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Supporting Teachers in a Time of Change

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Volume One

The Research Domain – Exposition, Discussion & Conclusions

Abstract

Through the mediums of mentoring and values this document explores the interface between individuals, their actions, beliefs and the context in which the interactions take place. The submission is a journey in development, taken by the writer, illustrating the linkage between the research methodology and the increasingly theoretical framework, through a series of research projects from 1986 to 2000. Widely published it represents a substantial contribution to a developing area of work based on aspects of partnership in education. Largely empirical, using a raft of instruments including questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and observations of student-teachers and teachers, in schools and Higher Education Institutions, it explores the central place of individuals, their beliefs and actions in affecting and responding to change within given contexts, alongside the effect of context upon their experiences. It includes a substantial comparative international element.

Set in the context of rapid change in teacher education resulting from government legislation and societal expectations, it encompasses the move to school-based training and the increasing need for supporting teachers in times of change. It clearly shows the links between the two major themes of 'partnership', including groundbreaking work on mentoring in a number of settings, and 'values'. It has and continues to influence the progress of developmental enquiry on the part of action researchers of the relationships between policy and societal contexts, personal agency and values.

Beginning with the introduction of mentoring into Partnership schemes and investigating the process and roles of those involved, it presents hypotheses concerning the conditions contributing to and impeding successful programmes and the qualities, attitudes and skills possessed, and needed, by those taking part in Partnerships. It also considers mentoring genres across a wider field. It introduces the need for a 'mentoring matrix' and questions the reliability of mono-directional ratings of satisfaction in a mentoring situation. The centrality of individuals within any developing situation is drawn out and the inter-connectivity of personal and professional beliefs, attitudes and values across teaching and

learning are explored, drawn from research on Values Education and the principles underlying teachers' actions. The resulting hypotheses on the importance of Partnership leading to Learning Communities present blueprints for future practice and philosophy of Teacher Education initiating and contributing substantially to the ongoing debate.

Supporting Teachers in Times of Change

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VOLUME 2: THE PUBLISHED WORK

(original pagination as published retained)

- 1. A chapter: ‘The Anatomy of a Development’, in Yeomans, R., and Sampson, J. (eds.), *Mentorship in the Primary School*, pp. 19-31, London: Falmer, 1994**
- 2. An article: ‘The Changing Face of Teaching Practice - Student Supervision in the change to Mentoring’, in ATEE (Association for Teacher Education in Europe), *The Teacher in Changing Europe*, 19th Conference Proceedings, Prague, Sept. 1994, pp. 150-55**
- 3. A chapter: ‘Conditions for Effective Mentorship within the School’, with John Sampson, in Yeomans, R., and Sampson, J. (eds), *Mentorship in the Primary School*, pp. 174-88, London: Falmer, 1994**
- 4. An article: ‘Significant Others - the primary student view of practice in schools’, *Educational Studies*, Vol. 21, No. 3, 1995, pp.323-35**
- 5. An article: ‘Diverse views of the mentoring process in initial teacher training’, with Michael Taylor, in *Diversity in Mentoring Conference Full Text Proceedings*, San Antonio, Texas, USA, March 1995**
- 6. An article: ‘When views differ: when mentor and protégé disagree’, ATEA (Australian Teacher Education Association), *Proceedings*, Launceston: Tasmania, 1995**
- 7. A chapter: ‘A Diversity of Views’ in Stephenson, J. (ed), *Mentoring - the new panacea?*, pp. 1-18, Dereham: Peter Francis Publishers, 1997**
- 8. A chapter: ‘What Makes a Setting Effective for Successful Mentoring?: Primary Conditions’, in *Mentoring - the new panacea*, pp. 167-84, Dereham: Peter Francis Publishers, 1997**
- 9. A chapter: ‘Panacea, Placebo or Policy?’, in *Mentoring - the new panacea?*, pp. 220-31, Dereham: Peter Francis Publishers, 1997**

10. An article: 'The mentoring dilemma: guidance and/or direction?' with Brian Gay, *Mentoring & Tutoring*, Vol. 6, No. 1/2, pp.43-54, 1998
11. A chapter: 'Introduction and Theoretical Perspectives', with Lorraine Ling, in Stephenson, J., Ling, L., Burman, E., & Cooper, M. (eds.), *Values in Education*, pp.3-19, London/New York: Routledge, 1998
12. A chapter: 'A Perspective from England' in Stephenson, J., Ling, L., Burman, E., & Cooper, M. (eds.), *Values in Education*, pp. 131-60, London/New York: Routledge, 1998
13. An article: 'Teaching Values Education in Schools: the attitudes, beliefs and practices of teachers in schools in the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom', with Maureen Killeavy, *Children's Social and Economics Education*, Vol.3, No. 3, pp. 115-26, 1998
14. A chapter: 'Whose Knowledge?: Values Education across National Boundaries' in Leicester, M., Modgil, C. & Modgil, S. (eds.), *Education, Culture and Values, Volume 2: Institutional Issues: Pupils, Schools and Teacher Education*, pp.91-98, London/New York: Routledge, 1999
15. An article: 'Exemplary Teachers: Practising an Ethic of Care in England, Ireland, and the United States', with Maureen Killeavy and Vivienne Collinson, in *Journal for a Just and Caring Society* Vol.5, No. 4, pp. 349-36, 1999
16. An article: 'The Development of Innovative Strategies of Cooperation between Teacher Education Institutions and Education Services', *TNTEE (Thematic Network for Teacher Education in Europe), Journal*, Vol.1, pp.3-15, 2000
17. An article: 'The Current Context of Partnership', *TNTEE Journal*, Vol.1, pp.57-66, 2000
18. A Green Paper with Daniel Kallos, Bartolo Campos & Friedrich Buchberger, *Green Paper on the future of Teacher Education in Europe*, TNTEE 2000

Acknowledgements

My thanks are due to the numerous colleagues, teachers, students, pupils and friends who contributed to the context for the exploration of ideas that this work represents.

Abbreviations

ACER	The Australian Council for Educational Research Ltd.
AERA	American Educational Research Association
ATEA	Australian Teacher Education Association
ATEE	Association of European Teacher Education
BERA	British Educational Research Association
CATE	Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education
CEDTE	Centre for Evaluation & Development of Teacher Education
COMPARE-TE	Compare Education - Teachers in Europe
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
DES	Department of Education and Science
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
ECER	European conference on Educational Research
EERA	European Educational Research Association
EIC	Excellence in Cities
HEI	Higher Education Institution
ILEA	Inner London Education Authority
IMA	International Mentoring Association
INAFOP	National Institute for Accreditation of Teacher Education
IT-INSET	Initial Training-Inservice Education for Teachers
LEA	Local education Authority
MOTE	Modes of Teacher Education
NC	National Curriculum
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
PE	Physical Education
RIF	Réseau d'Institutions de Formation [des Professeurs])

SCITTS	School-Centred Initial Teacher Training
SRHE	Society for Research in Higher Education
TEAM	Teacher Education and Mentoring
TNTEE	Thematic Network for Teacher Education in Europe
UCET	Universities Council for the Education of Teachers

1. Introduction

1.i How this body of work arose

This submission is a journey through partnerships. Starting with the precept of change generating the need for support, it looks at the development of relationships set in a context of education. In particular it considers and demonstrates through the use of research findings, how exterior and interior factors have impacted on teachers and student teachers, their roles and practices and the demands made of them. In doing so it places a focus on the involvement of practicing teachers in the preparation of student teachers. It explores their attitudes and needs and the qualities they bring and require to develop to deal with change to their role. In the process elements of learning and teaching by all of those present in schools and classrooms is addressed, beliefs, attitudes and actions that contribute to the wider role of educators are thrown into focus alongside the place of values in the development of teaching and learning excellence, including the support of student, new and experienced educators.

The incremental progress of partnerships between teachers and taught, schools and higher education providers, mentors and protégés, peers, the education sector and governments, educationalists and the wider community permeates the journey, moving from the particular of interactions between individuals to wider horizons involving comparanda from Europe and beyond. The body of the work represents the voyage taken by the researcher in moving from the initially perceived context of direct teacher education to broadly cultural/philosophical/political implications in the later works in order to be able to address more cogently the issues raised in supporting the implications of change.

The original starting point was my investigation of what affected teaching and learning in classrooms as a direct result of teachers engaging in what they were paid to do, i.e. teach. Out of this grew the broader-based research, which formed part of my work over my career in education, and from which many of the submitted publications stem. My early

reading and subsequent observations clearly indicated that teaching was far from a simple one-way transaction and that to confine investigation merely to the behaviour of the teachers and the methods they employed would artificially restrict the potential for throwing light on my principal objective, that of enhancing children's learning and attainment. In the early stages of my career teaching in primary schools was designed to culminate in as many 11+ passes for the 'top'-stream children as possible. With the onset of 'progressive education' the needs of the child and the potential gains to be had from working with, rather than in isolation from, one's fellow practitioners, a partnership within learning, further widened the areas and ideas actively to be considered and my involvement in the earliest courses of the newly launched Open University led to a radical rethink on my part of any underlying philosophy I may have held about education. This took place alongside the development of an advisory service in many LEAs and the growth of in-service training designed to address the needs thrown up by Plowden *et al.* At this time self-help discussion groups, some involving or set up by lecturers in Education Faculties in Universities, provided opportunities for teachers to consider not only the practicalities of classroom life, the oft derided 'tips for teachers', but also the underlying principles, philosophies and social and political influences that had a bearing, perhaps hitherto unrecognized, on what they did or were required to do. My thinking at this time was greatly influenced by the de-schooling movement in the USA (Illich, etc) and by the writings of Stenhouse (1975). I was also involved in the work of Armstrong (1980) and Rowland (1984). My enrolment for an MA at Leicester University followed a period of activity in a research group using the Schools Council 'Curriculum in Action' materials developed at the OU by Pat Ashton and Euan Henderson. Ashton subsequently went on to develop IT-INSET (Initial Training-In-Service Education for Teachers). Being a member of an IT-INSET team and analysing the experience formed part of the submission for the award of my MA, which she supervised. This was based in the Centre for Evaluation and Development in Teacher Education (CEDTE). The principles underlying IT-INSET had and still have a considerable influence on my approach to activity within the education and training of teachers.

With my entry into a post in Teacher Training I was able to introduce IT-INSET into the curriculum of the PGCE course in the college and to continue with my research into ways of increasing learning in the classroom. The body of work included in this submission dates from my time as a lecturer in and subsequently head of a Department of Education. The initial focus on mentoring arose directly from the work with IT-INSET in schools. I became convinced, before the changes called for in circular 24/89, that what I termed 'partnership' held the possibility of being the most effective and practical way of improving teacher education. At the time I was thinking largely in terms of initial teacher training. How this concept developed and widened to encompass many aspects of teacher education, legislators, producers and consumers of teaching and learning in its widest sense, in the UK and elsewhere, including in Training Schools and Learning Communities, permeates the illustrative body of work presented here.

1.ii What this submission represents

In this study the word 'teachers' encompasses all those involved in education in schools at all stage of their career, from initial training through career-long CPD. Whilst centred in the UK it also touches upon changes elsewhere in the world, some modelled on patterns set particularly in England and Wales. Change has occurred on many fronts, initiated by many events and task-masters (changes in political climate, the undermining of LEAs by government, differing societal expectations and demand, European Union influence) and bringing an increasing and in some cases radically different work-load for those involved in education.

The main areas considered within the critical analysis of this body of work, done over a period of 12 years, cover the shift in the philosophy and ways in which the concept of training has evolved into the form it now takes. The influences that have effected this development and the consequences for both the teacher in training and, increasingly over the last years, the serving teachers in schools are a particular focus.

A greater responsibility for and involvement in the preparation of beginning teachers in schools have made demands and led to new responsibilities across the board. The role of the teacher has expanded considerably, leading to the need for new forms of support. The new roles, demands and expectations have thrown up endeavours to provide support mechanisms from various sources. These are both internal to the teachers and teachers in training, from within the schools themselves, in traditional support facilities with LEA and auxiliary services, within government initiatives, and not least, in the education departments of HEIs. These institutions traditionally had the major role in the preparation of teachers in training and the continuing development, up-skilling and re-skilling of practising teachers in schools through INSET courses (an example of discussion of strategies to come to terms with this in the early nineties is included in Appendix 2)

This impetus for change has also happened to a more limited extent across Europe and beyond as will be seen later in the submission.

Some types of 'support' thrown up in dealing with the various and new demands and the sources support comes from are considered, within the submitted papers, section 3.4 and the conclusions, as are examples of support shown to have been needed which were not or have not been met. Suggestions for present and future action are made.

In particular two interlocked areas will be looked at closely in considering the effects and demands brought about by change; firstly that of school-based training for beginning teachers, specifically the process beginning with 'Partnership', leading to the practice of 'Mentoring'; and secondly the place that teachers' own resources, knowledge and values systems have contributed to and been challenged by the new demands arising from the described 'change'. This has strengthened my belief in the centrality of 'partnership' in the successful functioning of education.

This submission is built on papers arising from empirical research. Where papers are co-written, the cooperation takes one of two forms. In the first place, having been mentored

into academic writing myself, when Head of Department concerned with raising the research profile of staff, I took on this role for others, and took the lead in writing papers jointly with more junior members of my team. Secondly in the case of comparative research, peer colleagues' collaboration was necessary to obtain reliable data from non-UK contexts and to achieve quality commensurate with refereed research and publication. The readership they were written for was generally an academic one although some were written for a more specific audience and as such were intended for a restricted circulation. In general, the papers submitted are chosen to show progression during the period and addressed current issues or analysed retrospective or comparative materials with a view to developing fresh insights or to disseminating ideas at the time they were written. Some draw on earlier papers, not all published, to explore in greater depth or from a different perspective issues raised within later research or sparked by subsequent experience either my own or of others. I include examples of these in Appendix 2. An attempt is made to place these developments within the political and social context of the times and to address the reasons why education and educators have come to find themselves in an increasingly controlled situation rather than an autonomous one.

1.iii Causes of change: external legislation and influence

A consideration of the context in which the succeeding projects took place is helpful in making full use of the information gained from my research. The world of education as a whole is subject to the forces arising from social change often initiated or at least re-acted to by shifts in political philosophy and subsequent demands made, ostensibly on behalf of the electorate, by the party in power or as a result of promises made whilst in opposition as a move to gaining power. These affect variously the form that schools take (indeed even the physical form, witness the open-plan schools built in the 1960s), the management patterns espoused, the philosophy and practice of teaching, the curriculum content and delivery, and the support and resources available both within the school and outside. They also crucially influence the demands and expectations made of and placed on education and the prevailing attitude to the standing and treatment –the social worth–

of those involved in education by a wider society. The growth of ‘blame culture’ of the Thatcher era and the current (2003) ‘competence’ agenda are two examples.

The table below shows a selection of recent major events, legislation or commentaries that have contributed to the ‘Change’ in the title of this submission, with a specific focus on effects on teachers activities, education and the arising need for support. The *Paper* column indicates the papers in this submission that reflect the conditions these influences contributed to.

DIRECT OUTSIDE INFLUENCES (UK)

<i>Gov. document/legislation</i>	<i>Comment</i>	<i>Paper</i>
1976 Callaghan Ruskin Speech	Quality of schooling questioned – onus laid on teachers/ LEAs/Training; Review/quality control/re-education called for	
1984 Circular 3/84	Move towards cooperation with schools in ITE	1
1986 Education Acts (2)	Increasing practice/theory continuum	1, 2
1987 Black – National Curriculum Task Group on Assessment and Testing: A Report	New duties and skills	
1988 Education Reform Act	Compulsory National Curriculum; Key Stage Assessment introduced, promote moral & spiritual development	1–4
1989 Circular 24/89	Content & form of training courses; teacher input increased	1–9
1992 Education (Schools) Act	Major changes to process and content	
1992 Circular 9/92: Requirements for Courses of Initial Teacher Training	CATE reformed: proposals for secondary courses ‘partner’ schools idea - with ‘a leading responsibility for the professional development of students...’	1–10
1992 CATE 3	Notes for guidance ‘form effective school-based training’	1–10
1992 OFSTED founded	Largely replaced former HMI system- ‘standards’ vocabulary prevalent	All
1993 Dearing – The NC & its Assessment	Changes in requirements and assessment	
NCC consultative document	Spiritual & moral development addressed	11–17
1993 Education Act	Follow-on changes and amendments	All

1993 Circular 7/93: Inspecting Schools:	Changing emphasis to include 'moral'. A guide to the inspection provisions of the Education (Schools) Act 1992 in England	11-17
1993 Circular 14/93	Changes to primary training courses: (those) 'entering into partnerships need to do so on the basis of mutual trust and willing cooperation' (p.12)	1-9; 17, 18
1994 Education Act	TTA formed: increased involvement of schools in IIT & INSET	All
1995 programmes of study for NC laid down	curtailed freedom to personalize activities	2, 11, 18
1996 School Inspections Act	Introduced new criteria/outcomes expectations	
1997 Education Act	Further revisions	5 & 6
1997 Education (Schools) Act	'Bold agenda for reform with a strong emphasis on the need for radical improvements in literacy & numeracy in primary schools': smaller infant classes	7, 8, 9, 17 & 18
Flexible routes to QTS	Customized training packages required	
CPD requirements	Promotion fulfilments required	
1997 Circular 10/97	Standards for the award of QTS: English/maths NC teaching requirement for primary	16-18
SCITTS	HEI relationship negotiation needed: increased mentor role/skills required	All post formation
1998 Green Paper	Teachers meeting the challenge of change	
1998 NC requirements relaxed	Moral responsibility of schools and teachers highlighted	11-17
1998 Circular 4/98: Requirements for Courses of Initial Teacher Training	Included NC curricular teaching in English, maths, science & IT: criteria for standards of knowledge, understanding & skills	All post 1998
1998 Teaching and Higher Education Act	Citizenship 'training' requirements	14-18
1998 'Literacy hour' added to Primary requirements (nst)	Time pressures; perceived loss of autonomy, demands on training courses	14-18
1998 Assessment at entry added	Changed procedures/work load implications	17, 18
1999 'Numeracy hour' added to Primary requirements (nst)	Time factor: changes in training requirements	17

1999 Salaries and Conditions	Performance-related pay introduced:	
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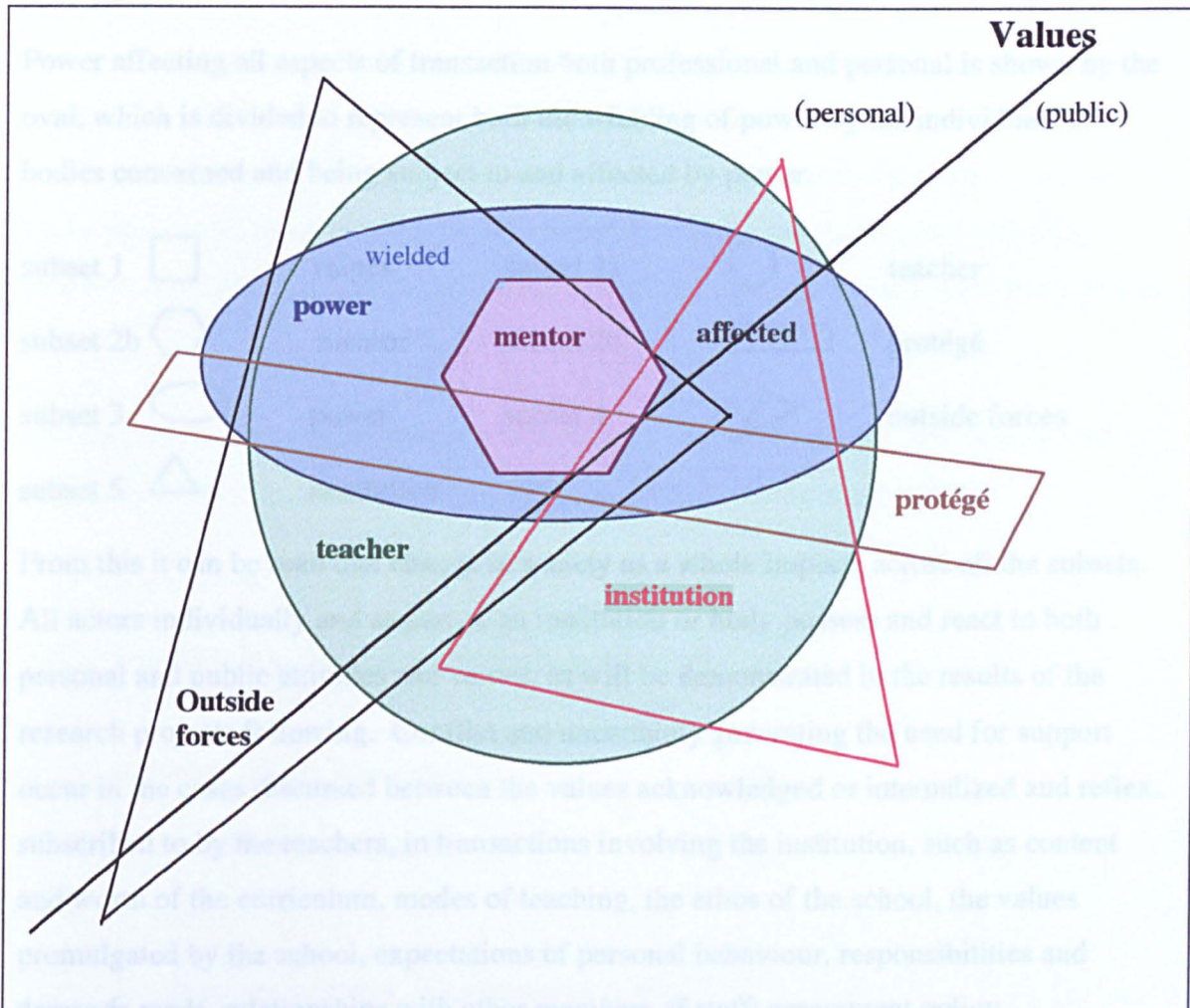
All, including these below, influenced argument & discussion in commentary

1999 Induction Period for Newly Qualified Teachers (circular 5/99)	Introduced Career Entry Profile Set out targets for NQTs to demonstrate competence in assuring pupil learning/behaviour	
Classroom Assistants	Created training needs: conflict of power issues	
2000 Training Schools	Added relationship issues: empowered schools in ITT; placed additional skills/training needs for teachers	
2001 White Paper	School Achieving Success: 'sets out vision for putting pupils first and for enabling every school to succeed'; national strategy for CPD; increased consumer choice; national framework for testing; devolution to professionals: the future of teachers	
2001 GTP	Measure of autonomy to the profession: new relationships to be negotiated	
2002 revised 4/98 released	Added to training requirements: time pressures	
2002 Early Years	New dimensions in classrooms: job roles	

In an attempt to plot all the influences, including those above, leading to change for teachers and necessitating new strategies for and forms of support I have represented these as a Venn diagram showing the major issues and actors, supplemented by a list (not exhaustive) of the sub-sets illustrated in my writing and others still in need of exploration. These illustrate the complex nature of the situation facing education and educators but also make it possible both to separate out and to show the inter-connectedness of the individuals and the actions involved.

Diagram 1

Universal set = society



Here the universal set represents society as a whole. The square representing values is sub divided diagonally into those values that are integral and personal to the actors and the public or outside values of the society in which they operate. These may or may not coincide at all points.

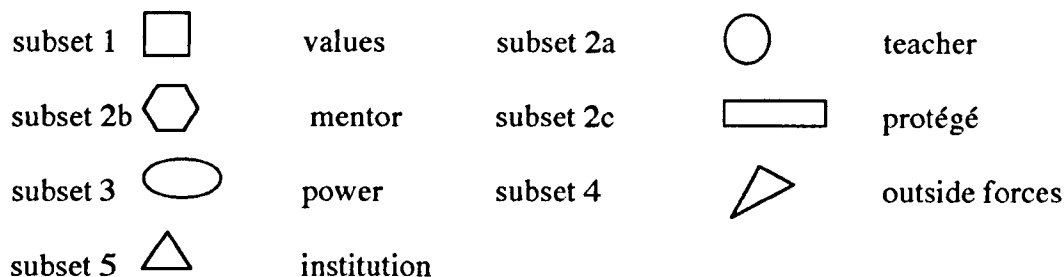
The circle represents the teacher, who may or may not take the role of the mentor, represented by the hexagon.

The oblong stands for the person 'in training'

The context in which activities take place is represented by the isosceles triangle, the institution and its personnel, and the right-angled triangle standing for all other outside

forces such as LEAs, DfES, parents bodies etc. which have a bearing on the professional actions of the teacher wielding of power Other aspects of life are contained within the universal set of society.

