it measured against some externally specified public standard or criteria of excellence. That means that something akin to 'tacit knowledge and intuition' (Halliday, 2004, p.579) are 'critical features' of the model, or as Becket would have it something akin to an 'inferential understanding', (2004, p.501) but not necessarily 'a calculative rationality' (Eraut, 1994, p. 127).

It also, a little more inadvertently perhaps, distinguishes a notion of instruction that is less directional and more correctional. That is, advice might be given that *encourages the student* 'to devise a plan, or choose a perspective, that then determines which elements of the situation or domain must be treated as important and which ones can be ignored'. (Dreyfus, 2001, p.36) In this, rather than any directed instruction to follow a particular course of action, there is an implicit assumption of direction to cease following or to ignore an unsuccessful course of action, thus leaving options for still taking many alternative courses of action open, pending the gathering of more information or deeper reflection. The notion here is, that students learn from their mistakes either by seeking further instruction or

reflecting on their experience or both, but learning specifically by taking cognisance of what does not work for them. This is a significant point because it reinforces the contention that rules cannot be prescribed for every eventuality and, to the extent that they are developed, if developed at all, they are developed *post hoc* by the individual student for the individual student only and are rules about *what not to do*, not rules about *what to do*. Their relevance is relevance only through the emotional involvement of the student. If the rule so arrived at is too general, however, it may prevent further development. In explicating this point Dreyfus expands, by resort to his example of a car driver.

When a risk-averse person makes an inappropriate decision and consequently finds himself in trouble, he tries to characterize his mistake by describing a certain class of dangerous situation and then makes a rule to avoid that type of situation in the future. To take an extreme example. if a driver, hastily pulling out of a parking space, is side-swiped by an oncoming car he mistakenly took to be approaching too slowly to be a danger, he may resolve to follow the rule, never pull out if there is a car approaching. Such a rigid response will make for safe driving in a certain class of cases, but it will block further skill refinement. In this case, it will prevent acquiring the skill of flexibly pulling out of parking places. In general, if one seeks to follow general rules one will not get beyond competence. Progress is only possible if, responding quite differently, the driver accepts the deeply-felt consequences of his action without detachedly asking himself what went wrong and why. If he does this, he is less likely to pull out too quickly in the future, but he has a much better chance of ultimately becoming, with enough frightening or, preferably, rewarding experiences, a flexible, skilled driver. (Dreyfus, 2001, pp.113-114)

This example further highlights the deeply personal nature of learning as well as the emotional involvement required. It also shows how rigid rule following constrains learning and thus blocks further skill refinement. This point will be taken up again below when considering how advocates of CBET develop their ‘statements of competence’, but to complete this Dreyfus conceptualisation of competence, it is important to understand in this, that it is in the form of mini-narrative.

By contrast, what Boyatzis (1982) suggests and what Jessup (1991) in particular suggests for his ‘emerging model’, is that ‘job competence’ can actually be specified and indeed must. Clearly for Dreyfus this is not really the case because to do so would entail having the ability to specify all eventualities. In at least the Jessup conceptualisation however, there is a significant problem most aptly stated by Jessup himself.

For accurate communication of the outcomes of competence and attainment, a precision in the use of language in such statements will need to be established, approaching that of a science. The overall model stands or falls on how effectively we can state competence and attainment. But if we cannot it raises fundamental issues for education and training, irrespective of the model used. If you cannot say what you require, how can you develop it and how do you know when you have achieved it? (Jessup, 1991, p. 134)

This is indicative of an adherence to the scientific paradigm that underlies the conception of competence in Jessup's 'emerging model' which reveals that it has a 'subjective' / 'objective' epistemological or metaphysical distinction at its heart. The problem is, that 'statements of competence' must therefore allow for every eventuality or at the least, allow that they be theoretically constructible for every eventuality. But this then surely runs in to problems of ultimate regression with ever more elaborate 'emerging' refinements built up in an ever more complex hierarchical structure. Even further, it suggests that such elaborate, 'emerging', refined sub-statements of competence in such a hierarchy are ontologically related to the first level statements of competence. But it is usual for a first level statement of competence, outlined as an aim, to have several second or third level sub-statements outlined as Learning Outcomes, (LOs) Performance Criteria or Performance Indicators, (PC/PIs) or Range Statements (RSs) elaborated more in terms of the performance of particular aspects or tasks directly related to specialised knowledge about specialised equipment. Such particular aspects or tasks, however, are frequently from a very different ontological stable. (Lum, 2004)

Earlier, Dreyfus' point about rigid rule following blocking further skill refinement was highlighted and it is pertinent here to consider the point that Lum (2004) is making in conjunction with the point Dreyfus is making and interrelating them with the critique of developing 'statements of competence' from CBET. Lum uses the example of a general statement such as 'maintain engineering assets' as having nothing unduly problematic about it when considering a 'competence' that could be applied to an engineer. But then Lum points out,

... for those anticipating a precise and unequivocal description of what the engineer should be capable of, a statement such as this is disappointingly devoid of content; as vacuous as it is innocuous, it raises more questions than it answers. What kind of 'engineering assets' are to be maintained? it will be asked. Under what circumstances or in what contexts might this task be performed? What exactly is meant by 'maintain'? Whilst those familiar with

the role in question would doubtless find such a statement replete with potential meanings and pregnant with educational possibilities, it could hardly be said to specify, in clear and unambiguous terms, what it is to be competent. (Lum, 2004, p.486)

Lum then expands

It is at this juncture that those intent on arriving at a more precise description will take a characteristic and, it will turn out, quite crucial step. For it will be presumed that this ambiguity is to be remedied by the creation of further, more specific statements intended to stand in relation to the first, we might say, as sub-statements. (Lum, 2004, p.486)

But it is in this creation of task specific sub-statements through ‘functional analysis’ that there arises a ‘quite radical ontological disparity between what is intended by the generic statement and what is described by its ostensible sub-statements’. Lum, 2004, p487) By implication, there is both a non-contingent relationship and a non-hierarchical relationship. That is, following the rules will not necessarily result in achieving the competence and indeed rigid rule following might block further development. ‘Progress [for the learner] is only possible if, responding quite differently, [he] accepts the deeply-felt consequences of his action without *detachedly* asking himself what went wrong and why.’ (*emphasis added*) (Dreyfus, 2001, p114)

Somewhat in contrast therefore, Dreyfus’ point is that in order for competence to be achieved, there must be a contingent relationship but one which is personally experienced. It is possible to get stuck at the level of a general rule, but to go beyond and to further refine the skill, further lessons have to be learned and assimilated or accommodated in a progressive and reinforcing manner. ‘To avoid mistakes, the competent performer seeks rules and reasoning procedures to decide which plan or perspective to adopt’ – (Dreyfus, 2001, p.35) the competent performer then participates in a kind of emotionally involved ‘posing and testing of questions in real situations’, (Benner, 1984, p.187)) not to be confused with simple trial and error. thus discovering their own ‘sub-statements’ through ‘devising a plan, or choosing a perspective, that then determines which elements of the situation or domain must be treated as important and which ones can be ignored’. (Dreyfus, 2001, p.36) Thus, the ontology in this notion does not reveal such a gross disparity. However, if a third party were to try to develop the sub-statements for the stuck driver or to devise a

plan, or choose a perspective, that then determines which elements of the situation or domain must be treated as important and which ones can be ignored, as in the Dreyfus example, the question is, would the stuck driver then further refine the skill of pulling out in to traffic? Lum addresses this exact problem but more generally and more indirectly. For Lum, the distinction between *knowing how* and *knowing that* is only tenable from the perspective that that is how a third party describes what they know of a person's knowledge. That is the third party lists the things that a person can do and the facts that a person can know. But to then consider that this constitutes the constituent parts of two distinct types of knowledge is fundamentally untenable. (Lum, 2003, p.3) The non-contingent relationship alluded to by Lum, it might be reflected, is thus then not only the result of the failure of the student to become personally and emotionally involved in the task but also as a result of the student being unable to assimilate a third party's classification. Perversely then, it is the achievement of this personal emotional involvement accomplished by some students that then allows the advocate of CBET to claim that their LOs, PC/Pis, and RSs must be contingently related and that students that fail to achieve the competence, simply require to repeat the course, come to terms with the competences, or admit defeat. (It might well be interesting at this juncture to reflect on how students view their own achievement of competence. It is highly likely, particularly in the case of newly qualified teachers, that the majority will attribute their accomplishment to their own personal understandings and development rather than to any direct teaching or training that they might have received in a TTI.)

It is also interesting, however, that Jessup, within the same quote above, is able to suggest that fundamental issues for education and training are raised, *irrespective of the model used*, directly as a result of imprecision in how effectively competence and attainment are stated.

If you cannot say what you require, how can you develop it ...? (Jessup, 1991, p. 134)

He is surely right in this contention, that irrespective of the model, fundamental issues are raised for education and training, but he is right because of a broad and general lack of a specifically realised contingent relationship between education and training as provided by teachers and what students actually learn, not because of a

lack of precision in effectively stating competence and attainment. Jessup is himself conflating substantive concepts with methodological strategies. He then completes the quotation by demanding

... how do you know when you have achieved it? (Jessup, 1991, p.134)

He is thus attempting to ‘finesse’³ this real problem of a non-contingent relationship because with it the fact is that if scientific precision in the statements of competence is possible, then in the context of assessing the level of achievement

... it would seem that we are duty-bound to dispense with considerations relating to the kind of preparation a person has received as a measure of fitness to practise in an occupation. (Lum, 2004, p.485)

Jessup really needs there to be a contingent relationship to justify the need for a specificity ‘approaching that of a science’ in the production of statements of competence, or requirements, but he also wishes that such competences can thereafter be *developed* and that there can be progression, indubitably by following a regime of learning and teaching to the competences. This reveals something of an underlying contradictory position. Jessup requires there to be a need to develop the competence and for there to be progression, (Jessup, 1991, p.103) not simply for there to be a summative approach that can disregard completely how the competence was actually achieved, because Jessup needs justification for Workplace Based Learning (WBL). If competences need not be developed directly through teaching, for whatever reason, then all that learners should have to comply with is to have their competences regularly checked and accredited against competence standards, with considerations of the kind of preparation a person received as a measure of fitness to practice thus being dispensed with. The marginalised educator would thus be turned at best in to a ‘facilitator’ of bureaucratised standards, or possibly displaced altogether in the rush towards ‘workplace’ or ‘online’ learning. (Lum, 2003, p.1) But if there is indeed a contingent relationship then it must be more advantageous to have learners instructed than to have them flounder around. Jessup simply refers to the ‘autonomous learner’ (1991, p.115) in this regard, but an established contingent relationship between statements of outcome and the *development* and *progression* of competences would imply benefit from direct teaching. In proposing that there is a contingent relationship then, there is on the one

³ Refer to previous footnote. Used in the same sense as used in Contract Bridge.

hand through a need for development and progression, a perverse strengthening of the case for teachers to teach, while on the other through the elevation of assessment of achievement, a duty to dispense with considerations of the kind of preparation for practice in an occupation.

In returning to the case of Short, (1985) it is also clear that he, Short, would if he could

... legislate language, ... to give different names to each of the four conceptions and to reserve the label *competence* only for the fourth conception. (Short, 1985, p.4)

Thus, for Short, simple thinking and doing is not competence. This, Dreyfus would indeed agree with. He would classify simple thinking and doing as either the culmination point of the advanced beginner or the starting point for the competence stage only because there is no explicit emotional involvement. The Dreyfus model thus adds a lateral dimension of *caring* to the Short (1984) 'thinking and doing' conception. Further however, Dreyfus proposes no methodological discourse of how to *prescribe* or *describe* competence other than by appeal to progression through this stage of the model. His description of competence is of how a competent person assimilates and accommodates understanding through emotional involvement, not of how the individual performs individual prescribed actions. The individual actions of an advanced beginner and the individual actions of a competent agent in enacting a performance might be identical, but the actions are taken for entirely different reasons. The difficulty for the observer is determining the 'replicative use of a learned behaviour' (Short, 1984) of one, against the authenticity of 'judgements-in-context' (Becket, 2004) of the other.

Competence is thus only one stage in this model of skill acquisition and it is characterised by either tacit knowledge and intuition or inferential understanding. The competence stage therefore is not simply the culmination of the rule following of the advanced beginner, it is also, as has already been suggested, the onset of individual and emotionally involved 'posing and testing of questions in real situations', a sort of personal rule-construction, of the competent practitioner. (Dreyfus, 2001, p.38) A progression which can only be achieved through the

emotional involvement of the student with the task. Indeed to emphasise this point, Dreyfus (2001) points to the empirical work of Benner, (1984) citing that

... unless the trainee stays emotionally involved and accepts the joy of a job well done, as well as the remorse of mistakes, he or she will not develop further, and will eventually burn out trying to keep track of all the features and aspects, rules and maxims ... In general, resistance to involvement and risk leads to stagnation and ultimately to boredom and regression. (Dreyfus, 2001, p.38)

Competence on this understanding therefore, contains more than can be encapsulated in simple 'elements of competence' produced through a 'calculative rationality'. Competence on this understanding actually requires a 'leap of faith' on the part of the learner. The learner has to be emotionally involved, deciding 'for themselves in each situation what plan or perspective to adopt without being sure that it will turn out to be appropriate' (Dreyfus, 2001, p. 38). The learner takes responsibility for their own learning and thus seeks out further specific or even general instruction, or reflects on the experience, or both, with the results of such seeking or reflection then assimilated and/or accommodated within their own prior learning.

Qualities, States of Being, Understanding and Real Competence

It is also stated by Short however, that 'mastering particular *things* is not the same as possessing certain *qualities*'. (Short, 1984b, p.201) and it is the *possession* of certain qualities notion of competence that Short endorses as the traditional conception of competence, thus divorcing competence from performance by allusion to internal attributes. As suggested earlier, the Dreyfus model also divorces competence from mere performance, but it does not necessarily endorse competence as the *possession* of a *quality*. Rather, it is more as a 'state of being'. This is the additional term that Short also uses but he conflates it with the *possession* of qualities. But a state of being cannot really be possessed. Short's analysis thus potentially endorses a subject / object distinction which the Dreyfus model fundamentally eschews. This may indeed be being a little unfair to Short's conception, but it serves to endorse the Dreyfus notion of competence as distinctively 'based on how people approach their work' and on this alone.

The Dreyfus model does, however, appear to be aligned more closely with the Barnett (1994) conception of competence as *understanding*. Barnett's *Limits of Competence* (1994) thesis indeed has a similar lateral shift in grasping the notion of competence but it elevates this *understanding* notion of competence in a manner that the Dreyfus model does not entirely do. Indeed, Barnett sets the limit of competence at the threshold of *understanding* and defends a position which cannot accept the demotion of *understanding* to mere performance as demonstrated through competence. For Barnett (1994),

... [i]deas of competences, outcomes, performance and activities sit uneasily with understanding. [He then further considers that] ... it is tempting to say that understanding is not observable, while the former are characteristics of human accomplishment. [But for Barnett] ... that is too easy a distinction and not entirely accurate. [He thus points out] ... understanding can show itself, and that is what we look for in higher education among students. We look for signs of deep understanding. Understanding may show itself, indeed, in a performance of some kind. [But in concluding the point, he suggests] ... we *can* understand something without showing the external world that we understand. (Barnett, 1994, p.75)

In even closer alignment with Dreyfus, Barnett further considers,

... [w]e cannot know what individuals as social actors are up to by observing them, even if they act in statistically regular ways. Ultimately, we shall only fully understand their actions by taking account of their definitions of their situations, of their intentions, of their conceptual frame-works and of their forms of life. Full understanding requires that we understand the individual's understandings. Real work or *real competence* cannot be read off from activities from the outside. It cannot be seriously assessed by observing it. For that, we have to take into account the actor's understandings. It is not that the understandings lie behind the action. It is the much stronger claim that the actor's understandings are constitutive of the action. (*Emphasis added*) (Barnett, 1994, pp.75-76)

The interesting point to note in this alignment with Dreyfus is that Barnett considers that 'real competence cannot be read off from activities'. Thus for Barnett, there is a notion of 'real competence' that entails much of how people understand or much of 'how people approach their work' and less of 'judging whether they are qualified to do it', just as in the Dreyfus formulation. More importantly, however, is the reversion to the terminology of 'real competence' for this expression of Barnett's *understanding*. Barnett, like Dreyfus is thus also divorcing competence from mere performance, but in addition, in accomplishing this, has let slip a notion of 'real competence' as a substitute for his notion of 'understanding'. Further in tandem with

Dreyfus, Barnett also alludes to ‘their definitions of their situations, of their intentions, of their conceptual frame-works and of their forms of life’, which surely parallel Dreyfus’ emotional involvement.

