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D0072844

**MAKING A DIFFERENCE:
WAYS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN
GENERAL NATIONAL
QUALIFICATIONS**

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION (EdD)

2001

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ABSTRACT

There is growing evidence of the positive affects of General National Vocational Qualifications on students and widely held views, almost assumptions, on appropriate teaching and learning styles. As these are not explicit in any form of the specifications it is postulated that it is the mediating influence of teachers which will determine the extent to which GNVQs are student-centred in learning and assessment, and how successful any course is in terms of levels of achievement by students. By following multiple lines of evidence in three advanced courses in one institution a comprehensive and robust picture is built up which illustrates the journey through a course of study for students and their teachers. Diverse aspects of the teaching and learning process drawn from differing perspectives, a variety of research reports of GNVQ courses, and the relationship of the significant role of formative and summative assessment in motivation and learning were considered in the literature review. The strands in the research methodology were also drawn together from lines of pursuit suggested by the literature. Data were gathered through student questionnaires, interviews with teachers and students, classroom observations and the scrutiny of students' work, assignments and various other documents. A synthesis of several seemingly disparate theoretical models of teaching and learning is provided leading to a conclusion that there is a much richer and more subtle range of activities occurring in student-centred teaching and learning than is readily explained by any one model. There is persuasive evidence emerging in a small context of current practice in Advanced GNVQ teaching that has resonance with wider studies of effective teaching. This has implications in contemplating the changes in post-16 education consequent upon the introduction of Curriculum 2000, both at institutional level and perhaps nationally.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background and aims of the research

General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQ) arrived on the educational scene in 1992. From relatively small beginnings in some sixty institutions they are now part of the curriculum offer to post-16 students in many secondary schools with sixth forms, colleges of further education, sixth form colleges and in a version known as Part One to 14 -16 year olds. Vocational qualifications as such were not new; British Technical Educational Council (BTEC) qualifications in a variety of vocationally related subjects had been available almost exclusively in colleges of further education and other qualifications such as the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE) and the Diploma of Vocational Education (DOVE) had had a very modest take-up in school sixth forms. Most schools would have had very little experience of any form of vocational education and the offer to the majority of students post-16 would have consisted of the General Certificate of Education at Advanced level (A level) which, as a qualification, is well into its fifth decade. The A level itself has always been well recognised by institutions of higher education and acts as a passport for students making applications to any course on offer. Employers also recognise the currency of the A level even if they are not always aware of the somewhat tenuous relationship between what an 18 year old may have studied and the requirements of what he or she may be required to do once in the workplace.

GNVQs were introduced with the intention of providing a national qualification which offered alternative routes into higher education and

employment to A levels, which for many young people were recognised as being inappropriate or even irrelevant ways of learning and studying. In structure they were very different from A levels and were set out in terms of outcomes, that is, what students would be expected to know and be able to do at the end of a course of study, largely demonstrated through the production of a portfolio or coursework. The applied emphasis of GNVQ is also distinctive. This implies that students should be able to apply or transfer their knowledge and skills in different contexts and situations, and know how and why they are doing so. GNVQs are not graded on an A to E scale, as are A levels. Instead students are graded Pass, Merit or Distinction according to how well they have demonstrated the process skills of:

- planning their work and monitoring its progress
- identifying, seeking and handling information they would need to complete the work
- evaluation of the outcome and justification of method
- synthesis and quality of outcomes

The concept of mastery, that is, of sufficient coverage of the whole of what was in the specification and derived from the employment driven National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ), was another significant feature of GNVQs. The specifications for any GNVQ were very different from any A level syllabus, for example, they had titles that, except for Art and Design or Business, would not have been recognised in the A level lexicon. They were also intended to replace BTEC qualifications with similar titles at similar levels and were introduced as having the notional equivalent value of two A levels, and consequently in curriculum planning terms, different provision would have to be made.

One part of the equation was time; in school sixth forms this effectively means devoting at least twice as much teaching time which might represent an opportunity cost in other areas of the curriculum. In colleges of further education the ability to “buy in” lecturers meant that this might not have

been so marked. Certainly, at conferences and awarding body meetings at the time, there were anecdotal tales of the “pressed men and women” being informed that they would be “doing” GNVQ in the next academic year. This was not the case in the institution where I am based which has been offering GNVQs since 1993, but nonetheless there have been fundamental changes in how teachers approach the work and a consequent impact on approaches to teaching and learning. So much is evident from team meetings and staffroom conversation. From a handful of teachers involved at the beginning there are now over twenty teaching on GNVQ courses, both vocational subject and key skills. The total remains fairly constant but *membership of the team is fluid. Some teachers appear to be quite happy with teaching GNVQ courses; others are not and the reasons for this are diverse.*

The experiences of both staff and students engaged on these courses over the past few years are fascinating and raise quite fundamental questions about the nature of GNVQ teaching and learning. One issue concerns the intentions behind GNVQ in terms of teaching and learning approaches at several levels, that is, at national, institutional and individual teacher and student level. Another facet is to explore what happens to these intentions, which, in practice, may quite possibly be at odds with each other.

My fascination with GNVQ centres on what is almost a puzzle between that which is set out in the specifications and how this is eventually made real by students. There is growing evidence about the positive affects of GNVQ on students and widely held views, almost assumptions, on appropriate teaching and learning styles. The latter are by no means explicit in any form of the specifications. Students in a sense come the way of GNVQ once; the constant in GNVQ in another sense is their teachers. I believe it to be the mediating influence of teachers that determines the extent to which GNVQs are student-centred in learning and assessment, and how successful any course is in terms of levels of achievement for students.

This may well be to state the obvious but nevertheless there is much happening in GNVQ courses in the school that has not been critically examined. Explanations have not been sought for the relative success, or otherwise, of students following their courses, nor of how adaptation to GNVQ teaching and learning has been made both for teachers and their students. Why is it that some teachers appear to be able to take GNVQ into their repertoire and adapt their approach but to others this seems more difficult? And how is it that students also seem to adapt to the styles of learning associated with GNVQs and changing relationships with their teachers who, for many of them, will have been teaching them for the previous five years?

This means looking for a variety of forms of mediation, between teachers and students, student and student, and with teachers acting almost as a conduit between the GNVQ specifications and their students, but not as a funnel or the only channel.

The mediating influence might then include:

- the building of relationships with students
- the quality of these relationships
- interpreting the language of the specifications
- differing or changes in teaching styles
- prompts to these changes - 'do GNVQ teachers still teach?'
- students becoming autonomous
- prompts to learning to become independent learners
- the role of assessment (may be shades of interpretation here)
- the roles in assessment - who, how and what is assessed, who assesses and when
- the role and styles of communication in all of these between students and teachers, student and student

Both teachers and students are the subject of data gathering; the perceptions and actions of both are vital factors in the teaching and learning equation. I see neither teacher nor student playing a passive role here, more a kind of developing symbiotic relationship, and this is not too romantic a notion, in the journey or passage through a course of study. Students are as necessary to teachers as teachers to students. As we contemplate the changes consequent upon the introduction of Curriculum 2000 there may well be clues to effective provision for all our post-16 students and for ways of managing teaching and learning that are realistic and derived from good practice, that is, from that which has been shown to work.

Since its introduction the qualification has come to some prominence in Governmental reviews of education both pre and post-16. It would however be unwise to assume that a working knowledge of GNVQs is wider than would be found in those institutions which offer these courses and beyond those teachers and lecturers within these institutions who are teaching students hoping to achieve the awards. Therefore, the following section sets out in some detail what is expected of students in completing a full award at each level. It also traces changes that have been made during that time which centres and their students have needed to assimilate. None of this is value-neutral. GNVQs themselves cannot be separated from the politics of education, nor, at individual institutional level can they be divorced from the micro-politics of the place.