Power affecting all aspects of transaction both professional and personal is shown by the oval, which is divided to represent both the wielding of power by the individuals or bodies concerned and being subject to and affected by power.



From this it can be seen that change in society as a whole impacts across all the subsets. All actors individually and as part of an institution or body possess and react to both personal and public attitudes and values, as will be demonstrated in the results of the research projects following. Conflict and uncertainty generating the need for support occur in the cases discussed between the values acknowledged or internalized and reflex, subscribed to by the teachers, in transactions involving the institution, such as content and worth of the curriculum, modes of teaching, the ethos of the school, the values promulgated by the school, expectations of personal behaviour, responsibilities and demands made, relationships with other members of staff; assessment policy, responsibility to children and parents etc.

Similarly in their role as a mentor issues will arise in the conduct of that role in relation to their primary function as a teacher, relationships with other teachers who are not mentors, transactions between themselves and the protégé/s, dealings with any other personnel or agency involved in the training task etc. This involves not only professional knowledge and craft knowledge but also personal, as apposed to institutional or societal values, interpersonal relationship and so on but also power. These issues will be experienced whilst being both the manipulated, as in being required to act in a certain way, and the

manipulator. Indeed in the case of the mentor making decisions about a protégés' or newly qualified teacher's competence, becoming both judge, jury and in unfortunate cases executioner.

The protégé or person in 'training' has a equally complicated set of possible flash-points to negotiate and whilst it will be argued below that the actor in the power-inferior position is not wholly without power, opportunities for its exercise are less numerous. To be positive all these issues also raise opportunities for developing and providing support. It is in the maximizing of these mechanisms that teacher education has a part to play.

The diagram also shows the numerous overlaps affecting the people and their actions within the context of school. These occlusions illustrate the teacher exists as:

- a teacher in Society
- a teacher in society subject to institutional forces
- a teacher in society contributing to institutional forces
- a teacher in society subject to outside forces
- a teacher in society contributing to outside forces
- a teacher who is also a mentor

Similarly the student or protégé is a student:

- in Society
- in society subject to institutional forces
- in society contributing to institutional forces
- in society subject to outside forces
- in society contributing to outside forces
- also being mentored
- a mentor (to peers or on occasions, teachers/others in school)

Both subject to:

Values – *personal*

- as a teacher/student
- as a mentor
- as a member of the institution
- as a member of the public

-public

- as a teacher/student
- as a mentor
- as a member of the institution
- as a member of the public

The Institution

bearing on teacher/student through expectations support
bearing on mentor through expectations support fulfilling expectations of teacher mentor student the institution as a whole outside forces society

Power

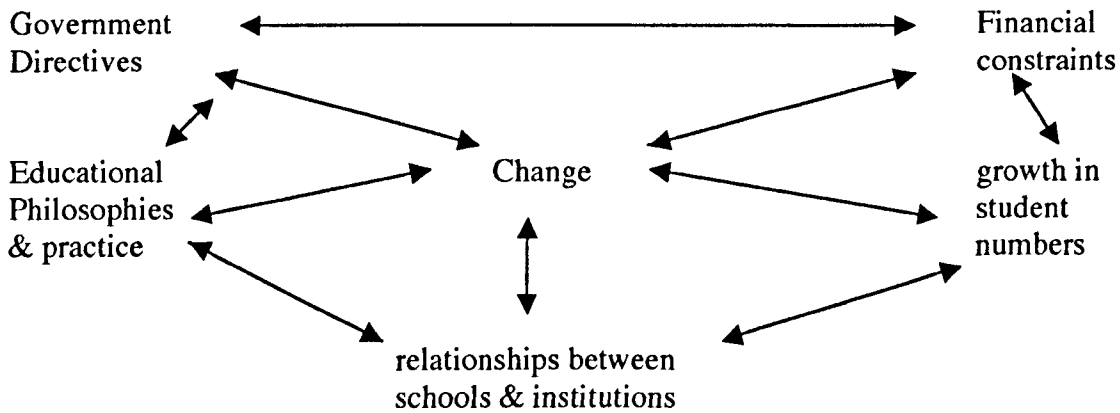
Wielded by Teacher student

Outside forces

Acting: individually in conjunction as society

Mentor Institution Outside bodies Society

To condense these issues to target change in relationship to schools and their involvement in the initial training of teachers as discussed in a number of these papers, a succinct picture might be expressed as follows:



These components in their turn will affect and be affected by both the personnel charged with putting them into practice and those to whom the 'practice' is done, in other words all the actors involved in the process of education.. These influences can be seen in the inter-actions between mentors and protégés, teachers and student teachers and pupils; actors in partnerships in the research projects dealt with in the submitted papers.

What those persons, particularly the educators, bring to that process, how it impinges on them, including how circumstances have reached this level – their involvement in maintaining/enabling a current status quo, thus contributing to the outcomes shown in this writer’s research, are discussed below within Section 3.

2. Research Methodology

The papers included here have material based on empirical research employing a number of methods both quantitative and qualitative. The methodology employed mirrors the development of my research as a whole. Beginning with a positivist approach to the collection of data to test an initial idea or untried theory, my early research projects (not included here) relied on the study of an experimental group and a control group. By the use of changes in variables I sought to establish cause and effect relationships. While this seemingly had some limited success in closely definable areas, it soon became apparent that wider, more complex, and individual educational issues, such as those forming the focus of the two main themes in this submission, were too complex to be treated satisfactorily by these methods in isolation. Whilst some interesting trends could be identified, the stories behind them were not accessible, the results were impersonal and the validity suspect where numbers involved were not large. The objectivity of the researcher, which will be discussed at length in sections 3 and 4 of this report, in instrument design, and in interpreting and categorising answers also constituted grounds for challenging the supposed scientific approach to educational research. The move to an interpretative stance allowed the study of issues such as the interaction of individuals and the use of actor's interpretation of events and subsequent actions to form one of the basis for analysis and the framing and testing of hypotheses. I was concerned with life, in this case the experiences in education, as it is lived. In Woods' words '...things as they happen, situations as they are constructed in the day-to-day, moment-to-moment course of event' (1999; p.2). I grew to feel the complex many layered nature of social life with no single account of reality, as reflected in education, could be best approached by a means that afforded provisional knowledge ready to be developed through future research. Over the course of my research there developed an emphasis on process and on inductive analysis, seeking to 'ground' the resulting theory through the data and my experience. My involvement with IT-INSET (see page 28) and the work of Stenhouse, Ashton, Armstrong and Rowland led to an action research slant in research project planning, substituting the broader term of 'educationalist' rather than 'classroom teacher' as the member of the scientific community in the laboratory of classroom or school.

Even though the diminished autonomy of those actively involved in the education process through more centralised control, as demonstrated in this submission, led to action research being seen by some as increasingly irrelevant, the notion of research taking place in the field by those most directly involved with a view to reflecting on practice and identifying a need for change and action to be taken remains valid if the dilemma of coping with change is to include teachers (in the widest sense), as stakeholders in the identification and generation of the support needed. Indeed more recent calls by the present government for education practice to be evidence-based and the promotion of teachers researching into their own classroom actions would seem to suggest at least tentative official sanction. My later work would perhaps be best described as reflexive action research. Each research project has been designed to address a specific set of circumstances and is unique although instruments used in earlier research have been amended or adapted in the light of experience to suit the individual enquiry. Methods of data collection have been tailored to suit the individual circumstances and due to the nature of the investigations the balance is towards qualitative work. The principle of using appropriate methods to allow detailed analysis of the data gathered, and to achieve relevant observations and conclusions from it, was followed, increasing in sophistication over the course of this work, both the wording of questions in questionnaires or choice of focus in semi-structured interviews and subsequent analysis becoming more apposite. Analysis was undertaken both manually and using commercial software, including SPSS and Hyperqual, as and when appropriate. The research target group varied in size to fit the nature of the undertaking, the hypothesis or issues being tested, and the available personnel, both those whose activities, behaviour or views were being researched, and the gatherers of data. Questionnaires were used as a source of obtaining copious initial information quickly. Initially large client bases, often surveyed by questionnaire, were refined, following criteria devised for that project, to a smaller number to allow a more detailed investigation to take place. Leaving aside the inherent difficulties of questionnaire design, data gleaned from questionnaire has its place, though the limitations of precise and detailed individualised information, particularly of a reflective nature, from such a method are readily acknowledged. As is the uncertainty about the validity, given that respondents may, consciously or unconsciously, give what they

perceive as 'desirable' answers rather than their actual thoughts, present also in other forms of data collection but not subject to further probing in a paper questionnaire. Dissatisfaction with the depth of insights/interactions revealed by dependence on questionnaires alone led to the inclusion in my work of other forms of practice, such as case study, interview (structured or, more often semi-structured and informal), observation, critical incident enquiry, the use of diaries or log books and most importantly the adoption of triangulation in order to clarify, confirm, contradict, query, develop and test and amend data obtained. My belief is that a more rounded and reliable picture, reflecting an incident as it actually happened in a particular setting, calls for a variety of instruments to be used. In all cases the researcher effect, the personnel and the context in which the investigation is taking place must be taken into account when considering the objectivity and validity of any conclusions reached after reflection (see sections 3 & 4 below). In some cases in this body of research the choice of a small sample was a positive methodological decision, to facilitate the gathering of in-depth data (in some instances) over a period of time. In these cases selection was governed by criteria ensuring a mix of such factors as gender, age, experience, geographical and economic situation, school type and in comparative cases region or country, etc., as necessitated by the focus of the research. Anonymity was guaranteed to all and the option to view verbatim quotations was offered prior to dissemination of work in all formats. Where research was carried out as part of a joint project, all methods were discussed and agreed beforehand, research implements were jointly designed or specific areas were allotted to individuals; in some of these cases adaptation to fit national norms was needed. On group research projects all data were jointly owned and individual members of the team were free to use the project material in their own analysis and writing.

All contributions to books were vetted by editorial boards. Where these were contributions to volumes edited by the author, an outside person scrutinized the work. All journal articles and those published as developments of papers or discussions at seminars or conferences were competitive and subject to peer review.

Examples of research tools and instruments designed and used in the projects included a blanket questionnaire with closed or multiple choice questions administered to all taking part, as for example in paper 4 ('Significant others'),¹ or a mixture of closed and open questions as in paper 11 ('Theoretical Perspectives'), followed by either in-depth targeted questionnaires and/or semi-structured interviews with a selected section of the cohort, as in e.g. papers 12 & 15 ('A Perspective, Exemplary teachers'). Observation of activity was also used to gather or confirm data, for example as in paper 14 ('Whose knowledge'), while a framework devised from conclusions reached in earlier research was used as in paper 5 ('Views of the process'), written summaries sometimes completed over time by the researched targets (such as student diaries), as also in paper 5, were another source of data. A selection of the instruments used can be found in Appendix 1.

¹ Papers will be referred to by their short title (as on the dividers in Volume 2), and/or the numerical order in which they come in the submission

3. Synthesis of the work as it appeared

In this section the review and analysis follows a thematic rather than chronological pattern. Many papers provide examples across the central theme of the submission and will be visited more than once. Observations and reflections on content and subsequent ideas arising from the findings and discussion in the writing are included here as are major historical and current consequences and considerations drawn together in 3.4.

3.1 Partnership and its development

In retrospect it is no exaggeration to claim that teacher educators largely failed to appreciate the potentially far-reaching effects that DES Circular 3/84 would eventually have in increasing governmental involvement in teacher education. In contrast to the largely progressive and liberal notion underpinning the philosophy and practice of education which had developed and prevailed during the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s, this circular introduced, amongst other things, recent and relevant school experience for HEI education tutors and teacher involvement in interviewing prospective students; for the first time it laid down the length of time students were to spend in schools. This notion of school involvement in training was not new. Training in the nineteenth century was almost exclusively school-based (Gardner, 1993) and pupil-teachers and their supporters pre-dated the current practice of mentoring. However, college-based courses developed at the beginning of the twentieth century signalled a move away from practically orientated training. Circular 3/84 can now be recognized as a catalyst in reversing this trend.

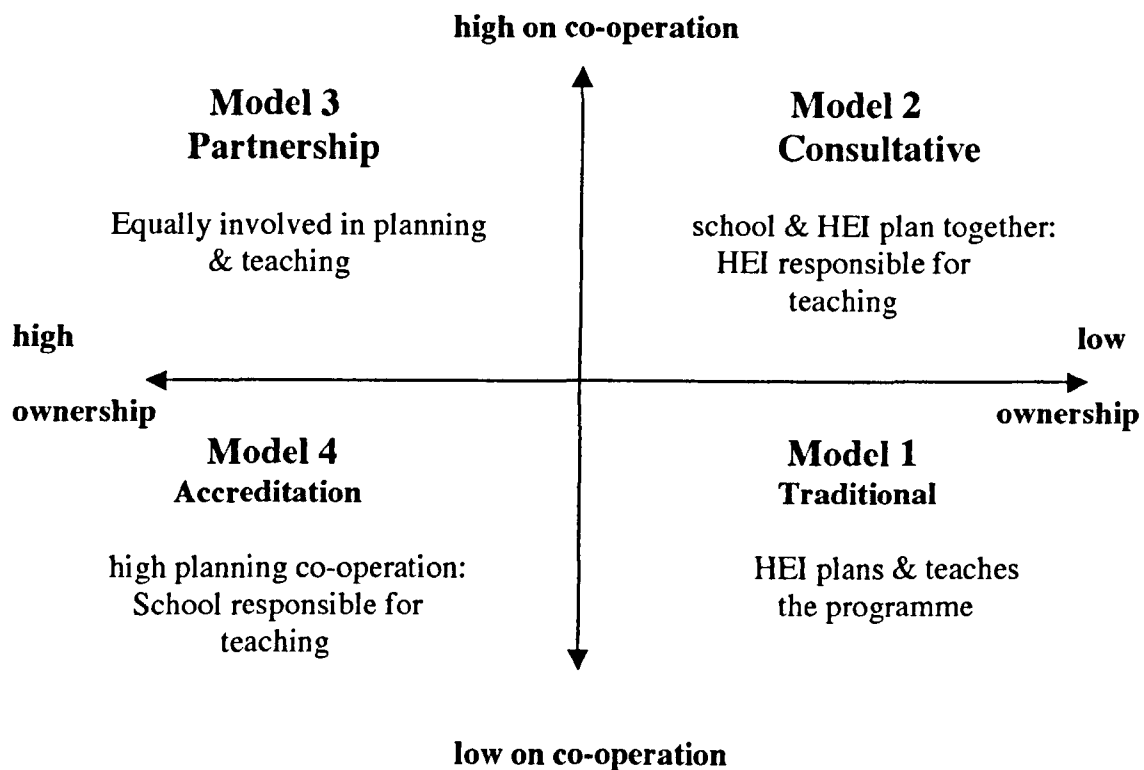
The earliest contribution included in the main body of this work, 'Anatomy of a development' (Paper 1), is the opening chapter of a book arising from a Hamlyn funded research project carried out in my then department. It is included here to set the scene in which Partnership grew, looking at five years of practice arising, as noted above, partially

from the inclusion of IT-INSET within teaching practice schools. In this case the then position of valuing what James (1971) termed 'professional tutors' as providers of 'real' classroom experience of a professional practical nature is at variance both with the contemporary espousal of the principles of IT-INSET (some of which now seem to me to be flawed in not including outside forces in the equation) and with the wider and different power-base in what I would now term Partnership (see below).

I sincerely accepted the notion of teachers in school being members of the team, valuing them for their 'unique' contribution, however such phrases as 'equal but different role' now show an accepted a hierarchy of 'equalness'. As some teachers still preferred to be called 'teacher-tutors' even as late as 1994, one could reasonably surmise the term 'tutor' was seen as a status symbol. This was a belief that we, as former practitioners from the classroom, were ready to endorse. We felt strongly this was true partnership and a major step forward. A view shared by most of our colleagues in teacher education. Even the much-vaunted Oxford Internship model, consideration of which served as an impetus for our seeking a specifically primary and unique model of our own, was structurally hierarchical.

Just two years later Hildreth and Rutherford (1996) published a framework of four models of collaboration they had identified in partnerships between Teacher Education departments and schools.

FRAMEWORK OF FOUR MODELS



This model also serves to draw out the issue of power, found throughout the research analysed in these papers, to be one of the major fault lines of Partnership. As will be developed below, certain assumptions are made about status and the accompanying responsibilities, demands and expectations that result. Part of the reaction and response to or against change is, in the writer's opinion, directly attributable to this power conflict or vacuum. As will be argued in section 3.4, this applies not only to the direct participants in the education 'game', but also on a global front including the various political, social and economic agendas that are made use of in promoting, justifying and enforcing change. In demanding support to facilitate change and in identifying and subsequently providing support, the power paradigm remains an important feature. Such situations can quickly lead to conflict, in which sets of protagonists use both 'positive power' (i.e. that of the dominant force) e.g. legislation, and 'negative' power (i.e. the underdog [perhaps temporarily]), e.g. refusal of students for training. In the situations explored in these papers this can be transferred into the building of partnerships in initial teacher training in schools and the acceptance of the importance of attitudes and beliefs in

learning and teaching as a whole. Care must be taken not to assume that all such actions are conscious decisions on the part of the actors; in section 3.4 possible reasons for these peoples' reactions are further explored. However, in this particular case it can be seen with hindsight that at its inception in 1988 the programme was firmly within Model 2. Consultation was substantial and joint planning took place, an achievement in itself, as Model 1 was still, the norm in most initial teacher education programmes from the evidence collected by Hildreth and Rutherford. Indeed this remained so in other parts of the provision in the presenter's HEI. Here the dominant power remained the higher education institution.

The evaluation of the programme completed in 1989 led to a move to more fundamental whole-school involvement and to some limited teaching of initial training students by the teachers from schools. This tended to be a continuation of the curriculum begun in the course and involved directed time in schools, centred around the three key subjects of the school curriculum. The input was extended, as a result of findings from this research, in the Articled Teacher Scheme. This was a shift into higher joint ownership of the programme but not yet achieving the equality of Model 3. All schools involved in the Partnership did not operate at the same level. Indeed many schools opted, and continued to opt right up to my retirement in 1997, to retain a more formal and traditional relationship with the HEI in Initial Teacher Training. As we shall see later in other papers in the submission, this position still remains the norm in some countries. In retrospect the centrality of the principles of IT-INSET were both the strength and the weakness of the design in enabling and limiting progress in achieving what was defined as Model 3 in Hildreth and Rutherford's framework.

However the series of questions used in IT-INSET as guidelines to analytical thinking and the combining of theory with practice, laid down, in my opinion, the foundations for the acceptance of 'the reflective practitioner' (Schön, 1983), which was to dominate the theory and practice of teacher education over the next decades. It is the efficacy of these decades' practitioners that has had such a bearing on the process of mentoring and the

place of values within the overall effectiveness of teaching and learning, as will be discussed further throughout this submission.

These IT-INSET questions were:

What did the pupils actually do?

What were they learning?

How worthwhile was it?

What did we do?

What did we learn?

What do we intend to do now?

The discussions, which followed the periods of observation and teaching, allowed the team to bring into play the principles of IT-INSET, which in Ashton's words are:

'...to improve the quality of education provided in schools, teachers, students and tutors need to engage systematically and continuously in:

- 1 observing practice;
- 2 analysing practice and applying theory;
3. evaluating the curriculum;
4. developing the curriculum;
5. working as a team; and involving the school's other teachers in the practice.'

(Ashton, 1989, p.9)

While these undoubtedly contributed to a joint approach and cohesion of effort the HEI was still very firmly perceived to be 'in charge', an issue running throughout many of the contributions included here and returned to in section 4 of this submission. Teachers' involvement was also, within these principles, still confined to the 'practice' element of a course. Teachers were encouraged or allowed, depending on the individuals involved, to contribute what teachers 'do best'; the practical aspects of activity within a classroom. In 'applying theory' the lead and the knowledge was to come mainly from the lecturer as part of their 'equal but different' share of the expertise.

However, this early initiative in embedding mentoring in primary schools had its merits. It was successful at the time in improving the experiences and performance of student teachers throughout their course and in introducing, enhancing and furthering the staff development within school by making them at least think about and hopefully articulate their practices. It is also clear that a firm foundation had been laid from which the later statutory changes in teacher education could be launched without entirely abandoning the philosophical educational values upon which the original moves towards the more meaningful involvement of teachers in delivering our courses had been based. As a research project it contributed greatly to the then unique primary mentoring programme formulated in the book from which this chapter is taken (Yeomans & Sampson, 1994). Investigations undertaken as part of the activity in the Centre for the Study of Mentoring set up in the department as part of the research support initiative added to development. This model became known as the TEAM (Teacher Education and Mentorship), framework, the principles of which will be returned to in discussing later papers in the submission.

The report first presented at the dissemination conference for the research project subsequently became this chapter. A local primary SCITT (School Initiated Teacher Training), and the participation of many more regional schools in student placements schemes resulted from experiences described there. A number of other HEIs' staff visited to observe and discuss the model and the invitation for the present writer to launch and co-ordinate a Mentoring Network for the Society for Research in Higher Education came about. The book *Mentoring – the new Panacea?* was the result of research activity in the SRHE Network. Items 7 ('A Diversity of Views'), 8 ('Successful conditions'), 9 ('Panacea'), & 10 ('Dilemma'), that all contributed to the further development of the writer's current stance on Partnership, are directly linked with this activity and the book. The intercourse with colleagues contributing to the book, who approached mentoring from different genre, was challenging and valuable. It led me to fundamentally re-appraise the process and rationale for mentoring. My hypothesis about the necessity of interconnectivity stems from this, culminating in my belief that Learning Societies are necessary to provide a viable way of meeting the levels of support needed in times of

change. The human qualities discernable and desirable in dealing with and supporting change can be connected through partnership; mentoring forms one element of this. Of particular note was the collaboration with Gay that led over 2 years of roundtables and seminar discussion in the USA and UK to paper 10 ('Dilemma') in this submission (see below) and our membership of the executive committee of the National Mentoring Association.

3.1.i Mentoring as an aspect of Partnership

In paper 4 ('Significant others'), analysis of data from the experience of mentorship programmes in schools confirmed the merit and transferability of the IT-INSET principles and to the necessity of extending and looking beyond them. Evidence that the sixth principle in Ashton's list is a desideratum for successful mentorship in schools was apparent from the analysis of the data collected. A case is illustrated by Mawer (1996, p.93) who cites paper 6 of this submission for the finding about the level of professional and intellectual debate within the school staff creating an atmosphere more likely to promote learning in students. He goes on to relate it to the conditions needed by PE student teachers.

'Significant others', drawing from responses to the questionnaire augmented by subsequent interviews, also outlines the importance of the actions and support of various personnel in the school and beyond, who are seen as crucial to both the well-being of the student and the advancement of both their understanding of learning and skills in teaching.

An example was the students' identification of the mentor who was not also their class teacher as needing extra support, most tellingly however, in order to help them [the student], rather than as support and development for the teacher him/herself. These findings were of immediate major importance in three ways.

(1) Practically for the planning and setting up of future placements for student teachers in schools, at a time when there was an expectation of more involvement, and the concomitant responsibility and potential stress, for teachers in having a role in training beyond that of the traditional school practice placement.

(2) At a more fundamental research level focus, in questioning:

who was in need of support,

the type of input needed from each of those involved in providing support

the pressures that this would put on them and the system and

how this could best be supported and by whom.

(3) The central importance of the head's/senior management's commitment.

Although the head's major role was not greatly supported by the particular group of 3rd-year students cited in paper 2, it continued to be borne out by the responses of participants in subsequent research papers 3 ('Effective mentorship'), 4 ('Significant others'), 6 ('When views differ'), 8 ('Successful conditions'), 15 ('Exemplary teachers') and 16, ('Innovative strategies').

The importance of central commitment occurs in mentoring in school practice and developing partnership and in the data from values and citizenship research. It also proved to be of crucial importance in the latest evaluation included in the argument for the development of the central hypothesis of this study, that of the Training Schools Programme. This evaluation was undertaken for the Department for Education and Skills and, as their property, it can only be included in Appendix 2. It contains however evidence for what the writer believes to be the current ultimate model of development in her updating of Hildreth and Rutherford's framework explored above, and will be used to extend the analysis of findings in the body of the submission.