The question therefore, is, what is this approach to work, this state of being, this understanding, this real competence – that pays no homage to mere performance? Even further, how do we come to terms with it and how do we gain knowledge about it? Patently the atomised conceptions of competence or the outcomes based approaches have no answer to such questions because they are not directly concerned with process. So, further questions are raised about what kind of approach to the understanding of competence encompasses process? Additionally, and without making teaching out to be a special case, in what way can such questions actually be addressed with regard to teachers, their training and their CPD?

In answer, it is probably much easier to consider what this approach, this state, this understanding, this real competence is not, or to consider what kind of approaches are indeed unable to deal with process, but this is a little unsatisfactory. Nevertheless, it will be extremely difficult to provide general determinate answers to the above questions or even specific determinate answers for teaching. Such questions in fact really convey an ephemeral view of teaching, perhaps better expressed in the words of Smith and Coldron, as a ‘personal achievement’. (Smith & Coldron, 1996, Coldron & Smith, 1996) But this in itself still produces no further abstract progress towards an answer for teaching, it simply provides a documented specificity that teaching has a significant personal dimension to it. Thus, while there is a body of opinion that insists on recognising the deeply personal, paralleling the general notion of the attainment of competence from the Dreyfus model, there is no generally accepted understanding that can account for the specifically personal emotional involvement invested in becoming a competent teacher.

Chapter 13

Understandings of ‘Real Competence’ Beyond Competence

Introduction

In ploughing this furrow – the apparent prerequisite of direct personal emotional involvement as a necessary constituent of developing competence and indeed going beyond – there might be an excuse for a revelatory form of terminology that differentiates the previous ‘conceptualisations’ of competence from the latterly proposed ‘notions’ of competence. Indeed it might be reflected that there is such a thing as ‘emotional competence’. Emotional competence as a term might then parallel ‘emotional intelligence’ from the work of Daniel Goleman. (1996, 1998; Goleman, *et al*, 2002) and the direction of this investigation might then become intertwined in a way that reflects such insights. This would be extremely tempting if it were not for the sounding of some alarm bells. Goleman’s professor was none other than David McClelland, founder of Hay/McBer, and one of his co-authors in 2002 was indeed Richard Boyatzis. Neither occurrence should detract from the work of Goleman nor should such occurrence stand simply as a dismissive for the purposes of this inquiry. Nevertheless, such a pedigree might warn of any simple reliance on this work. In actuality even the sub-title of Goleman *et al*’s latest work, *The New Leaders; Transforming the Art of Leadership into the Science of Results* (2002) must serve as cautionary. Thus while there is a prerequisite of emotional involvement for progress through the stage of competence and thence to go beyond, it does not necessarily require that a specific emotional terminology be developed to account for its occurrence although for differentiation purposes some other additional epithet might be considered to suffice for the immediate purpose. Indeed, Barnett’s terminology of ‘real competence’ might be just as sufficient for the

purpose as any other. But further, since it is the contention of Barnett that such personal emotional involvement is 'constitutive of action', then couching his 'elevated understanding' in such terms leads directly to 'constitutive understanding' – the term eventually adopted by Gerard Lum (2003) to aid giving an account of 'vocational capability' (Lum, 2004, p.493) – another furrow that will be ploughed later. Notwithstanding this stretching of terminology however, it is still important to establish some of what is actually illuminated by reference to emotional involvement and to bear in mind that it is a fundamental constituent of 'competence', real or otherwise. It is in fact a *way* of doing things; a *way* of being.

Notions of Competence, Mere Performance and Personal Achievement

Smith and Coldron, (1996) in arguing for a view of teaching as a personal achievement, are at pains to point to both the social nature as well as the personal dimension of schooling and teaching. In understanding the social nature they point out that

[s]chooling and teaching are social constructions constituted and maintained and continually contested. ... To be a teacher is to adopt a social role created and maintained by those social processes. A teacher is trained, certified and employed on specified conditions and with explicit responsibilities. On the local level a teacher is a member of the community of a particular school which confers an identity defined and maintained in formal and informal ways. Teaching involves the individual in making choices to fulfil one's role as perceived by oneself and others and in response to the contingencies of the classroom. These choices are not capricious or private in so far as we hold ourselves accountable – to superiors, to colleagues, to oneself as teacher, to the pupils, to parents – on grounds other than personal whim (Smith & Coldron 1996, pp.2-3, citing Buchmann 1986).

But in continuing, Smith & Coldron determine that at the same time, there is a distinctively personal dimension and that teaching is indeed a personal matter.

It is not experienced ... simply as a dispassionate technical activity nor only as socially imposed form but as a project that daily we either feel good or bad about. In some contexts we can only strive to make it a dignified survival, a satisfactory accomplishment, trying to act wisely in relation to our competing aims and ideals in uncongenial circumstances. It feels like a complex personal activity which encompasses the professional. We seek to hold professional, personal and social ingredients in balance and the performance has to be maintained over time and in different contexts. (Smith & Coldron, 1996, p.3)

In this way, Smith & Coldron (1996) are articulating a view of teaching that has immediate parallels with the general notion of competence from Dreyfus' model of

skill acquisition – a general notion that involves emotion expressed in mini-narrative. In addition, however, they are also drawing attention to the fact that there are social and personal dimensions to teaching and thus to teacher competence.

This distinction has significance for one particular reason – it draws attention to the parallel distinction by Pearson (1984) when he distinguishes between the standards teachers are ‘obliged to’ meet in order to work satisfactorily and the standards which teachers ‘ought to’ meet in order to work satisfactorily. (Pearson, 1984, p.34) In Short’s (1984) distinction between entity and quality, in his outlines of competence, a similar ‘feel’ for this distinction is inherent, as there is with Barnett’s (1994) competence and understanding and Carr’s (1993) disposition and capacity distinctions and as with all the other commentators mentioned in Chapter 11 that draw attention to a discontinuity in the traditional conceptions between mere performance and something more. (Holmes & Joyce, 1993; Chown, 1993; Tarrant, 2000)

Elaborating this distinction is somewhat advantageous. In the case of standards that teachers are ‘obliged to’ meet there are factual criteria. Such criteria constitute those standards that teachers are as a matter of fact expected to live up to regardless of whether those standards are indeed worthwhile. There is no suggestion within the criteria themselves as to the desirability or value of such standards. On the other hand, in the case of standards a teacher ‘ought to’ meet, there is a value orientation. In this, principles, criteria, standards, etc., are articulated, that are to guide one’s actions. But there is no suggestion that this will necessarily involve a description of what people do in fact do. And clearly, an account of what people do in fact do really sheds little, if any, light on what they should do (Pearson, 1984, p34) or indeed on *why* they do it.

Appending this additional question of *why* and appending it as an addition to Pearson’s analysis is vitally important at this stage, because it is part of the fundamental building blocks of establishing an integrated model of competence (Hager & Beckett, 1995) which attempts to marry Pearson’s categories through the discursive of *why* states. But, before embarking on such a tack that investigates the

why, it is vital to be clear about the implications of Pearson's distinction. The atomised competencies/ competences, following Lum's (1999) ontological division, might more readily be recognised as emerging from the ontological stable of 'obliged to' standards while the holistic notion of competence is recognised more readily as emerging from the ontological stable of 'ought to' standards. While certainly not a hard and fast distinction, it does however only remain to suggest that these might be aligned to ideological/ political dimensions and genuine pedagogical values respectively, to then consider which are more amenable to manipulation and thus act as an aid to facilitate influence over who teaches and what is taught in schools.

Competencies/ competences or statements of competence which fall under the 'obliged to' umbrella, it might be surmised, are not primarily there to determine a teachers competence in pedagogy, but are there to facilitate compliance to 'norms' and, probably more importantly, to act as protection for the maintenance of such 'norms'. That is, they exist as an acculturation medium and as protection for those of the 'Leadership Class' who would 'guard the gate' of entry to the teaching profession – they do little more than afford a protection of their agents, that is the lecturers in ITE/T institutions and of their delegated duty to make decisions leading to the possible rejection of individual prospective candidates for entry and registration in to the teaching profession – against that is, those who cannot or do not display their competence through their performance. But additionally, and much more importantly, it is possible that such competencies/ competences can then be articulated in such a way as to express them as 'outcome statements' and thereafter thus permit 'synonymizing' them solely with performance against a recognised public standard.

On the other hand, a more holistic notion of competence which falls under the 'ought to' umbrella is not only much more difficult to categorise, it is much more difficult to get to grips with in its entirety. Principles, values, approach to work, state of being, understanding and real competence – all imply that they can exist without the necessity for them to be revealed. That they can be revealed (Barnett, 1994. p.75) is not in dispute, but it is rather that such principles etc., are 'constitutive of the

action' (Barnett, 1994, p.75) and indeed of many parallel actions which might not be genuinely or even particularly directly revelatory of such principles and values.

This fact/ value distinction has not gone unnoticed by critics of the competence approach, but as Lum suggests,

[o]ne of the more counter-productive features of the 'competence debate' has been the not infrequent attempts to defend against the encroachment of CBET by stressing the role of values in a particular educational sector or occupation. (Lum, 1999, p.411)

On this basis there are any number of dualisms which can then be proposed that differentiate occupations along academic/ vocational divides and thus divorce theory and practice, professions and crafts, and arts and sciences. Thus Lum concludes that

... we should remain alert to the perspectival, interested and potentially divisive nature of such claims; the inclination of educationalists to thus argue a special case for the teaching profession for example, whilst certainly understandable should be sufficient to raise our philosophical hackles. (Lum, 1999, p.411)

In finally nailing the fact/ value distinction, Lum surmises that

[i]n any case, such arguments do not assuage those who would simply advocate a more 'integrated' (Hager and Beckett, 1995) or holistic conception of competence. [because for the advocate of CBET]... statements of outcome can just as readily state the fact of someone having certain values or attitudes as the fact of them having a particular skill. (Lum, 1999, p.411)

But that there is a distinction between statements that convey obligatory outcomes and statements that convey values is revelatory not of dualisms along academic/ vocational, theory/ practice divides but of internal contradictions along performance/ competence divides or more correctly performance/ competence ontological divides contained in outcomes based approaches which conflate the substantive with the methodological. That is, every occupation contains both factual/ 'obligatory' and value/ 'ought to' related conditions. The problem arises, however, when the obligatory conditions are considered alone as competencies/ competences in themselves and are then further considered to have the facility to convey within the factor analysed 'statements of outcome' sufficient that they 'just as readily state the fact of someone having certain values or attitudes as the fact of them having a particular skill'. (Lum, 1999, p.411) This is questionable not because it simply ignores any such distinction, but because it ignores the fact that emotional

involvement is constitutive of performance. It is the simple reality that statements of competence are in fact inadequate for the task of containing values, required in all but possibly the most mundane and menial of tasks. But even so, the very example of crane-drivers from Beckett (2004, p.497) who ‘can start the engine’, who ‘can attach hooks’, who ‘can avoid accidents’ being thus competent in these tasks is also an example of crane drivers who are just as importantly ‘agents of safe driving’ (Becket, 2004, p.507) – a value laden notion. It is simply that these value-laden notions are assumed or are understated or are indeed ‘radically underdetermined’ (to use Searle’s phrase) by statements of competence – or more accurately statements of outcome – and such value-laden notions are further laden with all that is entailed in the notion of ‘background’ and ‘background practices’. The work of Searle (1969) in distinguishing ‘brute facts’ and ‘institutional facts’ indeed testifies to the inadequacy of descriptions of observable behaviour to accommodate understanding of a game such as American Football (Searle, 1969, p.52 cited in Lum, 1999, p.412). The major difficulty is, however, as has been stated, establishing a means to ascertain what this approach to work, this state of being, this understanding, this real competence – that pays no homage to mere performance – really is and how it is ‘constitutive of the action’. At this point it is indeed tempting to despair and see only a ‘vanishing point’ of practices (Turner, 1994, p.1) with little in the way of a definitive to ease explication.

Understanding Integration/ Holism and Inferential Understanding

Notwithstanding the critique of Hyland – that *all* alternative conceptions of competence are fundamentally unable to shake off from their origins the behaviourist mantle and indeed are simply attempts to propose strategies that are *supplemented* by non-behaviourist approaches so as to remedy some of the main failings and weaknesses of CBET (Hyland, 1997, p.495) – one particular integrated or holistic model of competence, mentioned earlier, referred to as the ‘Australian model’ by Hyland, (1997) has some merit and it is worth investigating the contentions of this model to ascertain how it might answer such questions even if it leaves us at this stage with a few further questions, more than any easy answers.

The particular integrated model that Hyland refers to as the 'Australian model' had its philosophical underpinnings advanced through the work of Hager & Beckett – *Philosophical Underpinnings of the Integrated Conception of Competence*. (Hager & Beckett, 1995) They have thereafter further refined and developed a more fully coherent integrated and holistic notion of competence through a series of subsequent publications building on this original work – both individually and in concert with others – so much so, that their thesis is worthy of some serious consideration. Nevertheless, Hager & Beckett are quite possibly among the first to admit that further work is required, and while Hyland also suggests that 'attempts to temper and mitigate the worst features of behaviourism are to be welcomed' (Hyland, 1997, p.495) he also still suggests that even the 'Australian model' as it stands, does not succeed 'in changing the nature and purpose of the atomistic model of functional analysis' (Hyland, 1997, p.495) that underlies the determining of competencies/competences. The main point of relevance is however, that there is a rival to such specifically determined atomistic models which advocate a competencies/competences approach based distinctively on outcomes alone as proposed by CBET in general and Jessup in particular. Importantly, this Australian model attempts to address the problem of coming to terms with values and the problem of coming to terms with process.

The Australian model, as it was and as it has developed, is predicated on the acceptance of a number of propositions which build towards an acceptance of inferentialism as a fundamental tool for understanding processes involved in developing competence, rather than simply accepting the statement of outcome of performance as a summative measure of competence. It is interesting to travel this path both because it attempts to 'make the argument that there is something worthwhile in competency structures' (Beckett, 2004, p.497) and because it is an attempt to understand 'understanding' itself. (Beckett, 2004, p.506) But in outlining the model as it has developed, it is not really necessary to rehearse every nuance of the exposition, it is sufficient simply to highlight the staging posts that permit the logic of the conclusion, even if in such brevity some twisting and straining of Hager & Beckett's (1995) and Beckett's (2004) logic occurs.