The Changing Face of GNVQ

General National Vocational Qualifications were announced in 1991 in the Department of Education and Science (DES) White Paper "Education and Training for the 21st Century". They were intended to be one of the three broad educational pathways in a new National Qualifications Framework in which they would stand alongside GCE A levels and National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ). In this sense they were to be established as

vocational rather than occupational qualifications and were to enable young people to continue with a broad general education. Most NVQs with their occupational focus and emphasis on the workplace would not be practicable or possible for schools with sixth forms or sixth form college to contemplate. They were intended to offer alternative, more practical, ways of learning to the more traditional, academic A levels and to provide routes into work or higher education (HE).

By 1992 pilot versions were available in five subjects, Art and Design, Business, Health and Social Care, Leisure and Tourism, and Manufacturing, at two levels; Two and Three, this nomenclature being derived from the existing NVQ model. These were available nationally in 1993. Level One followed a year later in each case and by 1998 a total of fourteen subjects was available. In 1995 more substantially revised versions of Levels Two and Three were introduced, including their designation as Intermediate and Advanced. Level One was renamed as Foundation level.

An Advanced GNVQ is the equivalent of two A levels of at least E grade, an Intermediate four GCSEs at C grade, and the Foundation four GCSEs at D - G grade. Initially the awards were not time bound although it was likely that as they were aimed at the 16-19 age group they would be taken up by students in full-time education in colleges of further education, sixth form colleges and school sixth forms. This certainly informed curriculum planning at institution level and an expectation has grown that the Intermediate and Foundation awards should be completed in a year and the Advanced in two.

GNVQs are modular in structure. An Intermediate award will consist of four mandatory and two optional units. Unit tests attach to three or four of the mandatory units and, for students registered before September 2000, the Key Skills (formerly Core Skills) units of Application of Number, Communication and Information Technology must also be passed at Level 2. At Foundation level students are required to pass three tested mandatory

units and three optional units which may be chosen from the same or other vocational areas. Key Skills have to be passed at Level 1.

Advanced level consists of eight mandatory units and four optional units together with Key Skills at Level 3. Grading at Pass, Merit and Distinction is awarded by teacher judgement on how well students have met criteria for the three “process themes” of planning, information seeking and handling, and evaluation, and the “quality of outcomes theme” across one third of the portfolio of evidence produced. Neither the Key Skills units¹ nor the multiple choice unit tests contribute to grading.

The 1993 versions of GNVQs were closely modelled on NVQs with assessment at the level of the performance criteria in each element making up a unit (Appendix 1.1). This meant that in order to fulfil the evidence indicators all items in the range statements underpinning the criteria in each element would have to be covered and tracked.

By 1995 the specifications for GNVQ had been substantially revised with the aim of providing greater clarity and guidance and requiring assessment at element level rather than individual performance criteria. These units with their evidence indicators and underlying performance criteria set out what students must achieve in completing the work or demonstrating competence (Appendix 1.2). Amplification and Guidance sections are attached to each element within a unit (Appendix 1.3). New unit test specifications indicated which dimensions of the range statements would be tested.

My research is a response to the need to investigate what happens to the learning process where the outcomes of learning are specified, where all the work is assessed, and where knowledge or syllabus content is not detailed.

¹ Until September 2000 the three main key skills units were a compulsory part of any GNVQ at a similar level. Earlier proposals to incorporate versions of the key or core skills into A or AS syllabuses were resisted. (DES, 1989, NCC, 1990). The place of the wider key skills in relation to these syllabuses has been clarified in that all key skills are now 'sign posted' in each specification.

The GNVQ student, compared with an A level student, is a rather transparent creature. What constitutes the “underpinning” knowledge is not specified in terms of the outcomes, or competencies given in the units. The nature of this knowledge is important and likely to be more than functional or technical, a uniting of the liberal ideal and vocational preparation advocated by Pring (1995). The ideal has in “focusing upon the world of ideas, ignored the world of practice ... there has been a disdain for the practical intelligence ... the technological and the useful” (Pring, 1995, p.186). The “vocationalising of education now permeates the idea of liberal education itself” (Pring, 1995, p.188).

GNVQs have undergone further, and radical, change; the 1995 specifications will run until at least 2001 and the Capey report (NCVQ, 1995) on their assessment was pivotal in taking this transition forward. Much of the criticism of GNVQs was concerned with assessment and administration, chiefly that assessment decisions were not reliable and that external verification of these decisions by the three awarding bodies, British Technician Education Council, City and Guilds London Institute and Royal Society of Arts Examination Board (BTEC, CGLI and RSA), was not consistent. The assessment burden in schools and colleges lay in the amount of paperwork entailed in checking and providing evidence that students had indeed covered all the performance criteria in each element and that the evidence indicators were in place. A criticism was that in seeking to check the detail of assessment was covered meant assessment itself was atomised, that is, it was reduced to check-listing and box-ticking. As far as paper records went this may well have been the case but this was what centres were required to show as evidence of assessment decisions. Dr. John Capey made recommendations for rationalising and strengthening the assessment of all GNVQs. These included a move from assessment at element level to unit level. This then would require students to produce fewer assignments which would enable assessment of the higher order skills entailed in application of knowledge to be made. The reported experience of centres involved in the Capey pilot studies working to a revised model in selected units then had a

bearing on further developments initiated as part of the major review of education post-16. Sir Ron Dearing's recommendations for the whole of post-16 education have had significant repercussions, particularly in relation to the restructuring of the Advanced GNVQ, and the introduction of a six unit single award (Dearing, 1996a). The school was involved in the New Model pilot of the revised GNVQ which was intended to provide a prototype of the new GNVQ to be introduced in September 2000.

The revised units, developed in 1997 for the New Model Pilot, are set out very differently and are assessed at unit level with the range and performance criteria largely subsumed into subject content, or what the students need to learn (Appendix 1.4).

This is significant in that it represents a further degree of curriculum control, insofar as this will be tested in the new-style tests in those units to which they are attached. This is different from the multiple-choice questions which are part of the 1995 standards and which, theoretically, students should have been able to pass (at 70%, implying mastery) if they had produced the work for the portfolio. The new-style short-answer tests require students, particularly at Advanced level, to show that they can apply knowledge. "What you need to learn" may be quite freely interpreted as "what you will be taught".

The intention is to "reduce the burden of delivering GNVQs" and commitment to "ensuring that their assessment is robust and practical" (Capey, 1995). It might also prompt a shift to a less student centred delivery of knowledge. The grading criteria for Merit and Distinction are an integral part of the assessment evidence which has meant that in terms of assessment students and their teachers have needed to ensure that each bullet item is achieved before considering what is required for grading (Appendix 1.5).

In that what students need to plan and evaluate is set out in more or less explicit terms it may also have been thought more difficult for all but a few to achieve distinction. Conversely, has there been a ratchet effect on what is expected for a pass? It is too early to make a sound judgement but experience at local level shows that access to a pass grade is more straightforward, at any level, as the unit requirements are expressed more clearly. At the same time, although the requirements for Merit and Distinction are now much clearer in that they are embedded in the assessment criteria, our teachers thought it might be harder for students to achieve these in comparison with the vaguer but more widely spread 1995 grading themes. This has not been the case; students are achieving grading in both of the pilot subjects we offer comparable with what was achieved on the 1995 standards. The new Advanced GNVQ will also move closer to an A level grading system, that is a 5 grade scale from A to E.