In 'Significant others' project (paper 4), the poor showing of heads as support for students could have been investigated further, although subsequent interviews with

students and teachers in later projects would suggest that the hands-on involvement of head teachers with students is more likely to feature in smaller primary schools or where the head has taken on a staff development role across the board. Their approval and backing with resources and time appear to play a greater role in successful mentorship schemes and in the development of partnership once the initial ethos has been built up either by themselves or by an influential member of staff to whom the principal responsibility for this role has been delegated. The class teacher being seen as the crucial support tool by the students features more heavily in primary schools where intimate contact with a single teacher is inevitable. However their supremacy continues to be found in later data does, even where setting or specialist teaching occurs. In secondary schools a subject specialist or specialists are valued, not only for their specialist subject knowledge but also for the interpretation of that knowledge into deliverable lesson material [papers 6 ('When views differ'), & 7 ('A Diversity of views')]. The pivotal role of this 'significant other' bears out the views, not then known to the writer, expressed by Funk, Fanchon *et al* (1982) whose 185 student responders identified the cooperating teachers in primary position. What is of further interest to the writer is that their emphasis, which as will be seen in following papers comes to be a crucial finding throughout the work included here, is on the importance of the emotional support and guidance given by those teachers. Hayes (1995, p.71) endorsed this case, in particular citing paper 4 as a precursor of his finding that students considered the approachability of the teachers and mentor was the most significant factor for success in school experience as far as his students were concerned.

Other members of the department in which the student is placed are used as a resource and for support, but the whole-school mentoring of the student, as cited in paper 3 ('Effective mentorship'), is by sheer weight of numbers seldom if ever found. This variation in the conditions likely to be met by students in schools was picked up by Mawer (1996), in his study of physical education students in the primary school: 'The school in which trainees are placed may be considered to be the "context" in which they learn to teach. Stephenson & Sampson (1994) have suggested that there may be "a range

of conditions that affect the effectiveness of mentorship” (p.187) within a primary school’ (p.92).

The partnership paradigm could be visualized as the student’s learning taking place in a three-way relationship. A theoretical model of partnership could be constructed as a triangular relationship between the HEI, the school, and themselves as learners. This research and following five papers show that the situation is more complex, dynamic and problematic than that. More than replication of what currently happens in schools is required if the criticisms of both current and past practice are to lead to improvements rather than stagnation in education.

This was also a useful paper in giving the opportunity to compare different types of support currently expected and available at that time to students within a variety of different arrangements or contracts with schools.² Generic needs and outcomes could be investigated. Menter (1995) suggests that the mentor’s role is partly shaped by the needs of the protégé, saying, ‘...inductees’ needs are idiosyncratic – everyone’s needs are quite different’ (p. 210). This is to some extent borne out by evidence gathered for the papers in this submission, but whilst there are individual differences, personal and contextual, there are also commonalities arising from the nature of the responsibilities and demands of the task and its setting within a school. All are, as Menter also found, reliant on relationship.

Several suggestions leading to a movement away from dominance of theory in initial teacher education began to put forward more vigorously around this time. Alongside the general attack on educational standards, the theoretical input by HEIs to teacher training courses was regarded as sinister and counterproductive and therefore also subject to attack. Moves to limit HEIs’ involvement were mooted and, with the advent of Circulars 24/89; 9/92, 7/93 & 14/93 and government initiatives such as the Articled and Licensed Teacher Schemes, ultimately acted upon. It was and is still argued (McIntyre, 1998; MacNamara, 1996), that the university input to both initial and in-service teacher

² Also in comparative contexts

education provides a context for a more critical and reflective approach to issues than could be gained elsewhere. This stance has some merit, and instances of practice in schools in examples of school-based training used to underline the point.

However, it is equally true that data gathered by the writer during the recent evaluation of training work being undertaken in the Training Schools Programme shows this need not be the case, underlining once again the complexity of professional preparation.

At the beginning of the initial five-year period covered by TEAM, the idea of teacher training without an HEI input seemed ludicrous. A consideration of what support would be needed in such a case is not addressed in these earlier papers, although those schools involved in the Articled Teacher scheme proved valuable data for types of support needed where more responsibility lay with the schools. Initiated by the same project, Paper 2 ('Changing face'), was originally presented at a conference session (Association of Teacher Educators in Europe) and then selected and written up for their journal, was a precursor of this article. Looking back on both these submissions, the emphasis placed on students at this juncture underplays the subsequent effect on the teacher's role as described in papers 2 ('Changing face'), 3 ('Effective mentorship'), 5 ('Views of the process'), 8 ('Successful conditions'), etc., and concentrates to a large degree on the support needed by student teachers (to some extent supplied through the actions of the mentors, teacher tutors and lecturers supervising their work). It is interesting to note that a principal concern from teachers, coming through all the various strands of the research at this time, is the appraisal of the students' performance. An increased emphasis on competences would, at a later date, exacerbate this.

Although there is appreciation that education as a whole was suffering, even then, from a surfeit of 'improvements' taking place over a short time, the real significance of the need for support by everybody involved is not fully realized. These papers provided an insight and an impetus for action on the whole area of the multi-dimensional involvement of people in the training process going far beyond the accepted triumvirate on which the initial training of teachers had previously depended. At this time the major instrument in meeting these challenges was the mentor. Hence the development of the submitter's

work on partnership and mentoring, following issues raised through the analysis of and reflection on the findings of the mentoring project and discussions with fellow educationalists arising from the dissemination and publication of the results.

A consequence of the increased involvement of schools and the changed and diminishing role of the college tutor was manifest in the behaviour and demands of the students, particularly in 4-year BEd courses. Here legislative change often meant that succeeding but contemporaneous cohorts were on courses governed by different criteria, particularly noticeable in the pattern and management of school practice. There was a juxtaposition of 'new' mentored practice alongside traditional practice. - e.g. the need for combining the support hitherto given by personal tutor – objectivity, etc. – into or alongside the changed roles of the mentor or class teacher and the 'supervising' tutor and effects of this change on the partnership. This applied to all three 'players' in the classroom partnership. The effects of changes in relationships and roles being variously conceived as challenge, for instance where previously subject knowledge had been seen as the domain of the tutor, or where training needs meant students had to fulfill tasks the teacher would not have sanctioned under former teaching practice regimes; or diminished status, when tutors were excluded from the supervisory role, this example also being seen as dereliction of duty on the part of students used to having tutor input. Both teachers and tutors expressed concerns over de-professionalisation, concern over their grasp of the role and skills required being typical of the former and rejection of perceived 'expertise' by the latter, whilst students, teachers and tutors felt unrealistic demands were being made of them at different times.

In the research and writing discussed above, support for mentors in the form of training was broached. This was before it became accepted practice that a period of training should be included amongst the criteria for mentor choice. Around this time credit points for teachers mentoring students in their schools were being considered as a means of 'paying back' teachers for the efforts they put in. We incorporated these into our schemes using evidence from our investigations, along with teacher requests, to

determine the content of the modules offered for accreditation but also as vehicles for support.

‘Effective mentorship’(paper 3) looks more closely at data gathered from the research pertaining to conditions in schools. As most issues raised evolved around personnel, they and their effect upon the systems served as the focus in the analysis. Some of this material also forms part of the analysis in paper 9 (‘Panacea’). The former is specific to the research project. It draws out the experiences and themes of those actively involved in the process and is concerned with practicalities and perceptions of the participants, drawing on points particular to mentoring in this context. The latter adds other material and deals in a more philosophical way with the players and the process of mentoring after the writer’s exposure to the study of mentoring in deeper historical, philosophical and cross context situations. What is striking about the use of verbatim material in such instances is the realisation of the extent to which the quality of analysis stands or falls on the quality of the responses.

These provide some illustration of the both partners’ difficulty in expressing their thoughts clearly. This lack of articulateness suggests difficulties in communicating between mentors and protégés. Teachers, for example, may not be able to get across what they are expecting of students or whatever. This flags a vital need for support, since they are evidently not all aware of this themselves, a finding further borne out in work that is reported in papers 5 and 6 (‘Views of the process’ and ‘When views differ’).

The importance of the affirmative side of support given by teachers to students, cited as the most commonly occurring interaction in paper 2 (‘Changing face’), is reflected in many of the quotations used. Trust, friendliness and enthusiasm, a positive attitude, the teacher/mentor’s philosophy, and commitment shown all feature in the research data obtained from the students. If these are identified as positive aids to the functioning of this particular support system, then can we hypothesize their necessity across the development of partnership, as defined here, as a whole? The work on values would bear this out (papers 11, 12, 13, 14, 15). Mentors’ concerns, at least in this selection, appear to

focus on the functions of completing the task. What does arise here however is confirmation of the realization that mentoring leads to self-development whether this is a conscious aim or not. The observation that 'in terms of learning, mentoring is a two-edged sword' when analysing why mentors were willing to fulfil their role is further borne out across the mentoring papers and come across very strongly in the in-depth interviews conducted with exemplary teachers dealt with in papers 14 and 15.

'Successful conditions' (paper 8), whilst re-considering all the above, takes a more philosophical/polemic approach on general issues and comparisons with other forms of mentoring. It looks at the dilemma in defining what we mean by mentoring and context/interface, the common theme of the book from which it is taken and treated here in some depth in papers 7 ('A Diversity of views') and 12 ('A Perspective from England'). For the purpose of the arguments contained within this paper the functional notion is taken of a 'more experienced "knowledgeable" exponent' setting out to inculcate a less experienced one with the skills to 'survive and function effectively in a given set of circumstances'. In rehearsing the difficulties inherent in clarifying even this simplified objective, the dilemma of the divide between functionality i.e. producing a teacher who is a technician as opposed to educating a person, current then and now, is aired. The model of mentoring most closely resembling 'cloning' is questioned as being suspect in producing the worst as well as the best of the person who is acting as the model and the potential worth of the values and attitudes of that person as well as their professional skills is put forward as having a potential place in producing new 'good' practitioners. It was from this point on that the writer fully appreciated the interconnectivity of the effect of personal and social values on mentoring and the other transactions that take place in the formation, sustaining and developing of Partnership.

The historical aspects of how and why the changes that the measures being discussed had brought to pass (discussed in Sections 1.iii and 3.4), also became a more pressing factor and brought a more critical and analytical approach to the investigations as part of a larger sociological whole rather than an educational challenge to be solved.

In reviewing research findings in both of the concurrent strands of investigation into educational improvement, evidence for the causes of change and their consequence and possible avenues for action began to emerge. When paper 9 ('Panacea') was written, it was hoped that the pending national curriculum for teacher training would clarify the challenged role of the teacher trainers. This proved not to be the case except in a 'functionalist' sense and in demonstrating the difficulties inherent in trying to break down 'skill' into ever decreasing 'sound bites' which subsequently had to be rationalized. The data was already suggesting that 'technicians' were not what was needed in 21st-century schools, and that the increased amount of paperwork generated by the National Curriculum for Schools and the testing regime had diminished not only the autonomy of the teacher, curtailing experiment and enterprise, but also the time they had to devote to students. It also affected the attitudes to the leeway teachers would allow for what those students could do in their classrooms. The concept of mentoring as a tool for empowerment of both the student and the teacher in the pursuit of enhanced learning all round became more problematic than ever. This and following papers demonstrate the subsequent need to reassess and redefine many issues. These included the selection of mentors; their role and purpose; the changes ensuing from having to follow a set curriculum; the support available to fulfil these targets, and relationships within the school. This was particularly crucial in the training role, that between the mentored and mentoring, the protégé and the mentor and all aspects of what they brought to transactions,

The 'socio-technical' theory/philosophy adopted as the *leitmotif* of the 'Panacea' book as it appertains to partnership in school is expounded in the paper. Having considered the mentoring process from the objective, institutional and mentor perspective, the attention then turned to that of the protégé. Using the evidence of earlier research and supportive literature the concept of a *mentoring network* is introduced. What is included in this term is important to grasp. It encompasses not only the personnel of the institution/s, the functioning and managing of plant and body politic, but also transactions between all these things of whatever nature. This also subsumes the ethos, values and characteristics

of the institution as an entity, leading indeed to the diagrammatic representations of the change and support forming the title of this submission.

In the partnerships considered in the body of this work so far, in both the research projects explored and examples of other practice taken from the literature, the institutions which had instigated these arrangements had debated and subsequently drawn up often exhaustive lists that attempted to define what the role of a mentor, or a person taking on the function of a mentor should be. This happened either individually or in conjunction with the schools involved or on occasion in consortia of schools and institutions. No overall consensus was reached and those on the receiving end i.e. the students, were largely unrepresented. Although difficulties as well as positive features of teacher - student transactions had been solicited throughout the earlier research on mentoring (papers 2, 3, 4) it was not until the series of investigations represented in this submission by papers 5 and 6, ('Views of the process'; 'When views differ'), and used to extend the basis of paper 9 ('Panacea'), that further systematic scrutiny was given to possible areas of mis-match between what students and teachers were saying about their shared experiences.

The impossibility of finding one single definition of 'mentoring' amongst the literature has already been aired along with the now exhaustive lists and speculation on the role of the mentor. This was not the case, however, in primary teacher education at the start of these research investigations. One area where research and literature continues to be scarce is that covered in papers 5 and 6 ('Views of the process' and 'When views differ'). A recent doctoral student at the University of Leicester³ was unable to find any other substantive literature about mentoring failure specific to teacher education. Papers 5 and 6, both arising from conference presentations abroad to international audiences, formed one part of a large research and evaluation project being undertaken across the whole of the teacher training element of the institution, done within the auspices of the Centre for the Study of Mentoring.

³ Ewen Arnold, thesis submitted but not yet catalogued

‘Views of the process’ (paper 5) looks at both the relative valuation put on a single experience of mentoring and goes on to consider ramifications of findings in the light of conclusions from preceding research. It takes instances from outside teacher education into account and goes on to suggest an alternative way of thinking about the process through a *mentoring matrix*. A search for a generic model of mentoring was part of the challenge. Mawer (1996), in writing of mentoring for physical education support in the primary school, encountered the self-supporting school ethos, where staff believed student teachers could most usefully be helped by other more experienced teachers, noting that: ‘The notion that a number of teaching staff might be involved in various aspects of mentoring in the primary school is not new. Stephenson & Taylor (1995) noted that a “mentoring matrix” may exist in primary schools’ (p. 52), quoting paper 5 in this submission and going on to say that: ‘The classteachers in this study appeared to prefer to be part of a ‘matrix’ of mentoring support as far as PE is concerned’ (p.153).

In the same book, looking at more general principles of aiding students on practice in constructing PE lessons, the mentoring matrix is again evoked: ‘Stephenson & Taylor (1995) refer ...to a situation whereby all of these “co-mentors”, “minor-mentors” and “helpers” are “embedded, the totality of which provides the student teacher with the process of development”’. But he goes on to stress an important point that is made about the functioning of the matrix: ‘However, Stephenson and Taylor (*ibid*) do make a distinction between the mentoring “matrix” of “official” advice (for example, other teachers), and the part played by “significant others” (for example, friends, sisters) who are involved “unofficially” in the mentoring process in a more personal than professional supporting capacity’ (p. 97). He puts this reliance on a matrix not because of possible lack of credibility on the part of the mentor, suggested as one possible cause in paper 4, cited here, but from the protégé’s self-interest of gaining more from plurality.

Paper 6 (‘When views differ’), written for a different homogenous audience, addresses the question of mismatch and puts forward possible ways of alleviating the position in student teacher practice in schools. The data referred to here was collected in response to the research-based knowledge that not all mentoring is perfect; a starting question was

what is mentoring failure or a 'near miss'? There were a number of difficulties inherent in this task including the lack of consensus on what mentoring is, the ascription of the success or otherwise of mentoring to personal qualities and the prescriptive 'top down' nature of most accounts of what mentors do. In formulating a framework arising out of the actual practice of mentoring and therefore being 'bottom-up' and a basis for empirical investigations the TEAM framework was adopted and adapted.

This framework is based on what was seen to be happening in mentoring dyads during the process of the research, what mentors were seen to do and reported as doing. The TEAM framework encompasses all practice good and bad, being descriptive and analytic rather than prescriptive and normative. It represent three levels; the basic level of mentoring activities (this corresponds to those aspects of the role presented in other models), the superordinate level of mentoring dimensions and a third grounding level of acts and actions. The original TEAM project, although gathering evidence that shed some light on the issue, had not had the quality of mentorship and hence the students' experience as a central focus. In the particular phase of the research explored in papers 5 and 6 it was the prime concern. The framework as a 'warts and all' view allowed us to build up structures of perfect examples and near and not so near approximations, or as referred to in this study 'misses'.

The hypothesis was that by using the framework it would be possible for researchers to recognize near misses and outright failures that through analysis could be used to feed back into training, and that the mentors could look at their own practice and at that same practice through the perspective of their protégés. Further that the framework could provide a generic basis for the cross-contextual study of mentoring. It was the presentation of the base level of the TEAM framework as a set of conceptual categories to consider in coming to a judgment on the mentoring process that proved to be effective in enabling both the mentors and protégés (the partners in the mentoring dyad), to articulate, through the questionnaire, their considered views on their experience. The level of ability in verbal articulation of thoughts and feeling had already been identified as being a factor in effectiveness in previous work (see 3, 'Effective mentorship', and 4,

‘Significant others’). Additional support was a vital part of this approach in the form of descriptions of the role element drawn from the TEAM research data, including clarification of possibly similar actions. Subsequent statistical analysis of the responses indicated this clarification had enabled role elements to be distinguished from one another. Analysis indicated that at least the first two elements of the hypothesis were sustained. A further investigation, widening the field to include other people in the school and HEI staff, would have been valuable. The departure of the writer from the institution and subsequent lack of access to sizable numbers of students and mentors on a medium- to long-term basis prevented this development.

The most interesting findings to be drawn for this aspect of the research were the hitherto unexplored differences in perception about the experiencing of and the value put on outcomes by the individuals in a dyad. Data from research already confirmed that mentors on the whole had a rosier opinion of how things had gone than protégés. This could have been accounted for by the protégés’ inexperience of life in the classroom, unrealistic expectations as to their likely performance, their position as newcomers into a hitherto stabilized set of relationships, difficulties with curriculum content or indeed a generally more pessimistic outlook on events. What was special about the analytical process made possible by the value scales in this project, was the chance to look beyond ‘averages’ at the discrepancies, sometimes minimal but worryingly often of a greater register, between the pairs’ chosen answers.

The difference in the range of valuations used was also informative. It suggested that mentors reluctance to acknowledge ‘failure’ was probably indicative of some uncertainty as to their knowledge or ability in undertaking an effective mentoring role rather than egotism about their prowess or deification of their skills. This therefore was another area needing to be supported. This study, albeit a limited one, was able to demonstrate that almost one in three dyads contained ‘discrepancies’ of evaluation, i.e. where the pairs rated things two or more grades apart. Written summaries from those involved supported these ratings. This left the dilemma of why more mentoring experiences had not been classed as outright failures in the past.

The hypothesis put forward uses the evidence of earlier research (papers 2, 3, 4, 9) on significant others, leading to the proposition of the mentoring matrix outlined in paper 5 ('Views of the process'). Of a particular importance here is the ability to separate the teaching practice as a whole from the dyad mentoring experience that forms part of the support mechanism, and as this paper and others argue, the accountability system with which mentoring, indeed support as a whole, is now bound up in teacher education. Not only in the case of student teachers as discussed here in the mentoring context but also in the support of practicing teachers in the response to changes occurring across the board. The list of questions that end the paper, along with others raised elsewhere and enumerated in Section 3.4 still remain valid and pertinent ones.

The last two papers, as with papers 5, 6, 7, and 9, visited earlier, introduce notions of mentoring from other contexts and perceptions as having a possible bearing on the building and form of support for those involved in education. Papers 7 ('A diversity of views') and 10 ('Dilemma') return to this theme. Paper 10 in particular sets out the historical and philosophical under-pinning of activities commonly referred to as 'mentoring'. Although as can be seen there, has been rehearsed above, and will be contended in paper 16, ('Innovative strategies'), there is no consensus on the matter. Here mentoring is considered as a vehicle to assist the then newly coined 'life-long learning' to become a reality. Various ways in which the process was then being used are presented and merits and difficulties visited. Contrasts are made between educational usage and that arising in other contexts. 'Dilemma' (paper 10) is a staging post on the writer's journey to the espousal of Learning Communities as a means to address the challenges wrought by constant and accelerating change. The range of models laid out for consideration in it and the relationships arising within these, together with definitions found in seminal works on what is sometimes termed 'traditional' mentoring go some way to demonstrating the confused situation in applying the blanket term 'mentor' or mentoring. Tensions and anomalies seen in adding the process to teacher education practice are rehearsed and a suggested framework towards an evaluation of mentoring is proposed. Concepts present in this framework, encompassing measures of control and

dependency, were also identified in Hildreth and Rutherford's Framework for Partnership (ownership-cooperation), constructed about the same time, further reinforcing the range of conditions under which these arrangements had to work and flagging up likely strategies for affecting change.

The position of the understanding, definition and practice of the mentoring process and the role of mentors, however, remains confused. Roberts (2000), attempting to find a way best to describe what the mentoring concept as a whole is, and how best it may be communicated, makes the suggestion that its essential attributes need to be uncovered. He suggests that a phenomenological approach might assist in this. Quoting Hammond & Howarth (1991, p.1) he claims 'Phenomenology aims to "describe objects just as one experiences them"' – an objective of the use of the TEAM framework in papers 5 and 6, ('Views of the process'; 'When views differ'). He goes on to suggest that philosophers often treat careful descriptions of ordinary experiences in a misleading way, tending to give accounts being more like 'what this should be' rather than 'what it is actually like' (Hammond & Howarth, 1991). The desired actuality echoes one of the precepts of Ashton's (1989) IT-INSET principles.

If we accept the notion put forward by Roberts that by looking at things in a different way, by suspending our own understanding of them and treating past understandings with suspicion, then by considering the many we should come to a fuller understanding of the particular, for the purposes of this submission that connected to teacher education.

However, in his review of the various descriptions of the functions of a mentor, within the chosen sub-section of mentoring in initial teacher training, he is no more able to elicit a single title even to name the mentor's role than the writer of paper 10. Indeed he comments (p.151) 'to cloud the issue still further, Gay and Stephenson (1998, p.23) refer to a "teacher-mentor", saying that:

"...the condition we now have before us is not one where mentoring is supplemental to a mainstream activity but is incorporated within the mainstream activity in such a way that it has a direct input into the future of the individuals that are being mentored".

The writer can only agree with his closing summary in which he recognizes, as the research carried out in these papers can illustrate, that how mentoring is described depends to a large extent on how the 'varied authors perceive and experience mentoring', (*ibid*, p. 163). She goes further in the light of empirical evidence, to include not only the 'players' but also the context in which the experience takes place and the political, with a big and little 'p', nuances surrounding it, including aspects of ownership, power and dependency as included in Fig 3.

'A Diversity of views' (paper 7), part of the *Panacea* book, is useful in tracing the development of this work in that it sets out the prevailing pressure on teacher education at the time, to be drawn out further in papers 9, ('Panacea'), 16, ('Innovative strategies'), 17, ('Partnership'), 18, ('Green paper'). It also provides a snapshot of the influences on my thinking about the component parts of mentoring. These not only within teacher education, but across the various contexts, data gathered from these being used by the writer to explore and question the place and efficacy of mentoring as a tool for support and development in paper 9, ('Panacea'), of this submission.

Within Paper 9 the question of 'quick-fix' cure-alls for the perceived ills of education, in particular teacher education, is considered. This is done in the context of findings from within the setting, including from other cultures, and also what happens in other organizations using techniques that while given the same or similar titles differ, subtly or along a continuum to fundamentally, in some of the principles and practices contained with them. It can still be claimed with some justification, that whilst the laws of the market have been applied to the education sector, the support and understanding the needs not only of the personnel but of the business itself, have not. The contradictions between the original purposes of mentoring and the expectations set upon it by the government in trying to 'cure' their perceptions of what was failing or lacking in the content, delivery and ultimate achievements of teacher education are still relevant at the present time. Issues such as the expectation of uniform results, the development of the individual as opposed to the development of the ideal, the ownership of the content and the pace, the freedom to opt in or out and the judgmental factor, so strong in the initial

training context, have increased rather than become less central over time. Indeed, as will be demonstrated in Section 3.4, the power bias has been further unbalanced by the move towards exclusively school-based training.

Mentoring generally has been firmly welcomed into the raft of support for failure or alleviation, e.g. for offenders, induction into the workplace. This universality led to the title of the book as an antidote to its adoption as an elixir, or indeed as Freeman (1998, p.70), talking about mentoring in the medical profession, records: 'A similar Damascus experience was undergone in another group, who had ...given themselves the title of the 'Holy grail' group ...they all declared "the search is ended ...*everybody* should have one [a mentor]". She at least quickly goes on to say: 'But Stephenson [1997] goes ahead of such prophets, telling of the danger of seeing the vogue of mentoring as a panacea for all ills, applied in answer to all manner of problems, and she presents instead a thoughtful treatise about the relevant application of mentoring'.