Firstly, there is the contention that there is a need to develop attention to the processes of learning without losing sight of the outcomes, but that this can only be achieved if attention is paid to both competency and its close relation, generic skills – a term widely used to refer to a range of qualities and capacities giving rise to a notion of the *expectations* conveyed in the competency. (Core Skills in the UK vernacular) Thus, the analysis is broadened beyond simple statements of outcomes (competence), by giving attention to statements of expectations (generic skills). That is, what a person trained/ educated in the ‘competency structure’ might be expected to be able to do. Secondly, is an acceptance of the Deweyian presumption of intelligent work and that underpinning the ‘integrated conception of competence’, (the Australian model), there is serious attention to ‘intentionality’ and the worker’s agency. That is, the worker is a willing participant or agent in the workplace and is considered to see purpose or to have intentionality in the activity. Thus there is available a selective (not exhaustive) assembly of evidence of performative skills and attitudes in a worker from which competence can be inferred through the context of the immediate workplace and the worker’s agency in making judgements about how to proceed – that is judgements-in-context. Thus

... an inference of competence assumes not only that an individual worker possesses the stance of ‘aboutness’ to her particular context, but also that she can make a difference in that context. (Beckett, 2004, p498)

Thirdly is an acceptance that there is an embodiment of competence in the worker – a ‘materiality of competence’ – and that from this and a sensitivity to judgements-in-context ‘inferential understanding’ emerges. This materiality, however, depends on accepting that competence is an *event* rather than a *possession*. That is, it is something that individuals and organisations *do*. (Mulcahey, 2000, p.521) Fourthly is the linking of knowing *how* with knowing *why*. The claim is that through this there is an exploration of *what it is to come to understand something*, at a fundamental level. In providing reasons for judgements the question of ‘what inferences can now be articulated by the learner?’ replaces the question ‘has there been a change in the state of the learner?’ (Adapted from Beckett, 2004, pp.497-499)

Following on; a view of inferentialism itself – which is opposed to the *Given*. (the view that the putative raw data of experience, [direct knowledge], is uncontaminated by theoretical, ordering, or inferential impositions or additions (Flew, 1979, p132)) –

might argue that ‘a form of linguistic pragmatism ... might take as its slogan Sellar’s principle that *grasping a concept is mastering the use of a word*’. (Beckett, 2004, p.502 citing Brandom, 2000, p.6 and acknowledging the work of Sellars, *Empiricism and the philosophy of Mind*.) Thus there is not an acceptance of a simple exclusive dualism between knowing *how* and knowing *that*, but rather there is a means of codifying a sort of knowing *how* in the form of a knowing *that*, a making *explicit* what is *implicit*. (Brandom, 2000, pp.6-8) In conceptual activity therefore, there is a pragmatic *expression* of knowledge claims, not a simple *representation*. This is a crucial distinction, but for Beckett, there is no need to emerge from this inferentialist track along with Brandom, where knowing how can be turned in to knowing that. All that Beckett requires is that there is an exploration of knowing how and knowing *why* – the giving of reasons for acting (Beckett, 2004, p.502) and it is this which allows the claim that the Australian model deals with process. Additionally in this regard, is the notion of ‘communal self-correcting’. That is, there are ways in which knowing *why* is a public articulation of judgements about know how, which is itself by definition, located in the ‘local, personal and the particular’ workplace experiences. Beckett suggests examples such as teamwork and other forms of socially reflective practice (for example, 360-degree appraisals, ‘retreats’, role plays, simulations, project-and problem-based groups) are some of the ways that these articulations are made public. (Beckett, 2004, p.506)

In accepting such background assumptions which constitute the backbone of this Australian model, the resultant

... claim is that how a person goes on to do something (what ‘know-how’ consists in) is not about something other than itself (represented, such as is Given), but rather about what that person finds herself or himself undergoing, in what it is to be human. Frequently, what humans find themselves doing is making decisions (judgements) about what to do next. Workplace learning is increasingly shaped by this sort of fluid experience (‘knowing how’ to go on), but it needs to be *made explicit*. ... The ‘making explicit’ is what the best adult teachers and trainers can do, in facilitating, even revealing, adults’ experiences for educational purposes. Mentoring schemes are an example. (Beckett, 2004, p.504)

Thus the Australian model claims to be able to meet a set of criteria that Hager & Beckett (1995) consider central to the production of educationally defensible competency standards – the integration of key intentional actions with personal

attributes, holism of several kinds and the encompassing of cultures and contexts. In other words, what Hager & Beckett claim to have outlined as ‘integrated competence’ moves beyond the mere listing of tasks (what is done on the job), by adding the two holistic dimensions: the practitioner’s attributes (what is brought to the doing of the job) and the characteristics of the context, or ‘situatedness’ (where the job is done). (Hager & Beckett, 1995, p.6)

For Lum, however, the making explicit, or articulating knowing how in written form is where there is a difficulty for the competence based approaches in general and this would include this integrated model. (See Lum, 2004, p.490) Lum agrees that the distinction between knowing how and knowing that is not exclusive and may even be a misleading one. But his analysis appears to penetrate much deeper. He draws attention to the fact that the use of the knowing how/ knowing that

... distinction is to draw attention to the kind of evidence we have of a person’s knowledge as a way of articulating more clearly what it is that [we know] they know. ... For it is when tasked with describing *exactly* what someone knows that we resort to descriptions of the things they can do or of the kinds of facts that they are able to recite, simply because these things lend themselves to precise description. The mistake consists in taking these manifestations of knowledge for knowledge itself. (Lum, 2003, p.3)

Lum also agrees that Hager & Beckett (1995) are right to place inference at the centre of their conception of competence and indeed suggests further that inference is really of central importance to any coherent understanding of educational provision and assessment. (Lum, 2004, p.490) Where one of the difficulties lies between Lum and Hager & Beckett is in the conception of competence as having materiality; of competence understood as having a doing dimension; of competence approaches

... having some intrinsic, unique or at least enhanced capacity to attend to the ‘doing’ aspects of human affairs that is found lacking in alternative approaches. (Lum, 1999, p. 408)

In this, Lum is not fundamentally disputing a relationship with a doing dimension, but simply disputing an intrinsic, unique or enhanced capacity to attend to the ‘doing’ aspects of human affairs that competence based approaches claim. By contrast, Beckett, (2004) taking his cue from Mulcahey, (2000) relies on competence being regarded as a complex outcome, or better, an *event* which then allows

Mulcahey to suggest that competence is not something individuals or organisations *have* but rather something they *do*. (Mulcahey, 2000, p.521) This analysis has some credence. One of the distinguishing features Heidegger attributes to humanity is that it is more like an *activity* or *process* than any sort of *thing*. (Watts, 2001, p.25) If it is also accepted that the notion of competence is not a possession, but rather a state of being, then there is an ontological inference of a doing dimension. But the problem is in moving from *competence* to *competence as a complex outcome* to it then being an *event*; from competence conceived not as something individuals or organisations *have* but as something they *do*. To achieve this Mulcahey relies on the notion of *competence development* involving a number of processes – discursive and material – which are only partially assimilable. (Mulcahey, 2000, p.521) The case for interpreting such *complex outcomes* or *event* with what individuals or organisations *do* however is neither clear nor unambiguous – noting also the earlier critique of organisations as ‘organisms’ by Greenfield (1975) mentioned in Chapter 5. To be sure, *competence development* by its very nature is something that individuals and ‘organisations’ might do or at least try to do, but to consider ‘competence’ itself in this light is stretching the point a little. Competence may not be a possession of individuals or organisations but neither is it really something individuals or organisations *do*. Rather, it is something more related to the *way* they do or to the *way* they approach work.

This point appears to be ignored by Beckett. Indeed, acceptance of Mulcahey’s analysis as it stands is in fact fundamental for Beckett in developing his ‘corrective to Lum’s analysis’ because it permits him then to show the ontological significance of what is ‘done’ (materially) as a basis for language usage – what is ‘done’ (discursively). (Beckett, 2004, p.499) Thus allowing Beckett

... to argue that ‘inferential understanding’, grounded in embodied practice, can provide a strong basis for articulating both statements of outcome (competence), and statements of expectation (generic skills). We get from the materiality of workplace learning, to its discursive nature, not the other way around. (Beckett, 2004, p.501)

This is important for the Australian model so developed because in this there is a directional element that permits of a move from knowing *how* to knowing *why* – the fundamental underpinning of this integrated approach’s claim to address process.

But knowing why is not really a closed notion. It only has a semblance of closure in the context of specific outcomes and 'judgements-in-context'. To know why, may still be left unarticulated and more, any justifications given may reflect an obligatory ontology and not necessarily a normative ontology. In addition, the giving of justifications for action is reminiscent of the method used by McClelland and referred to in Chapter 10. A reminder of the method there, used for diplomats in the first instance, was to identify 'competencies' through looking at a *criterion sample* of diplomats, devising a technique of *behavioural event interviewing* based on the *critical incident method* and then, to use a form of *factor analysis*, to categorise the characteristics – competencies – that differentiated the successful from the unsuccessful. With Beckett there is a similar feel. Identify *competent workers* through looking at a *criterion sample*, devise a technique of *behavioural event interviewing* based on *judgements-in-context* or critical incidents and then, using a form of *factor analysis*, categorise the *why statements* so that the successfully articulated justifications are then differentiated from the unsuccessfully articulated, to produce 'competency structures'. Thus, in determining not to lose sight of the outcomes and indeed in determining to 'make the argument that there is something worthwhile in competency structures' (Beckett, 2004, p.497), this integrated conception of competence is still grounded in a conception of competence which has as its mainstay either a view that it has an intrinsic, unique or at least enhanced capacity to attend to the doing dimension – a case for CBET that is effectively disputed by Lum – or at the least, a means of better articulating some of the under-determination of such statements of judgement. But is this really addressing process, or really addressing the understanding of understanding? In Heideggerian analysis of language usage and the ready-to-hand/present-at-hand distinction it is only when the 'transparency' of doing is interrupted through meeting problems that any reflexive processes are engaged in. Thus statements derived from 'judgements-in-context' are at best articulations of solutions to experienced situational problems only, indeed the experienced situational problem may even be unique to the individual, but they do not and cannot specify the completeness of doing – that is they are then non transferable and thus not really generic. But even in 'communal self-correcting' or the acculturation medium, there is as well always the introduction of a political dimension and for this reason alone the articulation of why judgements must be

considered to have a suspect ontology. Nevertheless, in something of a broad Heideggerian defence of the reasoning of the Hager & Beckett position, it is the case that ‘detached’ or ‘objective’ thinking about things is derived from the practical world and not vice versa, (Watts, 2001, p.27) but the problem is that

... an important feature of vocational capability ... is its profoundly tacit nature; we are at a loss to describe the kinds of capacities that language itself is dependent upon. (Lum, 2003, p.11)

That is the use of language is as tacit as embodied practice – it is simply not possible then to get from the materiality of workplace learning, to its discursive nature in an unambiguous manner. The appearance then, is that the conception of competence in the integrated model is still as open to all the conceptual criticism levelled against it and is thus still unresolved ontologically. On this premise, the materiality of competence cannot really stand unambiguously as a ‘corrective’ to Lum’s analysis.

Understanding Real Competence and Constitutive Understanding

In contrasting the respective positions of Lum and Beckett, the essence of the difference is in whether it is possible to articulate in words, all that is capable of being experienced or known or communicated. (Magee, 1998, p.98) Magee indeed presents many examples to show what he terms the ‘unverbalizability of direct experience’, like telling someone a piece of music or saying a Brahms symphony or saying the *Mona Lisa*. (Magee, 1998, p.99) But the case presented by Beckett is one which tries at least to explore the ‘under-determination’ (Beckett, 2004, p.499) of competence statements. In this regard, Beckett states that he starts as a fellow-traveller with Lum and he endorses Lum’s analysis that, with the aid of the work of Searle (1969; 1983; 1995), the two assumptions upon which naïve CBET is predicated – that human capabilities are intrinsic, ontologically objective features of the world and that it is possible for statements to unequivocally accurately and sufficiently describe ontologically subjective/epistemologically objective features of the world – are unwarranted. In agreeing with such, however, Beckett then attempts to go between the statements and to explore the degree of ‘radical underdetermination’. (Searle, 1995, p.131) But in doing so, the question is, is Beckett tacitly agreeing that there is at least a semblance of a Rylean dualism between knowing *how* and knowing *that*? Notwithstanding his reference to the work of Brandom, (2000) which explicitly denies a Cartesian dualism. Beckett appears to

accept at least that a codifying of knowing *how* can, through inferentialism, be articulated in the form of a knowing *that*, although he is at pains to point out that his interest is essentially between knowing *how* and knowing *why*. However, the point is that the integrated model appears to require this sort of dualism as a platform to work from. Using Brandom's form of linguistic pragmatism (2000, p.6) Beckett accepts the view that the mind is not just some mirror representing what is inner and what is outer, but is by contrast analogous to a lamp where making *explicit* what is *implicit* is achieved through reflection in a Schonian 'reflective practitioner' sort of way, (Beckett, 2004, p.502) and for Beckett, the linking of knowing *how* with knowing *why* is achieved by just such reflection-in-practice articulated as judgements-in-context. Nevertheless, in articulating the view that the agent has intentionality, Beckett appears to be following a Sartrean interpretation of Husserlian intentionality. That is, the agent is

... an individual subject that gives meaning to everything by way of its intentionality. Because consciousness gives all meaning, anything can have meaning for it, There isn't any restraint, any facticity or thrownness, as Heidegger would call it. (Dreyfus in Magee, 1987, p.275)

This all encompassing intentionality is Husserlian and that implies a Cartesian dualism at the heart of part of this analysis.

In contrast, Lum's point with regard to this dualism is that the distinction between knowing *how* and knowing *that* is really how a third party articulates or makes manifest their knowledge about what someone can *do* and what facts they can *recite*, and that because of this, such third party manifestations of knowledge should not really be mistaken for knowledge itself. (Lum, 2003, p.3) This reasoning cuts through this simple dualistic notion that gives rise to the contention that there are two distinct types of knowledge in the first place and that on this basis it seems that there is limited currency to be gained from articulating knowing *how* in terms of knowing *why* since this too is then just as much a third party distinction. Knowledge of knowing *why*, if indeed derived from a methodology such as that used by McClelland, is not therefore unambiguous if as such it is third party articulations of justifications for statements of competence. Additionally, if generic skills are similarly derived from some form of functional analysis of statements of outcome or competencies and as such constitute the basis of the argument for there being

something worthwhile in competency structures, then the integrated approach fails to properly address the charge that it is simply an attempt to propose strategies that are *supplemented* by non-behaviourist approaches so as to remedy some of the main failings and weaknesses of CBET. (Hyland, 1997, p.495) Indeed, even Hager & Beckett point out that

... it is clear that, without the integrative inference, the integrated approach would collapse into naïve behaviourism, because all that would be available is observable, i.e. behaviour. (Hager & Beckett, 1995, p.10)

Their elaborate defence of integrative inference and the integrated approach stretches over some eleven pages in their original article (Hager & Beckett, 1995, pp.9-20) and addresses the various criticisms of naïve ‘competence’ with rebuttals from within the logic of the integrated approach. The suggestion is that through the integration of intentional actions with personal attributes, holism of several kinds, and the encompassing of cultures and contexts, naïve competence can be set aside or allowed to collapse into naïve behaviourism while the Australian model or integrated approach can mount a defence against such collapse – such defence being predicated on one or more of the set of criteria that Hager & Beckett (1995) consider central to the production of educationally defensible competency standards.