As yet there is little empirical evidence on how GNVQs have been received or set in train at school or college level. At the microcosmic level of individual institutions little is known about how preparation and progress are made, and of what students and teachers experience during the development and unfolding of a course. Reports by HMI on quality, standards and assessment of GNVQs in schools touch on these issues but concentrate more on concerns about reliability and consistency of standards nationally, including the role of the awarding bodies (OFSTED, 1994, 1996). A report by the Further Education Funding Council reached similar conclusions (FEFC, 1994) and drew attention to the need for more clearly expressed GNVQ specifications, more rigorous external checks on standards, giving better student guidance and cutting drop-out rates. Other studies have been undertaken and reported but much is still at a rhetorical level and aimed at policy makers and curriculum planners, which is not to say that what is being said is not authentic but that the voice is one external to the place. The holding up of a metaphorical mirror to the institution is potentially valuable in making real and connecting with the external voice, but we also need to listen to the many internal voices which have equally important things to say.

As Woods puts it, "In this way, voices are not just armchair articulations - they become empowered" (1999, p. 62).

The School is now in the sixth year of offering and running GNVQ courses which include the original five subject areas, Art and Design, Business, Health and Social Care, Leisure and Tourism, and Manufacturing. At one level the introduction of GNVQs has been a success - the students who have been recruited onto courses have not detracted from recruitment to the more traditional "academic" courses. They represent a genuine increase in the sixth form and to some extent the increase in the numbers of Advanced GNVQ students is "home-grown", that is, having achieved Intermediate in a year, they then return on Advanced level, not necessarily in the same subject. That there is a growth in GNVQ numbers is characteristic of what is happening nationally (FEDA, 1998; Gleeson & Hodkinson, 1996; Morris, 1998; Wolf, 1997).

One of my aims in this research is to examine the student and teacher experience by focusing upon the particular circumstances of one institution, what happens in GNVQ courses which are running in its school sixth form and to evaluate the effectiveness of these programmes in terms of student learning. In the New Model pilot these are Business and Art and Design. The 1995 standards still apply in Health and Social Care, Leisure and Tourism, and Manufacturing. All subjects incorporated the new Key Skills 2000 model units in Application of Number, Communication, and *Information Technology*.

Development of the courses, including being part of the Capey pilot and in preparation for the New Model has been rapid because time for planning has been made available. Systematic review of the courses in terms of teaching and learning has not been made beyond annual course evaluation. Students' perspectives on their own learning are not known formally nor are those of their teachers.

Underlying these developments are fundamental questions related to the effects of this outcomes based approach; and how teachers and students interpret the language of the specifications. How does the organisation of the timetable and the groupings of students with their teachers influence styles of teaching and learning?

Teachers' roles in GNVQ have changed from what they may have been in teaching GCSE or A level subjects. They become assessors, that is, they facilitate or set up the opportunities for students (candidates for assessment) to demonstrate or provide evidence of achievement against performance criteria. They also make judgements on whether the work students present for assessment fulfils the requirements of the evidence indicators for each element or the assessment evidence in the new style units. Hodgson-Wilson (1997) describes this as engaging in a "more holistic approach to developing knowledge, understanding and skills" (p. 7) than might have been encountered on more traditional A level courses where the prime concern of teachers is the transmission or teaching of a body of subject knowledge, which will be assessed almost totally by external examination. This poses another fundamental question, "do teachers on GNVQ courses still teach?" Anecdotal evidence shows that the approach in the school to GNVQ has not always been smooth; the shift has seemed to be from whole class-based work to more individualised learning which can be potentially threatening and unsettling for teachers as well as students. To accept that at times the only people who know where they are in terms of learning are the students themselves can be disquieting. What is it in the assessment pattern of GNVQs that engages students and promotes this seeming autonomy? Much of what is in the specifications requires students to become problem solvers in the sense that Andre describes as "the mental and behavioural activities that are involved in dealing with problems. Problem solving may involve cognitive ... emotional or motivational ... and behavioural components" (Andre, 1989, p.61).

I believe this research is relevant and timely. At a rhetorical level there is a

growing body of literature which examines in detail the background to the development of and need for a vocational route to qualifications (Bates, 1996; DfEE, 1997; Gleeson and Hodkinson, 1996; Jessup, 1991; Pring, 1995). This forms part of the backdrop to the research which should then serve to exemplify and illustrate the literature. It also provides a further stimulus for the framing of questions.

As already indicated, little is known in depth about the student experience of GNVQ or that of teachers, apart from staff room or conference conversation and accounts of opportunistic encounters with students. A review of young peoples' perceptions carried out in 1996 as part of the overall Dearing Review was one of the first national studies. Amongst the findings were that GNVQ students were more likely to have been engaged in student centred work such as carrying out projects or experiments and that much of their work was centred around independent study and research. Students themselves were critical of multiple choice tests and considered that in some aspects continuous assessment was disorganised (Dearing, 1996b). Another study undertaken at the University of Newcastle upon Tyne in 1997 found that there were significant differences between the modes of study and learning for students following GNVQ courses and those following A levels (Meagher, 1997).

By addressing the two questions:

1. What is GNVQ intended to do in terms of teaching and learning approaches?
2. What actually happens in practice?

my study adds to this knowledge in that it is intended to be both developmental and illuminative, and, at school level, by taking account of what students say, should contribute to the design and writing of better assignments, study guides and units of work, and the enhancement of learning.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite their somewhat meteoric appearance GNVQs at present seem to be a phenomenon of some substance in post-16 education. There are several seemingly disparate lines of enquiry to be pursued here in considering the political impetus behind their introduction and their underlying pedagogical animus. The outcomes model itself which was influential in shaping the continuing development of *General National Vocational Qualifications* has been subject to criticism, some which might be considered rather partisan but some which needs more critical examination, particularly when it is applied directly to GNVQ. There is then the apparently accepted attachment of student centred teaching and learning styles to GNVQ which also requires more critical review. This entails examination of diverse models of the learning process, in particular the theories of Kolb, Wubbels and Levy, and Entwistle, and, what it might mean to be both GNVQ teacher and learner. These also provide an eclectic source and underpinning rationale for the elected research methodology and choice of research instruments. In addition, GNVQs are expressed in terms of their assessment; therefore the role of assessment and its various shades of meaning will also need to be examined and how these affect the relationship between teaching and learning.

GNVQ and the Outcomes Model

Since its introduction in 1991, Jessup's Outcomes model of the curriculum which underpins NVQ and GNVQ has been subject to much scrutiny and criticism, most notably that it is located in a tradition of behavioural

objectives (Jessup, 1991). The application of behavioural theory to learning focuses on the conditions for learning and external reinforcement of correct responses. Teachers are managers of instruction, learning is passive and atomistic. One of the problems with behaviourist approaches to learning is that the role of cognitive processes, of thinking and planning in shaping human behaviour and development, is largely ignored.

Burke (1995) finds that much of the criticism of the outcomes model is founded on a view of the curriculum which puts teachers at the heart of many models. In this teacher-centric model the significant decisions about how and when to teach are made by teachers, typically students will be systematically instructed in a body of knowledge by whatever means are available. This is in contrast to the learner centred model advocated by Jessup, where the teacher is seen as important and as a significant resource. Burke argues that many educationalists have suggested a more balanced approach to teaching and learning, in a circular model linking curriculum objectives, knowledge, learning experiences and assessment. Such a model recognises that learning can and does take place outside formal class or lecture rooms. By advocating this wider recognition of learning he reconciles the supposedly opposing stances of both Stenhouse, one of the earliest and most vehement critics of behaviourist approaches to education, and Jessup (p.75) by affirming that learning can and should be experiential and developmental. The different role of NVQ and GNVQ teachers in devising and creating learning opportunities in context, as opposed the “traditional chalk and talk” is emphasised (p.75). The units comprising a GNVQ are not units of instruction but units of assessment. This has enabled teachers to adopt a flexible approach to work and to recognise that in working with students who make progress at different rates they do indeed “adopt a stance not dissimilar from what Stenhouse advocates” (p.75).