Nevertheless a firm policy for the use of mentors can be said to have been put in place, the question still stands as to how much more than superficial attention has been given to whether what is expected is tenable. Or, indeed, what those who are being asked to put it into practice might need in the way of knowledge, training and support. The audit of process against benefits has still to take place for the context of mentors and protégés in schools. Where some data has been gathered (Stephenson, NFER, 2003, Evaluation of Excellence in Cities, not yet released by DfES) the use of teaching-mentors in schools, (teacher to pupil), in certain circumstances, is showing measurable gain. Likewise those changes concerned with a central recommendation put forward in this paper of a thought-through qualification for those involved in mentoring initial teacher training students is happening piecemeal rather than coherently. The realization that this could only have a base-line generic content could have been more realistically accentuated in the paper is now clear. The issues to be addressed, drawn from empirical knowledge, in considering content continue to be relevant. Equally vital are the questions: why mentoring; what can be taught through mentoring; to achieve what outcomes, both by way of new teacher skill and knowledge and practicing teacher, school and societal development?

Crucial, too, is the now central emphasis to be placed on the interconnectivity of all aspects of the effects and subsequent handling of change, of which the panacea of mentoring is just one part. It is perhaps not so much the format of the process of mentoring, with which much former effort and research has taken place, including some examples expounded here, but the actions, transactions, beliefs, prejudices and attitudes of those involved in the processes that can best throw light upon the strategies needed to begin answering the question ‘how’ that inevitably follows the statement Supporting Teachers in Times of Change, the title of this submission.

It would be useful, at this juncture, to consider what the research findings underpinning this work reveal about the position ‘mentor’ in schools and what students and institutions were expecting of teachers and mentors in their support of students. These should indicate possible major areas of support needed by the teachers to fulfil these expectations. The term teachers includes the role of the lecturer. This will include insights gained or reinforced by projects underpinning papers 1–10 where appropriate. It is necessary to first consider the question of power in order to do this.

3.1.ii Expectations and needs

At a basic level one way of defining the mentoring process in initial teacher training in schools could be as the supervision by the teacher of the student’s transition from graduate to practitioner. This practitioner who has subject and pedagogical knowledge and experience superior to that of their ‘protégé’, is also acculturated into the school, schooling and education. They possess the competencies required for the age-phase, plus an intimate and sound working knowledge of the curriculum. All are attributes ranked highly by students in these studies. This puts them in a dominant position. However this dominance is not absolute. In a Partnership context there are the HEI teachers in the frame, who may be afforded superior, equal or inferior status, to that of the teacher. They too however will be at a power level above that of the student. This position too is

insecure. In addition to the relationship with HEI members, the teacher's position may be challenged by other staff in school and increasingly parents and community members. All are subject to the authority of external governmental bodies. The third member of our triangular relationship the student although seemingly at the bottom of the heap, is not without power. Their very 'newness' can indeed be their greatest strength. In the case of subject knowledge, particularly in PGCE courses, this is likely to be more recent and in some cases more advanced, their lack of experience in delivery, can be turned to advantage in willingness to experiment with approaches, enthusiasm, singularity of purpose/task and in some settings novelty value, also works in their favour (the research with PGCE students particularly demonstrates this). Acculturation into the school norms they do not have, and aspects of control and respect are also potential problems. The development of student as 'consumer' or 'customer' works strongly in their favour. 'Market forces' pressures on training courses demand accountability on 'customer satisfaction' and this together with OFSTED required evidence of standards and value, afford students a more influential place within teacher education than hitherto. Even this pared down résumé of a scenario in school, common in the project partnerships studied, illustrates issues and occasions likely to generate the need for support for all concerned. The findings in papers 5 & 6 about differing perception add to the importance of recognizing the consequences power in relationships.

Student teachers in all forms of partnership examined in this research felt that their time in schools was productive. They and their teachers/mentors/tutors also voiced expectations of outcomes that led to demands on the partnership and its personnel. Paramount amongst these was accessibility, leading to time pressure for the teachers and a need to balance their teaching role with the training one. All students recognised the pressures placed on teachers, but would have welcomed more quality time with them as shown in the research data. Help in time management was seldom available, although strategies for release, including employing extra teachers became more common with the arrangements for payment from the HEI to be transferred to the schools. This was by no means universal and led to conflict of interest within the school, placing demands on

school development programme planning expertise and a need for further management and inter-personal relations support.

Introduction to school life, expectations and *mores*, including the ‘hidden curriculum’, preferred working methods and school discipline, featured strongly in student demands. Help with planning of and differentiation in lesson materials and content was also prominent. As these research results indicate great emphasis is placed on the teacher’s ability to articulate not only what and how they did but also why, including any underlying philosophy or theory. This proved a major stumbling block, requiring support, partially overcome through providing ‘mentors’ for the mentor, dialogue with tutors and peers, better pre-preparation and documentation and the growing take-up and availability of mentor training. An important example is the growth and fostering of the mentoring matrix.

The affective side of supporting beginning teachers also saw students expecting their mentors, and frequently others in the school, to work in a caring, enabling, counselling, supporting, comforting mode and, in some cases, as an arbitrator or defending counsel. This carries over into first posts in schools. Rippon & Martin (2003), cite my argument in paper 4 about the emotional condition dependent on the beginner’s confidence gained in the mentoring relationship being crucial to effectiveness, as having a bearing in supporting induction. It is possible to appreciate just how much support this change in role generates when the demands placed on teachers by students and protégés is considered alongside the pedagogical and social skills needed in dealing with adults rather than children. This is just one aspect. A similar case could be made for consequent changes in dealing with colleagues, authority, parents, community and the like, as well their ‘self’ outside the role of teacher. Nevertheless gains were perceived and, to balance these, some negative aspects.

Benefits included:

Improved training for the students

Improved teaching and learning for pupils

Improved partnership	Professional development for mentors/ teachers
Empowerment for school staff	Gains for the whole school
Relevant guidance and advice	Financial benefits
Rise in self-confidence and worth	Relationship building

Negative issues:

Increase in workload	Amount/quality of training for new role
Role conflict	Pupil learning affected
Disruption to school	Clash of philosophies/personalities
Financial loss/disadvantage	Negative relationships/attitudes
Quality of partnership	Power issues
Loss of objectivity of tutor's former role	

Where the emphasis was placed differed between the participants, the context and in longitudinal cases with the stage reached. It is interesting to note that in the writer's latest study of teachers working in initial training (summary included in appendix 2), many of the same issues arose, but the perceived higher levels of mentor preparedness led apparently to earlier identification and resolution of issues – at least in those cases where previous experience and adequate levels of support were present.

Another contribution to the growing level of expected teacher support may rise from the trend flagged in the MOTE project (Modes of Teacher Education) (Barrett *et al.*, 1992: Whitty *et al.*, 1992), where the demographics of students were shown to have changed (then 60% over 24, 29 percent being over 31). The influx of mature students onto training courses as a result of more flexible routes into teaching led to a more voluble student population with students more willing question activities who had a strong sense of their 'rights'. This self-confidence in students had spin-offs in institutions and schools.

This body of work on mentoring continues to have a considerable impact on the continuing development of mentoring in schools.

3.2 *Values in education and education through values*

Partly as result of exploring the changes brought about by the school-based elements of teacher education, an increased interest arose in teachers as whole persons, as catalysts and components of learning situations. This development in the present writer's research activity coincided with work alongside teacher education colleagues abroad in partnership and mentoring and in comparisons of the role and conduct of teachers and children in their classrooms and schools. A group of like-minded people met during an international conference and explored and refined hypotheses that resulted in the first of the values education research projects covered in this submission. The criteria for the research were agreed and instruments devised for carrying this out across the countries involved. A selection is included in Appendix 1. The broad base was generic to all contexts, while flexibility was given to pursue particularities relevant to individual needs. In the attitudes, beliefs and practices of teachers, both as social individuals and as role models in schools with rapidly changing goals, were the starting point for my interest. Data, analysis and reflection from this project and a replicated study with initial teacher-training students are presented in papers contributing to the following sub-section.

3.2.i Moral education/values education: views of teachers and happenings in schools

Paper 11 ('Theoretical perspectives') is included to spell out the philosophy prevailing in this Values Education research. The philosophical perspectives revealed here are also of significance in explaining the external and internal pressures and demands made of teachers. The various theoretical categories of values identified by Taylor (1961), Parker (1931) and latterly Jarrett (1991) served as a base for argument. The chapter sought to consider a range of outlooks on social theories dealing with the recent era. The authors stated their belief that society is in a 'transition period' characterized by continuous change as a feature of this (p.4). The book, of which this is the opening chapter, sought to add 'new voices' to the arguments, one of which is in Paper 12, 'A view from England'.

There follows a short historical overview of philosophers' theories from which an attempt is made to suggest strategies that might be of use in our time. This illustrates, among other things, that a selection from all ages can be claimed to have some relevance to the position found in education today. An aim was to seek to fit these and the actions of teachers into four models, three of Hill's (1991) and one that was defined by the authors for the purpose of the research analysis (Stephenson *et al*, 1998). Of these, as will be seen in Paper 12, consensus pluralism and moral vacuum seemed to describe most closely the data gathered in England.

In exploring the various stances in juxtaposition to the issues raised for teachers in values education and the question of support, the basic question of what is necessary for the adequate functioning of teachers in education as a whole is addressed. As far as England is concerned the lack of the 'firm, considered and well articulated theoretical framework' identified there is seen as being confirmed. The necessity for the knowledge of theory to underpin practice, as demonstrated in the issues surrounding mentoring in initial teacher education, is stressed. Overlaps between the two strands are now identifiable through the role personal qualities and beliefs/attitudes play in the effectiveness of mentoring (*cf* paper 5, 'Views of the process').

The various influences of succeeding educational philosophies on educational aims and practices and the way teachers react to these will be explored within the historical context in Section 3.4.

Addressing the cohorts of teachers as a whole, rather than by individual country, the data bore out that teachers everywhere recognized the 'values' implications in improving education generally. Values were seen as equally important to their own continuing or future careers as well as their potential worth as supporting mechanisms in individual social situations. It was in the hope that an investigation and sharing of the similarities and differences in attitudes and approaches across the participants would further refine

and challenge knowledge and understanding that a publication, including practical strategies in conjunction with a theoretical basis, was prepared.

The paper goes on to give suggestions to what teacher educators can do to facilitate support for the needs shown by teachers. It also raises the question after further thought as to whether they are themselves equipped to do so? The fact of ITT being increasingly not only school-based but school-led and -serviced also adds an extra dimension to this issue, not addressed within the paper. Such a fundamental change in modes of training was not at the time envisaged or welcomed. Put more honestly, although predicated by governmental statements at the time, this sea change found teacher educators choosing not to see the ramifications it would have for institutions. Uncertainty, lack of self-confidence, and the growing public criticism of their work and status, are in retrospect easily definable reasons for this.

'A Perspective from England' (paper 12) focuses on the then current position surrounding values in England. It sets the scene for the general economic and 'morale' position of schools/teachers and introduces the consequence changes resulting from the Dearing consultation (1993), the Education Reform Act (1988) and OFSTED report (1994) re 'values'. The analysis was set within the common framework, based on the earlier work of Hill as outlined in Paper 11 ('Theoretical perspectives'). The adoption of a triangular approach to the collection of data proved to be of great value, as it had proved to be during the TEAM project; points picked up from questionnaire responses could be followed through and meaning and disparities teased out. This has parallels with the discrepancies seen in the perceptions of protégés and mentors in previous papers. It is doubtful whether at the time the writer would have questioned, and subsequently gone on to explore further, the ramifications of teachers' lack of knowledge about their own attitudes and consequences of these on their actions in the classroom, if the dichotomy between questionnaire response and actual action had not been observed.

In this respect observation was the most useful tool in refining/confirming/refuting earlier data but we must be aware of Bourdieu's (1977) warning of such involvement also

containing the 'researcher's stance', slipping 'from the model of reality to the reality of the model' (p.29).

Bourdieu's insistence on reflexivity – 'the objectification of the objectification' – as a necessary aspect of the research process should be remembered here. Only by looking at the practice of the researcher in the same critical and sceptical way as the practice of the object of the research can we possibly hope to understand social reality.

It is disturbing in retrospect to discover, despite the introduction of 'citizenship' (closely allied surely to values) into the curriculum, that the issue of who is the ultimate arbiter of the 'value' or 'moral code' has yet to be overtly addressed by most teachers, contributing, as will be argued later, to the ease with which methods of control over education have been achieved by governments. Only in those identified as 'exemplary teachers' in later studies was there any universal consistent challenging of their own attitudes and opinions and the source of expected '*mores*' internalized. As with the analysis in paper 13 ('Teaching values'), a comparison between findings in Ireland and the UK, the writer now feels the influence of the underlying Christian *mores* influencing those taking part was underestimated. More work on where teachers' values come from, how and whether they had changed over the period spent as teachers, with a wider age-range in the cohort chosen, would be added criteria in any repeat of this research. Menter (1989, p.470) talks of 'stasis' amongst the triads (protégé, mentor, tutor teams), in initial teacher training school experience, where nothing is allowed to interfere with successful completion of the teaching practice and all controversial topics or potential flash-points are skirted around or ignored. This was an element in some relationships across the research topics being studied in this submission; group norms were favoured over individual ones and a reluctance to 'rock the boat' was a noticeable feature.

It is heartening to note, however, that some foundation for the development of awareness in teachers' own recognition of values can be seen amongst those espousing consensus pluralism, such as personal respect, the acceptance of the idea of more than one set of values, and a realization that in the end it is the child who, as a maturing being must form

their own set of values through 'moral' reasoning. It is tempting to think they may be illustrating Peters's (1996) transcendental argument that ultimately individuals must seek the presuppositions that underlie their moral judgments and actions; that standards and principles must be justified by relevant reasons. However the majority of teachers' fixation with the centrality of their own, often unacknowledged value systems, and the perception of its easy accessibility to all children, remains the principal issue from this research when considering the need for support in times of change, the consensus that 'values are caught, not taught'. If as claimed by Goggin (1994) a child's moral growth is developed more efficiently 'through dialogue and the use of the pupil's own experience, and perhaps most importantly, taking young people's perceptions seriously' (p.16), the failure to provide opportunities for the discussion of moral issues, whether real or simulated, within initial and in-service courses, must to some measure contribute to the situation. Evidence from papers 12 & 13 bear out the need for support to ameliorate this omission. The encouragement of critical awareness and reflective thinking about oneself, others and the situation, was voiced by some of the exemplary teachers in paper 15, leading to a challenge to think through and justify attitudes, superstitions and actions. This culminates in the application of insights towards a logical basis for rational moral decision-making necessary in empowering citizenship education schemes.

The dilemma of the teaching profession not mirroring the population in their classrooms is also a real issue where rigidity in 'rightness' prevails. Hamm (1989) amongst his definitions of what morality is and is not, introduces the notion that 'morality is doing the right thing for the right reasons' (p.140). The question here, for the writer, as far as many these teachers in this research are concerned, is from where do notions of 'right things' and 'right reasons' arise? From the evidence of papers 12 –15 it would seem principles surrounding this need to be explored. Taking the relativist line, the 'right thing' is presumably what that individual regards as reasonable. 'Rightness' or morality or whatever are personal matters based on internal principles. Tolerance here does not include the need to be intolerant of those who say there are no standards or principles. To challenge these latent perceptions amongst the body of teachers, typified by papers 12 to 14, would go some way towards drawing from them and their own experience the

essence of the content of the type of challenging discussions that should take place to support change.

There remains of course the dichotomy between the rhetoric of espoused policy and the reality of actions taken, illustrated within this research through the differing forms of data gathering used. An instance of this being the principles espoused towards values education stated in questionnaires and the subsequent actions of teachers in the classroom when observed. These too form part of the basis for the need to challenge former and current practice in teacher education. This is equally the case for all personnel working in an educational setting including HEIs. If Lipman's (1991) model of a class as a community of enquiry is to become a reality, a basic constituent of the Learning Communities the writer sees as pre-shadowed by the activities researched in this submission, the change is needed. From the data gathered by the present writer Learning Communities are a tool and a consequence of the need to provide support in times of change.

In talking about the approaches used within these classrooms, the situation changed with the introduction of league tables and SATS, leading to pressures on time because of curriculum requirements, that even with the introduction of 'citizenship education' into the equation curtails the possibilities of cross-curricular work or the spontaneous addressing of issues arising naturally during the day. However later research upheld the view, given in paper 12, that much teaching and learning (although not necessarily of the overt points being made) happens through the 'hidden curriculum'. This places much emphasis, as in this paper, on the potential for the teacher to dominate. It underlines the need for the teacher to be aware of and allow or present the airing of a range of views. At the very least to be aware that what they espouse may be biased and not readily accessible to all, or even any, members of their class. We should perhaps use the word 'audience' here, given the increasing numbers of other adults working alongside the teacher in the classroom, another change requiring support, although as was seen in the mentoring context they themselves are a source of support.

The emphasis on behavioural control as a major part of the way teachers attempt to form values in their pupils, flagged by this values research, shows another requirement for support brought about by change. In this case it is the changing attitudes to teachers and authority in general. The withdrawal through legislation of a variety of sanctions formerly available to teachers, itself an example of change, serving as an added reminder of the societal context in which all these actions must take place. Respect, going beyond inculcation of values, (leaving aside whose those values might be) is recognized by some of these teachers as being part of the whole ethos of relationships they are attempting to build up in their classrooms. This was one aspect arising from interviews during this research project that was taken as a major focus in the later research, represented in this submission by Papers 14 and 15 ('Whose knowledge'; 'Exemplary teachers') it furnishes for the writer an example of continuity and development as a consequence of challenge and experience, a practical example of critical awareness discussed above.

The research enabled the writer to identify some of the pressures that change had put on these teachers, identify with them, and from the anomalies, a series of generic issues arising from the relationships within classroom and school interactions, both internally and in the context in which they were placed, consider measures the initial training and in-service courses had or had failed to bring to the situation and construct hypotheses about what elements might contribute to the construction of solutions to the issues raised, including a more focused appraisal of those engaged in educating and the systems in which such activity took place. The observations also helped in hypothesizing over what makes a teacher 'exemplary'. Collinson (1999) makes the case that excellent teachers are recognizable, quoting Dewey (1929), Ellett, Loup, Evans, & Chauvin (1992), Jackson, (1968/1990), and *What teachers should know* (1994) as evidence, capping this with Cross (1987) who points out, 'The myth that we cannot tell an excellent teacher from a mediocre or poor teacher is as pernicious as it is false' (p. 501). Collinson goes on to voice what for us all is the dilemma, 'what is more difficult to understand is what makes excellent teachers recognizable'. She then describes a study with US secondary teachers that replicates findings analysed in papers 13 and 14, which she gives as instances from without the United States. She also cites analysis in paper 12 as an example of the

emphasis such teachers put on ‘ the importance of disposition and values in teaching and learning’ (1999, p. 8).

‘Teaching Values’ (paper 13) uses the data collected by my Irish colleague acknowledged in the publication and takes a bilateral stance looking at two countries that in theory share similar values in some aspects of society having a partly shared, if troubled, history. Particular note was taken (as stated within the paper), of principles underlying teachers’ attitudes and the overt and covert influences upon these. All tied in with how they react in the classroom to support or refute these claimed principles and the effect this has in turn on children’s educational experiences. The emphasis is on primary levels and the piece was written for an audience of teacher educators with a view to identifying support mechanisms needed by them to carry through actions supporting their espoused principles whilst attaining the objective of improving their teaching and the children’s learning.

In re-considering the cohort of teachers involved, the question of whether more significance should have been attached to the fact that the majority was at the time engaged in further study at an HEI poses itself. It is likely that, given the inter-active nature of the courses in which the participants were involved, more encouragement to and more opportunity for reflection were available to them than to a solely classroom-oriented teacher. A possible enhancement of the data on which conclusions were reached will be returned to in due course. A further striking point is the gender bias. That was not deliberate, but reflected the general distribution of sexes of teachers in the age-group being taught as well as the fact that CPD cohorts were dominated by female teachers to an even greater extent than the imbalance found within schools. This however may only be a reflection of the generally higher promoted levels of males in primary schools in both countries and although a side issue to this paper, does give a pointer to the support needed by female teachers in aspiring to and achieving the highest posts in the schools. It also raises the interesting question as to whether this illustrates a realization of the need to seek support to meet changed expectations by female teachers or a pragmatic acceptance of the fact they have to have some added value over their male counterparts in

order to be selected for promotion. In either case there are lessons for those both initiating change and seeking to support it.

The preponderance of female-generated data does however leave the dilemma of whether the findings too are gender specific and what if any connotations this might have. A possible answer would be to contrast the findings here with another cohort where both sexes are distributed more evenly, a difficult goal in primary schools and likely to raise other anomalies such as age and position. As the majority of primary schools are staffed by women, a conclusion could be that reality is more closely represented here.

The context is important, since it is bilateral and looking for the possibility of similarities of influence from similar socialization by the prevalent society. There are similarities in the classroom situations, like the teaching of religion (doctrinal in one; not, except in special circumstances, in the other) and both sets of teachers have Religious Knowledge as a basis for values. However there has been change in the communities, though on different levels of time and scale, these changes in society, wrought from within and by the influences of incomers and global change, have impacted upon the teachers of both countries and they are aware of new expectations and demands, societal, economic and in accepted values. Posch (1994) found these social and economic changes pivotal reasons for making changes in both curriculum and ways of teaching. Pring (1987) had been quick to point out the impact of the changing values and ethical standards and consequent implications for us all.

Cultural change, particularly in relation to values and attitudes are putting pressures on schools and teachers leading to the need for support, manifest particularly for helping teachers in the keeping of discipline in the classroom and fostering working attitudes in their young pupils. Posch would suggest one way of supporting this would be to change the curriculum from what he terms 'a culture of predefined demands' to a more open, negotiated stance based on discussion.

This investigation illustrated further the pressures on teachers and types of support needed because of

- a) differing responses shown by teachers to curriculum change and
- b) a rift between teacher's educational principles and requirements made of them by the prevailing authorities.

This led to covert action and tension between school staffs; between managers and classroom teachers, and with, in the UK, the increasing power of governing bodies' influence over the day to day running of the schools, affecting the balance of power between the head and governors. The situation had been and still is, to an extent, different in Ireland in that most schools are affiliated to a religious body and in the past many heads were themselves members of a religious order. If anything, this power is diminishing, but to be replaced by parental expectations governed, as in England, by the all-important results of age-staged examinations.

Along with the general trend in society as a whole, parents do see themselves as 'consumers' and therefore demanding a set of ever more comprehensive 'rights'. This is more prevalent, however, in Ireland in the secondary sector rather than from the age of 7 as in English Schools. It must also be noted that there has in turn been a recent increase in teachers' confidence and they have become less willing to be 'done unto'; although as yet this has had little effect on the balance of power in England, it is true to say that the teacher associations in Ireland have always had a more powerful influence and the rate of change in expectations and activities is more susceptible to their wishes. It is interesting to note that the inclusion of Citizenship Education into the curriculum of both countries, flagged up here, has done little visible to redress the balance between different interest groups whom the schools serve (findings from the East-West study). This however may be at least partially due to outside, global happenings, such as the expansion of Europe, as suggested in paper 13, and 9/11, unimaginable at the time, that have still to work their way through. It may also have something to do with the historical concentration on measuring and prizing a limited form of ability, as in other areas of the curriculum, Gardner's (1993) theory of multiple intelligence, throws into relief the narrowness of the traditional curriculum with an emphasis on knowledge and facts rather than feelings development. This is equally true in Ireland and the UK, and as will be seen in papers

16-18, in Europe generally. Teachers need a more encompassing, varied grasp of what is to be valued if they are to seek ability and talent in all pupils. A deeper awareness of their own values and the support and encouragement to develop these throughout their career is one way of assisting with desired change.

In concentrating on two overarching principles – democratic values/moral values – the paper teases out nuances of difference (p120/121). The ‘inextricably linked’ religion-grounded and humanitarian values led to a perceived need to be aware of others, to tolerance in Ireland, whereas in England there were fewer clues as to their basis. They too rated highly individual responsibility, but teachers saw a need for ‘guidance’, taking us full circle back to teachers’ own beliefs and attitudes, which many are unwilling to state categorically and also not aware of where they came from or of their influences on how they behave with and to and from expectations of the children. Hamm’s (1989, p.134-135) exposition of fundamental principles (justice; freedom; beneficence; non-malificence; truthfulness) and the derived principles evolving from them, whilst on the surface would seem to count as relevant reasons to lead to some common shared moral principles for these bands of teachers, appear to need a further airing within teacher education practice. Haydon (1997) in his expositions of ‘moral values’ as expounded by the then Secretary of State for Education, Chris Patten, warns of the difficulties caused when some ‘values do not sit comfortably together’ (p.12). Given the generalized use of such words as those in Hamm’s list, even were there to be no conflict between the ‘individual’ and ‘social’ values of people, which there clearly are, then use of language and variation in definition alone would contribute to teachers’ dilemmas.