But in the first instance, in explicating their notion of integrated intentional actions with personal attributes, Hager & Beckett (1995, p.2) draw attention to definitions of competence that suggest typically that competence refers to ‘ability to do something’ or ‘capacity for carrying out tasks’. Thus, abilities/ capacities, what Hager & Beckett call attributes, are fundamental to competence. They then state that abilities/ capacities are neither limitless nor unrestrictedly general and as such enable the performance of some tasks and not others. They conclude therefore that not only are both *attributes* and *tasks* logically necessary to the concept of competence but also that while attributes themselves are logically necessary for competence they are not in themselves sufficient. Mirroring this for tasks, they then consider that

... for the development of competency standards that are educationally valuable, ‘tasks’ should not be interpreted in an exclusively narrow sense. ... At their broadest, tasks include things such as performing in accordance with an overall conception of what one’s work is about, working ethically, etc. (Hager & Beckett, 1995, p.2)

The logic of the concept so elaborated then permits the conclusion that competence has a relational characteristic, and also that competence is inferred from performance rather than being directly observed. That is,

... the abilities or capabilities that underlie the performance are necessarily inferred, [and] ... this means that assessment of competence will inevitably be based on inference from a sample of performances. (Hager & Beckett, 1995, p.3)

Then in a parting shot, they conclude the logic of their argument by exclaiming,

[i]n requiring that the sample [of performances] meet criteria that will make the assessment valid, assessment of competence is in the same boat as other kinds of assessment. (Hager & Beckett, 1995, p.3)

This is surely right, but validity relies on reliability and replicability and if all kinds of assessment are in the same boat, where is the exclusiveness of competence approaches in having anything unique? In this parting shot, what Hager & Beckett have revealed is, that while assessment is not unique, what is unique to CBET is that learning is also inferred. Learning is something that happens in between the specification of competency structures and assessment, (Lum, 2003, p.1) with no need for 'considerations relating to the kind of preparation a person has received as a measure of fitness to practise.' (Lum, 2004, p.486) But further, from such a sample of performances, the integrated approach, in common with naïve competence approaches, must deem the ability to perform successfully in practical tests as equivalent to vocational capability. Thus attainment of the requisite 'competences' *must* be a sufficient condition of fitness to practice. (Lum, 2004, p.495) Success in practical performance in any other approach however, is at best only a necessary condition, because the likely effectiveness of the procedures of preparation are as much *inferred*, as are the student's abilities/ capacities, from the performance precisely because other approaches do not deem the ability to perform successfully in practical tests to be equivalent to vocational capability. The consequences of this are extremely far reaching because

[i]f the purpose of a practical test is to indicate the effectiveness of the procedures employed, there is no inconsistency in ... conceding that practical tests do not measure all that is required for competence, that they can never be entirely comprehensive or achieve the kind of validity ... [aspired] to. It is acceptable that they merely fulfil their intended purpose as far as reasonably practicable. But there is no room for such half-measures with competence specifications; either they do describe the competence or they do not, and if they do not the logic of the approach collapses. (Lum, 2004, p.495)

Linking this then with the contention above that knowing *why* might be no more than third party articulations of competency structures, the claim that the integrated approach incorporates process in an educationally meaningful or significant way is also thus brought in to question. Indeed Beckett contends that,

[L]ists of competencies and generic skills make no sense unless they show they are grounded in practical judgements and that the reasons practitioners can give for their judgements are publicly articulated amongst their peers. (Beckett, 2004, p.506)

thus presupposing that practical judgements can be articulated sufficiently for every eventuality and that the *why* of publicly articulated judgements-in-context is not open to political manipulation. But from arguments presented previously, and also from a close reading of Beckett's attempt to explore the radical underdetermination of competence statements, accommodating every eventuality is not really tenable nor, in at least the case of teacher education, is the ignoring of political influence. In any event however, for the purposes of this thesis, the simple fact that the competency structures that are utilised in the context of Scottish Education cannot claim to be so grounded becomes quite devastating – the only conclusion that can be drawn in the case of Scottish education is that 'lists of competencies' such as those contained in the *Guidelines '98* 'make no sense'.

A further point to address in the logic of this integrating of attributes with tasks however, is in the claim that 'at their broadest, tasks include such things as performing in accordance with an overall conception of what one's work is about, working ethically, etc.' But such accordance is not in itself *doing*, it is a *way* of doing and as such must actually only be inferred. Thus, inference is indeed central. Inferring a *way* of doing, however, elevates this above simple doing and or the inferring of abilities/ capacities. This *way* of doing might in fact be considered a prerequisite of doing and of abilities/ capacities. It is a prerequisite because it reflects on the way one exercises their abilities/ capacities through the doing dimension or how one approaches doing. It is thus a way of being, first and foremost.

This returns us to the territory of Lum, (1999; 2003; 2004) Dreyfus, (2001) and Barnett. (1994) Particularly for Lum, but quite possibly also for Dreyfus and

Barnett, the radical underdetermination of competence as articulated in competence statements is profound. So profound in fact for Lum that he claims a non-discursive nature for real competence. (2004, p.485) But this claim is from the perspective that descriptions of behaviour and accounts of propositional knowledge fall short of accounting for real competence because they are themselves derivative from or are manifestations of a more fundamental notion of competence.

In this account, Lum (2003) cites the work of Searle (1995) and Heidegger (1962) in explicating ‘vocational capability as a network of constitutive understandings’. This account is detailed and tightly argued, but, and as with outlining the integrated approach of Hager & Beckett, it is not strictly necessary to rehearse every nuance of the exposition here, although a presumption of some understanding of the work of Searle and Heidegger is then implicit in highlighting the staging posts of Lum’s analysis. In addition however, because much of Lum’s (1999; 2003; 2004) exposition has already been referenced to some degree in questioning the account of the integrated approach, in avoiding unnecessary repetition, there is some necessary brevity at this juncture. But again, this should not detract from the cogency of Lum’s full analysis.

In establishing the basis of ‘constitutive understanding’, which is central to the idea of vocational capability for Lum, is the notion of function. That is, there must be an understanding of the function of things – tools – by an agent. But such functions are not intrinsic features of the world they are always imposed by human beings. In example, there must be an understanding of the function of a screwdriver, but in imposing such function the agent is ascribing a normative aspect not simply delimiting a causal relationship. That is the agent must learn to ascribe functions that are appropriate or in some sense aligned with those designated by the wider community of practitioners. That is, in the Heideggerian sense,

... we become *Dasein*, or get *Dasein* in us, only when we get socialised into shared coping skills, moods, possibilities and so on. *Dasein* is always already being –with. Moreover, since these skills are social, a *Dasein* generally does what anyone in the society does. I hammer with a hammer because one hammers with hammers in our culture. I eat the way one eats. I pronounce words the way one pronounces words in our country. ... People are eager not to deviate from the norm. ...we could clarify this point by saying that only when a baby starts doing what one does, and saying what one says, does a

baby have *Dasein* in it. So conformity to public norms is constitutive of *Dasein*. (Dreyfus in Magee 1987, p.266)

The imposition of a function can thus only take place within a context of previously determined interests, values or purposes. Ascribing a function thus implies a far greater degree of understanding about the uses of screwdrivers. Thus it is clear that the processes involved in ascribing functions are far more complex than might appear because specifying an object with a function only makes the sense that it does, because it is embedded in a complex network of other beliefs or intentional states. (Lum, 2003, pp.4-5) In some senses, there is here, broad similarity with Hager & Beckett's 'cultures and contexts', with their rules, rituals and conventions. But Lum's account is more pervasive. It reflects more on the whole background of *Being* rather than just the contextual background of professional or work activity. It even addresses the directional flow of this contextual background which Beckett (2004) reflects on in moving 'from the materiality of workplace learning, to its discursive nature'. On Lum's account the background is the most influential factor and because the learned use of language is part of this background, agents will always be at a loss to describe the kinds of capacities that language itself is dependent upon. (Lum 2003, p.11) To understand this point fully, however, it is necessary to go a little deeper into the analysis.

Turning to the work of Heidegger, Lum suggests Heidegger's account of Being-in-the-world provides an indication of just how pervasive and extensive this 'complex network of other beliefs and intentional states' or this background might be. In returning to the example of the function of a screwdriver, there must be the ascription of function to the screws that are turned by screwdrivers and the materials joined by the screws, and the construction created by the materials so joined. Additionally there is the understanding of how the screw draws and holds materials together, the understanding of a tapered spiral. On Heidegger's account there is an important understanding of involvement from the ready-to-handness of a thing to a 'towards-which' and an ultimate 'for-the-sake-of'. Heidegger's use of such language is to obviate the need for articulating specific goals because the ultimate goal is to *be*. Thus function is ascribed in order that some future state will permit the further ascription of function for some further future state and so on, to an ultimate sense of

Being – a chain of involvements that necessarily culminates in an ultimate ‘for-the-sake-of-which’. Thus this Heideggerian account seems to involve capacities that do not have a specific directedness that might normally characterise the intentional. (Lum, 2003, pp.4-5) Thus directed intentional acts are only part of Being and are dependent upon perception and disposition. There is thus an

... ‘unexplicited horizon’ ... that confers intelligibility upon the intentional, a kind of ‘pre-understanding of what it is to act, to get around in the world the way we do’. ... (Lum, 2003, p.6 citing Taylor 1993, p.325 & p.327)

Thus in a very direct sense the ascription of function always requires a prior ascription of function. To explain a little further; in order to ascribe the function of screwdriver there is beforehand an understanding of screws holding material together. But that implies a prior understanding of the difference between the function of screws and the function of materials. This in turn implies a prior understanding of, for want of a better example, the relative tensile strengths of screws and the materials to be joined. This then also implies a prior understanding of thin material held together with thick fat screws or thick fat material held together with thin screws and the resultant relative strength of the join dependent upon the relative tensile strengths. In example, an agent just knows that two thick pieces of wood may not be suitably held together by the use of thin metal screws. But this then also implies a further deeper knowledge of wood and metal. Additionally, the ascription of function also implies prior understanding of the notion of a ‘towards which’. That is, there is a future state that is more ordered than the present state which will permit the realisation of a further future even more ordered state, but one which is as yet unspecified.

Intentionality is therefore what really distinguishes Hager & Beckett from Lum. That is, for Hager & Becket intentionality in work and the workplace can be circumscribed sufficiently to permit developing statements of outcome that articulate knowing how in terms of knowing why, while for Lum, regardless of the context, such intentionality can never be circumscribed sufficiently to give adequate meaning to the statement of outcome in terms of inferred vocational capability. In large part, the reason for this is the need to exercise choice. Lum, citing the work of Friederich Waismann, (1951) points out that there is no logical solution to the question of what counts as sufficient or complete description. (Lum, 2004, p.488) Thus for Lum.

... in specifying just one aspect of a task, a line has to be drawn somewhere, and hence a decision has to be made where it is drawn. It follows, then, that implicit in any specification are a whole range of judgements, not only about which aspects are to be regarded as relevant, but also about what counts as a sufficient description of any aspect and thus, by inference, the relative emphasis placed on each aspect. Once we become sensitive to their substantive ontological focus – rather than accepting at face value the idea that they simply describe ‘tasks’ – we can see that specifications are often far from comprehensive; indeed, we begin to appreciate just how narrow and highly selective their focus may be. (Lum 2004, p.488)

Statements or specifications of tasks, therefore – the outcomes or competencies or competences of CBET programmes – are simply inadequate for the task of inferring real competence because it is just not possible for statements of outcome to contain semantically all that is necessary to describe competence. (Lum, 1999, p.415) In expressing this view, however, Lum is at pains to highlight that it is possible to specify educational inputs with acceptable precision. But the real point he draws out is that for the competence strategist, the educational process is expressed entirely in terms of outcomes, excluding from the specification the very things it is possible to be precise about. The inexorable conclusion is that the capacity to describe educational ends unequivocally rapidly declines to the extent that such ends constitute anything more than the most mundane and workaday capabilities (Lum, 1999, pp.415-416)

Returning to a Heideggerian account of an apprentice cabinetmaker, (Heidegger, 1993, p.379) Lum criticises traditional accounts of descriptions of such learning because they simply describe the kinds of *evidence* that can be had about the knowledgeable states of others, thus gravitating to an account in which the entirety of what someone can be said to know is couched in terms of the ‘knowing how – knowing that’ dualism, but accounts of ‘mere practice’ or ‘propositional knowledge’ fail to capture the essence of understanding. (Lum, 2003, p.10) What Lum then propounds, he suggests stands in marked contrast to such evidential accounts of knowledge. On his account, becoming

... vocationally capable is first and foremost a matter of learning to perceive, experience, cope with, in short, to *be* in a particular world. (Lum, 2003, p.11)

Lum then continues in a Heideggerian vein to further expound on this theme, but in so doing he reverts to the language of purposes, goals and values – a terminology

that is really eschewed by Heidegger and part of the fundamental reason for the confusing language of ‘towards-which’ and ‘for-the-sake-of’ used by Heidegger to get at the ‘unexplicited’, to borrow from Taylor. (1993, pp.325-327). Nevertheless, the exposition is highly illuminating and for this reason is worth quoting in full.

As we go about our lives acting in a particular capacity a certain coherence is disclosed to us, a world of profoundly interconnected meanings and involvements inextricably related to our purposes, goals and values – purposes, goals and values that must approximate to those of our fellow practitioners. It is not only that to an engineer, a mother or an architect the world is revealed differently but that what they *are* is inseparable from the world that is disclosed to them; their being, their very identity, cannot be separated from the realm of concerns and meanings that their being able to act in that world necessitates. Our becoming capable is primarily about our gaining these fundamental understandings rather than necessarily being able to exhibit the secondary and derivative behavioural or propositional manifestations of those understandings. Importantly, it is a world *constituted by* our understandings, or to be more precise, by a *network* of such understandings. By such means we come to adopt a particular stance, an interested and purposeful viewpoint that in turn structures our consciousness and thus our experience. We come to be equipped with a certain kind of ‘readiness’; we see things *as* certain things, we are able to interpret what we experience and extrapolate from it in a way that is appropriate to the world in which we wish to operate. (Lum, 2003, p.11)

It is this that helps to establish a means to ascertain what this approach to work, this state of being, this understanding, this real competence – that pays no homage to mere performance – really is and how it is ‘constitutive of action’. It is this that Lum suggests is the essence of what it is to be skilled, competent or capable. And it is this which *elevates* the traditional notion of competence. Indeed, the need for some form of differentiation alluded to at the beginning of this chapter might be better served by referring to the CBET conception of competence, the constructed conception of competence, as competency – understanding it to be limited and ‘consciously erected to perform a limited function’.

SECTION VI
THE MODEL

Chapter 14

Beginning a Model of 'Real Competence'

Introduction

In developing a deeper understanding of real competence – a sort of competence beyond competence or competence beyond competency – the thrust of the argument was against the specification of statements of outcome being sufficiently articulated so as to contain within all that is required to convey a notion of real capability or real competence, being as they are, derived from understandings of competency – a conception 'consciously erected to perform a limited function'. But this is not to deny that specifying the educational outcome is not possible. Although in a paraphrasing Taylorian (1993) expression of Heideggerian (1962) terminology, goals are 'unexplicited', it does not mean that the 'towards-which' and the ultimate 'for-the-sake-of-which' are not directed. On the contrary they are directed at what might be articulated as a reduction in entropy. That is they are directed at what might be termed as 'lesser disorder'. The problem is that lesser disorder is simply not a directly specifiable state of affairs not only because such directedness is built on normative inference, but also because lesser disorder is lesser disorder of an already existing state and thus a lesser disorder which cannot pre-specify what the new state of order will be – it simply cannot be assumed that 'other things remain equal'. In moving to a perceived state of lesser disorder, other things are affected which will always affect the new order differentially. (See Lum, 2003, p.2) That is, it is possible to affect a change in some social state but it is not possible to direct such change in some social state to a pre-specified outcome. There may be at best, only a propensity to a unidirectional directed state. It is possible therefore to specify a normative condition but much less possible to pre-specify directly the outcome

that will itself result from this normative condition being fulfilled. There is an ontological disparity between substantive concepts and methodological strategies. A statement of outcome simply cannot fulfil the requirements of a normative condition which is couched in terms of a 'towards-which'. It is at least at one remove from normative inference of the condition and thus becomes simply part of an itinerary or list of obligations and as Lum (1999) has pointed out, such lists are from a very different ontological stable.

Thus, if statements of outcome are inadequate for the purpose of achieving directed educational aims and substantive educational ends are literally inexpressible anyway, except in that there may be a propensity for a towards-which, the question for Lum is, how can learning be specified at all? (2003, p.12) In answer, Lum proposes abandoning the 'outputs' of instrumental ends and taking account of processes and procedures of teaching and learning directly – that is, the 'inputs' to the educational endeavour. In so doing, however, it is imperative that such an account of the processes and procedures incorporate the 'unexplicited', the 'towards-which'. Thus, any attempt to provide specificity in precise, terms will merely slide back into descriptions of objects, behaviours or facts. Introspection and inferentialism are therefore the most important constituents of determining the processes and procedures of teaching and learning. There is broad similarity here with Hager & Beckett's (1995) 'judgements-in-contexts' conception, but this is where Lum might suggest that the outcome from their analysis potentially slides back in to descriptions of objects, behaviours and facts because of their determination to uphold the worth of competency structures. For Lum, to avoid this, there is the requirement of what he terms a 'double inferential leap' (Lum, 2003, p.12) In the first 'inferential leap' he suggests a teacher first takes consideration of the

... instrumental ends, but then, by a process of reflection, visualisation and inference from those ends, the teacher determines introspectively the nature of the understandings *substantively* required. (Lum, 2003, p.12)

Then,

[o]nce a tacit grasp of those understandings has been arrived at [by the teacher], there might be a second inferential leap ... in order to determine the nature of the educational processes and procedures that will best develop those understandings in the student. (Lum, 2003, p.12)

The precariousness of this process is well understood by Lum and is implicit in his use of the term 'leap'. Even more problematic, however, is any attempt to explicate this process because such explication inevitably slides in to mere descriptions of objects, behaviours and facts if precise pre-specification is substituted for an understanding of the 'unexplicated'. To understand the nature of this double inferential leap therefore requires an elaboration which addresses process but does not depend upon precise specification for justification. That is, there is a need to account for the processes and procedures, the inputs to the educational endeavour, as constitutive of understandings that lead to action without a set of fully ordered specific instrumental ends.