This partly answers the charge made that GNVQ are essentially behaviourist in their orientation. The view of the learner in the outcomes model is as an active participant and that learning occurs because he or she actively

engages with and tries to understand the environment. The learner will build on prior knowledge to understand new situations and will be prepared to change previously held knowledge to deal with them. Andre and Phye (1986) developed typologies of behavioural learning theory and traditional cognitive theory. Learners in behavioural theory are seen as “passive and reactive to environment”, where “learning is the acquisition of new associations” and “education consists of arranging stimuli so that desired associations are made”. This contrasts with traditional cognitive theory where “education consists of allowing/encouraging active mental exploration of complex environments” (Open University, 1990, p.45). Whereas “the behaviourist tradition emphasises a mechanistic conception of learning”, based on studies of animal behaviour, in the traditional cognitive tradition, “thinking and mental activity are fundamental” (Open University, 1990, p.46). Further to this, Wood (1988) has shown that learning theorists recognise that people do tend to be rather more self-directed and how the cognitive element in learning does not have to be conditioned by external reinforcement. “In many situations humans do think about problems before engaging in behaviour” (Andre, 1989, p.62). The view of the learner in Jessup’s model is resonant of this.

The outcomes model (Jessup,1991) itself was derived from a competence based model. Both models signalled a considerable shift in how forms of learning could be described, marking a change from a provider-led or inputs system to an emphasis on what people actually learn from education or training and how effectively they learn it. It is the statements or elements of competence or outcomes which determine the standards for the qualification. Assessment is based on the outcomes statements, which include the criteria for success, is supposed to rely on continuous assessment and on the collection of evidence, of which for GNVQ, externally marked tests are a relatively small part. The outcomes themselves are:

in the form of competences, skills, knowledge or cognitive processes. Thus the concept of a qualification in the

outcomes model is (a) the outcomes sought, including the criteria for success, are explicitly stated; (b) assessment should be based on the achievement of such outcomes.

(Gokulsing, DaCosta and Jessup, 1997, p.3)

The evidence should arise naturally out of performance both within and beyond the formal education or training setting. What is required is that whilst the assessment should be “appropriate, relevant, valid and reliable” (Gokulsing, DaCosta and Jessup, 1997, p.50), it is also comprehensive; there is no sampling. Implicit in this is the concept of mastery, that is, the meeting of all criteria.

At no time was there any indication of how any of this might be done, of what a programme of learning might look like. Jessup is also silent on why people want to learn. Implicit in the model is a vision of the learner as self motivated, self-supporting and knowing how to learn. Jessup acknowledges the problem of what constitutes knowledge in an outcomes model by describing this in a broad sense including the “understanding of concepts, principles, theories, and relationships ... which underpin competent performance” (p.121). He is critical of the separate teaching and assessment of knowledge where it becomes an end in itself, and cannot be applied in practice. This relates to what Schon (1991) says about professionals who perceive that “professional knowledge is mismatched to the changing character of the situations of practice ... professionals are called upon to perform tasks for which they have not been educated” (p.14).

Writing in 1995 Jessup maintains that whilst the learning programmes for GNVQs are not prescribed the outcomes statements are “a mechanism for encouraging certain forms of learning ... active ... requiring students to demonstrate a range of cognitive and interpersonal and practical skills, as well as an understanding of the principles which govern them” (Burke, 1995, p.33).

Jessup's contribution to the NVQ/GNVQ edifice and their location in the Qualifications Framework cannot be understated. The National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) was set up by Government in 1986 with a specific remit to develop "standards of a new kind" (Jessup, 1991, pp. 165-166) which would provide a comprehensive framework in which individual qualifications and part qualifications would relate to each other. At this time Jessup was Director of Research, Development and Information at NCVQ. A Review of Vocational Qualifications by the Manpower Services Commission in 1986 had shown that there was not a clear or understandable pattern of provision and what there was had gaps, or considerable overlaps. In addition to this there were barriers to access attributable to attendance requirements, entry requirements, membership regulations and ill-defined arrangements for progression and transfer. Assessment was found to be inadequate and biased towards testing of knowledge or skill, without testing competence required in employment. The system, such as it was, of vocational qualifications was not sufficiently responsive to changing needs and technologies and consequently some emerging sectors of industry and commerce were inadequately covered. The ramifications of the different provision, content and status of the various schemes available were confusing to employers, employees and their advisors alike.

The new standards were specified in terms of outcomes, not inputs, that is *what an individual will have achieved in the qualification is explicit; the course, programme or mode of learning is not and therefore does not, as hitherto, determine what and how achievement will be made.* The specification of learning objectives made possible a reference grid or unifying framework for learning.

NVQs were set out as units of credit or qualification. Qualifications in such a system can be defined as groups of units or credit that together describe occupational requirements. Alongside these outcome-led qualifications different forms of assessment were developed which were designed to

facilitate learning, be learner-friendly and not formal examination based. The format for the statement of competence for a qualification is set out in three levels of detail:

- NVQ title
- units of competence
- elements of competence, with their associated performance criteria

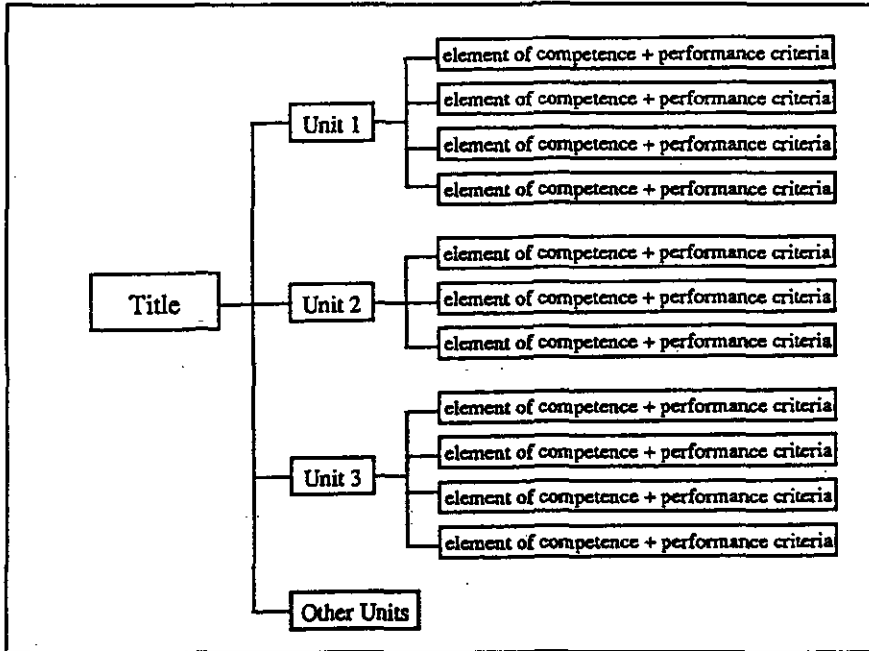


Fig 2.1 Format of the Statement of Competence (Jessup, 1991, p.17)

The statements of competence in any NVQ were employment led, not derived from education and training programmes, and determined by Industry Lead Bodies, with a responsibility for “saying what the requirements for qualifications, and thus training, are.” (Jessup, 1991, p.18). Therefore training is intended and supposed to be relevant to future employment requirements. NVQs also allowed more freedom of access, in that they were not time or age dependent.