In considering once again the data produced by the research, it seems a more sceptical attitude should have been adopted towards the seeming unimportant status given to religion. There is a problem with the definition of beliefs and the interpretation of the way in which language is being used; Bourdieu’s point about the researcher’s contribution to this interpretation, referred to in the context of objectivity above, is also salient here. There remains a dilemma over the ‘seeming consensus’ (p120), particularly how this is reached, and the underlying question of ‘where have the moral values come

from' is not and perhaps can never be satisfactorily answered. Purpel's (1998, pp.204-5)'state of uncertainty' referred to elsewhere may be an acceptable explanation here, but not the state of unknowing of what those values are or the effect they have on all transactions. Bourdieu on the other hand would argue that decisions take one of three forms, where they reflect the 'habitus' anyway, or are an option that is part of the habitus, or are an illusion since the principles of operation are derived from the habitus. The writer believes this is underestimating the worldliness of many actors. Jenkins (1992), in a critique of Bourdieu's model feels that this is '...perhaps the most crucial weakness...his inability to cope with subjectivity' (p. 97), and whilst agreeing with Bourdieu that the social background of the actor has the largest influence on actions and behaviour, particularly in times of stress or pressure, enough evidence of teachers acting against 'conditioning' can be seen to refute the extreme position. However, this has importance also for the professional standing of teachers and the status of education as an autonomous force not subject to undue pressures from succeeding legislators. The side-stepping of controversial areas, although understandable given the circumstances found, is perhaps an area in which intervention in both initial and in-service work, would be timely and apposite, perhaps merely by engendering controversy.

The responses furnished striking examples of how teachers are happier with 'practice' than the philosophical reasoning for themselves about values. In both formal and informal strategies, by which both sets of practitioners approached values education, there was evidence to support the proposal that one reaction to change on the teacher's part is to revert to 'doing', to action rather than philosophical thought. The guidance by example, by the use of the spoken word, teaching methods chosen and materials selected, all with hindsight accentuate the 'control' aspects of interactions between teachers and pupils in the classroom. Even when the function is supportive the contention could be made that the support is rarely unconditional, but has a specific purpose with an end, or a plurality of outcomes in mind. Restricting this to the values domain, this appears to give added force to the 'value laden' nature of educational transactions and to the view of schooling *per se* as a form of indoctrination 'much of traditional schooling is indoctrinatory, and we must face up to this' (Hare, 1976, p.25).

A salient question is are these Irish and English primary school teachers themselves products of indoctrination likely to be able to break out of their own 'values' in their dealings with children? Is this more or less likely to happen when those children largely share that background or where there are subtle or indeed increasingly large discrepancies in the mutual understanding of what that background consists of? Is an inevitable outcome the latest 'values' flash point with the French schooling system, the attempt to standardize as 'French' resulting in the banning of articles demonstrating religious adherence, most controversially given the present climate, the wearing of the *hijab*. Or, on a more mundane level, the ethics of removing a child from school for family holidays during term time, the subject of current legislation in the UK. How can headteachers, in this case, be supported through the inevitable breakdown in relations with parents that the imposition of a fine will bring? Where is the 'respect' here? Sadly, although the data from this research project does illustrate how teachers in both countries endeavour to inculcate, to some extent successfully, 'values'; leaving aside what constitutes those values; the underlying basic questions are governed not by the players themselves, but by society, or rather the current arbiters of power in that society at a given time.

From the results of this research, strategies outlined in this paper were seen to be of use in education. Similarly the suggestions as to how CPDE and ITT providers might go about providing support, including what teachers should be given the opportunity to acquire as a base-line, were supported. However, as Tomlinson (1993) has commented, the introduction of these education measures and consequent changes, are measures of the relative influence of the various groups involved (as argued elsewhere in this submission). Power or rather the balance of it between different interest groups and shifts within ascendancy mean the limitations of matching support to the challenge need to be realised. This has in all probability always been the case. Sarason (1990) outlines the failure of successive reformers to acknowledge that previous attempts at reform have not been successful; he too sees built-in failure, it is in the intensity the of increased rate of change and subsequent lagging behind that the present crisis lies.

Paper 14 ('Whose knowledge'), although engendered by the research already described, approaches the issues from a more philosophical standpoint, brings in other research and puts the concerns firmly into the international arena. It includes comparison with findings from the seminal values education movement in the United States. Although some of the data used formed part of the larger research project, this is wholly my work, being the only developed comparison arising subsequently. The co-operation with colleagues in Europe had begun many years before and involvement in comparative education in the field of research is also illustrated in this submission particularly in papers 16, 17, 18, ('Innovative strategies'; 'Partnership'; 'Green Paper'). It illustrates the writer's conviction about the central importance of the teachers' own knowledge about themselves in all their actions. The cross-country nature of the demands being placed on teachers is illustrated here, reflecting the general growth in media and other pressures at the time, that have been significantly increased since 9/11 *inter alia*.

The open debate referred to above mirrors the disagreement in society about the extent to which schools contribute to the general 'decline'. That schools, and therefore their teachers, should play a part in its alleviation is however one point on which all agree. The paper points up the role of schools and teachers as *in loco parentis*, having been drawn into the collapse of the traditional arbiters of values. It also identifies gaps in the teachers' knowledge of themselves and the scarcity of evidence about what teachers actually say they believe and do about it in their classrooms. It highlights several issues:

- 1) what principles, claimed or in action, are involved
- 2) value laden/value free debate (as claimed earlier in this submission and borne out by Lawton's statement - 'education cannot be value-free' (p.13)
- 3) actions taken
- 4) reluctance of teachers to express firm views – at variance with all the 'knowledge' being theirs

The reliability of any evidence based purely on questionnaire response is called into question by the greater nuances that could be explored through the triangulation methods used to obtain the data for this analysis. The then government's acceptance of the way

that the promotion of value alters the nature of teachers' work demonstrated here underlines, in the writer's opinion, the importance of the individual teacher's values. The government of necessity would have its own aims, backed up with philosophy bringing a political dimension to the debate. This dimension and how it has affected education is demonstrated through the: imposition of curricula for schools and teacher education; changes called for in methods of teaching and learning; the control imposed over timetabling of the working day; the accounting of some subject areas as more valuable than others; professional competency being governed through imposed 'standards'; career progression predicated not only on merit but also the obtaining of the requisite pieces of paper etc. all having an underlying motive and a controlling affect.

More immediately it brings up the whole question of what schools are for. What do the government or indeed some teachers, particularly those under pressure (e.g. beginning teachers, under-confident practitioners, head teachers), regard as being 'worthy' or 'not worthy' values? The particular government's principal objectives for education determine what it valued, and perhaps more importantly, for teachers like those in this study, what the teachers interpret it as being. The finding of 'fulfilment', in contrast (say) to the reproduction of social relation – that currently espoused in government policy, may or may not call for the same or broadly similar 'values' on the part of the teacher. This may explain some of the discrepancies noted across the values projects in this submission. The lip service at least to the notions of 'inclusivity' or 'one nation', a stance that has become more marked with the shift to fundamentalism on all sides, emerges in these teachers' rhetoric but not universally in their actions. The search for 'equality' of treatment in the provision of type of school by various communities, was at the time a source of conflict, resulting in the interim in the foundation of more, and separate, 'faith schools'.

As 'Whose knowledge' states, differences in the values system of the teacher and the systems of their pupils do exist, given the still overwhelmingly white, middle-class make-up of the teaching profession. Added to this with, until lately, poor recruitment and a greater percentage of mature-entrants into teaching, an increasingly middle-aged teaching

profession is dealing with parents largely of a generation younger than themselves.

These parents subsequently have differently formed sets of values, even where they come from the same cultural background. When the increasingly centralized and 'spun' nature of educational directives and expectation of societal *mores* added by a change in political regime is taken into account, there would be little surprise if teachers were relying even more firmly on their own 'safe' (to them) knowledge. This makes the proposition that this knowledge is central in their influence in the classroom, a factor to be stressed even more strongly than it is in this paper. Haydon's (1996, p.4) statement holds true, '...the educators may themselves need education'.

My second point about the accessibility of this knowledge to the pupils they were teaching remains a salient one. The assumption that all, whatever their personal or social history, have equal access to this, the teachers' value knowledge, even in the more homogeneous societies under review, reveals the depth of the teachers' unawareness. These 'learned beliefs' (*cf* Bourdieu's 'habitus': Schiebe, 1970, p.42)) were recognizable in their influence across all the countries, even when the particular diet of 'values' was not the same. This attitude over the centrality and reproduction of their own beliefs was also in conflict with another of the teachers' stated principles, that of respect for others' views. This illustrates perhaps another case of the 'socially correct' answers referred to above, being gleanable from questionnaire answers but not confirmed by personal actions or even, as in this case, by responses to other requests for held values given elsewhere. Where responses could be more closely identified as arising out of a close connection between religion and the prevailing society, as in Israel and Ireland, aspects of religious monopolism, moral universalism and nationalism dominated. Solidarity against a common threat, current in Israel, historical in Ireland, added to this effect for this minority of teachers.

In opposition to Hamm's (1989) claim that 'only one small subset of values are moral values' (p. 129), these individuals would seem to have missed what he regards as one of the very first steps in developing a personal understanding of the nature of values education that '...is to sort out the kind of values there are and spot within the broad

spectrum that area of values which is the legitimate domain of moral education.’ This implies those values attached to teachers’ personal lives may not necessarily be applicable to the broader field of values education within schools or indeed any given society, a stance taken by at least one teacher quoted in paper 12. Whilst it is tempting to surmise that these particular teachers may not take or follow this view, lack of continuity between what is espoused in theory and delivered in practice raises the case that this may be so in other seemingly less intensely opinionated persons as well. We are left wondering with Weinreich-Haste (1987) whether the goal of values education is to enable individuals to make independent judgments or to encourage conformity assuming ‘...that development and education result in proper knowledge of social norms’ (p. 57).

This paper also shows the way in which changes in curriculum have been brought about by changes in cultural values. Some of these, as in the UK, arise from the ever evolving accommodations required in a mature democracy, more intense in a two party system than in continental Europe where coalitions are the norm. Others have arisen as a direct *volte-face* in response to a complete change in political system as in the ex-dictatorships of both extremes. This reversion to nationalism and the subsequent demands made in the area of values allows the analyst to make the hypothesis that more closely defined views on what values should be and therefore what the teacher transmits are found in these circumstances. It is a variation perhaps of the growth of solidarity seen as necessary against a common perceived ‘threat’ as in Israel, but in this case looking to the past rather than the future. All however result in changes in the demands and expectations made of the teacher and generate a continuing and changing need for support mechanisms.

It will be interesting to see how in the future the changes wrought by 9/11 and subsequent actions are translated into new expectations of the school and teachers’ role in supporting society. The position prevalent in these countries at the time this research was conducted shows what is thought of as ‘right’ values to have across Europe being very dependent on the action of the state, often in reaction to previous parties or regimes but firmly limited to the ascendant power. Teachers, if we follow the reasoning of Bourdieu (1977), see themselves as part of an ‘entity’ which inevitably has theories about the world and their

place in it. The answers they give to researchers based on their models of how they would like things to be, of acceptable values, are likely to be drawn from this 'received view' or official version. They arise from learned behaviour and may not result from theoretical or cognitive action at all; they represent doing as much as knowing. This helps to create the interesting disjunction seen in these research projects, between what people say and do. How do we explain that resulting behaviour if it is not by their 'cultural' knowledge being shown in 'official' public discourse?

Three of the important 'thinking tools' in Bourdieu's model of social interaction are the concepts of practice, habitus (the source of objective practices and at the same time a set of subjective generative principles produced by the interactions of the actor with the 'field' or milieu in which they are immersed), and field; all behaviour (practice) happens, he contends, in space and time but also occupies and is affected by space and time. All are social constructs practice happens, not consciously or at least wholly consciously organized by the individual. It happens but doesn't 'just' happen. Practice, he maintains, cannot be understood outside time/space, it is not random or purely accidental and has as its centre a 'feel for the game' in which the actor uses 'practical sense' or 'practical logic' 'the practical mastery of the logic or the imminent necessity of a game – a mastery acquired by experience of the game, and one which works outside conscious control and discourse (in the way that, for instance, bodily techniques of the body do' (1977, p. 47). All actions therefore undertaken by people living in a society are affected and conditioned by their interface with that society whether they, the actors, are aware of this or not. Their 'habitus' to use Bourdieu's term, and the early-learned lessons from it are enduring. The educators' lack of awareness of this also explains the way in which successive dominant authorities have been able to have teachers believe they are principally responsible for the shortcomings in society. Furthermore they have been able to persuade them to embrace strategies to alleviate the dominant power's perceived 'failures' as their own, and to introduce measures which may be detrimental to them personally and at odds with other parts of their 'individual' as opposed to their 'social' habitus. We the educators may think we have a choice, but fail to appreciate we do not control the principles of those choices.

The teachers' reluctance to express firm views (although stating that their views are central to the knowledge and accessible to all pupils equally) raises a common dilemma, that of objectivity and subjectivity. Bourdieu (1997b) in his attempt to construct a 'theoretical' model of social practice sees people's views as being the 'subjective expectation of objective probability' and stresses the importance of the priority of the relationship between theory and method '...or as the product of an unconscious regulating by a mysterious cerebral and/or social mechanism, is to slip from the model to the reality of the model' (p. 29).

Looking at an area of consensus across the countries in this research, that of tolerance, particularly of extreme positions, whilst still agreeing with West's (1993, p.7) views, it strikes the writer that no questions are raised of the instance where politics and public (albeit the dominant section) are 'one': does this suggest the generality of the public are always ahead of or behind political thought? This, at least immediately after a regime change, whether democratically effected or not, is patently not the case. The evidence of data and consequent discussion with colleagues who had collected the findings, suggests that in Slovenia at least, the government and teachers shared the same list with the same priority of values. However, it does still leave the dilemma that if the teacher's knowledge of the content and source of their values is largely unknown to them, how does it tie in with the expectations that are being put upon them, how is a change of attitude effected and how policed as happening in the classroom?

A way of dealing with the question of teachers expressing strongly their own opinion, on the few occasions we found that to be the case, is given in the paper, in the form of guidance from ILEA. However, this does not marry well with Bourdieu's (1997a) contention that the habitus is '...objectively adjusted to the particular conditions in which it is constituted' (p.54), making provision of an overview less likely, and who is to measure 'weight'?

Little attention has been given to non-verbal signals (as remarked upon in Paper 12), or even more fundamentally to tone and context in which even the most 'right' or 'neutral' statements can be couched to give nuance to their meaning. One voice, with hindsight, is missing from this equation as presented here, other than in the passive sense, that is the recipient of this activity, the pupil. An interesting addition would have been to explore children's responses to one piece of value education activity, both overt and covert, across and between countries to see to what extent their perceptions tallied with those of the teachers or researchers.

Indoctrination was raised directly by some of these teachers: more should have been done to challenge the teachers about the opportunities for unknowing or unacknowledged indoctrination that may be going on. There appear to be very little questioning of the *mores* of society on the part of the teachers, which well illustrates Hare's (1976; p.25) point about 'motes' in own eyes, a further instance of the value laden nature of education and all its activities as a whole. On mature reflection Robb (1996, p.6) appears to take a somewhat cosy and naïve view that what teachers actually deliver through values education is doctrine free; or perhaps he is rather stating an ideal. Taken at face value it misses the point of the value-laden nature of all education and influence of society on all its members. In looking at what teachers were seen to do, an illustration of this would be that in claiming as a method of facilitating children's learning through discussion and debate, it is actually the teacher who directs and does most of the talking, or at best closely controls the register of what is allowed to be said.

The conforming nature of schools and teachers drawn out from evidence in this research project appears universal at least in this context (see also Neave, 1987, 1992; Sander *et al*, 1999; Goodlad, 1984). A more varied and challenging stance, not seen here, was however in evidence in another of the research projects contributing to this submission. However, this studied not a cross section of all teachers but those identified as 'exemplary'. It is from the actions of these teachers that some idea of the type of qualities, needed in greater abundance by all teachers facing change, can be gathered and the supporting strategies to achieve this built (see Paper 15, 'Exemplary teachers').

Costello's (1996, p.3) three categories of values re indoctrination outlined in this paper tie in closely with the notion of 'respect' also met in Paper 15.

'Exemplary teachers' further illustrates consequences of change on the teacher's role and well-being, as highly tied up with societal roles. These include the fragility of their status, not at the time equally true in all the countries illustrated, but sadly now so after a change of emphasis in both Portugal and Germany. This also reveals a distrust of authority and the mistrust of the personal efficacy of the individual teacher.

As the main influence on children's values was seen (Cremin, 1976, p.36) and continues to be seen by these teachers as families and peer groups, then not only teachers, but also the wider community need support in dealing with change. Learning Communities, one of the *leitmotifs* of the writer's prescription for support, will be discussed below; for the moment, while indoctrination is still in the mind, it could be argued that Learning Communities as well as providing mechanisms for support and development, could also be seen, given the right circumstance, as a strong arm in presenting and achieving the State's desired outcomes. Individuals could veer to the collective consensus to achieve communal harmony rather than risk dissension shattering the group cohesiveness. This aspect of group dynamics and dominance will itself form a subject where support is needed. The paper concludes with a message for teacher educators. This takes into account the lessons learnt from the seminal research literature, in particular the reassuring (in the light of this research project's findings) statement by Purpel (1997) that uncertainty is the state to be in. Tension is seen as positive. There is certainly tension between the stated principles of these teachers under investigation, their lack of knowledge about themselves, the effect of values education being predicated on their values; their unwillingness to commit, their certainty about accessibility of their values to children, questions of indoctrination and power and their dissatisfaction with the training and support they had then received.

It is interesting at this juncture to look at the extent to which the types of support through INSET and ITT referred to in this paper have been introduced or further developed. In

the UK the provision of Teacher Net, measures under EiC (Excellence in Cities) like training for Learning Mentors, curriculum support for Specialist Colleges, training for Heads etc. can be said to have at least addressed this need. How effective or tailored they are to meeting the perceived needs and actual requirements of the teachers is difficult to judge without further research and a greater lapse of time. Findings from the evaluation of EiC (Stephenson, 2003) would indicate that the Learning Mentors consider their support less than ideal, whilst the mentors in some of the Partnerships of the Training Schools Programme (Stephenson, 2002) found the support by way of training and on-going consultation had not resolved the additional issues and demands on them raised by the great changes that the added responsibility for the initial training of teachers had brought to their job. It is also interesting to note the low take-up of mentor training financed through the TTA (Tabberer, 2003). In the writer's opinion, based on subsequent investigation, it would be no exaggeration to claim that the issues rehearsed in this paper remain largely as they were.

'Exemplary teachers' (paper 15), in contrast to the other research projects, took a specific, pre-identified set of educators as its target group. Exemplary teachers are defined as those whose professional accomplishments and results can serve as a model for their peers. The criteria for choosing these individuals included nomination by peers, school inspectors' reports and knowledge gained through observation of previous involvement with initial teacher training students. The research was based on the premise that some teachers can be demonstrated to be 'more successful' than others. This success predicated not only on the levels of academic progress and achievement of their pupils, but also their own and the pupils' personal and affective growth as persons. This encompassed the dispositions and philosophical beliefs that underpinned the teacher's role. It places relations and reciprocal transactions between the players in the classroom at the centre of effective teaching and learning.

The paper presented here, one of a series, exploring different aspects of values, claims and seeks to demonstrate that respect forms an essential part of the ethic of care that analysis points to as a mark of exemplary teaching. The three countries were chosen as

sharing a broadly common language, similarity in cultural antecedents and in the case of the US and UK an experience of absorbing and being affected by immigrant cultures including the large Irish diaspora. They also had a body of academic literature in the field of values in education, but little in the particular aspects on which we as educational researchers saw as vital to a fundamental improvement in children's learning and an issue at the heart of policy in all the countries.

We were able to recognize consequences of Nodding's (1992: p.21) view of 'caring' as a form of support given by teachers to their pupils and to some extent to each other, this acting on other's needs, illustrating aspects of teachers using/teaching values necessary to the support of others. The knowledge of the extent to which exemplary teachers possessed, identified, used the what and how of these qualities was felt to have much to offer as a tool towards providing support in achieving improvement. The approach adopted brings to the task the added benefit of helping to redress the balance between the 'competency' approach, the favoured formula in official eyes, and the 'educational' one through showing learning too is involved. Academic achievement is implied in support alongside a seemingly affective domain as such a word as 'caring' might imply. These exemplary teachers wanting to obtain the best achievement for, and from, their pupils is one positive example of this. In a more recent study, undertaken by the writer for Léargas and the British Council, evaluating the results of an exchange programme for schools in Ireland and the UK known as the East-West programme, it was most interesting to recognize some of the same principles and strategies identified in the initial exemplary teachers project. In the East-West project teachers regarded the experience as touching all aspects of teaching and learning for the pupils and themselves. In assessing benefits they made no distinction between the academic and the affective.

Along with Mayeroff (1971), our research underlines knowing as the primary ingredient of caring, this knowledge includes knowledge of self and the awareness of the sources and effects of principles and actions rising from values not featuring strongly in the data of the multi-dimensional project. It forms the basis on which support can be built.

The absence of an ethic of care, of values, as aspects of teaching as a stated objective of formal education is well documented, even though here in the UK Dearing's review of the National Curriculum and the 1994 handbook for school inspection introduce the moral and spiritual development of pupils as a measurable commodity; the drive towards competency has been and remains the dominant thrust. Yet other findings back up the results of this research showing that there is an association between an ethic of care and good teaching. The nurturing of that ethic of care within teachers is therefore one more strategy in the supplying of support for teachers in times of change. Details of the methods used within the research project give an overview of the processes that led to the collection of data that, with later additions, contributed to the writing of papers 14 and 15 ('Whose knowledge'; 'Exemplary teachers') in this submission and to subsequent work in comparative education referred to here. The collaborative nature of the research resulted in a greater awareness of each individual contribution through the peer-review exercises undertaken when analyzing the hypotheses and conclusions in drawing the work together. The pre-project preparation and the contingent reading and debate and dialogues over the lifetime of the research added considerably to the knowledge and perspicacity of all researchers and contributed greatly to individual and shared insights into the nature of teacher behaviour and its contribution to learning.

A major contribution to educational knowledge was reached through stratifying the identified five variants of knowing. This allowed the work to go on and demonstrate how the ethic of care is a foundation for learning. The analysis illustrates the processes. These cover the ways in which the teachers make contact forming informal relationships, which were homogeneous across the countries; although topics spoken about may differ, all contribute to shared educational or social activities or targets. A particular strength of the strategy exhibited by these teachers is the use of shared assessment in inspiring and supporting pupils towards development. This is a ruse that provides a pointer to providing support for teachers in analyzing and learning from their own work in a less threatening way than that used in many of the competence-based programmes of inspection presently carried out. It is also important to note that this process was not one-

way: the pupils' responses and contributions to the debate were seen as a form of support by the teachers.

The use of dialogue and questioning as a vehicle to 'knowing' contrasts with the findings from research underlying papers 3, 5, 8, 12 and 13 ('Effective mentorship'; 'Views of the process'; 'Successful conditions'; 'A Perspective from England'; 'Teaching Values'), where talk and interactions were largely teacher initiated and dominated. Edwards & Westgate (1994, p.124-33) give further examples of the lack of true discussion and strategies teachers might employ when trying to promote it. The behaviour of these exemplary teachers provides the exception to the rule, a state that needs to become prevalent if the objectives of this study are to be met. The teachers are trying to change the way the pupils react, throughout all countries studied, both overtly and covertly, through their own example but also through the active involvement of the child's own judgment and efforts, however, as much as they might not like to give this impression, talk is still teacher led if not dominated or uni-directional. Is this in itself a failure?

If we revert to the models of mentoring in paper 10 ('Dilemma'), the suggestion here, in what in a sense is mentoring between teachers and pupils, in which 'knowledge' of all kinds is the 'profession' (reflecting perhaps Lave & Wenger, 1991), is that these teachers are operating around the master-disciple, craftsman-apprentice with touches of therapist-client models, except that in their case the 'temporary inequality' of the former is only periodically breached, on those occasions when these individuals acknowledge they are learning from their pupils. And, of course, it would only be after a considerable time lapse that a percentage of the 'disciples/apprentices' might attain the matching 'professional' status! In seeking to walk at the same pace as their 'disciple' and at least on some fronts to be non-judgmental, but clear in terms of the stage of development they seek in their pupils, these teachers are operating towards the exploring/revealing end of the continuum. In others a judgmental and controlling element must, as a facet of their role imposed by the system, be dominant.