Starting with an elaboration of the first inferential leap then, it is at this point, that again the work of Dreyfus (2001) has some significance. But it is necessary to back up a little, to get to grips with process and to get to grips with the ephemeral nature of instrumental ends. Thus, in understanding Dreyfus' account of the development of skill acquisition, there is a need to examine some of the implications stemming from the philosophical underpinnings. Thus in Dreyfus' explication of the competence stage in the model, there is the expression of a Heideggerian notion of an agent *anticipating* the future condition by *going towards* it, what might be considered as authentic *Dasein* in Heidegger's terms, contrasting with, again in Heideggerian terms, inauthentic *Dasein*. That is, when an agent relates to the future by waiting to see the results, the success or failure of the current activity or situation – the *possible future outcome* of events, circumstances and affairs of everyday projects – it *waits* for the future to *come towards* it. (Watts, 2001, p.59) This sort of philosophical position then, is the bedrock of Dreyfus' (2001, p.38) conception of achieving competence through a sort of *emotionally involved* 'posing and testing of questions in real situations' (Dreyfus, 2001; Benner, 1984, p.187) or of the failure to make progress because of 'rigid rule-following'. And it is this conception, which can provide insights in to the development of real competence and the processes and procedures that will best develop understanding of the ephemeral nature of instrumental ends. There is a need for the active involvement of authentic *Dasein* in the process of reflection, visualisation and inference from such ends before understanding can take place. That is, in order for development through and beyond

the stage of competence there must be emotional involvement, there must be authentic *Dasein*. In Dreyfus' terms and in his model of skill acquisition, there is an understanding of this process and although it is possible to get stuck, Dreyfus claims that his model is a model of the process of skill acquisition and therefore there is always the possibility of progress along the continuum. It is worthwhile, therefore, examining the Dreyfus model a little more closely and particularly any application of the model that might have been elaborated.

An Interpretive Understanding of Real Competence

It is at this juncture that the work of Patricia Benner (1984) has some direct relevance in the wider context of the Dreyfus model of skill acquisition. Following the original work of Dreyfus (1972; 1979; 1982) and Dreyfus & Dreyfus (1977; 1979; 1980) – from which was developed an initial five stage model of skill acquisition and as previously mentioned subsequently more fully development into a seven-stage model (Dreyfus, 1986; 2001) – Benner studied nurses at each of the stages of development of skill acquisition described in the early five-stage Dreyfus & Dreyfus (1980) model. Her particular findings then helped in the development of an understanding of the processes and procedures involved in skill acquisition in the area of clinical nursing practice. But in so doing, and for the interest of this analysis, it was more the understanding it brought to the *mystery* of expert nursing practice and in the creation of an awareness that this mystery must be respected, rather than make the pretence that it can be dispelled or standardised by submitting it to rules, procedures, and regulation. (Aydelotte, Foreword to Benner, 1984, p.vii) Thus, the method is suggestive of how the first of Lum's inferential leaps might be elaborated. The work itself, however, suffers a little from being dated, based as it is on the older version of the Dreyfus & Dreyfus model, and for the purposes of this exposition it also suffers from the limiting vocabulary of 'competencies'. In the exposition, however, this will be addressed directly. Thus, from deeper reading of the work linked to deeper understanding of real competence in relation to the Dreyfus & Dreyfus competence stage contained in the model of skill acquisition, and outlined above, there is some significance for developing deeper insights into real competence and for developing insights in to the *substantive* understandings of instrumental ends as well as elaborating process and procedures.

Nevertheless, partly because of its dated nature and partly because of its use of ‘competencies’, there are methodological and terminological aspects that require exposition and clarification. Indeed, Benner’s (1984) methodology starts in very similar vein to that of the work of McClelland (1973) and Boyatzis (1982) in that she identifies the ‘*competencies*’ of *expert* and *novice nurses* through looking at a *criterion sample* of each, devising a technique of *behavioural event interviewing* based on *critical incidents* and then, using a form of *factor analysis*, – an *inductive analysis* – categorises the *competencies* so that *domains* of clinical practice are ascertained. However, Benner takes great pains to emphasise, unlike McClelland or Boyatzis, that she

... is concerned about hasty system builders who ... want to deify the 31 competencies described or who might want to complete the list, as though there were a finite list of competencies that can be captured for all time. [Benner further expresses that] Ending with 31 is indeed a bit whimsical, ... (Benner, 1984, p.xxii)

There is therefore at least one distinct difference between the work of Benner and that of McClelland and Boyatzis. Their work attempted to produce just such a ‘finite list of competencies’ – a list of ‘generic competencies’ – while Benner is much more sceptical of achieving anything like this. Moreover, Benner’s analysis is of how nurses approach their work, how they gain a gestalt of a situation and proceed to follow up on vague, subtle changes ... with a confirmatory search ... (Benner, 1984, pp.xviii-xix) She asserts that the methodological approach adopted is an *interpretive* approach to the identification and description of practice knowledge and in this regard, the use of the term competencies itself appears somewhat more arbitrary and ambiguous than its use in this context might otherwise suggest – given the work of McClelland and Boyatzis. Indeed, since the term ‘competent’ is itself the constituent of a significant described stage in the Dreyfus & Dreyfus model, it seems somewhat paradoxical to then talk of the competencies of an expert – the fifth stage in the same model – or indeed the competencies of a novice – the first stage in the model.

This point will be directly taken up again a little later when working through some of the insights from Benner’s interpretive approach – the real thrust of which is actually to identify and describe clinical knowledge in nursing practice through the application of the Dreyfus & Dreyfus model of skill acquisition. But there are

still some other fundamental aspects of Benner's account which again, must be addressed before embarking on a fuller exposition.

Benner cites the work of Kuhn (1970) and Polanyi (1958) in establishing at the outset that she draws a distinction between practical and theoretical knowledge, between knowing *that* and knowing *how*, suggesting that they are two distinct types of knowledge. She reflects that in their expositions Kuhn and Polanyi point out that we have many skills (know how) that are acquired without 'knowing *that*' and that we cannot always theoretically account for know-how in many common activities such as riding a bike or swimming. (Benner, 1984, p.2) She expounds further.

To state it differently, some practical knowledge may elude scientific formulation of "knowing that." And "know-how" that may challenge or extend current theory can be developed ahead of such scientific formulations. (Benner, 1984, p.2)

But from the analysis of Lum, (2003) it has been established that this 'knowing how/ knowing that' dualism is somewhat misleading in that it is a dualism based on third party articulations of what it is that someone 'can do' and on what knowledge they 'can recite'. Benner continues, however,

... knowledge development in an applied discipline consists in extending practical knowledge (know-how) through theory-based scientific investigations and through charting of the existent 'know-how' developed through ... *experience* in the practice of that discipline. (*emphasis added*) (Benner, 1984, p.3)

Then, in explaining further, she points out that she views *experience* in a Heideggerian manner and suggests that acquiring experience results when preconceived notions and expectations are challenged, refined, or disconfirmed by the actual situation, concluding thus; that experience is ... a requisite for expertise. (Benner, 1984, p.3)

But in such exposition, Benner is probably more closely aligned to the position of Lum than first appears from what is stated. Indeed, the heading of the section is 'Knowledge Embedded in Expertise', (Benner, 1984, p.3) and this, it might be suggested, relates to, in paraphrase again, the 'unexplicited' embedded in know how. In addition, the fact that Benner suggests that 'acquiring experience results when preconceived notions and expectations are challenged, refined, or

disconfirmed' also points to her conceiving of this as a process, not an outcome. It also points to the kind of break in continuity as expressed in the competence stage of the Dreyfus model, when the 'preconceived' or 'rule following' is no longer adequate. To give proper credit, this is also reminiscent of the position of Hager & Beckett when they consider 'judgements-in-contexts'. It is however, because, founded on a Heideggerian notion, all four aforementioned commentaries avail themselves of the distinction between coping consciousness and directed or intentional consciousness. For Heidegger the common way of *Being*, or the common awareness of *Being*, is a coping awareness – one in which there is no need to direct consciousness to the doing of things, routinely. It is only when the 'preconceived notions and expectations are challenged, refined, or disconfirmed', that consciousness is drawn out from its coping awareness of doing to a directed awareness of doing and that the full analytic function is applied. With reference to what has been mentioned earlier, however, about the inability to pre-specify outcomes, this change from normal coping to directed awareness requires some further elaboration. To open with an analogy; the CPU of a computer polls the ports that pieces of peripheral equipment are attached to in normal operation. So, the CPU knows which pieces of equipment are attached and which to give priority to depending on the operator's instructions through the keyboard. In normal operation then, the keyboard is always ready for input but the peripheral equipment is simply standing in a state of presence until called upon by the CPU to execute an action when it then also becomes ready – a sort of reference to Heidegger's 'ready-to-hand' and 'present-at-hand'. Without the need for going a great deal further with this limiting play, there is nevertheless, recognisable in this analogy, a crude model of intentionality, but one which introduces the important notion of 'polling'. In normal coping mode, an agent is also polling. Polling all the 'unexplicited horizon', the 'background', the 'understandings', the '*Being*' of 'being-in-the-world'. But then, when 'preconceived notions and expectations are challenged, refined, or disconfirmed' in a particular action, something is prioritised. Importantly however, the polling doesn't stop, importantly there is a continuation of polling. Thus this non-directed consciousness is still conscious consciousness and it is this which can result in ingenious or novel solutions – solutions which could not have been pre-conceived or pre-specified. The real difference in the four commentaries mentioned

above, therefore, is not only whether such analytic function can thereafter be suitably articulated, but also whether the common coping consciousness still also constitutes a significant part of the unexplicited, the underdetermined embedded in the practice. For Hager & Beckett it can and the degree of underdetermination can also be analysed. For Lum, Dreyfus and Benner it cannot and the unexplicited, or *mystery* for Benner, is such that it is so pervasive and constitutive of *all* practice that it is impossible to fully account for in specific practice. Thus Benner is able to say, quite categorically, that ‘not all of the knowledge embedded in expertise can be captured in theoretical propositions, or with analytic strategies that depend on identifying all the elements that go in to a decision’. (Benner, 1984, p.4) An apparent alignment with Lum (1999; 2003; 2004) and probably tantamount to a tacit agreement with him, that there is not really a dualistic conception of knowledge for the individual with the knowledge embedded in their expertise. Benner’s exposition can be more likened to the consideration of the third party analytical attempt to express what experts can do and what they can recite – exactly the point Lum articulates so well – even although Benner upholds the knowing how/ knowing that dualism consistently throughout. (Benner, 1984) Indeed, the *mystery* of practice for Benner might actually be suggestive of the recognition that

... ‘knowing that’ and ‘knowing how’ are not two basic epistemological categories but merely the secondary, derivative and evidential manifestations of the understandings substantively at issue. (Lum, 2004, p.493)

What Benner then goes on to suggest, however, is that intentions, meanings, and outcomes of expert practice can be described, and aspects of clinical know-how can be captured by interpretive descriptions of actual practice. (Benner, 1984, p.4) But it is important to fully understand what is being said here and to understand the limitation of what is being said. Such interpretive descriptions are not pre-specifications. Such interpretive descriptions are in fact articulated interpretive descriptions of actual practice. They are recognitions and elaborated interpretive descriptions of process. Benner particularly limits her research in this regard and declares that in ‘such an interpretive strategy, *synthesis*, rather than *analysis*, is used’ (Benner, 1984, p.39, *emphasis added*) Thus meaning can only be interpreted from within the context in which it is found, from being interpreted at a holistic level. Benner explains the depth of understanding of this process in this way.

In contrast to the situation-based, interpretive approach, the linear ... process model can actually obscure the knowledge embedded in actual ... practice, because that model oversimplifies and necessarily leaves out the context and content of ... transactions. Nursing is *relational* and therefore cannot be adequately described by strategies that leave out content, context, and function. (*emphasis added*) (Benner, 1984, p.42)

Benner then continues to further elaborate that while it

... is possible to describe expert practice, ... it is not possible to recapture from the experts in explicit, formal steps, the mental processes or all the elements that go into their expert recognitional capacity to make rapid [situational] assessments.

But then she still claims that

... this does not mean, ... that accomplishments and characteristics of expert ... performance cannot be observed and described in narrative, interpretive form. (Benner, 1984, p.42)

This sort of narrative, interpretive approach sails very close to the wind with CBET and particularly the holistic model of Hager & Beckett, but Benner then draws back again and explains that,

[a]ttempts may be made to model or make explicit all the elements that go into a ... decision, but experts do not actually make decisions in this elemental, procedural way. They do not build up their conclusions, element by element; rather they grasp the whole. Even when they try to give detailed accounts of the elements that went into their decisions, essential elements are left out. (Benner, 1984, pp.42-43)

And it is exactly in this area that the fascination lies for Benner. In measuring experts' abilities to grasp the whole, there is a dearth of knowledge and research. She cites the research carried out through the earlier Achieving Methods of Intra-professional Consensus, Assessment, and Evaluation (AMICAE) project. (Benner, 1984, p.xxiii) in which an effort was made to identify competencies evident in actual clinical practice. These are listed on page 44 of her text, but one aspect in particular stands out. Benner identifies what she terms as 'hot' problem finding and 'hot' problem solving (i.e., problem solving in crisis or high time-demand situations) (Benner, 1984, p.44) but remarks that

... more is known about measuring problem-solving (judgements) capabilities when problem solving is reduced to defining the problem and ordering alternatives. Other aspects of the problem-solving process such as problem finding and solution implementation are usually omitted. (Benner, 1984, p.44)

It is these areas of ‘problem finding’ and ‘solution implementation’, the areas of process that CBET ignores completely. CBET’s emphasis is simply on outcomes, reducing the problem to one of definitional status and the ordering of alternatives, most times not even dependent on the context. The actual process of problem finding and solution implementation is totally ignored. Attempts by Hager & Beckett (1995) to address process and defend their holistic model against the reductionist critique of naïve CBET while maintaining the worthwhileness of competency structures, does move away from simple lists of outcome statements, but in Beckett’s (2004, p.501) reversal of the direction of what Lum (2004, p.487) refers to as the teleological continuum stretching out from person to object, i.e. in ‘getting from the materiality of workplace learning, to its discursive nature’ (Beckett, 2004, p.501), there is a perspective of instrumental rationality which subsequently demands ‘descriptions of objects, behaviours or facts’. Thus a need to elaborate outcomes to have some form of directed and elaborated instrumental ends.

But somewhat unexpectedly however, throughout this brief account of Benner’s (1984) work there is needful recognition that contained within are all the early hallmarks of the holistic model of Hager & Beckett (1995). Firstly, there is the establishment of the *relational* nature of competence in clinical nursing practice, the relation between content, context, and function, (Benner) mirrored in the *relational* nature of competence in attributes and tasks. (Hager & Beckett) Secondly, there is the *holism* of clinical nursing practice in situational decision making (Benner) mirrored in the *holism* of situational understanding. (Hager & Beckett) Thirdly, there are the *role relationships, socialisation, and acculturation* in nursing practice (Benner) mirrored in the *cultural determinants – the rules, rituals and conventions* of professional practice. (Hager & Beckett) Additionally, there is reference to ‘hot’ problem finding and ‘hot’ problem solving (Benner) mirrored in ‘hot actions’ (Hager & Beckett, 2002) Thus, even in this enormously brief exposition it is easy to see the distinct similarities in the structure of the models and even the similarity in terminology, although Benner would be very reluctant to have her interpretive approach described as a ‘model’.

There is a distinction, however, not least as expressed latterly, that Benner's interpretive approach should not be described as a model. But to draw this distinction out properly requires an understanding of what Benner was interpreting in relation to the Dreyfus stage model of skill acquisition and an understanding of the implications for competencies and for education.