Whilst GNVQs were developed from the NVQ model they have always been significantly different. Whereas NVQs are “competence-based, specialised and are assessed mainly in the workplace ... GNVQ are broader, less-job

specific and assessed within the school or college” (Nicholls, 1993, p.7). They were designed as “an example of an outcomes model being delivered in an educational context”, (Jessup, 1995, p.41) and were introduced as an alternative to GCSEs and A levels. Jessup also located them in the Qualifications Framework:

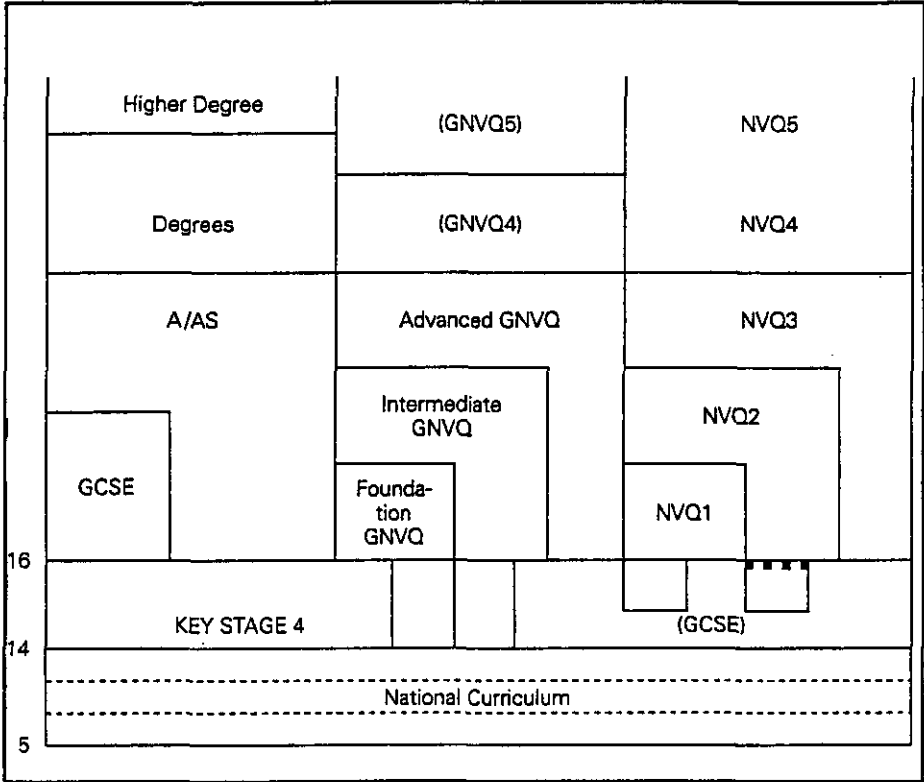


Fig. 2.2 National Qualification Framework (Jessup, 1995, p. 50)

At the time GNVQs too were not time bound. The expectation has grown since that they will be achieved “in the normal two-year time-span” (comment made during OFSTED Inspection and reflecting ministerial pronouncements). Another significant difference from the more traditional academic qualifications was in the forms of assessment, that is, GNVQs were set out as specifications of outcome; as units of assessment.

Although GNVQs are changing, the unit structure remains. Changes in A/AS to be implemented in 2000 mean that these also will be unit based or modular in their structure. Although credit transfer, that is, between one qualification and another, is unlikely to be in place before 2005 it is apparent

that the moves have not simply been in one direction, by GNVQ towards A/AS levels. Writing in 1998 McEwen, McGuinness and Knipe found that the two types of syllabus now have a great deal in common and that the relative cognitive demands made on students would suggest that A-levels, if anything, have moved more towards the GNVQ pattern than the converse, particularly those which have incorporated a modular structure. Jessup's influence is still very much in evidence.

The suspicion of GNVQ and their supposed similarities to NVQ still lingers and may be explained partly by a confusion on the use of terms and how they are applied. The more traditional academic syllabuses have usually been written in terms of aims and objectives, generally the aims being a very broad statement of purposes and the objectives describing in some detail what students should be expected to learn, the pattern of assessment and what would be assessed. GCSE syllabuses have assessment criteria, that is, they specify what a candidate is expected to be able to do at a given level. Criteria are used synonymously with objectives. "The value of objectives ... is that they can provide both a goal for the teaching and a measure of its effectiveness" (Rowntree, 1982, p. 7). Burke (1995) characterises an objective as "essentially, an intention, a learning outcome as the projected realisation of that intention" (p.56). The ways in which people behave,

what they say and do - is our only way of getting to know their beliefs and capabilities and understandings. We have no direct access to anyone's state of mind, except our own. ... we seek behavioural changes in our students, we can help towards behavioural objectives, *without using any teaching strategies derived from or reminiscent of behaviourist psychology* ... we are ultimately concerned not with the *process* of behaviour, but with its *praxis* - what it means to be the learner.

(Rowntree, 1982, pp.16 -17)

This is not the same as a teaching or training model located in a behaviourist tradition. What Rowntree shows us is that behaviour, in its widest sense, is a way of knowing what individuals know, understand and can do. By no means is it a translation into classroom terms of the laboratory experiments designed to condition animals. Nor is it the sequenced step-by-step learning required to carry out certain tasks. Rowntree's view of the learner is resonant with that of Jessup: active, motivated, independent, ready to engage in self-assessment. GNVQs are not about behaviour modification in its strictest sense; they are essentially to do with learning, which can take many forms and it is by manifest behaviour that is different from what it was previously that we may judge whether and to what extent it has taken place. It is the criteria by which learning may be judged to have occurred which are made explicit and expressed in objective terms.

Objectives also enable teachers to “communicate about the intentions of teaching and learning ... they will be more likely to be achieved if they are known to the students as well as the teacher.” In addition they help teachers to “decide on appropriate means of evaluation and assessment ... and of finding out what and how well your students are learning” (Rowntree, 1982, pp. 48 & 51).

The outcomes listed in GNVQ units are broad and:

general enough to allow a wide variety of outcomes to meet the requirements of the units ... the evidence indicators are exactly that: indicators. They are not absolute requirements. Teachers and students can negotiate with external verifiers alternative evidence to that stated in the unit.

(Oates, 1997, p.144)

There is scope here for flexibility according to local circumstances and the possibility of different routes being followed by different students in their learning and producing work for assessment. As a model it is also

significantly different from the way in which students have worked toward the requirements of assessment for A/AS levels.

Jessup is silent on how people will accumulate the knowledge and experience necessary to achieve the outcomes specified. To assume that this speaks of a behaviourist approach may be seen as inappropriate: in behaviourist schemata not only would desired outcomes be specified but also the ways in which teaching and learning should proceed, and the ways in which learning would be reinforced. There is no evidence of this in GNVQ specifications which set out what students will be expected to know, understand and do. How they will achieve this is very much left to decisions and circumstances at local level. The more successful approaches to GNVQ appear to have been through more experiential, student-centred learning.

Critiques of General National Vocational Qualifications

Since their introduction in 1992 the development and take-up of GNVQ have been rapid. During this time they have been bedevilled by adverse criticism and are rarely out of the news. Smithers (1993) in the Channel 4 Dispatches Report was very critical of GNVQ, chiefly that they did not have a syllabus, that “there is no list of what it is students should learn or teachers teach other than the outcomes” and that “the lack of a syllabus means teachers are left with a loose and poorly-defined framework within which they must decide what to teach.” He also talks of a “schematic framework derived from behavioural psychology ruthlessly applied” (p.32). It should be remembered that this was in the first year that GNVQs were generally available and although they were well received in a variety of centres there would be many who would have had little experience of running vocational courses of any kind. In addition Smithers seems to have muddled GNVQ with NVQ, which the programme was essentially about.