It is a measure of the development that these teachers' ability and willingness to take into account the power of their own attitudes, beliefs and practices, in other words 'values' as we are using the word here, that the left-hand end of the continuum is clearly recognizable in their behaviour. The evidence gathered from the cross-section of teachers studied in papers 11, 12 and 13 suggests this element is not highly developed amongst the profession in general. From the work done on discrepancy of views between protégé and mentor (papers 5 and 6) it would seem, as argued there, that a similar dilemma arises, centred on power and the inability of the non-dominant member/actor ever to attain parity within the relationship. This affects discourse and subsequently the propensity towards indoctrination, or at least domination on the part of the teacher. This position is also recognizable in studies of the induction process with newly qualified teachers in schools (Kyriacou & O'Connor, 2003), indicating another level of support is necessary.

These teachers were unanimous about providing safety nets for their pupils when introducing or supporting challenges made to them or demands expected of them. They saw these as a support mechanism during change. Perhaps an element of teacher induction in learning through dialogue is a necessary part of this support. A question those seeking to support teachers in times of change could usefully ask themselves is where and by whom are the safety nets for teachers provided? They should then go on to examine the what, why, where and how that form part of the embedded argument explored with the hypotheses arising from the research covered in this submission.

Dialogue is certainly seen as a means to an end; is there a degree of tacit consent on the part of the pupils in this exercise of pushing teaching/learning further, or is it an element of the power/dominance aspect of social interactions? This is a question arising for the writer on re-visiting this data and returned to in Section 4 in the context of the larger social and political picture.

Support in informal gatherings seen as so productive by teachers in forming a rounded relationship with pupils and providing a situation in which both the academic and

affective considerations can be developed and reinforced, produces echoes of ‘bonding’ or ‘corporate team building’ found in other forms of mentorship outwith the education sector, when transferred to corollaries for support for teachers. However, there are aspects of the wider mentoring relationship within such a practice. Shared endeavour and common goals and challenges, even threats, would bring such activities both in relation to pupils and to teachers in a correspondence to models aired in papers 1–10.

The ‘measuring’ nature of accountability now prevalent in education in the UK sits most uncomfortably with the reluctance, shown in this data, to attach labels before acquiring knowledge. Whilst previously, and to a greater extent still in Ireland and much of the USA, it was possible to reserve judgment on pupils until personal knowledge had been gained, the need to show demonstrable progress through testing now makes this less likely. This is so even where teachers recognize the dangers in allowing snap judgments to affect their likely attitudes and behaviour towards individual pupils. The loss of the opportunity given to pupil or teacher to prove themselves, the luxury of being taken at face-value until proved otherwise is one of the most significant contributions to loss of self-esteem for both teachers and taught under the aegis of a ‘blame’ society.

In three kinds of relationships (teacher–student; student–student; student–teacher), that the teachers talked about in establishing a basis for knowing in their classrooms and school, it soon became apparent when analyzing the data that respect was the fulcrum on which relationships turned. This turned out to be an interwoven set of principles that touched all transactions, verbal and otherwise between teacher and pupil, pupil and pupil and pupil and teacher. There were examples across the board. The subject matter being dealt with did not appear to influence strategies used or outcomes thought of as important. Respect was multi-directional and afforded as much benefit to the teachers as it did to the pupils, both in the senses of learning, whether about a subject, academic skills, achievement, etc., and in the affective sense of knowledge about oneself and others, attitudes, beliefs and societal *mores*. It could be argued that teachers locate change for pupils as a result of their own interpretation of the changes/demands put on

them and also for more personal less functional reasons arising out of their own values/attitudes etc.

Whatever claims can be made and demonstrated for the formation and efficacy of mutual respect within this educational framework, it must be acknowledged that there remains an inherently unequal power relationship here. The teachers still have the upper hand, even though the pupils have the power to make parts of their daily life uncomfortable and in the extreme could affect the outcome of the teacher's future career; the teacher's greater access to sanctions and keys to recognition of attainment and compliance carry more ultimate weight. Formerly his/her position as 'keeper' of subject knowledge would have added to this supremacy. Although this still pertains to some extent, the development of electronic learning, internet access, open information on the web, etc., has eroded and will continue to erode this position, although conversely the position of 'mentor' as guide and interpreter, as part of the teacher's role, may be enhanced. So here, although the teacher is using respect as a means of support, power balances have a bearing, as they do, in the writer's contention, within support mechanisms set up for teachers by others who are reacting to their own perception of needs arising from change.

These teachers demonstrated awareness of the potential barriers that could be raised. Their strategies for lessening the impact could be transferred to the issue of providing support for teachers, say by HEIs or LEAs. The creation of comfort zones, the sharing of personal anecdotes, the valuing of contributions, upholding self-worth i.e. respect in front of others, the recognition and admission of mistakes on the part of the 'power holder' are all used as building blocks towards respect and ultimately knowledge, in the sense of the word used in within this paper. Have these sets of relationships something to show us? One reaction could be yes, they echo sociological and psychological examples for building confidence and trust and cohesiveness and as such are transferable to any given situation involving human relationships. This is, in the writer's opinion, sufficiently well documented through research and example to be accepted as the case (Nias *et al*, 1989). However this is not without reservations and caveats, to which there is presently no certain refutation. All the teachers' stratagems had lines of demarcation, the hierarchy,

even if a benign one, was maintained as it was, both in the writer's experience and in teachers' perceptions in CPD projects with HEIs and LEAs (see Stephenson, 2002), or indeed in Government initiatives such as Teacher Net (Stephenson, 2001) at least in the perception of the teachers.

These concessions could also be interpreted as a ploy in the power battle, to disarm dissent and as subtle means of control not only by outside bodies but also in dealings, teacher to teacher, within schools.

Pupil support for each other is recognized as an integral part of developing relationships within a classroom, as is the element of student support for teachers and both as a positive adjunct to the respect being fostered. As has been demonstrated by the research on mentoring and as will be seen in papers below and in the commentary on Training Schools, similar actions between teachers were an important part of existing support mechanisms for teachers in times of change. The writer sees this mutual means of development between the players in the education process as a major area for development in the creation of a support network for times of change, as will be discussed in the concluding section of this submission.

All these components are integral parts of an ethic of care, which includes standards and expectations, academic and social, the levels of support needed to reach and maintain 'the best' for their pupils that these teachers see as their goal. This encompasses a comprehensive understanding of needs and differences, of space, both physical and in time, of a knowledge of self, including attitudes and beliefs, and a realization of the interactive nature of the effects of what all players bring to the ultimate outcomes. Much the same qualities are needed in dealing with change. In confirming Mayeroff's (1971) ingredients of care it also adds respect as a vital aspect.

This research shows the importance of the inclusion an ethic of care in reforms leading to increased teacher competence, as a motivation for competence, and its focal position in any framework of support envisaged as meeting the needs of those involved in change.

3.3 *Support in an International Context*

Issues and qualities found and discussed in the research projects in mentoring and values pointed inexorably back towards the starting point of this present selection of my research interests, that of Partnership, but in an altered and enhanced view of this condition which forms the basis of Paper 16 ('Innovative strategies'). Written for a special edition of the Thematic Network for Teacher Education in Europe (TNTEE) *Journal*, it uses data from previous and then current research and an analysis of comparative education that the writer undertook. It looks not only at the types and practices of Partnership, but also at the ethos behind them and the changes, difficulties and challenges they pose for those involved. Most emphasis is placed on co-operative associations between those involved in the training of teachers, the most universal Partnership across the countries studied. The benefits derived by those taking part are considered and all are set within a social framework. In setting the comparisons in the philosophy and formats of teacher training, commonalities and underlying reasons for certain behaviours and their consequences can be considered.

The common need to have a recognized body of people socially accepted as being of sufficient intellectual capacity to be entrusted with the transmission of the knowledge and ethics most valued by that society is a unifying factor. Within that tradition, however, seeds of difference covering attitudes to knowledge, social standing and reward can be immediately identified. The variation in course content and length, entry requirements, emphasis according to ultimate school to be taught in, etc., level at which the initial or in-service training takes place not necessarily in the university sector, serve as an obvious reminder that what on the surface appears to be similar hides variations. These differences will be manifest in expectations, value placed, support supplied and consequently outcomes of a process that ostensibly had the same objective. This is the goal of increasing personal satisfaction through knowledge and fitting the succeeding generations of populace to play their part in society.

Of the variety of Partnerships logged, it is that which involves a widened role for teachers in schools and how they are prepared and supported through this, that furnishes the material for analysis. From this are developed the recommendations to improve the support given through Partnerships. However, this cannot be held in isolation from either the standing of education, schools and the individual teacher in the country to which they belong, nor the content and effect of the training they received. To become a good craftsman in any field a firm knowledge and empathy for the materials worked with are necessary. A teacher called upon to take a major role in preparing new teachers or mentoring the development of practising teachers is likely to need additional skills to those required for the role of teaching children. Many may be generic in principle, but are likely to be specific in particular. It does not necessarily follow that a good teacher of children can provide the insights and support needed by a student teacher or for inducting newcomers to a school, that the ability to 'do' is no guarantee (Polyani, 1958). Therefore it was felt to be advantageous to look at the training given to teachers across the countries, before considering the demands placed by mentoring or inducting student- or beginning teachers into the profession.

It is in dealing with student teachers as part of the practical phase during training that the most common Partnership function across the institutions is found and where the greatest demands are made. Here too there are different registers of expectation and role amongst the examples discussed here. These cover not only the philosophy of the exercise and the practical management of the period but also the degree of responsibility, answerability and status of the people taking part. As in discussions on mentoring, the degree to which there is equality amongst the various players in the undertaking, the interchangeability of roles, the attitudes to who is learning and the perception of the power axis, all contribute to what actually takes place and to possible stresses, positive and otherwise, that lead to change. For the purposes of this journal it was also the place teacher educators could identify and seek to create support. Variations in time spent in school, the numbers of students in a class, the clarity with which the various roles were spelt out, the expectations expressed of acceptable student progress and time involvement and the

manner in which student achievement was assessed all presented potential pressure points for the Partnership and its individual members.

It is interesting to note that assessment responsibility, very varied in extent throughout the community, was raised as an issue across the board. This ranged for instance from anxiety and lack of confidence on the part of classroom teachers in the UK (for example on having the major say in assessing the student teachers' competence), to loss of self-esteem on being excluded from the decision by teachers in Austria. The type and quality of the relationships within the Partnership prove to be of crucial importance here, introducing into the equation the knowledge and trust seen in another context in Paper 15 ('Exemplary teachers'), and calling on many of the facets of the mentor's role as seen in Papers 1–10. The tensions experienced between mentors and protégés in the research underpinning Paper 6 ('When views differ'), and the qualities for successful mentoring in Papers 2, 3 and 4, are equally applicable to the dyads or more often triads found as subsections of Partnerships. The issues of communication, flexibility, transparency, efficient organization, equality, joint responsibility, resourcing, training and targeted support were raised across the countries taking part, along with time, in all its aspects. Time has been a major factor in causing pressure in all the forms of change encountered through the research studies making up this submission. These issues continue to be identifiable today (Stephenson 2002, 2003). This is particularly the case in the UK, where initial training in Training Schools gives schools the sole or at least the principal responsibility for ITT. This is a trigger of major change and the consequent need for support by teachers in schools and HEIs alike. The measures identified as helpful in forming close supportive Partnerships by this study of practice and need across Europe goes some way to addressing this. The need to expand the remit to include the wider community identified in this paper is but one instance of support for the device of Learning Communities being adopted.

Added pressure on both schools and HEIs is the growing involvement in international projects, particularly with EU but also encompassing bi-lateral and multi-lateral initiatives with other parts of the world, often former colonies, and linked to multi-

cultural work in schools. The latter most widely found in areas where immigrant populations have settled. This is both an asset for teachers and a challenge, raising the need for support at all levels. Some of this support arises from within the 'ethnic' community and often leads to an increase in community-based learning spin-offs including the population at large. This sometimes acts as a change agent on the school but also has a potential use as a means of introducing dominant group attitudes and behaviour into the incoming population. This can have both positive and negative aspects, two examples being from parallel research projects being conducted at the time this paper was written. The first was a pre-school toy-and-story club set up by a school in an inner London borough, a side result of which was introduction and improvement of English language for recently arrived young mothers; the second was concern over the values teaching in school leading to the exclusion of pupils from sex-education programmes.

'Partnership' (Paper 17), brings the focus on Partnership back into a consideration of the state of play at that time in the UK. It takes into account the nature of the work in ITT of a typical university school of education and includes some of the philosophical and educational reasons for adopting a co-operative model. The 'reflective teacher' model, along with the 'good practice' paradigms cited above, has largely been adopted across Europe. Ongoing work by the writer with former Soviet block countries suggests that this philosophy is now adopted more strongly there than it is adhered to in the UK since a more functional business-world approach to schooling has become the official line. The notion of 'good practice' is problematic, in that subjectivity plays such a role in its identification; however, within parameters of context and philosophy, identifying good potential in teachers is challenging but possible. Feiman-Nemser (1983) found that teachers as a whole particularly when under stress revert to the familiar, teaching as they were taught, astonishingly easily. Joyce & Showers (1988), writing on professional development, indicate that constant support and ongoing awareness through coaching and practice are needed to reinforce new attitudes and methods, if old habits and outlooks are not to prevail (p.43). When looking at partnership and activities to promote learning and

development across education, in many cases in under-resourced situations, a radical change in support systems is indicated.

The pertinence of these paradigms to the skills needed by a mentor is still strong, as demonstrated by the study of mentoring undertaken as part of the evaluation of the Training Schools Programme (Stephenson, 2002, Appendix 2). The writer would contend that the mixture of competencies and attributes that they themselves foreshadow could also be applied to the functioning of Partnership not only in this sense but also in the more global context of Learning Communities.

This paper ('Partnership') was designed to dovetail with other UK contributions. It highlights the changes in schools, curriculum and statutory requirements as producing major change, and describes and suggests some of the knowledge needed and activities developed in supporting them. Written for an international audience, it seeks to introduce the body of educators to facets of training vis-à-vis Partnership and practice. Like Paper 16 ('Innovative strategies'), it seeks to leave the reader with a series of points to consider, adapt and act upon in the light of their own experience and situation. Common desirables across Europe can be identified from the overlap in the two 'wish lists'.

The Green Paper (paper 18), prepared for the education section of the European Commission, was written as a culmination of all the activities and research undertaken by the Socrates funded Thematic Network measure of the EU social policy. The Network was made up of Teacher Educators in all the countries of the then European Union, together with associate members outside the Union from greater Europe and beyond. Some of these partnerships were of long standing, having grown out of previous RIF (Réseau d'Institutions de Formation [des Professeurs]) and other early initiatives. The network TNTEE (Thematic Network for Teacher Education in Europe) provided the umbrella forum, policymaking, organization and management for interest groups on all aspects and functions of Teacher Education. It comprised a series of sub-networks, each with an overarching interest in the process of teacher education and all it entails, but with

a specific focus on some part of that whole on which its members conducted observation and research. Members commonly subscribed to more than one network.

Sub-network B, of which the writer was the coordinator, took Partnership as their special study. Activities and findings, conducted through a series of projects between the members, were disseminated within the network and beyond by seminars, a dedicated web site and the setting up of a peer reviewed journal. As the culmination of the programme, a conference was held and this Green Paper produced by four members of the TNTEE Steering Committee Executive. The then current state of Teacher Education across Europe was reviewed, and factors contributing to and arising from it considered. Using the knowledge and data generated by the members of TNTEE, the four authors analyzed trends and presented possible pointers for the future. With hindsight the scope of the paper was restricted too narrowly to the field of Teacher Educators only. The analysis of the past and measures for the future were formulated exclusively for the concerns of institutes of higher education. This is unfortunate because the voice of the teacher was not missing from many of the sub-network outcomes. Actors are acknowledged but the leading roles, and the power, remain in 'academic' hands.

Each author brought to the undertaking their knowledge and experience of education within their own countries, and of countries where they had a working knowledge of the system. This was placed alongside evidence gathered by themselves and the network or networks they led. Material was pooled, electronic and face-to-face discussions and analysis took place and a refereed draft, then finally a definitive version, produced. The writer contributed material not only on the UK, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Portugal and Spain but also on eastern European systems such as (the former) East Germany, Hungary, Poland and the Czech Republic, where previous research projects had taken place. Experience of the systems in the USA, Australia and Africa also provided comparanda. Those aspects of teacher education policy and practice subsumed within Partnerships were also in the remit, together with knowledge gained from the research projects described in the previous papers.

The general conclusions and proposals for measures to be taken are a joint consensus of views put forward, discussed and modified or added to by the challenges and insight brought to bear by members of the team. The seniority of the authors within their own systems and their long-standing involvement in the international field greatly enhanced the quality of debate and learning that took place. All were contributing from a base built not only on empirical research, but also on informed familiarity with the work of others and a practical knowledge of the processes under investigation and discussion. Of particular worth were the different philosophical backgrounds the authors came from. They resulted in challenging agendas and allowed a plurality of ways of considering and doing things to be presented. This led to some conflicts on fundamental stances that did not result in full consensus. Accommodation, usually reached through the dominance of the strongest personality, was not always a feature here. In these cases the majority view was expressed or all views put forward.

Our position of progress of reform in teacher education in the UK at this juncture put us in a unique position when discussing change. The instances of change and their effects on education, schools, teachers and therefore their education and needs, were much more advanced here. Extensive measures had occurred over a period of years and the consequences of these were being experienced. The need for support and teachers' demands and reactions were documented, including by the present author. It is interesting to note that the initiatives being imposed in the UK were, to a large extent, regarded in a negative light, in much the same way as educationalists here had reacted. The charge of moving away from education to training was levelled, and a loss of autonomy recognized. Educationalists were no longer working with a school curriculum described in the 1960s by a then minister of education (David Eccles), as the teachers' 'secret garden' (Lawton, 1982, p.22).

Overseas colleagues could not believe that teachers, schools and universities had just lain back and allowed such things to be done to them. Since half the writing team were heavily influenced by the Germanic tradition of education, this is hardly surprising. There was a fear that the 'technologist' approach to 'training' might be pervasive – a

justified fear, as it turns out, since even German *Länder* are now facing fundamental change in that direction.

The paper has the usual faults of a committee-written production in being verbose, at times repetitive and expressed in ‘consensus’ English, emphasizing the generalities whilst skirting around minority particularities. No doubt this will be the case to some extent for every system dealt with; however, in the writer’s case, it is only after re-visiting the whole of the material in this submission, with an opportunity for reflection, that the anomalies become so apparent. Nevertheless issues are raised which are pertinent to the support of teachers in times of change on an international scale, based on active research and adding to the body of knowledge. After this brief look at the background to compiling this paper and the various issues addressed, some of the sections will be considered, particularly those to do with development in the light of personal research and experience.

The changes in education in Europe foreseen in this paper are premised upon the priorities put forward by the European Commission (1997) in responding to the perceived challenges on social, cultural, economic and technological fronts. As in national politics, education was identified as a vehicle for achieving these aims. The ‘Europe of Knowledge’ envisaged as the desired outcome focused attention on teachers, or rather on the ability of these teachers to deliver ideal. Starting from a deficiency perspective, the need for change becomes apparent. The paper then seeks, by identifying what the writers feel are essential conceptions of teacher education, to quantify what that change needs to be, and how this can best be brought about. It essentially takes a ‘problem solving’ stance. In identifying the requisites, it also rehearses perceived problems with past and then present practice, and it is here that the first difficulties in fitting the then UK position into the general European framework appear – not in every context but in a number of crucial ways touching the overall hypotheses of the research in this submission.

For example, in describing the static concepts within the generality of teacher education, negative points included the neglect of Continuous Professional Development. Although

the quality and breadth of this had diminished in the UK, particularly at the height of the Thatcher period, in the general run-down of public funding, the position in UK has, on the whole, always been more robust than on much of the continent. Partnerships of some degree, although not labelled as such, have existed within and between the branches of education. One example of an exception to this generalisation was Portugal, but since the acquiring of in-service merits there was closely tied in with salary enhancement, the position was different from that found in England. In the UK, particularly in the 70's and early 80's, curriculum reform and the whole active learning of 'progressive education' led to the formation and development of teachers' centres, LEA advisors, courses, and – spurred on by the Open University – a plethora of diplomas, certificates and degrees popular with serving teachers and paid for or largely subsidized by LEAs. The quality of some of these courses was dismissed, particularly by HEIs, as being of the 'tips for teachers' standard, and, it must be acknowledged, there was an element of a 'day out' in the take-up; nevertheless needs were recognized and support given. It is perhaps a measure of the hierarchical 'caste' nature of education, still present in England (if not Wales and Scotland), but more easily discernable in countries with a tradition of holding education in high esteem, that this strict separation is still seen by the colleagues writing from an HEI perspective. The nature of the teaching force within HEIs may also have a bearing, since the vast majority in the UK have considerable school teaching experience before moving into HEI teacher education, in contrast to some situations where lecturers are recruited with no or little practical experience in schools.

Looking back over this period, as initiatives introduced since 1997 have come fully on stream, or been superseded by others, the magnitude of change, as demonstrated throughout this research, is striking. The continuous nature of this change in England & Wales and the failure to make provision for support in parallel with the initiatives, has raised a major crisis within education and in particular for teachers at all levels. But it must be admitted, however reluctantly, that at least some of these changes have been as an effort to meet just those sorts of development envisaged by the EU. We might disagree with the governmental interpretation of them, however. The interconnectivity of the phases of teacher education is being addressed, if not realised, through present teacher

education policy, a striking example being that found in the activities of Training Schools (Stephenson 2002). This is not to say however that the UK has come to terms, let alone dealt, with the issues raised in supporting these changes, any more than the rest of Europe. A possible exception is Finland, whose policy, political, social and financial backing for an integrated change and support programme are as yet the one positive example of satisfactory development in this direction known to the writer. The promising beginning made in Portugal with the formation of INEFOP (National Institute for Accreditation of Teacher Education), unfortunately came to an end with a change of government.

The key issues of teacher education addressed by §1.7 of the Green Paper remain apposite to the continued development of teacher education across Europe, particularly with the admission of the new states, and all have a bearing on the rate of change arising and the provision of support needed to deal with it. They further support the contention that Learning Communities are an essential component of development towards the desired goals.

Areas of change identified included the introduction of new forms of training outside the traditional formats. In retrospect minimum competence and the combination of school based theoretical as well as practical components models in English influenced countries are too readily dismissed. In the time that has elapsed since the discussion of the content of the Green Paper took place the writer has changed opinions in the light of evidence for the potential effectiveness of school-teacher led training for beginning teachers (Stephenson, 2002). One hypothesis is that greater exposure to working in a partnership, bringing the opportunity to challenge and reflect on ideas and outcomes, the growth of applied action research in schools, the growth of relevant active in-service training (such as mentoring support), increased access to knowledge through electronic learning and the improvements in initial teacher training received over the last fifteen years have led to a body of teachers who have the professional confidence, subject knowledge and, where supported, adult learners' skills to contribute to the preparation of new entrants at both the induction and initial training levels. This is not universal, but evidence from the

Training School Programme, Excellence in Cities and OFSTED inspection reports confirm this trend. No credence is given to this in the strategies for improvement presented in this paper. The need for a cohesive induction programme is flagged up, as are CPD, the use of research data to inform practice within schools, providing powerful learning environments, skills for subject teaching as opposed to subject knowledge, and various curricular reforms. However the Institution is seen as exclusively generating and indeed 'providing' these. The biggest single reform needed, mention of which is regrettably missing from this paper, is the active inclusion of all involved in the process. This requires a recognition of power balances on the part of the traditional providers, in this case of teacher education, leading to their formulation of a new role for themselves in both the initial and ongoing training and support of the profession. This recognition is not apparent in the green paper.

3.4 Towards a theoretical Framework

Rapid developments in technology and the accelerating rate of change have made a single preparation for a lifetime career in teaching an impossibility, if it ever were achievable. This is true across the global field of Teacher Education. The additional demands being made of teachers, as shown in the papers above, and an increasing need for support is universal. In European terms education is seen as one of the most important investments that can be made (Cochinaux & de Woot, 1995; White Paper, 1995). Teacher education and support is bound up in this and indeed, as 'Moving Towards a Learning Society', asks 'How can one hope to have a high quality of basic education, if quality is not a prime objective of teacher training?' (Cochinaux & de Woot, 1995, p.101).