As has been pointed out, Benner's methodology for arriving at her 'competencies' is very similar to that of McClelland's (1973) and Boyatzis (1982) and very probably Hager & Beckett's (1995). The distinction, however, is that Benner's emphasis was on an interpretive approach rather than on an analytical approach. In this, she is attempting full descriptions of actual practice. In interviews with practicing nurses, Benner says,

... they were asked to describe patient care episodes in narrative form with as much detail as possible, including their intentions and interpretations of the events as well as the chronology of the action and outcomes. (Benner, 1984, p.44)

She is not therefore analysing such practice in order to reduce it to problems of definition and ordering of alternatives, but is synthesising such practice in order to capture the richness of problem finding and solution implementation – thus her 'whimsical' 31 competencies. From such full descriptions, Benner, then switching to a more analytic mode, *inductively* develops a classification of seven domains of clinical nursing practice justifying this by claiming that

... the strength of this method lies in identifying competencies from actual practice situations rather than having experts generate competencies from models or hypothetical situations. [But the fundamental feature is that]... thus the description is synthetic, or holistic, rather than elemental and procedural. (Benner, 1984, pp.44-45)

Thus the interpretation of the exemplar interviews as representative of a particular competency resulted in the identification of each of the seven domains, but the competencies within each were in no way intended as an exhaustive or even comprehensive list and an adequate description of the competency itself is dependent on the exemplars. The focus therefore is on the whole situation rather than breaking it down into specific tasks. (Benner, 1984, p.45) It is important then, to see Benner's 'competencies' not as outcome statements in the traditional sense, but as real descriptions of 'problem finding', 'solution implementation' and, of

course as well, to some extent as problem solving by also eventually reducing the problem to one of definition and ordering of alternatives – *all* the components of problem solving. Indeed, Benner (1984, pp.41-42 and p.45) invites readers of her text to explore the ‘competencies’ and ‘domains’ with the exemplar interviews and confirm or deny their relevance or even to extend the exemplars by adding their own practice. Thus Benner almost certainly sees the teleological continuum stretching from person to object as does Lum because the ‘competencies’ so arrived at are ‘whimsical’ or even ephemeral. That is, they do not simply slide back in to simple ‘descriptions of objects, behaviours or facts’ because they are not definitive.

To capture some of the richness of Benner’s interpretive approach then, the domains of practice are outlined below, with the ‘competencies’ within, then further expanded.

Domains of Nursing Practice (Source: Benner, 1984. p.46)

- The Helping Role
- The Teaching-Coaching Function
- The Diagnostic and Patient Monitoring Function
- Effective Management of Rapidly Changing Situations
- Administering and Monitoring Therapeutic Interventions and Regimens
- Monitoring and Ensuring the Quality of Health Care Practices
- Organisational and Work-Role Competencies

In expanding the domains, the competencies within to some degree lack the illuminating richness contained in the exemplar interviews, but they still have fecundity even in their limited expression. However, it must be borne in mind that it is the exemplar interviews that Benner places greatest emphasis upon and she is insistent that the competencies and interviews have to be read in conjunction with one another in order to gain full understanding.

Domain: The Helping Role (Source: Benner, 1984. p.50)

- The Healing Relationship: Creating a Climate for and Establishing a Commitment to Healing
- Providing Comfort Measures and Preserving Personhood in the Face of Pain and Extreme Breakdown
- Presencing: Being with a Patient
- Maximising the Patient’s Participation and Control in His or Her Own Recovery
- Interpreting Kinds of Pain and Selecting Appropriate Strategies for Pain Management and Control
- Providing Comfort and Communication Through Touch
- Providing Emotional and Informational Support to Patients’ Families

Guiding a Patient Through Emotional and Developmental Change: Providing New Options, Closing Off Old Ones: Channelling, Teaching, Mediating
Acting as a psychological and cultural mediator
Using goals therapeutically
Working to build and maintain a therapeutic community

Domain: The Teaching – Coaching Function (Source: Benner, 1984. p.79)

Timing: Capturing a Patient's Readiness to Learn
Assisting Patients to Integrate the Implications of Illness and Recovery into Their Lifestyles
Eliciting and Understanding the Patient's Interpretation of His or Her Illness
Providing an Interpretation of the Patient's Condition and Giving a Rationale for Procedures
The Coaching Function: Making Culturally Avoided Aspects of an Illness Approachable and Understandable

Domain: The Diagnostic and Monitoring Function (Source: Benner, 1984. p.97)

Detection and Documentation of Significant Changes In a Patient's Condition
Providing an Early Warning Signal: Anticipating Breakdown and Deterioration Prior to Explicit Confirming Diagnostic Signs
Anticipating Problems: Future Think
Understanding the Particular Demands and Experiences of an Illness: Anticipating Patient Care Needs
Assessing the Patient's Potential for Wellness and for Responding to Various Treatment Strategies

Domain: Effective Management of Rapidly Changing Situations (Source: Benner, 1984. p.111)

Skilled Performance in Extreme Life Threatening Emergencies: Rapid Grasp of a Problem
Contingency Management: Rapid Matching of Demands and Resources in Emergency Situations
Identifying and Managing a Patient Crisis Until Physician Assistance Is Available

Domain: Administering and Monitoring Therapeutic Interventions and Regimens (Source: Benner, 1984. p.123)

Starting and Maintaining Intravenous Therapy with Minimal Risks and Complications
Administering Medications Accurately and Safely: Monitoring Untoward Effects, Reactions, Therapeutic Responses, Toxicity, and Incompatibilities
Combating the Hazards of Immobility: Preventing and Intervening with Skin Breakdown, Ambulating and Exercising Patients to Maximize Mobility and Rehabilitation, Preventing Respiratory Complications
Creating a Wound Management Strategy that Fosters Healing, Comfort, and Appropriate Drainage

Domain: Monitoring and Ensuring the Quality of Health Care Practices
(Source: Benner, 1984. p.137)

Providing a Backup System to Ensure Safe Medical and Nursing Care
Assessing What Can Be Safely Omitted from or Added to Medical Orders
Getting Appropriate and Timely Responses from Physicians

Domain: Organizational and Work-Role Competencies (Source: Benner, 1984. p.147)

Coordinating, Ordering, and Meeting Multiple Patient Needs and Requests:
Setting. Priorities
Building and Maintaining a Therapeutic Team to Provide Optimum Therapy
Coping with Staff Shortages and High Turnover:
Contingency planning
Anticipating and preventing periods of extreme work overload within
a shift
Using and maintaining team spirit; gaining social support from other
nurses
Maintaining a caring attitude toward patients even in absence of close
and frequent contact
Maintaining a flexible stance toward patients, technology, and
bureaucracy

Such Domains and competencies contrast significantly with the lists of measures in Chapters 7 and 8, not least because they are from a completely different spectrum of practice. But interestingly, they also differ in the lack of so many 'can do's' under the banners of 'demonstrate', 'evaluate', 'formulate', 'exhibit', 'locate', 'select, evaluate, and implement', 'read, interpret, and evaluate', 'effectively use', 'prepare', 'select, identify and implement', 'provide', 'use', 'be able to tolerate', 'promote', 'guide', 'employ', 'apply', 'able to identify', 'able to establish', 'incorporate', 'adapt', 'adjust components', 'maintain', 'evidence fairness', 'utilize', 'create an awareness', 'discriminate', 'prescribe', 'assist', 'aid', 'plan and participate', 'describe', 'be aware'. Indeed, even where such language is used it invariably applies to a more holistic action than to a specific outcome. For example, 'Using and maintaining team spirit' or 'Maintaining a flexible stance toward patients' or 'Capturing a Patient's Readiness to Learn'. This is simply not the language of outcome statements and therefore not really the CBET language of competencies/competences at all.

Implications for Competencies/ Competences

Benner's repertoire of statements within domains, are not simple descriptions of objects, behaviours or facts, they are much richer interpretive descriptions of actual practice. In this regard the domains themselves are more akin to what in Lum's terminology might loosely be termed as the instrumental ends of clinical nursing practice. That is, for example, there is reference to a 'Helping Role', a 'Teaching-Coaching Function', a 'Diagnostic and Patient Monitoring Function', 'Effective Management of Rapidly Changing Situations', and 'Monitoring and Ensuring the Quality of Health Care Practices'. Such domains are really ends towards which practice in clinical nursing care is determined by. Thus with subtle changes in syntax these domains might just as easily be articulated as aims or as instrumental ends. Additionally, the so called 'competencies' under each domain also evoke this notion of rich interpretive description of actual practice with, for example, 'Skilled Performance in Extreme Life Threatening Emergencies: Rapid Grasp of a Problem', 'Contingency Management: Rapid Matching of Demands and Resources in Emergency Situations', and 'Identifying and Managing a Patient Crisis Until Physician Assistance Is Available'. Such 'competencies' are in fact actual 'understandings' of practice within that domain, or instrumental end, and thus might be assumed to be constitutive of the practice involved in achieving the instrumental end. What Benner has produced, therefore, might more readily fit in to the category of a 'whimsical' list of 'constitutive understandings' in the mould of Lum's analysis. This 'whimsical' nature is important and is eloquently expressed by Benner herself when she intimates that

[a]ny nurse can compare these exemplars with similar and dissimilar situations from her or his own practice; when disagreement, agreement, questions, refinement, or extension of the exemplars is encountered, it will be an indication a new area of clinical nursing knowledge is being uncovered. (Benner, 1984, p.42)

Thus Benner conceives of such synthesis as a dynamic, an ever changing mosaic of practice that requires the individual practitioner to engage with the understanding, to deepen and refine the understanding and to make it constitutive of their practice. They require this 'constitutive understanding', to be 'problem finders' and 'solution implementers' and not just judgemental problem solvers who reduce a problem to one of definition and ordering of alternatives.

It is this, however, which points to the real problem with CBET and competencies/ competences. The reductionism involved actually throws the baby out with the bath water. By concentrating on outcomes, every problem is reduced to one of definition and ordering of alternatives and this is a stale rendering of problem solving because it condemns the problem solver to ever solving known problems. It is a static approach which fails to recognise the dynamic elements of problem solving and thus is unable to deal with process at all, in any guise. Because static statements of outcome can never adequately accommodate 'problem finding' and 'solution implementation' they cannot be fully grounded in what Beckett (2004, p.506) requires for them to make sense. That is, they cannot be adequately 'grounded in practical judgements'. Nor can the reasons practitioners give for their judgements be adequately 'publicly articulated' so as to be relevant *beyond* their peers. Benner expresses this quite eloquently too, when she points out that 'experts pass on cryptic instructions that make sense only if the person already has deep understanding of the situation' (Benner, 1984, p.10) and when she reflects that 'too often the expert's difficulty in making all that he or she knows explicit is misunderstood by the beginner'. (Benner, 1984, p.187) Thus, even if 'the reasons practitioners give for their judgements can be publicly articulated amongst their peers', (Beckett, 2004, p.506) the competencies so arrived at have little educational status because to understand them requires prior understanding. On this analysis therefore, there are few criteria in competency standards that are then actually educationally defensible.

Implications for Competencies/ Competences and Teaching & Learning

Benner's work therefore draws back from outcomes by recognising the importance of *mystery* in the practice of clinical nursing care, by synthesising interpretive description of practice, by attempting to understand what kind of understanding is constitutive of practice, by determining introspectively the understandings *substantively* required. This is indeed the first part of the 'double inferential leap' that Lum suggests is required to give shape to teachers' educational endeavour. The question is can this process be elaborated without sliding back in to descriptions of objects, behaviours and facts?

For Benner, using the Dreyfus model, the five stages from Novice, through Advanced Beginner, to Competent, then Proficient and finally to Expert in clinical nursing, show a transition from, 'rule following' through the use of 'guidelines', to the development of a 'perspective', thence to the creation of 'maxims' from a 'web of perspectives' and finally, to an 'intuitive grasp'. Thus in the early stages, the Novice requires to follow rules. Rules are written down for safety and proper care in clinical situations but such rules, however, do require to be followed – they are obligations. Not only this, but such rules are in fact context free and are therefore the building blocks of experience. The problem is that rule-governed behaviour is extremely limiting and inflexible. Rules are required to guide performance but following rules legislates against successful performance because the rules cannot distinguish the most relevant tasks to perform in an actual situation. (Benner, 1984, pp.20-21) As the Novice moves through the stage of Advanced Beginner towards being Competent, guidelines become important. That is, when there is sufficient understanding through coping with enough real situations to realise similarities or to recognise recurring meaningful situational components, the Advanced Beginner can identify overall global characteristics from prior experience. These can be made explicit but they cannot be made completely objective. Thus the Advanced Beginner can formulate principles that dictate actions – they formulate guidelines – but at this stage there is little recognition of the differential importance of each experience. Each is therefore imbued with a similar degree of immediacy. (Benner, 1984, pp.23-25) At the Competent stage, with sufficient further experience, such differentiation does begin to occur. Relative importance and ability to prioritise in terms of the short, medium and longer term is recognisable at this stage. Thus planning is involved and this means a perspective is established based on conscious, abstract, analytic 'contemplation', (Benner, 1984, pp.25-26) but articulated through 'posing and testing of questions in real situations'. (Benner, 1984, p.187) At the next stage, a Proficient performer is able to perceive of situations much more holistically and thus is guided by maxims. In this, the conscious, abstract, analytic contemplation that allows a perspective to develop is subsumed within an ability to grasp everything at once. There is in fact a web of perspectives. However, a completely new experience can force the Proficient performer to revert to conscious, abstract analytic contemplation and best guess. (Benner, 1984, pp.28-31) In the final Expert stage,

even this web of perspectives is dissipated and gives way to a much more intuitive grasp of situations, when even the unexpected can be accommodated by trusting to intuition.

In such development, Benner does highlight that she is not talking about initial nurse education or training. She is talking about the development of expertise in nurses who are actually in practice, after initial training has taken place. However, she does point to the need for the same level of educational development in the prerequisite subject areas with 'strong educational preparation in the biological and psycho-social sciences and in nursing arts and science'. (Benner, 1984, p.184) But further, Benner conjectures that

... nurses graduate with little understanding of the strategies for clinical skill acquisition beyond the advanced beginner or competent levels. Therefore they have a secondary ignorance: they do not know what they do not know, and they have a limited understanding of how to go about learning it. (Benner, 1984, p.185)

It would be difficult not to reflect similarly on newly qualified teachers, but in the immediate context of clinical nursing, Benner suggests that to overcome some of the worst aspects of this lack of preparedness, early experience of specialisation, while possibly limiting of early career flexibility, might actually aid in the understanding that

[a]cquiring advanced levels of skill in one speciality area would teach the student what is involved in acquiring advanced skills in general. ... the process of specialisation could serve new nurses by offering them guidelines for acquiring a second speciality. (Benner, 1984, p.185)

In accomplishing this however, the corollary is of course that there may be the requirement of extended training or longer periods of initial training.

Lum also makes this point with regard to vocational education and training in general (2003, p.13) but remarks that it would seem that this is the price that has to be paid if learning is to be effective. Indeed, turning now more fully to Lum's analysis, with regard to his 'Richer Conception of Vocational Preparation', (2003) it is apparent that the double inferential leap has considerable implications for vocational preparation in general and in regard to this analysis, the preparation of prospective teachers in particular.