Thorne and Cashdan (1994) consider that the concerns over the lack of a written syllabus amount to “hair-splitting” and that there is in the specifications a “great deal of information” from which it is “not all that difficult to infer what coverage will be needed” (p.460). Implicit in this is the idea of teachers inferring or interpreting, not students. They point to the stress on building on the “know, understand, can do” of the national curriculum and on the development of independence, both of which provide a foundation for HE. Significantly McEwen, McGuinness and Knipe (1999) talk of similarities between GNVQ and A Level *syllabuses*, a signal of recognition that GNVQ, in their evolving forms have constituted an abstract or programme of a course of study. The developments in A level *syllabuses* do bring them closer to the GNVQ model in that they provide a specification or detailed requirements of what will be assessed, and indeed from September 2000 the requirements for both GNVQ and A levels will be known as specifications. They consider that “academically GNVQs are holding their own in traditional A-level territory and that ... the implicit labelling of the *syllabuses* as somehow intellectually second rate no longer seems to hold” (1999, p.14).

Also from September 2000 the title GNVQ will be replaced by a new title, Advanced Certificate of Vocational Education (ACVE), which signals ministerial intention that there should be parity of status between the two qualifications. “I am bedevilled by those who do down the vocational qualifications. They have to wake up to the fact that this is what goes on in other countries” (Blunkett, 2000). Even before this, Thorne and Cashdan (1994) argued that GNVQ might provide students with better preparation for further and higher education. Evidence at local level shows that GNVQ students are now receiving offers of places in higher education on the basis of their GNVQ alone, usually with merit grading, and without further additionality of A or AS levels. GNVQ as a qualification have been in place long enough for the first cohorts of students to have completed study in higher education and to have shown that by the final year of a degree course they are doing rather better than holding their own. There will now be a real

choice between NVQ, GNVQ, A/AS levels or a combination of these and already the debate about the wisdom or practicality of introducing this is beginning to gather pace (Hart, 1998, Pyke, 1998). GNVQs at present retain their curriculum distinctiveness to a degree. It remains to be seen how far the renaming of GNVQ as ACVE does provide a way of crossing the supposed “academic divide” (Cassidy, 2000).

Both Smithers (1996) and Wolf (1997) are critical of the whole structure of GNVQ and of what the Dearing Review was trying to do. Smithers considers that GNVQ “started in the wrong place” (1996), as an offshoot of NVQ and that unless they had specific content and appropriate assessment that they would continue to be “second rate”. What he seems to be holding up is another version of A levels which would be separated from the outcomes model and out of the hands of the then NCVQ. The Curriculum 2000 model of Advanced GNVQs would seem to indicate that this has not happened. The specifications for these still differ significantly from those from the new AS and A levels, particularly in their requirements for assessment. Wolf considers that advanced GNVQs do not do what they are supposed to which is “to provide a broad or well conceptualised vocational qualification” (p.118) in terms of a 21st century economy. In this sense she is right to be concerned that the majority of take-up in GNVQ subjects persists in the “big four” of Art and Design, Business, Leisure and Tourism, and Health and Social Care, and also that they do not have enough mathematical, technological or scientific content. This last concern is not a problem confined to GNVQs per se. The phenomenon of not enough post-16 students choosing or wishing to study in these areas is characteristic of the whole of the cohort. Students choose to study what they perceive will take them into employment or further or higher education. That GNVQs do this is evident in UCAS statistics and destination details kept by many institutions. Many GNVQ students are in school sixth forms where the “dominant culture is that of academic study and where few staff have recent industrial experience” (Wolf, 1997, p.113). She provides evidence to show which types GNVQ centres are, for example colleges of further

education or secondary schools with sixth forms, but none to support the statement about staff experience. She concludes that GNVQ do offer a coherent route from GCSE to HE and in this sense considers that they are educational rather than vocational qualifications.

However, recent case studies (NCVQ, 1997; FEDA, 1999) set out the reverse of this in that they show young people holding the award at various levels and in different subjects using the qualification as a route into work, that is, as a vocational qualification which has indeed equipped them for employment. Records at a local level also show that GNVQ students are progressing into HE, FE, apprenticeships and employment. (Appendix 2.1)

Pring (1995) is critical of vocational preparation when the aim is not “intellectual excellence for its own sake, but competence at work ... or in the tasks that adults have to perform ... at home and in the community” (p.187) and in this is somewhat at variance with Wolf. For Pring a disjunction is that the value of what is learnt does not lie in its intrinsic worth or social *improvement but in its usefulness to the economy at national or individual level, or to the wider community.* He accepts that vocational preparation does indeed have a set of values, including personal and social qualities but is concerned that in the “hi-jacking” of the pre-vocational tradition by the vocational and the imposition of the “inadequate language and behavioural psychology of NVQ” that the more “complex processes of learning leading to different sorts of understanding ... have no place in the GNVQ language” (Pring, p.69). This however seems not to recognise that GNVQs were developed differently from NVQs and that successive revisions have maintained those differences.

For Bates et al (1998) the problems of GNVQ are far more deep-rooted and lie in a structural conflict between the ideologies of progressivism and vocationalism. Although the foundation of progressivism lies in primary education with its emphasis on topic work, when applied in secondary education the construction of knowledge through experiential learning

should be a salient feature. Traditionally in England any form of vocational or pre-vocational education has been marginal and not highly regarded. GNVQs, with their derivation from the competence movement were introduced by the then Conservative government and were quite deliberately constituted and developed under the aegis of the NCVQ. As such they were very much a reflection of a newly defined relationship between education and the needs of the national economy. For Bates et al GNVQs do not really afford students autonomy or self-direction but more a learner responsibility, that is, the responsibility for achieving pre-specified outcomes is devolved to the student. Progressivism is “masked and often undermined by partly contradictory ideologies, practices and procedures, within a controlled vocationalist context.” (p. 120) However, as Bates et al acknowledge, at institutional level, no-one, teacher or student, can be forced to teach or learn in a pre-specified manner. The pedagogical intention of GNVQs could be subverted if students are not able or willing to exercise choice or teachers do not or cannot plan for more flexible approaches to work. The claim that GNVQs provide for “flexibility and responsivity in the interests of students” is questioned and these are seen as somewhat “ghostlike” (pp. 123 & 124).

Choice itself by students is seen as somewhat illusory and the notion of student empowerment is questionable. In his account of students’ reasons for choosing to follow GNVQ courses Hodkinson (1998) found for some students there was no choice of whether they would be studying a GNVQ, since that was the only option, depending on their chosen institution, GCSE qualifications and even cultural background. As he points out “simply giving choices does nothing to address the underlying inequalities of society.... in all career and education choices, decisions are never made by young people alone.” (p. 161). In this sense young people are not really in a position to take control of their own educational futures; there is still much invested by educational providers. However, this is to see provision of courses for young people as straightforward, that once they are assigned to courses teachers will meet their needs, and progress will be made, a belief “that if,

somehow, we get it right, then student, college and society are all winners.”
(Bloomer and Hodkinson, 1999, p. 31)

This might seem to cast GNVQ in a more malign and reductionist mode in that as they are seen as relevant to the world of work they steer young people towards more technical knowledge and require them to “exercise a right to make judgements on the very issues about which they lack requisite knowledge.” (Bloomer, 1998, p. 168) A problem for Bloomer is that GNVQ students tend to accept at face value what they read in text books or are given by their teachers. Learning then becomes a receptive rather than an interactive activity. Gaining knowledge by direct contact with companies or businesses outside the institution is not seen by Bloomer as being a truly interactive learning experience. But Bloomer’s data was gathered by interview with students and their teachers, not by examination of student work or observation of any teaching and learning activities. The construction of students’ knowledge is seen as problematic and “little more than data retrieval exercises” (p.179) and students have little opportunity to learn from experience. Bloomer considers that the outcomes in GNVQ are rigidly prescribed and that there is little scope for teacher inventiveness and diversity of practice. “It has its successes, although it seems that these derive more from the agency of teachers and students than the prescriptive curriculum of GNVQ itself.” (p. 184), perhaps a tacit acknowledgement that GNVQs do allow for creativity on the part of young people and their teachers and that there are inherent opportunities for the construction of knowledge.