As long as teachers are seen as having the potential to greatly influence the beliefs, actions and *mores* of the future generations in their countries then those in positions of power will seek increasing control over education, overtly and covertly. Tomlinson (1994) sees the power struggle as demonstrated by the increased control over teacher education as a major example of this; he writes 'just as education reveals society's hopes and intentions for its young, so the spirit in which teachers are trained must be the most

sensitive litmus paper of all to indicate how much those in authority really care about the education of the people' (p.23). He goes on to identify the key ideological divide of the political situation as being between the property-based society and the person-based society, with a resulting reduction to operators, consumers and production-line raw material for the teachers (and teacher educators?), parents and pupils concerned.

This move to control can also be demonstrated by looking within educational philosophy and theory, as can some underlying reasons why the teaching profession and individual teachers act, react and find themselves in the position they are today.

In many countries there are difficulties in recruiting and retaining to the job people of the right calibre (or any calibre). Teachers and those training them to be teachers do not have an image of efficiency, although it is important not to confuse or equate efficiency with effectiveness. In many places, and England (though not Scotland, Ireland and to some extent Wales), is a prime example, the body of teachers has had to fight very strongly to gain the status of a profession. With the demise of the Soviet Union in the late eighties and early nineties and the consequences of the 'market economy' of the eighties, a new political awareness and dynamism has arisen. Most countries have made changes. Compulsory schooling (e.g. Great Britain, 1988; Portugal, 1986; Germany, 1995; Hungary, 1993; Czech Republic, 1990; Slovakia, 1994; Latvia 1991; 1996; 1997; 1998) is usually the first target. Comparisons are made and questions asked about such things as the standards reached by children in other countries, standards and quality between different schools in the same country and the effectiveness of curricula and teachers. The new demands made upon their schools and teachers are illustrated in the papers included in this submission. These include new curricula and new teaching methods, added education and pastoral responsibilities for teachers, an expectation for schools to redress the ills of society and substantially different roles in the formation of new teachers, as seen through the school-based movement in England. These often reflect changes in philosophy and/or political outlook; this was particularly apparent in, for instance, the united Germany, post-apartheid South Africa and the former soviet satellite states where a general discrediting of the previous systems took place. A common objective is the

raising of standards and increasing the relevance of what pupils learn and teachers teach. This in its turn has had an effect on the training of the next generation of teachers and the continued professional development of those already working in the education service. Teacher Education is a strong political issue (Ginsburg & Lindsay, 1995) and is seen as very important in achieving the objectives of a learning society.

Underlying this is concern about national standing is a growing complaint on the part of employers of the lack of fitness of school leavers to fulfill the needs of the labour market in both skills and attitudes. Continuing economic success or desired economic growth and rising living standards are viewed as being dependent on the performance of schools. This is particularly the case where there has been a downturn in economic growth or where older industries needing large numbers of unskilled or semi-skilled workers have been replaced by those demanding specific and new skills. Reports of international economic corporations and national plans in the various countries as, for example, in OECD, 1992; 1993; 1994; 1996; 1999; Neave, 1992; Wagner, 1993, etc., illustrate this growth. Both developed and developing countries have recognised the need for a planned educational system some time ago if these long-term objectives are to be achieved (White Paper, 1995; Farrell and Oliveira, 1992).

Added to this motive for change are subtler and more hidden ones. For some time across the developed and developing world it has been felt that 'moral' standards have been falling. There has been a breakdown of a former 'golden age' where 'agreed' values and standards of behaviour and probity could be relied upon. Increases in crime, juvenile delinquent behaviour, drug problems, poverty traps and even failure in sport have been linked with what is happening, or failing to happen, in schools. The fabric of society, or at least the status quo of the ruling elite, is threatened. Sometimes this 'elite' is the majority, posing problems for sizeable minorities, not to mention the outcast, in others an old or emerging 'new' order, who desire to retain or obtain the high ground. Habermas's (1987) pre-'post-modern' theory of differentiation will serve to describe the present position apropos teacher education. We have become a subsystem in modern society. Schools' and teachers' roles have become specialised and differentiated. Communication

and understanding between each subculture is difficult (Grossman & Stodolsky, 1995), and has meant isolation within the teaching profession. Isolation has also resulted from what Habermas calls the differentiation of lifeworld: with the increasing complexity of life and differentiation into a myriad of subsystems the 'common' view has disappeared. The lifeworld is no longer as he defines it '...as represented by a culturally transmitted and linguistically organised stock of interpretive patterns' (Habermas, 1987, p.124). This and its concomitant splintering of values are equally so in our post-modern state.

There have also been changes in modes of government, from the highly centralised to laissez faire and from the localised democratic to the more national and centralised bureaucratic and back again, plus all shades in between. This too has affected the philosophy of how education should be valued, organised and run, and also the relationship in which the 'providers' and 'consumers' stand. Certainly a commonly expressed belief on the part of some governments and sections of society is that pertaining to Habermas's third rationalisation and differentiation process – that of the uncoupling of system and lifeworld. The ascendancy of 'market force' political creeds created a situation where the motive force was no longer beliefs and values and cultural, ethical or other measures for social integration but anonymous market forces, money and heavy bureaucracy (Habermas, 1987, p.154). Where do support and the affective dimension of teachers and teaching fit into such a system?

Changed philosophies bring changed requirements for schools and have subsequent consequences for teacher education. It is in this area of activity that we as Teacher Educators are most concerned. While there appears to be a consensus about the importance of high quality teachers and the need to produce them, there are however many different opinions on what kind of role for the teacher is seen as most valuable for society. Garman (1995) identified two major trends in the direction of teaching in the United States in recent times; echoes of both can be seen in our current experiences. They illustrate perhaps the two ends of the spectrum, firstly that of teacher empowerment where teachers are seen as people who '... can transform themselves intellectually, overcome technical rationality, grow in awareness of both the overt and the hidden

curriculum and encourage reflective practice, self efficacy and self-confirmation through collective action and social transformation. Common among these scholars is the belief that teachers must acquire the knowledge, skills and power to transform the existing social order both individually and collectively' (p. 31). And secondly the 'technical rationality' spoken of in instructional leadership with an increase in such things as school-based accountability, management control over teachers, teacher evaluation and assessment and outside measures of calculating teacher performance as a means of enhancing quality. Where teachers, as they become more controlled and dependent, lose motivation, fail to explore and develop innovative actions and thoughts, pupil learning suffers and teacher are consequently afforded less status, and doubts as to their 'professionalism' arise, leading to more control. As so graphically illustrated by the current position in England and Wales, other countries, in the name of efficiency, are showing alarming symptoms of adopting something similar. Throughout the nineties several teacher education researchers challenged the direction in which the teaching profession and education were going (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Wideen, 1995; Grimmett, 1995) and a decade ago Linda Darling-Hammond (1990) was pointing out the devaluing of the word 'professionalism' when she argued that 'the "professional" teacher in common parlance is one who "does things right" rather than one who "does the right things".' The concern is that the teachers we are training may become 'specialists without spirit' and 'sensualists without heart' (Habermas, 1987, p.323).

It will be difficult to reach consensus in the post-modern world, but we must strive to be more aware of the different voices. Elliot (2000) maintains that changes such as these necessitate radical change in teaching methods and in the relationships between teachers and pupils. The writer would contend, starting from the evidence of her body of research, that these changes need to encompass all actors involved in the educative process, both formal within schools and encompassing the wider community. Educators' objectives should be to facilitate the espousal of an open creative approach to the whole range of education questions by us ourselves, the pre-service students we teach and the serving teachers in schools as part of a sharing of continuous professional development, leading out into the community.

In adapting and coping with any change, learning is a necessary process, this holds as true for teachers and others engaged in education as it does for the general populace, or indeed, children in the classroom. The efficacy of the outcomes of these philosophies can be traced within this submission.

Much of the writing of Dewey (e.g., 1899/1990, 1902/1990, 1934/1964, 1938) focused on the connection between what happens in school and the child's experience. He highlights the connection between what occurs in the classroom and the child's future ability to think independently and exercise judgment as well as contributing to society. This included the formal 'intended' learning and the peripheral learning also taking place, 'collateral learning' (attitudes) recognized by Dewey (1938) as often more lasting than academic lessons.

Dewey (1938) argued that 'all human experience is ultimately social: that it involves contact and communication' ... 'one of the most important lessons of life [is] that of mutual accommodation and adaptation' (p, 38); also that learning is easier when pupils are in 'contact and communication with others' (p.60). In the classroom, he argued, 'the acquisition of skills is not an end in itself' but that skills 'are things to put to use, and that use is their contribution to a common and shared life' (Dewey, 1934/64, p.11). 'If subject matter is not translated into life-terms...the material [is] purely formal and symbolic ...It is dead and barren' (Dewey, 1902/1990, p.202). This places heavy demands on the teacher, particularly when activities and content are largely prescribed.

Nearly a century after, Hargreaves, Earl and Ryan (1996) suggested that not only do many students 'find their schooling irrelevant to their lives, they also form distorted and confused understandings of the material in the curriculum because it does not connect with their prior learning' (p.145). These researchers cite studies by Gedge (1991); Connell *et al* (1982); Karp (1988) and Radwanski (1987) which indicate that students who do not experience curriculum as relevant to their lives tend to become drop-outs from the formal system of education (pp.80-81), with consequent results on their future

contributions as citizens. In an increasingly global environment this makes knowledge, empathy with and understanding of other cultures and values outwith the 'local' immediate family even more vital for responsible development and civic survival. Findings from the values education projects would bear out the need for this to be developed within teacher education.

Vygotsky (1978) asserted that cognitive development is embedded in social relationship, Rogoff (1990) says that 'understanding happens between people; it can't be attributed to one individual or the other' (p.67). If as educators we believe 'Education implies understanding and the capacity to reason and justify beliefs and conduct; it is not merely the acquisition of skill and habit' (Hamm, 1989, p.164). Likewise 'as Aristotle suggested, people do not naturally or spontaneously grow to be morally excellent or practically wise. They become so, if at all, only as the result of a lifelong personal and community effort' (Moline, 1982, p.203). In that case, teachers too need support if this is to be cultivated within their classrooms as education becomes more centralised and controlled. The freedom of the teacher to respond to and develop material in order to achieve learning as a socially mediated process (Vygotsky, 1978, p.5) is progressively being severely curtailed. The opportunity for teacher and learner to react within Vygotsky's 'zone of proximal development' (*ibid*, p.86), to create this zone – through the process Newson & Newson (1975) identify as intersubjectivity – needs to be recreated. Rogoff contends:

'In order to communicate successfully, the adult and child must find a common ground of knowledge and skills. Otherwise the two people would be unable to share a common reference point, and understanding would not occur. This effort toward understanding ...draws the child into the model of the problem that is more mature yet understandable through links with what the child already knows' (1986, pp.32-33).

If this is the case, I would argue that, protégé, less experienced teacher, inductee, para-educationalist or parent could in many contexts be substituted equally appropriately for the word pupil. Then the teacher in order to develop the process of negotiation,

conversation, compromise and shared experience, would, on much of the evidence gained from these research projects, need support to move in this direction.

A major failing in many of the transactions studied between teachers and protégés or children was the lack of articulateness – their inability to express clearly what they feel or what they do. Perhaps a major reason why there are difficulties between mentor and protégé is that of communication, not in the social sense but in not having the words on either side to explore, or in many cases even being able to articulate to themselves, what their stance/actions are on a particular point. If this is true of practical classroom matters, then how much more serious in the area of attitudes and values – illustrated in the work done with both teachers and students in papers 11, 12, 13, 14.

Knowledge, not only academic but also experiential, is crucial to understanding for ‘it is impossible to teach what one does not know. And for teachers to acquire this knowledge, what Aristotle called practical wisdom, they must have had significant experiences, reflected upon them, and been in contact with more experienced and reflective persons’ (Moline, 1982, p.189). If this ‘wisdom’ is to lessen prejudice and widen perspectives then the ‘reflective persons’ must come from outside their own culture. In researching behaviour as educators we must appreciate the key notions of ‘participant objectification’ and ‘objectification of objectification’ coined by Bourdieu. We as researchers are trying to understand our own practice as much as anything else.

In partnerships, such as those developed within the projects in these writings, it has been demonstrated that the same person can be both the less and the more experienced partner at different times; all having differing gifts and expertise (as acknowledge by participants in papers 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 13 15, with respect to the relationships between peers, protégé and mentor, teacher and pupil and with all of these to others involved in an educative way in their experiences of learning). As part of this, self-respect and respect for others is paramount, bearing out Lickona (1991) ‘if we have little or no self-respect, it’s hard to extend respect to other people’ (p.59). Verbal feedback from children, students and teachers whilst collecting this data highlighted the importance of the teacher’s role,

whoever might at the moment be in acting as the 'teacher', in indeed expanding the learner's 'consciousness through their identification with other people, at a level appropriate to the children's intellectual development ...[trying] to make children's emotional lives relate to the greater and broader total world of human experience ...[giving] them the linguistic tools to think about and educate their own emotions ...[and helping] children to understand interpersonal relations' (Chambers, 1983, p.28-29). Here Chambers's setting is a traditional adult-child one, arguably also applicable in mentor-protégé settings and within CPD and induction. It also underlines the importance attached to expectations.

The most successful teachers in these studies wanted to do their best and wished and expected their charges, whether children or adults, to do their best also (see Noddings, 1994). In addition, Gardner (1990, pp.197-198), in considering expectations for self and others, says 'High expectations ... means a respect for excellence. ... Teachers cannot hope to have that kind of impact unless they themselves have a high level of morale' (cf. Purpel, 1989; Mayeroff, 1971; Blustein, 1991), illustrating 'the act of affirming and encouraging the best in others' (Noddings, 1992, p.25).

In earlier work with exemplary teachers (see Collinson, Killeavy, & Stephenson, 1999; Stephenson & Killeavy, 1998; 1999a; 1999b; Stephenson, 1998; 2001) highlighting the qualities of 'caring', 'respect', 'expectation', 'hope', 'knowing', 'responsibility', 'relationships', it is argued that respect is the premier 'R' of exemplary teachers, since it lays a foundation for optimal learning *per se*. This respect, also comprising responsibility, relationships and reasonable rules ('mutual respect', see Collinson, Killeavy, & Stephenson, 1998), was a strong component demonstrated by the successful projects represented by Paper 15 in the present study. Work by Ungeod-Thomas (1996) reveals a possible link between an ethic of care, learning and respect also: 'with persons, the first virtue has variously been described as care, concern, charity, love, respect. Of these closely related notions that which probably fits best in the world of education is respect. The teaching of respect for others is not only one of education's more important objectives, but in its absence little, if any, real learning can take place' (p.152).

Freire (1997) makes a salient point 'one of the tasks of the progressive educator...is to unveil opportunities for hope, no matter what the obstacles may be. After all without hope there is little we can do'.

It is interesting to note how far the educators in these research projects shared or were unaware of some of the attributes identified by us in exemplary teachers. Exemplary teachers are defined as those whose professional accomplishments and results can serve as a model for their peers, and who demonstrate all or some of the qualities referred to above. It is by growing and supporting these qualities in educators, wherever they stand in the learning community, that the writer contends a measure of successful development will lie. It is also in allowing these qualities to be nurtured and strengthened that the kernel of support measures lie.

Successive Governments in setting up new initiatives have consistently built in failure in the first place, in that they regard measures as a quick fix which will be cheaper than the traditional alternative and fail to appreciate that or at least refuse to see it.

4. Summary and Conclusions

‘At times this is part of a ploy for survival or to be seen to be active and therefore changing, working on the assumption that all change must be for the good’ (Joan Stephenson, *Mentoring – the New Panacea?*, p.220).

In the preceding sections, I have tried to define the distinctive nature of my published work and its contribution to the debate about teacher education through Partnership and Mentoring and the qualities that the actors themselves bring to their roles. Empirical evidence has been shown to back up my hypotheses about the role of the teacher in supporting others not only through their immediate professional knowledge but also through their awareness of the affective domain in any relationships and interactions upon which much learning relies. It also confirms my hypothesis that teachers’ perceptions about how they feel and think, and the knowledge they have of the principles underlying their beliefs and actions.

In both a disputative and supportive register I have demonstrated some of the thinking behind the published works, taking into account different perspectives and arguments made by others in the field. In the account of theory I have attempted to fuse the various elements and influences affecting the emergence of my thinking on mechanisms for enabling all manner of teachers to achieve their ultimate objective, that is of enhancing the learners’ knowledge and development to the full. I have also attempted to chart my own progression from the immediate and practical field of teacher education to a more political and philosophical stance as my research career progressed.

The goal of challenging and redefining quality in teaching and learning since the end of the period represented here has continued in further research and consultancy and involvement in European and other networks. The distinctive quality of my contributions to the field has been recognised through invitations from major international conferences, projects advising institutions and government departments abroad, and visiting fellow and teacher roles at institutions in Europe, Australia, USA and Africa. I am contributing

to an international symposium on values education at AERA in Spring 2004. I have been instrumental in the introduction of forms of partnership and mentoring: within initial teacher education; through peer tutoring and mentoring; and in 'Buddy' and other initiatives in schools, colleges, universities and organizations. These have arisen through contacts made through research, paper presentations, seminars and published works. The practical application of the principles of mentoring and values in schools and youth organizations has been supported by service on the National Mentoring Network committees, evaluations of British and European grant-bids for projects and research, and evaluations of government sponsored initiatives in partnership and values/citizenship formation.

This submitted body of work covers a period in which the hitherto largely autonomous sector of higher education has been, or allowed itself to become, increasingly dominated by detailed governmental directives in the process and content of the professional training they deliver. Before going on to consider the pointers that can be drawn from my work to address the title of this submission 'supporting teachers in times of change', a short consideration should be given to how this domination has arisen. This will be done in an attempt to discover why teachers acted in the ways seen, for instance, in Papers 5 and 6 where they were unable to countenance less than 'fairly good' in dealings with protégés, or indeed in the project underpinning 12, 13 and 14, where their rhetoric about values was seldom matched by their actions.

Teachers, including teacher educators, tend to jump through hoops - why do this? A glance at the volume and directive content of the legislative tables above provides an example of legal pressures open to the legislators of the day. They do not explain what had inspired the thinking behind them nor the reasons why those charged with making the words a reality consented or at least acquiesced in putting them into place. The writer would contend it is a social problem not an educational one that is being addressed through pressures on the educational system. Market forces have weakened social cohesiveness; the traditional guardians of *mores* and behaviour have failed and schools and educators are being used as part of a strategy to address this.

Why educators find themselves in this position is partly, the writer contends, the lack of self-knowledge illustrated in this work. In their unawareness of where ‘values’ come from they lack the ability to see, as in Paper 14, that they manipulate the content and presentation of what they deliver to children as ‘value-free’ education, hence making statements about the knowledge being their own *but* (my emphasis) equally accessible to all children. At the same time their own manipulation goes unnoticed, partly as a result of the ploy foreshadowed in the quote from paper 9 that opened this section. Once an advocate of ‘reflective practice’ as a guide to teacher development, I believe that as policy makers rather than the doers have embraced ‘reflective practitioners’ in this post-modern era, less rather than more radical actions have been welcomed and supported. Constant change has been used as a tool to distract; keeping busy has replaced time for thought. One example of this is the changed role of the teacher in the move to mentoring. The range of skills called for is apparent in Papers 1–9, yet no real support was envisaged. Similarly, little was provided with the introduction of values and citizenship education across the board.

Whilst being ‘rewarded’ with additional responsibilities in the name of effectiveness and relevance, teachers of all kinds are less encouraged to be innovative and risk-taking, despite the rhetoric. ‘Good practice’ is qualified into ‘sanctioned’ practice from within a given range of curricular content and methods. Bourdieu’s theory of social interaction, used to support the analysis in Section 3, supports some of the discernable conditions recognizable in these educators’ actions and goes some way to explain why educators and schools have allowed themselves to become the vehicles through which much social ‘engineering’ has been achieved.

So what is being offered in the way of support? A practical form of support could be, and is to some extent being, offered through what we now define as CPD, taking this to mean from the moment of entry into training (and in some cases before) to retirement. This professional development needs, from the evidence of this research, to take place on three fronts: i) development for the person, remembering Day’s (1997) warning of

ignoring the needs of the teacher; ii) development for the institution/s and iii) development to answer the needs of statutory and societal change. The examples of mentor take-up of training programmes inherent in Papers 1–9 provide a formal instance of in-service for educators. The networks of teachers, peers, friends, etc., revealed by the research and in Papers 3, 4 and to some extent in Papers 5 and 6, illustrate informal support strategies. This informality is used within examples shown in 2, 16 and 17. Meanwhile the universal application of the principles of partnership are demonstrated in Paper 15 and by other data from this project in Appendix 2. This includes a wider definition of partnership than that exemplified in paper 1. It could be argued that the – perhaps non-standard – individuals discussed in Paper 15 have in some respects reached level 4 in the Hildreth and Rutherford model used in Section 1, al be it within another context.

In looking for other ways to support teachers suggested in these papers we can turn to the language they use in describing the types of support the participants in these research projects would welcome. Almost without exception these groups of teachers prefer the term ‘Teacher Education’. This is a philosophical choice. To them education denotes a wider range of people-changing experiences than the term ‘training’, favoured by some governments and that of the United Kingdom in particular, which to their minds conjures up the uniform production of a technician, who though highly skilled, operates within very closely drawn parameters. It is a beacon of hope, in that at least lip-service is being paid to the concept of a thinking and widening of experiences and attitudes, even if these (as demonstrated in both mentoring and values contexts above) are not always borne out in subsequent actions. It brings in the issue of theory as a component of support. This perhaps is the crux of the whole matter and the pivot which affords, if not understanding then at least some pointers to the challenges besetting educational practitioners at whatever level today. Hartley (1998), in a response to a paper analysing current changes in the UK, makes a number of points that have resonance and relevance in a much wider field. He argues that the current manoeuvring over education, including its format and control, should not be viewed as merely the implementation of a neo-liberal, post-

modernist agenda; output measures of the products would achieve that without the need to meddle in pedagogical processes; but as an inherent distrust of the discretion of the professional – the very thing the teachers in these projects were seeking to be.

Theory has been repudiated by recent governments, if support in their schema is viewed as consisting of only practical didactic skills, the theory that equates with ‘academics’ is of low priority. Therefore presumably, our teachers’ preference for ‘education’ rather than ‘training’ is also negated and CPD too must change. As Hartley succinctly puts it:

‘The irony of our present predicament is that neo-liberal economics have commodified culture. It has spawned choice, almost making consumption a civic duty. But now governments see the effects of this – flux, fragmentation and uncertainty – and seek a moral fix, wishing to regulate the moral order, not only through a national curriculum for pupils, but also – in England – through a compatible national curriculum for teacher educators. Moreover, these national curricula will serve not only to regulate the moral order, but will also be cheaper and efficient: that is to say the standardisation of product and process is less expensive of time and resources than a professionally-produced plurality of product and process’ (1998, p. 25).

Writing in the same publication as Hartley, Sander (1998) dismisses the idea of ‘professionalism’ being either supported or threatened through the restructuring of pre-service or in-service education, whether restructured by governments or others. He sees teacher education institutions as ‘On principle ...incapable of producing any kind of professionalism’, a hypothesis he expounded in Sander, 1997.

Does this then leave the schools as the fitting, and perhaps most effective place to achieve ‘any kind of professionalism’ and what role is left for teacher educators? Is educational research such as that contained in this submission a likely source of support for these teachers? The recent emphasis on didactic methods of delivery and a closely controlled curriculum might indeed achieve some of the results desired by advocates of a return to pre-Plowden days. Chris Woodhead, when Chief Inspector in England, followed the

writers of the black papers of the 70s in vehemently criticising child-centred teaching and the theorising that went with it. They did not distinguish between the academic theories espoused by the educational philosophers, both past and present, and the self-theorising which became part of the reflective movement. Along with Sheila Lawlor (1990, p.2) of the new right 'Hillgate Group', their view of teacher training stands and falls on the practical: 'Whereas the individual subjects which teachers will teach require academic study, the skills of teaching are essentially practical ones'. It therefore follows that experienced teachers should train less experienced ones. Once again we are back full circle to the 'pupil-teacher' arena of the beginning of the last century. Mentors now appear in a different light. The strict criteria laid down as a definition of 'theory' (O'Connor, 1957) have not in the opinion of Pring (1994, p.175) been fully met by any existing pedagogical theory. Bourdieu, as noted above, stressed the need for researchers to be aware of what they themselves brought as baggage to a project; he also said, '[they also] have an interest in problems that seem [to them] to be interesting' (quoted in Grenfell & James, 1998, p, 125). This perhaps goes some way to explaining why successive governments have complained that educational research does not address the real issues, that is those 'central and directly relevant to the political and policy debate' (Blunkett, 2000, p,12). Kogan (1999) identified the 'heroic model', i.e. where ministers 'who know what they want, set out to get it without recourse to supporting or opposing evidence' (p.11).