If however, in following Benner's interpretive approach – her synthesis, it can be said that a method for considering instrumental ends which requires a process of reflection, visualisation and inference from those ends to determine introspectively the nature of the understandings *substantively* required, is substantially what has indeed been described, then following this method might accommodate at least the first of Lum's 'double inferential leaps' for the teacher. Thus the first stage would be, adopting an interpretive approach to determine what the instrumental ends for education are. There is already no shortage of candidates propounding their theory from politicians to the 'leadership class' to researchers, through the TESS (January 21, 28, February 4, 11, 2005) and beyond, but few, if any, have actually attempted such a comprehensive review of teachers' actual experience in recent years. Indeed the teacher seems to be ever 'an absent presence' in the debate. The question; what really are the instrumental ends of education? has never really been asked in anything other than a rhetorical fashion. This, however, if the foregoing analysis is accepted, might be reflective more of the inexpressible nature of substantive educational ends than it is of competing viewpoints, but nevertheless it can no longer be assumed that substantive educational ends are simply rhetorical. The haunting spectre of Heidegger's nihilism in his later philosophy where

... there are no guidelines any more. ... no goals. (Dreyfus in Magee, 1988, p.273)

raises enormously deep questions;

Why are we concerned with using our time more and more efficiently? To what end? Just to have time to organise our lives even more efficiently? Heidegger thinks there will soon be no meaningful differences, differences with content, any more, such as heroes and villains, or even differences like local and international, but only the more and more efficient ordering of everything, everywhere, just for the sake of more and more efficiency. (Dreyfus in Magee, 1988, p.273)

And this is all too apparent in the drive to elevate outcomes to substantive educational ends – an attempt to fabricate meaning in existence. It is therefore becoming urgent that some form of interpretive approach for considering instrumental ends that thereafter requires a process of reflection, visualisation and inference from those ends to determine introspectively the nature of the understandings *substantively* required, is adopted if to do nothing more than seriously engage with teachers.

The demand on schools to improve their performance in a context where the judgement of quality of the education service is linked directly to the economic and social well-being of the country can prompt a search for a 'quick-fix': some means of demonstrating immediately improvement to a political audience and popular audience alike. (Reeves *et al*, 2002, p.169)

Thus the attraction of outcomes, because they are measurable and permit of managerial strategies for manipulating improvements in performance, but if real improvement is to take place 'the need to engage *with* teachers in bringing about reform will be unavoidable in the end.' (Reeves *et al*, 2002, p.169)

A comprehensive interpretive approach to establishing current substantive educational ends might follow the same or similar method as outlined by Benner. (1984) In so doing, novice, experienced and expert teachers views might be sought on a range of aspects of teaching, but in all it will be the interview transcripts that will constitute the exemplars of good practice and these will be open to further and on-going interpretation by other teachers as their own careers develop. Indeed, this will be an enormously beneficial exercise because 'there is a great deal we do not know about how experienced practitioners improve their performance.' (Reeves *et al*, 2002, p.170) Moreover, as the demands on teaching and education change with the needs of society there will be the opportunity to learn and open up new areas of practice in teaching & learning. Thus interviews that allow the interviewee to describe formative teaching episodes in narrative form, with as much detail as possible, including their intentions and interpretations of the events as well as the chronology of the action and outcomes might be synthesised to reveal 'constitutive understandings' that thereafter can be analysed *inductively* to establish 'domains' of teaching practice that point to the 'instrumental ends' of teaching and ultimately of education. In so doing it will also be revelatory of the means of skill progression, discovering when rules are no longer adequate, when guidelines are still too cumbersome because of the need for conscious, abstract, analytic contemplation, when a perspective is developed, when holistic understanding is grasped, when intuition takes over. This is not simply an ephemeral shibboleth but the actual basis of the narrative of pedagogical practice.

Implications for ITE & CPD Curriculum Design

The natural extension of such an interpretive approach to the understanding of the substantive ends of pedagogical practice would then be to attempt to accommodate Lum's second inferential leap – determining the nature of the pedagogical processes or procedures that will best develop those understandings in students. This is at once both a simple and a difficult task. Simple, in the fact that, since such processes and procedures can be articulated in the clearest of terms, the often implicit assumption that tacit ends entail indeterminate means can be dismissed. (Lum, 2003, p.12) Difficult, in the fact that since individual teachers are engaging with understandings of the substantive ends of pedagogical practice, it is then they, individually, who are responsible for determining the nature of their own educational processes and procedures that develop those understandings in others. Thus,

... the process of realising explicit curricular content from ends that are essentially tacit is clearly no mean feat and cannot, given the nature of such ends, be simply one of deduction; rather, it must be grounded in the educator's own most fundamental understandings of what it is to be capable. (Lum, 2003, p.12)

But it is in this that there is at least the recognition

... that the task of turning an educationally sterile specification of instrumental ends into a meaningful account of what will be required in order to achieve such ends is, above all, an *educational* task. (Lum, 2003, p.12)

In large part, the answer for Lum lies in recognising 'the very special role of the educator in determining *what* is to be learnt; a role for which there is ostensibly no place in present arrangements, where learning outcomes are regarded as 'given'.' (Lum, 2003, p.12)

Thus the nature of the educational processes and procedures so determined, are individuated for the educator and individuated by the educator for the learner. Thus it would be difficult for the educator to recapture in explicit, formal steps, the mental processes or all the elements that go in to determining how best to develop those understandings in others. But, in recognising that outward proficiencies are secondary and derivative of the development of these understandings, it should be evident that the best processes and procedures should be identifiable by being the more efficient at bringing about the most thorough accomplishment of these outward manifestations of understanding in the learner. (Lum, 2003, p.13)

There is indeed no shortage of educational and motivational gurus already propounding the benefits of understanding the learning process in this way – a corollary of which, by implication, is that the simple possession of a skill or capability by an individual is unlikely on its own to be a sufficient qualification for teaching that skill or capability to others – there is the additional need of having to learn about learning and about how to encourage effective learning efficiently in others – that is, the art of teaching. Such modern day sophistry, as propounded by the gurus, attracts large paying audiences some of which will indeed benefit directly. The rest are then told that they are not applying the lessons learned properly and that they should keep trying – i.e. keep paying up for more. This option, however, is not realistically available for real educators – their audience is more likely to be a captive audience, and one which is increasingly demanding value for money from education in general. The attraction of CBET in vocational education is in the fact that it allows repeated attempts to gain the ‘competence’ – just as in the guru model. The damning indictment is that there is no incentive for the educator to learn about learning and about how to encourage effective learning efficiently in others. Thus, emphasising process is in fact a double-edged sword. It places significant obligations on the educator

Lum himself proposes that direct attention be paid to the newer conceptions of learning and the results of research that advocate engaging all of the learners’ minds, including the unconscious. Such theories as the theories of Multiple Intelligence (Gardner, 1983: 1989; 1993), Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 1996; 1998; 2002) and the research that has been carried out that endorses such theories, is becoming more commonly accepted, particularly in Scotland, but there is no systematic attempt to incorporate the full awareness of this in the educator in such a way as to encourage them to have this at the centre of their pedagogical practice. There is no doubt that such work is indeed recognised, but there is also no doubt that the ‘competences’ contained within the *Guidelines* ‘98 militate against developing beyond competence because they are unable to aid distinguishing the most relevant tasks to perform in an actual situation and thus the most effective means of passing on the understanding required to the learner. There is no incentive, in observing the competencies contained in the *Guidelines* ‘98, that compels the educator to learn

about learning. 'The supposed efficiencies of learning processes targeted directly at specific ends are thus negated by the *ineffectiveness* of those processes.' (Lum, 2003, p.13)

Thus addressing educational processes and procedures directly not only highlights the obligations on the educator, they also highlight the ineffectiveness of learning processes targeted directly at specific ends. Of course, this then raises the question about what kind of educational processes and procedures would best promote the kinds of understanding substantively required for capability or real competence. As has been pointed out, work on 'multiple intelligence' and 'emotional intelligence' is widely recognised and Lum cites the work of Griffey & Claxton. Much of the research in to such fields also points to the multi faceted manner of effective learning and suggest that

... learning can be made far more effective by utilising the resources of the unconscious mind. ... learning is most effective when it is based upon direct experience (as opposed to representations such as books, illustrations, models); when it involves learning through action (as opposed to passive learning, for example, lectures); when it takes place in relevant contexts; when there are conditions of collaborative teamwork that provide feedback and encouragement to reflect (as opposed to learning being a solitary affair); when learners gain access to the resources of unconscious learning through strategies such as meditation, intuition, imagination, fantasy, etc. (Lum, 2003, p.13)

But it is not as if this is entirely new or unheard of, early years education is predicated on just such processes and procedures and early years educators are highly trained in determining the understandings that bring about effective learning in others. Great educators such as Rousseau (2001[1762]) advocated play as the greatest stimulus to effective learning more than two hundred years ago. A major part of the problem has been, however, the distinction drawn between liberal education and vocational education, most particularly when the public purse became the most significant means of funding state education. But if there is no real distinction in terms of knowledge between 'knowing how' and 'knowing that' then such a dualistic conception of the vocational and the liberal is also unworthy. For Lum the justification for making such a claim lies in the fact that the 'characterisation of the vocational ... long ... propounded ... by many philosophers of education' is such that it was a 'way of distancing the vocational from the liberal' with the explicit 'intention being to protect education from vocationalising

tendencies.’ This is somewhat ironic for Lum in that such educational philosophers ‘efforts have’ only ‘served to encourage those who believe that by terminological sleight of hand (for example, thinking skills) these same characteristics can be extended to the wider educational enterprise.’ (Lum, 2003, p.2)

The fact of the matter is that it is the educational processes and procedures of both vocational and liberal education that are the fundamentals of pedagogy. Curriculum design therefore, requires that active participative learning, determined by the educator, become a central feature of effective pedagogical practice. Educators must be encouraged, from the start, to consider the instrumental ends of education but to do so through process of reflection, visualisation and inference from those ends to determine introspectively the nature of the understandings *substantively* required.

SECTION VII
THE CONCLUSION

Chapter 15

Conclusion

Introduction

In approaching the exploration of the vocabulary of competence the emphasis was principally on understanding. Understanding the nature of the discourse as it pertains to having a means of evaluating teacher quality, effectiveness and competence. In the round this naturally proceeded along a wide arc and incorporated the context, movement and measures before embarking on a critical analysis of the central conceptual basis of the discourse – competencies/competences. A form of discourse analysis brought to the fore many areas that are open to question and interpretation and highlighted the conduct of the debate in both the wider international context and in the context of Scotland. But such analysis also highlighted the compelling nature of the discourse. In actually simply acceding to the notion of a ‘conceptualisation of competence’ in the competence discourse, unwary protagonists on either side are unwittingly drawn in to a dialogical labyrinth that also ‘conceptualises teachers and teaching’. Such derived conceptualisation itself then becomes reified, influencing debate, relegating actual pedagogical practice to a sort of ‘absent presence’. A pedagogical practice concealed by the unconcealment of conceptualisations of what constitutes ‘competent teaching’, to use a Heideggerian form of terminology. This unconcealment, however, derives not simply from capricious choice, but from a technological understanding of *Being*.

In this there are also overtones of Foucauldian ‘power/knowledge’ and the ‘objectification of the subject’ with regard to such derived conceptualisations of teachers and teaching. In Foucault’s schema of three modes of objectification of the

subject, there are firstly 'dividing practices', secondly 'scientific classification' and finally 'subjectification' or, the 'way a human being turns him- or herself into a subject.' (Rabinow, 1984, p.11) Reflecting on this, it is easy to recognise, loosely perhaps, and maybe even very loosely, 'dividing practices' as taking place in the initial selection process for prospective candidates to ITE and/or University, based on entry requirements. Scientific classification, however, while similar to dividing practices is distinctive and in this regard it is the classification of those within ITE according to their 'competences' that might be distinguished as scientific, reflecting Foucault's second mode. Finally there is then subjectification. That is, the processes of active self-formation in which the 'teacher' is self-created, but through the process of self-understanding mediated by the external authority of the ITE institution or indeed the 'profession', when the now 'competent' teacher enters 'the profession'. This, however, must not be confused with acculturation practices. Such practices are more akin to the scientific classification mode. This subjectification mode is much more subtle because it gives rise to an understanding of the teacher by the teacher. However, such understanding – based as it now is on competences – is then primarily an institutional understanding and as such might be considered as manufactured, but manufactured by a self-understanding/ self-formation process – a manufactured ownership process, but premised once more on a background of a technological understanding of *Being*.

It is this manufactured ownership that then gives rise to the dilemma for the observer, aptly outlined by Ryle in his allusion to distinguishing between the tripping and tumbling of a skilful clown and the 'visibly similar trippings and tumbings of a clumsy man'. (Ryle, 1949, p.34) For Ryle, distinguishing such is down to the 'dispositions' or the 'complex of dispositions' of the clown, which the spectator, in attending the act, is then able to discern. But this is too simplified an explanation of this relationship for Lum because what is crucially missed in Ryle's account is the disposition of the spectator – the disposition consequent upon attending the clown's act. (Lum, 2004, p.491) Thus, additionally, the teacher's own understanding of being a teacher is also reinforced by the disposition of the audience – pupils, parents and other client groups; society's expectations; and the self-formation acquired from the background of understandings that daily impregnate

experience. There is therefore an identity that is a teacher owned by the teacher, but in this building of a teacher identity by the teacher it is all too evident that there is ever the spectre of Sartre's café waiter who is so ill-assured of his identity that he plays at being a café waiter, (Sartre, (1943) 1956) but to the audience, he is still a café waiter.

After then coming to terms with this sort of understanding with its inferences, and in thereafter drawing the analysis towards a conclusion, the exploration concentrates on an example of empirical work (Benner, 1984) which itself moves away from definitive explanation towards a form of narrative that emphasises the need to consider the dynamic of discourse and in particular the need to consider synthesis in pedagogical discourse. The view is that such synthesis provides a rich tapestry and permits the development of something akin to 'constitutive understandings' (Lum, 2004, p.493)

In following this through there is then the inherent assumption that it is no longer sustainable that the discourse on education be left to either political influence or professional aloofness. The need as such, is for dialogue, but dialogue with the teacher and pedagogical practice as a presence in the debate, with a voice that is fuelled through teachers themselves taking authentic ownership of their own teaching.

There is though, needful recognition throughout, that political influences will always be to the fore, but now there is at least at large a reflection of an insistence that such influences should be moderated with a genuine concern for all stakeholders in the educational endeavour. (Reeves, *et al*, 2002) Education, in similar relation and analogously, like the economy, has become too important to be treated as a political football. To extend the analogy a little in explication, just as bank interest rates are now under the sole control of the Bank of England and not part of the political manipulation of the economy, control of teaching and teachers should be with a professional teaching body, dictated to by nothing more than pedagogical excellence. But such a professional body would require a similarly recognised power relationship to that enjoyed by the Bank of England in relation to

the economy. All stakeholders should indeed be seen as part of such a radical solution, but teachers *qua* teachers should be instrumental in directing research agendas along lines of a proper understanding of pedagogy as the driving force for educational innovation and development. Curriculum innovation and learning development themselves would then proceed from this basis and teacher education in particular would conform to a properly constituted pedagogical model, with the ability to be innovative. Teacher educators, then with the confidence to properly engage with innovation and genuine pedagogical development, would co-lead the agenda from a collegiate, answerable directly to the professional body and thus ultimately to government, but not answerable to an agenda dictated by what is politically expedient.

The fractured nature of educational governance in Scotland however, with HMIE, SQA, GTC, LTS, QAA and SEED to mention but a few and not to mention bodies in control of FE/HE funding as well as teacher unions, professional associations and directors of education, makes it extremely difficult to gain pedagogical consensus, thus permitting the discourse to be dominated by power brokers in the maintenance of a 'robust bureaucratic system'. (See below and Humes & Bryce, 2003, p.1047) The greatest difficulty in any alternative structure then, would be in determining the membership of such a supra-organisational body. The possible power base of such a monolithic *quangoesque* structure would indeed be considerable, but really, such speculative entreaties go beyond the bounds of this thesis, at this time. The main concern here, at this juncture, is with the opposite end of the spectrum, with the potentially pedagogically damaging nature of a national framework for CPD – constrained as it is by a 'competence' inspired agenda – that itself has the potential to become monolithic. Nevertheless, the two ends are inextricably linked and a key question to ask is whether there is sufficient awareness among those groups mentioned above, of the wider economic and technological forces which are catalysts for potential dramatic change in educational provision. The six scenarios for tomorrow's schools, developed by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's (OECD) Centre for Educational Research, make sobering reading. The six scenarios envisaged, range through the maintenance of a 'robust bureaucratic system'; an 'extending of the market model'; a 'reschooling' scenario;

a focus on ‘focused learning organisations’; a ‘deschooling’ scenario; and a ‘teacher exodus and meltdown’ scenario. (See Humes & Bryce, 2003 pp.1045-1046) The question raised by Humes & Bryce is why the OECD has felt it necessary to produce such a set of scenarios in the first place and to ask if the ‘leadership class’ or the ‘policy community’ in Scotland have an understanding of the felt need to formulate these scenarios.