For Bates there is little space for influence over the curriculum content of GNVQs and she sees the notion of student empowerment as at odds with the requirements of assessment. Since the introduction of the 1995 standards, which changed the level of assessment from individual performance criteria and range to element level, a further criterion for grading, quality of outcomes, was added to the learning process themes of planning, information seeking and handling, and evaluation. She notes that

as students became “hunters and gatherers” of information “they became responsible for planning their work to meet deadlines, gathering information, writing up assignments and contributing to the evaluation of what they had done.” (p. 193) and that the elements of independent learning:

required students to manage a greater proportion of their work output, over longer periods than is the case where learning is mainly based on classroom teaching.... This basic ‘do-it-yourself’ principle meant that students needed to discipline themselves, or in sociological terms to become self-regulatory and self-steering.

(Bates, 1998, p. 194)

This however, is an ideal situation and not every student will achieve such a *measure of autonomy or self-regulation, but will resist being cast into any kind of self-steering role, and “by resisting the enlarged self-supervision responsibilities embodied in the pedagogy of ‘empowerment’, students realised their own potential classroom power.”* (p. 202)

Part of the problematising of GNVQs lies in the situation described by Pound, “...that A levels still set the standard against which all other achievements post-16 have to be measured.” The debate over the narrowness of education in the post-compulsory sector precedes Dearing and other writers and can be traced through successive governmental reports, for example, Crowther in 1959, which advocated specialism, the Peterson proposals in 1960 which aspired to broaden study in the sixth-form, and the governmental rejection of the Higginson Report in 1988. Issues in post-16 education which needed to be addressed included low levels of participation after 16 either on a narrow academic route with a high failure rate or an even narrower route to low status vocational qualifications. Institutional provision was likely to be fragmented and divided, with limited progression for those not on the A level route. There were limited opportunities for “drop-outs”, those who found employment and for those

who wanted to return to education later, compounded by a range of incommensurate assessment criteria.

The retention of the A level route to universities is deeply entrenched. Pound considers that “in failing to replace the existing range of qualifications post-16 with a new, overarching award, the Dearing Review has stopped short of introducing a much-needed reform.” but also perceives that “renewed support for modular A-level syllabuses, the introduction of a redesigned AS level, together with a new National framework embracing both academic and vocational qualifications will do much to address the systemic weakness of A-level courses and the issue of parity of esteem.” (Pound, 1998, p. 179). Young and Spours (1998) believe that successive policies for 14-19 education remain a “complex mixture of rigidity and dogma, confusion and pragmatism and genuine possibilities for the future.” (p. 94) and for them an overall strategy for 14-19 education is required to create a more inclusive and coherent National Qualifications Framework. It remains to be seen how far the renaming of GNVQ as Vocational A-levels does provide a way of crossing the supposed “academic divide” (Cassidy, 2000). GNVQs demonstrably have not been “immune to criticism” (Bloomer, 1998); rather it would seem that successive changes are evidence of this.

Part of the criticism levelled at GNVQ is that they are not subjects as such, do not have specific enough content and therefore are “second-rate” (Smithers, 1996). This is seeing a subject in a particular way, in that it encapsulates a fixed body of knowledge which then becomes a “ready vehicle for determining assessable work” (Open University, 1990, p.25). Goodson, writing in 1983, has identified three traditions in the rise and fall of school subjects, the academic, the utilitarian and the pedagogic, and suggested that the tensions between these create a different version of a subject, as “social communities containing groups with conflicting loyalties and intentions and with variable and changing boundaries”, but with the so-called academic subject at the top of the hierarchy. Because of this,

groups in the utilitarian and pedagogic traditions will also try to promote their subjects as “academic”. Ultimately these subjects accrete academic respectability with “academic examination” (Open University, 1990, p. 26) in subject area knowledge.

The change in the new model of GNVQs with their unit based assessment could be seen as a move in this direction except that it was already apparent before this they were increasingly becoming academically acceptable in their own right by higher education institutions. One of the inherent dangers in the New Model Pilot has been that with the different style of tests, the more rigorous Key Skills assessment, including external components, “academic drift” almost becomes structural. Hodgson-Wilson (1997) considered that comparisons with GCE A levels in “pulling GNVQ towards more external forms of assessment ... may render them a less attractive route for students” (p.6). Writing in 1996, Tysome considers that “Employers remain to be convinced of the value of GNVQs, despite their feelings that A levels and NVQs alone are not enough to meet their needs for a more flexible workforce” (1996, p.5). Further it would appear that employers want GNVQs to be different because they should assess different types of skills, and feel because part of the remodelling of GNVQs has been to clarify their relationship to A Levels that the relationship to employment has been overlooked. One of the most significant features of the new developments has been to equate the new 6 Unit award with a full A Level. It remains to be seen whether the 12 Unit Double award will survive and if it does not how far an AVCE (six units) will provide a good relationship to employment in a particular sector.

The New Model units with their new evidence of achievement section and external testing regime are part of the wider move towards a political desire to measure and categorise student and institutional performance. Despite this there still remains a fair degree of flexibility in how the learning section will be covered and how the evidence will be achieved. There continues to be a creative space for students and teachers. The kind of learning

advocated by Jessup should still be accessible through GNVQ and the new ACVE.

Oates (1997) traced changes in forms of assessment in the 14+ curriculum and the concomitant “unintended outcome effect” (p.135). In particular he detailed the shift in GNVQ assessment from the “mastery” model located in NVQ assessment to a more compensatory form, nudging assessment closer to A and AS level assessment (p.144). He identifies the causal relationships in assessment processes, that is, the link between the mode of assessment and achievement. He maintains that how assessment is to be made, particularly in GNVQs, provides motivation, which then leads to learning and thence to the achievement (p.146). In the New Model Pilot units the idea of compensation at present seems to go as far as offsetting relatively poor performance in tests against better performance in the portfolio. There is, as yet, no compensation within the unit specifications themselves, that is, it remains the case that whatever the student is required to do for a pass, merit or distinction, they must fulfil all parts in that particular unit.