These triggers together were enough to lead to the reforms of ITT in Circulars 3/84 & 24/89, augmented and developed through legislation and circulars that followed. Here we see a direct example of the cause of change experienced by the educators and educated forming the subjects of research discussed in these papers. The resulting shift to more time spent in schools and a greater involvement of teachers, analysed in papers above, was not unwelcome to many of the players in teacher education (Wilkin, 1990). A body of research and writing grew up from the redesigned courses (Wilkin, 1992; McIntyre *et al.*, 1993; Furlong, 1988; Yeomans & Sampson, 1994) exploring, debating and developing the various roles of mentors and others involved and providing intellectual justification for the revised schemes.

Much of this initial debate concerned who was best fitted to do what, and, to return to the power theme once more, where the decisions over what constituted the most important knowledge should be taken. The issue of theory and practice, or the rhetoric and the reality engaged everyone, McIntyre (1991) making the point 'leaving the task of integrating "theory" and "practice" to student teachers has demonstrably and not surprisingly been quite inadequate' (p. 141). Most expressed the belief that satisfactory courses were only possible where all partners worked more closely together as equal but different experts. This is the level of Hildreth and Rutherford's partnership model with which the writer began, as discussed in Section 3.1. McIntyre, talking of the Oxford Intern Scheme, contended that 'The partnership between university and schools is secure only because teachers appreciate that the aspects of professional education for which they are best placed to help are recognised by university staff as of equal status to those aspects which are best provided by the university' (McIntyre, 1990, p. 121). Furlong *et al* in the study of the Cambridge model developed an analytical model that identified four different levels (A-D) of professional training (Furlong, 1988, p.132). Teachers were seen as having the greatest strength in level A, that of direct practice involving first-hand experience in classrooms. Although it was acknowledged that individual teachers might be able to train students at the other three levels (indirect practice, institution based; practical principles; and disciplinary theory), their unique skill lay in A. Reading further statements made by both researchers makes it clear their positions were not as dissimilar as at first might appear. McIntyre (1990), speaking about lecturers, proposes that their position will:

'enable and oblige them, much more than is generally possible for practising teachers, to know about alternative teaching approaches being used elsewhere, to study relevant research and theoretical literature and to explicate and critically examine the principles which should or could inform the practice of teaching' (p. 114).

He also endorsed the unique skills of teachers in introducing students to the practice of teaching (*ibid*, p.141).

Both positions had their detractors: Hirst (1990) and McIntyre (1990) criticise Furlong's model for its levels. This I would endorse, but make the point that the Oxford model, although not up-front in stating this, was equally hierarchical, as was the partnership model described in Paper 1 of this submission, which the writer criticises there. The majority of models of partnership were and many remain unbalanced in power terms. Reasons for this were explored in Paper 17 and Section 3.4. Wilkin (1993) describes what I now recognise as an example of change crying out for an accompanying measure for support, that being the dilemma students found themselves in. She sees the students in a post-modernist dilemma through being left to make up their own minds as to what are appropriate forms of practice. An absence of informed debate on theory, can from the writer's personal involvement in 'reflective practice' sessions with a wide variety of teachers, quickly become circular arguments of self-fulfilling 'truths' of resounding and profound banality without some basic precepts to develop and challenge. The present writer would contend on evidence gathered here that these were not the types of partnership in which the development necessary to meet the present challenges of change could be fully achieved.

This was where the TEAM model outlined in Paper 1 and forming the basis for the exploration of mentoring perceptions in Papers 5 and 6 differed, in being a bottom-up rather than a top-down model. The wide and at the time early range of what qualities and strategies mentors employed, and the seminal discovery of the 'significant others' in Paper 4. made a lasting contribution to the subsequent approaches to mentoring in primary schools and continue to do so. The fact of discrepancies noted in papers 5 & 6 should guard against complacency in the application of 'mentoring' without taking the needs and views of all partners into account. The importance of the affective side of supporting and the development of Noddings' concept of 'nurturing' to include respect in all its aspects within the research underpinning paper 15, along with the insight into teachers' lack of self knowledge in Papers 12, 13 and 14 would serve as a few examples garnered from these papers to refute educational research being of little or no use in designing and providing support for teachers.

Edwards (1996) defends the notion of research informing training, countering Hargreaves' (1996) negative stance on the worth of educational research and its value in informing preparation and training; he (Edwards), advocates 'Higher education contributions to teacher education should be overtly theoretical and research-based, with qualifying and experienced teachers trained to use research findings in making their professional decisions and judgements' (p.4).

In the absence of theory banality is not inevitable. The recent evaluation of the Training Schools Project, a summary of which is included in Appendix 2, and examples and benefits of activities discussed in Section 3, provide instances of partnership between schools and HEIs, facilitating practitioner trainers, whether designated mentors or not, in providing a stimulating and challenging training experience for student teachers in school-based training. This appears to be largely predicated on the level of informed thinking that goes on in the school itself and the qualities of the individuals taking part. These criteria are expanded in Appendix 2. The position cannot be guaranteed in all cases.

The new measure put forward in the United Kingdom in the designation of Training Schools sought to improve the quality of teacher education. The Professional Development School (see Holmes Group, 1986, 1990, for a full description of this movement in the US), or in UK terminology 'Training School', which Darling-Hammond believes is '...a special case of school restructuring: as they simultaneously restructure schools and teacher education programs, they redefine teaching and learning for all the members of the profession and the school community' (1994, p.1). The conditions prevailing in some UK Training Schools and the effective individuals concerned, replicate many of those issues and practices highlighted in the projects forming the good practice of the research discussed in this submission. It is in the activities sparked by this government initiative that, for the writer, aspects of the hypotheses can be seen working together. Pointers towards dealing with the issues of change are discernable, but challenging to teacher education as we now know it.

The socio-political conditions over the last decade represented in this submission have left educationalists to deal with a set of contradictory requirements and messages. Apple (2001) describes this as 'conservative modernization' (p.182) in that the situation is powered through market-based reforms, driven through vocal critics in favour of strong central cultural authority. The vehicle used to put it in place employs technical and managerial methods to solve the perceived moral and political 'problems', defined, of course, by the dominant groups in society. So, Apple contends, messages of competition and innovation on one hand are confused by policies on the other for adherence to common standards and rules and regulations created by centralised authorities using managerial techniques to enforce accountability. As Wilkin (1999) and material within this submission demonstrate, government closely examines what is happening in teacher education, seeking to shape educational policies and creating common sets of academic standards for students and teachers, with mechanisms to make accountable the extent of pupil, student and teacher learning and achievement. The changes and the need for support result from this.

This submission has sought to show that change is happening at an unprecedented rate, in society in general, but with particular reference to education. It has outlined why and how these changes in education have arisen through legislation and social pressures. A selection of the consequences of these changes for teachers in schools has formed the basis of research. Research results, analysis and hypothesis-making and -testing have been used to describe and analyse some of the strategies employed in the attempt to meet these changes and support the actors in so doing. Arriving early in the field of mentoring studies, particularly with reference to primary education, Papers 1–10 provided material to include in the evolving debate on the mentoring process and the teacher's role within it. They continue to be used as points of reference by a new generation of teacher educators currently immersed in mentoring support within initial teacher training courses. The focus on the voice of the student teacher was innovatory at the time. The revelation of discrepancies in perception between mentoring partners, along with the concept of 'near miss' or failure in the mentoring relationship and purpose, introduced a new area in the study of mentoring in the field of teacher education in the United Kingdom. It

continues to be a neglected area within the genre. Involvement with a variety of mentoring settings and underpinning philosophies (*cf* paper 10) allowed the writer to influence and draw support from a wider range of mentoring traditions than was perhaps usual in teacher education. This added to the contribution the writer was able to make to the research body. The papers on values education (11–15) have highlighted teachers' need for support in confronting their own unawareness and contributed substantially to the debate on the topic of 'value-free' education. A body of information has been presented that informs and meshes in with other people's published work, challenging or confirming arguments. The research has made a major contribution towards revealing those qualities that contribute to the effectiveness of the teacher not only in promoting children's academic learning and practical skills but also in nurturing the affective side of their development. The submitted papers show these qualities are applicable at all levels of interaction within the areas of education dealt with in this exposition, using research data enmeshed within the body of published academic debate. These aspects are melded within partnerships and the interactions between the players are explored in both micro and macro settings at home and internationally. Papers 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 all have international perspectives and Paper 18 brings together all aspects of teacher education, including partnership and values, across Europe as a whole. Retrospective, contemporary and visionary analyses and strategies for containing or supporting change are made.

As has been demonstrated above, the situation facing educators and education today has become an increasingly complex one. If we return for a moment to the models of partnership introduced in section 3 (Hildreth & Rutherford 1996) it could be argued that all four models of partnership encompassing most points on the continuum from low on co-operation to high on co-operation on one hand and, similarly, from low ownership to high ownership on the other, could be claimed to be taking place within teacher education today. Is it therefore any wonder that the roles and responsibilities, expectations of, and from, the actors taking part have created confusion and uncertainty as well as raising opportunities for development and in some cases both personal and professional fulfillment? When this is placed within the maelstrom created by the increasingly contested consequences arising from the interactions between policy and societal contexts

then the pressures, both external and internal, placed on all those involved within the field of education as outlined in diagram 1 (p.17) can be seen as one instance of reality for educators at the present time. All actors in education are, to perhaps a greater extent than ever before, subject to society at large, outside forces, their institution, governmental directives, often conflicting educational philosophies and practice, financial constraints, relationship shift between schools and institutions all contributing to an every increasing pace of change. When power is included in this equation and individuals are faced with a general free-for-all in societal and personal *mores*, then all the occlusions predicated in diagram 1 could be illustrated by real-life happenings in schools. Support, knowledge and guidance to help cope with this plethora of complex and disputed situations cannot be catalogued. Measures developed towards supporting educators have been discussed above together with findings from research that would seem to indicate other strategies that may prove to be beneficial.

It has, however, become clear to the writer, as a result of the experiences and insights gained from these projects over a lifetime in education, that no one single approach will be even partially satisfactory, given the rate of change and the nature of the demands being placed on those involved. This submission, supported by data and examples from research projects, has shown that over the years a series of innovations and developments have been put into place, all purporting to share the common objective of 'improving' education. Some have been grasped by a ground swell of enthusiasts, more commonly they have been imposed. Their introduction has ostensibly arisen from a number of motives ranging across the political, social, economic and, occasionally, even educational spectrum. Support through partnership, encompassing attitudes and practices as well as skills and strategies would appear to offer a hopeful course. The measure of qualities needed in maximizing learning and experience on all levels appear to be encompassed in so called 'good practice' in transactions with children, peers and adults, including oneself. Cooperation and partnership appear to increase the efficacy and contain the practices within a learning situation that encourages growth and diversity rather than tradition and distrust. These positive things emerging from this research are happening in partnerships of some form, though we may have to rethink our definition of 'partnership'.

This submission reflects the increasingly apparent complexity of the situation that we, as educators, find ourselves in and the increasingly disputative nature of this area of study. For any real progress to take place in the philosophy or practice of education all of those involved must be confident and committed to change. Equity and transformation need to be apparent across all sectors and subscribed to by all players. To achieve this, commitment and willingness to experiment in often challenging situations requires support and encouragement not only from the 'top down', but also from the 'bottom up'. Indeed the assumption that the practice is a hierarchical one has led and continues to lead to missed targets and opportunities, if not cynicism and defeat.

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Appendix 1

These instruments/data are a selection of those used to provide material for analysis on various aspects of mentoring and the beliefs, attitudes and values of teachers and student-teachers to inform papers in the submission

Used with primary BEd students to gather further data for the mentoring research papers

Certain questions have been omitted because not relevant to this paper.

**Primary BEd School Experience
Survey of students who have had a mentor in Year Three**

1. Please use a tick to show which systems you have worked with in your various school experiences.

	Y1 Infant	Y1 Junior	Y2	Y3	Y4
Class teacher with no mentor					
College tutor with no mentor					
VL tutor with no mentor					
Mentor class teacher in another class					
Mentor who was your class teacher					
Mentor who not a class teacher					

2. In Year 3 School Experience:

TICK all boxes referring to people who affected your school experience in some specific way.

1. Class teacher	2. Other class teachers	3. Head
4. College tutor where no mentor	5. Personal tutor	6. Other tutor (say type)

7. VL tutor with no mentor	8. Other students in your school	9. Other students not in your school
10. Mentor class teacher in another class	11. Mentor who was your class teacher	12. Mentor who not a class teacher
13. Other adult (say type e.g. boy/girlfriend)		

3. Year 3 school experience. For EACH of the people ticked in Q2, use a word or phrase to name all the main ways they contributed.

5. In Year 4 School Experience.

TICK all boxes referring to people who affected your school experience in some specific way.

1. Class teacher	2. Other class teachers	3. Head
4. College tutor where no mentor	5. Personal tutor	6. Other tutor (say type)
7. VL tutor with no mentor	8. Other students in your school	9. Other students not in your school
10. Mentor class teacher in another class	11. Mentor who was your class teacher	12. Mentor who not a class teacher
13. Other adult (say type e.g. boy/girlfriend)		

6. For Year 4. For EACH of the people ticked in Q5, use a word or phrase to name all the main ways they contributed.

8. What do you consider the **advantages** of the **Year 3 system**?

9. What do you consider the **DISadvantages** of the **Year 3 system**?

10. What to you consider the **advantages** of the **Year 4 system**?

11. What do you consider the **DISadvantages** of the **Year 4 system**?

This instrument was used to expand knowledge about the role and needs of the teacher in the move towards school-based training. Data contributed to papers 2, 4, 5 & 6, 8 and to the reasoning in 16 & 17.

Centre for the Study of Mentoring

Mentoring in schools

Who supports the mentor? A survey of 'significant others' identified by practising mentors as having a bearing on their mentoring role.

In this section we ask you to identify where support has come from for you as a mentor in your work with protégés.

Other teachers in the school
teachers in subject expertise were they more experiences as
(please list which by subject area or responsibility)

Teachers in other schools
(please list which by subject area or responsibility)

The head

Other mentors

Other staff in the school
(please list their function)

Higher Education tutors
(please list their function)

other adults

(please list)
children

Handbooks

Other literature

Other sources
(please specify)

Section 2

In this section we ask you to describe the **nature** of the support. Please put comments in sections as appropriate.

Other teachers in school
(please list which by subject area or responsibility)

Teachers in other schools
(please list which by subject area or responsibility)

The head

Other staff in the school

Other mentors
(please list their function)

HEI tutors

Other adults

(please list)
Children

Handbooks

Other Literature

Other sources
(please specify)

Section 3.

In this section we ask you to think back over your experiences of mentoring and identify your own needs

At which points did you feel in need of support? What
was the nature of this support?

Did the type of support change with time?
Why do you think this was so?

Whose support do you feel is most vital?

What kind of support was of most value to you personally?

Section 4.

In this section we ask you for some demographic information about you and your school

Are you: (please circle or insert)

Male Female including this year how many years have you been teaching?
.....years

Are you:
Under 30 30-40 40-50 50+

Have you a subject specialism? Yes/No it is.....

Which term best describes your school population?
1) Urban 2) rural/small town 3) suburban

is it multicultural? yes/no

Which age phase?

Infant lower junior primary middle secondary other.....

How many years has the school had:

Students on practicea mentoring programme.....

How many times have you been a mentor?

.....times for what length of practice.....

How did you first become a mentor? (please circle as appropriate)

The head asked me the head designated me because of my post because of my subject

I volunteered as a staff development opportunity as a step to further qualifications

For job satisfaction as a career move staff encouragement no-one else would

Other reasons (please expand)

If you volunteered could you say why.

If you have been a mentor more than once, what were your reasons for continuing in the role?

Are you currently registered for a higher award?

Thank you for helping with this survey. The information you have given should help us to understand how to support mentors in school based initial teacher training. Anonymity will be respected.

If you would be interested in taking part in some joint action research within your school, please put your name here.

Used to expand data on the variety of mentoring inspiration, purpose, practice and evaluation taking place

Thank you for filling in our previous mentoring questionnaire which was most useful. To help us to explore more deeply could we ask you to complete these forms about your own experience.

Name

Contact address

How did your interest in mentoring happen?

I read about it				
I heard about it	→	In what context?		
I worked somewhere it was used	→	What kind of organisation?	educational industrial commercial administrative voluntary	
I had a friend in a programme				
I realised it had happened to me				
any other way/s				
please specify				

What were the details of the mentoring process you were first involved with?

	Formal	Informal
aims		
objectives		
duration		
length of time		
frequency of meetings		
length of meetings		
number of participants		
mentors		
protégés		

How were you influenced by your first exposure to mentoring?

It was a positive experience

- outcomes
- relationships
- knowledge
- vision for the future

It was a negative experience

- outcomes
- relationships
- knowledge
- vision for the future

What were your aims in becoming involved in the programme?

Is the method of evaluation by

a) you

b) your sponsor?

What method/s do you use?

Are there other methods you thought of but decided not to use?

List rejected methods and the reasons for their unsuitability

How do you evaluate processes which seem to fall outside the stated objectives?

Using examples could you show how you value and /or discard these?

Dear Colleague,

Re: SCETT Training Schools Project: Mentoring in a Training School Programme

Thank you for your support so far. We are now exploring further the opinions many of you have given to us about the training school programme to date. Could you please supply this additional information and would you please share your thoughts/experiences with us on these points. We look forward to seeing you at one of the regional seminars in March when we hope to include a session on Mentoring.

Information

Confirm name of co-ordinator

Email address

Part of a group? (which?)

Foci of training (in addition to Mentoring)

Number of teachers actively involved in training as a fraction of total number of teachers

Type of training

Category of students being trained (e.g. mature graduate, classroom assistant, ethnic minority, career change etc.)

number of students currently undergoing training

number of students who have completed training

Length of programme/s

HEI link/s

(if you can tell us how long these have been in place and what other activities are part of the partnership that would be useful)

Materials produced that could be shared with others to support 'good practice'.

Please attach a list/details of any concrete outcomes of the programme, ICT based material in particular will be very valuable.

Supporting your programme

Mentors or those acting in a mentor-like role are an integral part of current teaching training. We would like to explore the process as you and any others in this role within your school have experienced it.

How many people are mentors in your programme?

Do they have a specific curricular focus?

What is the role of the mentor/s in your programme?

What do you consider to be the most important facets of this role?

Could you rank them?

For you what are the most pressing issues raised by/during the mentoring process?

How have/do you resolve(d) these?

Do different categories of students raise different challenges? What are these? Why do you think this is the case?

Do you or any of the other mentors also support more conventional ITT students (e.g. PGCE; BEds)?

How does that task differ from that in the Training Schools Programme?
Can you identify why?

How long have you/your colleagues been working as mentors?

Does this pre-date the introduction of 'standards' for the recommendation of qualified teacher status?

If so, how has the role changed?

What in your opinion are the greatest pressures on a mentor?

Who support the mentor?

Please feel free to raise any other issues you wish and to write at length. Email responses to Joan.Stephenson@tesco.net.

Many thanks for your support.

Joan Stephenson

These questions formed part of the basis for the multi-national study with practising teachers on values education findings from which were later developed into 'Values in Education' edited by Joan Stephenson, Lorraine Ling, Eva Burman and Maxine Cooper of which I was the executive editor.

Papers 11, 12, 13 & 14 arise wholly or partly from data gathered in this research project. Findings and hypotheses made as a result of this work also contribute to analysis in later papers

Values in Education

- Question 1** Briefly state 3 essential principles upon which you make decisions with regard to the teaching and development of values in the curriculum programme.
- Question 2** Outline 4 specific classroom strategies (2 informal and 2 formal) which you employ in the area of values development and teaching within your classroom context.
- Question 3** List 5 of the predominant cultural issues which you perceive exert major influence upon the values dimension of curriculum in your context.
- Question 4** Write one brief comment on these 4 questions as they relate to values development and teaching in your context.
- a. whose knowledge forms the basis of the course
 - b. how is the knowledge organised for the learners
 - c. how is the knowledge imparted to the learners
 - d. to which individuals or groups of learners is the knowledge pertaining to the values dimension of the curriculum available
- Question 5** What are 5 of the most important elements which a) values teaching in schools and b) values education components of teacher education courses, should address.

This schedule served as the basis for the in-depth interviews forming part of the research project on an ethic of care. Findings are represented by paper 15 and contribute, with further research to paper 14 and to the conference papers included in Appendix 2. They also inform recent and current work on citizenship and beliefs and attitudes in teaching and learning in international cooperation. They were seminal to the development of my thinking on partnership.

Exemplary teachers exhibiting an ethic of care project

'In- depth' interviews: lead areas for questions

1. Over the course of their teaching career, what have exemplary middle and high school teachers come to believe is 'good teaching'?
2. How do they structure the physical, intellectual, and social culture in the classroom to improve student learning and get to know the students?
3. How do they get to know students outside the classroom?
4. How, if at all, do they use their knowledge of students to inform their teaching?
5. How do they know when they are/are not reaching students?
6. How might students know that their teachers care about them as individuals and learners?
7. How do teachers think they acquired their interpersonal skills and a disposition to care?

For survey purposes only:

Name	school name	school telephone	subject	length of
	Urban/suburban/rural	number	areas	teaching
				Career

Expanded discussion: Semi-structured interview protocol

Reaching children and improving learning

- A. Has your teaching been in urban, suburban or rural schools?
- B. Would you sign the consent form allowing me to use this material. Anonymity is guaranteed
- C. Turn on tape recorder

1.

Over the course of their teaching career, what have exemplary middle and high school teachers come to believe is 'good teaching'?

- a) If I were a student in your classes what would you want me to notice about your teaching? Classroom?
- b) Ideally, what would you like to do to improve your teaching?
- c) What do you think students ought to be able to expect from a good teacher?
- d) Does an ethic of caring about students fit into your definition of good teaching? (if yes) How?

2.

How do they structure the physical, intellectual, and social culture in the classroom to improve student learning and get to know the students?

- a) How do you handle the first couple of weeks in September?
- b) What rules do you have in your classroom? Why?
- c) How do you deal with discipline problems?
- d) What kinds of responsibilities do you expect from students?
- e) What are some strategies you use to help children learn?
- f) How do they help you to get to know students?
- g) What are some of the non-academic ideals you try to get across to them?
- h) How do you keep your classes interesting?

3.

How do they get to know students outside the classroom?

- a) What opportunities do you have to talk to parents about their children?

- b) How helpful are colleagues in your learning to know students?
- c) What kinds of interactions outside the class help you to get to know students?

4.

How, if at all, do they use their knowledge of students to inform their teaching?

- a) If you know students quite well, how do you use that knowledge to help them learn in your class?

5.

How do they know when they are/are not reaching students?

- a) What would be some of the indicators to you that you're reaching students on both an academic and personal level?
- b) What would be some of the indicators to you that you're not reaching the students on an academic and personal level?

6.

How might students know that their teachers care about them as individuals and learners?

- a) How would your students know that you care about them as persons?
- b) How would your students know that you care about their academic achievements?
- c) What kind of personal information about yourself do you share with students?
- d) Do you consciously work at respect? Use of words? Listening?

7.

How do teachers think they acquired their interpersonal skills and a disposition to care?

- a) You were identified as a teacher who cares about students. How do you think you acquired an ethic of care?
- b) Caring involves human relationships which imply interpersonal skill. How do you think you acquired and improved interpersonal skills?

Exemplary Teachers Project

Learning	Work Ethic	Ethic of care	Hope
•open-mindedness	•setting goals/expectations	•respect (mutual)	•optimistic outlook
•curiosity	•doing your best	•compassion	•want student self-understanding (self-assurance)
•problem finding	•perseverance	•empathy	
•problem solving	•pride of effort	•giving to receiving/ from others	
•supporting evidence	•self-discipline (organizational skills)	•finding others' strengths or	

•risk taking

contributions
•patience
•intellectual flexibility
•honesty/integrity
•Responsibility
(including to the world

Do you recognize yourself?

5. Maintaining optimism is developed by

In an ideal world

1. A love of learning would be developed by

2. Mutual accommodation and adaptation would be developed by

3. Self discipline and self-motivation is developed by

4. Recognising and responding fittingly to others would be developed by

5. Maintaining optimism would be developed by

Appendix 2

This section contains a selection of unpublished papers, conference presentations and support materials for teachers relevant to the submission

This was a paper delivered at BERA to promote a discussion on the data gathered from the Hamlyn funded T. E. A. M. project that resulted in the publication Mentorship in Primary Schools edited by Robin Yeomans & John Sampson: Falmer 1994.

Papers 1, 2 3, 4, 5, 6, & 8 all draw on data from this research. It also informs Partnership contributions