Discerning a Way Forward

From the foregoing analysis, particularly the conceptual analysis, the whole construct of a teacher education system based on a ‘competences’ approach has been fundamentally criticised and seriously brought in to question. The over-riding emphasis on outcomes that such an approach demands is not only unnecessarily restrictive it has serious consequences for the ‘received wisdom’ or ‘accepted’ conceptualisation of actual teaching practice. As a certain uncritical participation in the competence-based movement has proceeded, there has indeed been a narrowing of perspectives, but in addition there has also been a sort of epistemological *coup d’état*. For Barnett, (1994) this has resulted in an intolerable dilemma because the concept of knowledge itself is so poorly dealt with in conceptualisations of competence, leading him to ask, ‘How, in a professional field in which knowledge is changing, is it possible to specify in advance the knowledge that is needed for professional competence? (Barnett, 1994, p.75) His conclusion;

[e]ither the knowledge that will do for today will do for tomorrow, in which case we are in narrow professionalism, characterised by a tight control – perhaps by a professional body – over what counts as standards and legitimate cognitive responses to situations; or we are in the presence of an open profession, responsive to change, characterised by a debate within and beyond the profession, in which case the knowledge that will do for today will not do for tomorrow. (Barnett, 1994, pp. 75)

But from the evidence presented in this thesis, it would appear that there is an even more invidious situation. There is indeed a ‘leadership class’ or ‘policy community’ desire to have teachers and teaching more tightly controlled and thus there is a conception of a narrow professionalism through the maintenance of a ‘robust bureaucratic system’ that constrains professionalism with regard to teachers in Scotland. But the reality is, that by virtue of there ever being genuine critical examination that is an instrumental part of the ‘human condition’, there is, more

accurately understood, on the ground, an open profession. Theories of pedagogy are changing and in some instances changing quite dramatically. Advances in the understanding of how some aspects of learning takes place through developments in cognitive psychology or through theories of multiple intelligences or theories of emotional intelligence are simply cases in point. In fact, because such developments are still in their infancy, it lends even more credibility to the need for structured pedagogical debate. Like it or not, therefore, there will be ‘debate ... beyond the profession’ and this will forever be difficult to silence through a narrow professionalism and will therefore fuel ‘debate within ... the profession’. Indeed there are overtones of Humes’ entreaty to ‘encourage colleagues ... to begin the process of fighting back against the forces of darkness in Scottish education’ (Humes, TESS, 17th January, 2003) so as to provoke such internal debate.

The question is what shape does this debate now have and what shape should it take on, how indeed should it be conducted, and what might be the starting point? All of the stakeholders in education might legitimately propose an agenda in a ‘great debate’, but the point is that it is no longer such as a ‘great debate’ that is necessary. It is now more than ever essential that any debate should at least be a pedagogically informed debate with a distinctive conception of teaching, education and its purpose. But more importantly than that, it should be understood that there will be no definitive answer – the debate as such therefore, must be understood as narrative and no great panacea, rather, simply the relentless need to adapt to change and adapt at an ever-increasing rate. In this, there is then needful recognition that there is no room for power brokers, no room for a ‘leadership class’ or ‘policy community’. In this, it must be accepted that the most important voice is that of the teacher – daily involved, not only in the imparting of knowledge, sometimes or even most times in uncongenial circumstances, but also in the demonstration of their interpersonal skills, enabling intra- and inter-professional working to be at its most effective in supplying children with the full range of professional support needed in their education. (SE, 2001, p.12)

Teachers individually, it might be argued, have always had ownership of their teaching at the ‘chalk face’ in this regard, although ownership to varying degrees,

and it might also be argued that their voice is one that is directly informed by such daily involvement. But in recent years, with increasing emphasis on prescribed curricula, a distinction between what might be termed authentic and inauthentic ownership can be discerned. Teachers, do have, and probably always have had, the opportunity to withdraw behind a circumscribed professionalism and thus to *cope* with educating their charges, that is, teachers have the opportunity to control their classroom agenda and fully direct learning. In terms of a Heideggerian interpretation, such teachers, it might be suggested, relate to the future by waiting to see the results, the successes or failures of their current activity or situation – they therefore *wait* for the future to *come towards* them. An understandable interpretation of this attitude is that teachers are desirous of being able to direct learning because this makes it easier to control behaviour. But the case should be that teachers feel desirous of *participating* in educating their charges, they should relate to the future in terms of the choices they can make between possibilities, they should be *anticipating* the future by *going towards* it. (Watts, 2001, p.59) Thus, instead of directing learning teachers should be ‘letting learn’. (See Peters, 2002, p.2) Such teachers might be highly aware of the looseness of the link between directed learning and better behaviour, and with a ‘letting learn’ conceptualisation being of vital importance in today’s climate of compartmentalised learning, particularly in view of the OECD scenarios. What is required, therefore, is a mapping of authentic practice through understanding the ownership of the teaching process, but predominantly at an individual level. That is, an individual introspective determination of the understanding of the instrumental ends of education through a process of reflection, visualisation and inference from those ends that then determines the understandings *substantively* required. (Lum, 2003, p.12) In discerning a way forward then, the suggestion for the shape of debate is that of narrative and the suggestion for the starting point is needful recognition of the authentic practice of teachers.

In addressing this narrative of authentic practice, however, it must be recognised then that there is really little that remains as essentially worthwhile in the wholesale retention of competency structures. Their reliance on outcomes, if the foregoing analysis is accepted, cannot lead to the determination of the understandings

substantively required from ‘an introspective determination of the understanding of the instrumental ends of education through a process of reflection, visualisation and inference from those ends’. Competency structures by their very nature are based on pre-determining those understandings and this is simply anathema to authentic practice. Indeed, such structures can lead to a spurious pre-determination of understandings that is then the catalyst for inauthentic practice. Such can then give rise to a *pseudo* professional practice that depends for its existence on a presumption of professional status through ‘title’ rather than through action. Thus, being qualified to teach through compliance with lists of competences does not necessarily, in and of itself, bestow the ability to teach, nor does it necessarily provide adequate understanding of the process of acquiring ‘real competence’ in teaching. So, as ever, the spectre of Sartre’s café waiter hovers. In the preparation of teachers therefore, over-reliance on competency structures at such a formative time has the potential to distort their personal view of teaching to such a degree that it is stultifying of their ability to have an authentic voice, ever.

Reclaiming Conceptions of Teaching by Teachers for Teachers

Inevitably in determining a practical starting point then, the voice of the teacher in their daily task has to be listened to. As with determining ‘competencies’ in the McClelland (1973) mould therefore, the first port of call must of necessity be interviews with teachers aimed at ascertaining instances of practice when there was needful recognition of failure or of achievement or development or of a formative incident, rather than just a record of daily occurrences. However, it is also at this starting point that the approach must differ fundamentally. In almost all the approaches that have been cited in this work, ‘competencies’ or ‘competences’ have been built up from actual practice. Put crudely, attempts have been made to ascertain what it is that experts do and how they do it – and why they do it in the case of Hager & Beckett. (1995) Then, following on, attempts have been made to analyse such responses through factor analysis to get at commonalities, which are suggestive of generic actions, skills or abilities. Thereafter, the generic actions, skills and abilities are articulated as statements of competence. In some instances, suitably vague enough to suggest at least a one stage removal from crude behavioural outcomes, but in most, the statements are statements of expected outcomes which

suggest that if they can be achieved by a third party then that third party might acquire a similar degree of expertise to that of the experts through which the criteria of expertise were generated.

In the work of Patricia Benner, (1984) the starting point is the same, but in continuing to elaborate her enquiry, there was a distinctive difference that considered *synthesis* rather than *analysis*. This is a significant shift because the thrust behind analysis is to break down in to parts or forms, while that behind synthesis is to combine elements into a pattern not clearly there before. Thus it appears that in analysis, elements are being formed while in synthesis it is assumed they already exist and simply require to be combined to reveal underlying patterns. This may be too definitive in differentiating the procedures of McClelland and Benner, but it permits of a feel for the fact that Benner explicitly does not consider that full articulation of experts practice is possible nor, to the extent that it is, should it be considered definitive. In attempting synthesis, therefore, Benner is combining elements of practice to reveal discernable patterns in the holistic practice.

In the case of analysis therefore stemming from the work of McClelland there is a building-up from a basis rooted in practice. In the case of Hager & Beckett there is an additional attempt to move beyond simple behavioural observations of practice by developing an analysis of 'knowing why', but such analysis is still building-upon such practices as are articulated in discursive form through what Beckett refers to as the 'materiality of competence', 'its literal embodiment in workers'. (Beckett, 2004, p.499) In Benner's case, however, there is not such a clear building-up process. There is therefore a sort of loose grounding. Constrained as she is by the use of the language of competencies, through the lack of a suitable alternative, she is nevertheless able to endorse synthesis through interpretation of narrative and investigates the Dreyfus model of skill acquisition which itself circumscribes competence in narrative form. Her 'competencies' then are not simply behaviours at all, but deep felt understandings. Understandings, which are then 'constitutive of action' in the terms of Barnett (1994, pp.76) or are akin to 'constitutive understandings' in terms of Lum (2003, p.4) As such, Benner's 'competencies' are not simply outcome statements and are thus not definitive. Neither are they simply

generic nor are they exhaustive. They are indeed themselves, constitutive of narrative.

In Lum's (2003) own interpretation, there is the suggestion of overstepping this building-up from outcome statements impasse, by leaping straightway to process. In so doing, Lum suggests a 'double inferential leap' (2003, p.12) that then has no grounding in statements of outcome or competencies/ competences. Thus Lum is to some extent attempting to overcome the technological understanding of *Being* that seems inherent in conceptions of competence that rely on outcome statements. But in outlining the 'double inferential leap' Lum suggests that the *analysis* would begin with consideration of instrumental ends and when there is understanding of same, then there should be determination of the processes and procedures that will best develop those understandings in the student. (Lum, 2003, p.12) It is at this juncture, however, in elaborating a method through the double inferential leap, that the marrying of the empirical work of Benner with the ontological work of Lum might lead to a new pattern of understanding. Rather then, it might be considered that a *synthesis* might begin with consideration of instrumental ends.

Thus, an empirical study which attempts to understand the Dreyfus model of skill acquisition through compilation of narratives from teachers at various stages of career development that match the stages of novice, advanced beginner, competence, proficiency, expertise, mastery and practical wisdom might be a starting point for *synthesis*. The starting point, however, would not be to *analyse* critical incidents of experts, but to *synthesise* from experience of how a formative incident was approached by teachers at different stages of skill acquisition. More importantly then, within the narrative of what the teacher was attempting to achieve, will be the *reasons for* what they were attempting to achieve, which are of vital importance. Through such narrative there is then the opportunity for the discovery of 'Domains of Practice' in Benner's terms, or for discovery of what might be considered as the understandings *substantively* required, derived from consideration of the instrumental ends of educational endeavour which inhere in the *reasons for* what the teacher was attempting to achieve. In this, there is recognition of Beckett's (2004) 'knowing why', but in such, Beckett was attempting to discover 'knowing

why' an action was taken in a specific workplace context, not attempting to discover the giving of reasons for the ontological understandings substantively required in pursuing the instrumental ends of educational endeavour.

Such a starting point would therefore satisfy the conditions for the first part of Lum's 'double inferential leap'. Teachers, through a process of reflection, visualisation and inference would have provided the wherewithal through narrative for the further development of the understandings *substantively* required. The question is then, how might such understandings be represented? Taken simply, the instrumental ends of education are no better expressed than through the words of James Callaghan, where the aims of education are 'to equip children to the best of their ability for a lively, constructive, place in society, and also to fit them to do a job of work.' (Callaghan, 1976) The narrative of teachers' endeavours to accomplish such ends and of the formative stages in their personal development that allowed them to better provide for such ends would produce significant reasons for action, but more importantly in the articulation of such reasons is the development of ontological understandings as a corollary. Speculatively, a crude comparison of the 'Domains of Nursing Practice' from Benner (1984, p.46) with the 'Aspects of Professional Development' from the QAA (2000, p.7) document on Benchmarks highlights some of the distinctiveness of each. But such comparison also reveals what might be suggested to be a non-technical and technical understanding, respectively.

(Source: Benner, 1984, p.46)

Domains of Nursing Practice

Helping Role
 Teaching Coaching Function
 Diagnostic Patient Monitoring Function
 Effective Management of Rapidly Changing Situations
 Administering and Monitoring Therapeutic Interventions and Regimens
 Monitoring and Ensuring the Quality of Health Care Practices
 Organisational and Work-Role Competencies

(Source: QAA, 2000, p.7)

Aspects of Professional Development

Professional Knowledge and Understanding: Curriculum
 Professional Knowledge and Understanding: Education Systems and
 Professional Responsibilities
 Professional Knowledge and Understanding: Principles and Perspectives
 Professional Skills and Abilities: Teaching and Learning

Professional Skills and Abilities: Classroom Organisation and Management
 Professional Skills and Abilities: Pupil Assessment
 Professional Skills and Abilities: Professional Reflection and
 Communication
 Professional Values and Personal Commitment:

In addition to the 'Aspects' there are also the ten 'can do' Transferable Skills (QAA, 2000, p.22) which are derived from and are integral to the benchmark information. This is important because in relation to the Aspects, Benchmarks and Expected Features the statements themselves are couched in terms of a 'can do' vocabulary. The benchmarks initially state what they 'will do', using such language as Acquire, Draw on, Communicate, Employ, Set, Work, Organise, Manage, Understand, Use, Access, Construct, Reflect and Value, but the Expected Features are restricted to Demonstrate, Know How, and Know About.

Contrasting such with the richness of the vocabulary in Benner's Domains of Nursing Practice is singularly revelatory. To take but a few examples, in the Helping Role, the vocabulary is of Providing, Presencing, Guiding. In the Teaching-Coaching Function there is in addition Eliciting and Assisting. In further domains there is the use of Anticipating, Identifying, Skilled Performance, Rapid Matching, Coordinating, Building and Maintaining, and Coping. There are some similarities, but a full appreciation of the statements from a full reading of both examples reveals that such vocabulary reinforces the contention that Benner's competencies are not in fact simple statements of outcome in the mould of the statements contained in the Expected Features. Such statements from Benner's work are indeed more related to the articulation of how nurses approach their work and as such they are more directly related to process. Nevertheless, as has been pointed out, Benner was constrained by the language of competencies and for this reason the distinction drawn here is subtle. It rests, however, on the fact that her competencies were the product of *synthesis* and not *analysis*. It would be true to say that the Expected Features contained in the benchmark information are the product of analysis.

Such *synthesis* then, would also furnish the narrative, which would thereafter reveal the basis of the 'constitutive understandings', which further determine the nature of the educational processes and procedures that will then best develop those

understandings in the student – the second part of Lum’s ‘double inferential leap’. In this there would therefore be no shortage of means to articulate processes and procedures in the clearest of terms.

A Basis for Further Research?

Following a similar path to that of Benner, in ascertaining how teachers approach their teaching, structured interviews, which permit of the production of narrative from novice and expert alike, might fruitfully conjure up a view of the educational endeavour that is worthy of a teaching profession for the 21st Century. Fortuitously now, in the 21st Century Scottish context, the opportunity is there at least to begin to address the dearth of knowledge about how practicing teachers actually develop their expertise through such teachers’ participation in and the subsequent monitoring of the Standard for Chartered Teacher (SCT). In something of a small irony with regard to the fundamental thrust of this thesis, it is indeed likely that such knowledge will only be forthcoming from an understanding and a ‘narrative’ interpretation of such ‘standards’ that thus pertain. In conducting research in this regard, however, the starting point has to be with the mapping of authentic practice through an understanding of the ownership of the teaching process. Only then can the preparation of teachers be such as to allow them to fulfil their task to equip children to the best of their ability for a lively, constructive, place in society, and also to fit them to do a job of work.

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