Teaching and Learning Styles in GNVQ

A report of a study of GNVQ at Newcastle University (Meagher, 1997) was one of the first to illuminate the student experience by investigating teaching and learning methods used in the delivery of Advanced GNVQ courses and which of these appeared to be most effective in producing successful outcomes for students. By identifying those aspects of teaching and learning which are unique to GNVQs and those which are shared with A level, the distinctive features of effective learning can be drawn out. These can be “exciting, daunting, often misunderstood, ultimately rewarding for those who successfully complete the course” (p. x). Compared with A level students Meagher found that the responsibility for learning in Advanced GNVQ courses rested with students, particularly the extent to which:

- The method of working is decided by students
- The task is closely defined by students
- The pace of work is set by students
- Meaning is discovered by the students
- Students use IT
- Students are engaged in a variety of activities at any one time
- Students work explicitly on communication skills

(Meagher, 1997, pp. 36-37)

Writing about their findings of a research project on communication styles of teachers in further education establishments, and in particular how these differ between GNVQ, BTEC or A level programmes, Harkin and Davis (1996a) found that characteristic of GNVQ classes are high levels of student activity and negotiation between students and teachers. When teachers who were more used to A levels begin to teach GNVQ they often had difficulty in changing to a more open, affective style, “teachers can become habituated to ineffective practices, and teachers and learners can get caught up in ineffective complementary behaviours” (p.103). This resonates with some of our experiences with vocational subjects and key skills in the school, where, because of uncertainties about what the specifications mean, and the significance of these for students, there is almost a wish by some teachers to find security in whole-class teaching of specific skills and knowledge before students may apply them. This has not been positively received by some students. Tabberer (1997) reminds us that “sometimes the disjunction between how teachers perceive their own teaching and their actual practice can be major” (p.6).

In a further account Harkin and Davis (1996b) described the investigative instrument used, a Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) developed at the University of Utrecht by Theo Wubbels and Jack Levy. This was based on studies undertaken in the secondary years of education in a number of countries, and has been widely tested for validity and reliability in several separate longitudinal studies over two decades. One of the fundamental

questions for Harkin and Davis was that with the rise of outcome based programmes, including GNVQ, there would be an expectation of an increase in learner responsibility and freedom. In addition they also expected there would be evidence of changed patterns of communication between teachers and learners. Using the Utrecht model they found that on outcome based courses there are areas in which learner and teacher perceptions are diametrically opposed (1996b, p.28) and that this for some teachers had led to tension between wanting to be seen as warm, supportive and promoting student autonomy but at the same time wishing to use strict control that would limit this autonomy. This is significant to my research questions - *what is intended to happen and what actually happens.*

One of the problems Harkin and Davis encountered in their study was a difficulty associated with students being given the opportunity to discuss aspects of perceived teacher behaviour with an outside researcher. This was only partly resolved in that teachers in participating centres were asked to nominate classes for completing the QTI and therefore might be assumed to have a positive disposition towards the groups of students they were teaching.

Harkin and Davis (1996a, 1996b), Meagher (1997) and Rowntree (1982) draw attention to the significant role of communication in learning, as do Black (1998), Black and Wiliam (1998a, 1998b) Wiliam and Black (1996) in assessment. Therefore the Model for Teacher Interaction and Behavior (Wubbels, Creton, Levy and Hooymayers, 1993) warrants more detailed analysis.

The Utrecht Model for Teacher Interaction and Behaviour

The Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction is derived from this model which categorises teacher characteristics and behaviour. In its short form the questionnaire (Wubbels et al, 1993, pp. 25-26) (Appendix 2.2) has two sets

questionnaire (Wubbels et al, 1993, pp. 25-26) (Appendix 2.2) has two sets of twenty four items arranged in groups of four to be rated on a scale of 0 to 4 (never - always). The first items in each block assess leadership, the second understanding, the third uncertain, the fourth admonishing behaviours. The first items in the second set assess helpful/friendly, the second student responsibility/freedom, the third dissatisfied, the fourth strict behaviours. The scores are then aggregated to create an individual teacher profile.

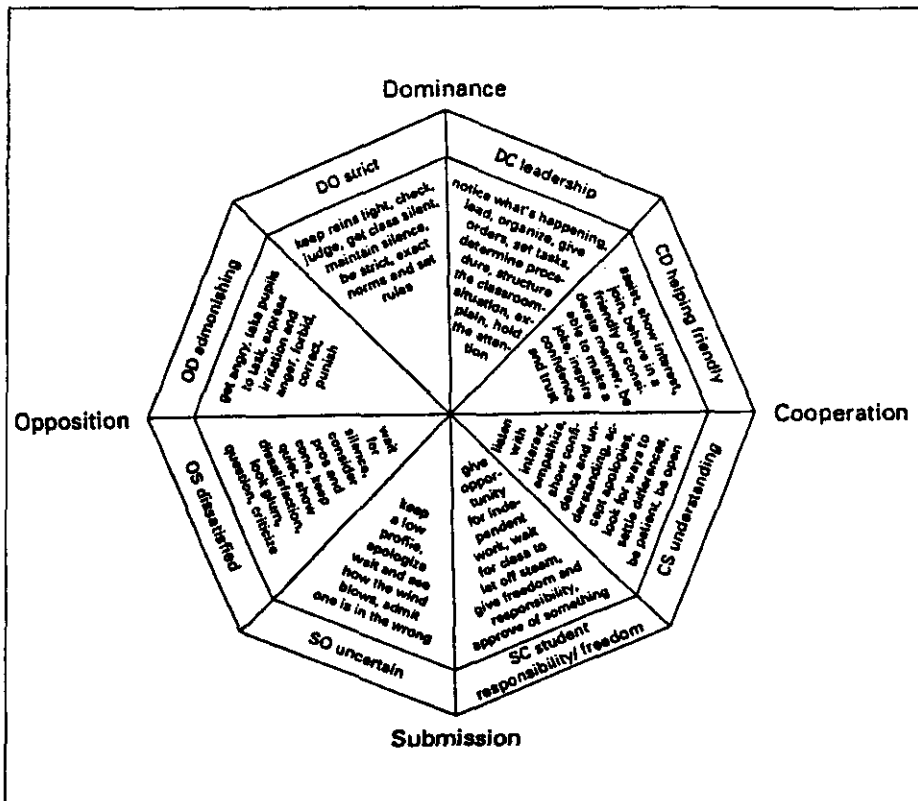


Fig. 2.3. Model for Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour (Wubbels, Creton, Levy and Hooymayers, 1993, p. 15)

The model has two dimensions, firstly influence and proximity, that is, the extent to which teacher or students control a teaching situation, and secondly, warmth or affectivity. These two then become a co-ordinate system from which it is possible to identify eight “types” of teacher interpersonal style. These are:

1. **Directive** in which the learning environment is well structured and task-oriented. The teacher dominates class discussion, and whilst holding students' interest is not particularly close to them.
2. **Authoritative** in which the atmosphere is well structured, pleasant and task-oriented. Students are attentive. Teachers are enthusiastic and open to students' needs.
3. **Tolerant/Authoritative** in which teachers maintain a structure which supports students' responsibility and freedom. A variety of methods is used to which students respond well, including lessons being organised around small group work. Close relationships are developed with students, who work to achieve their goals.
4. **Tolerant** in which the atmosphere is pleasant and supportive but can also seem disorganised. There is more freedom for students where some will appreciate the teacher's personal involvement but others will be confused and not feel sufficiently challenged.
5. **Uncertain/Tolerant** where teachers are highly co-operative but do not show enough leadership in classes. Lessons can be poorly structured, students may not be task-oriented, nor expectations high. Teachers and students seemingly go their own way, unproductively.
6. **Uncertain/Aggressive** where teacher and students seem to regard each other as opponents. Classes are characterised by an almost aggressive disorder. The teacher spends time trying to manage the class to little effect
7. **Repressive** where students are uninvolved and very docile, in order not to provoke outbreaks of anger when rules are infringed. Lessons are structured, the atmosphere unpleasant and guarded. Students show little initiative.

8. **Drudging** where the atmosphere is similar to type 5 or 6.

Students are difficult to involve and are only motivated when the teacher rises above routine talking. There is little involvement with students.

The eight types are identified by a profile drawn from the Interpersonal Teacher Behavior model (fig. 2.4):

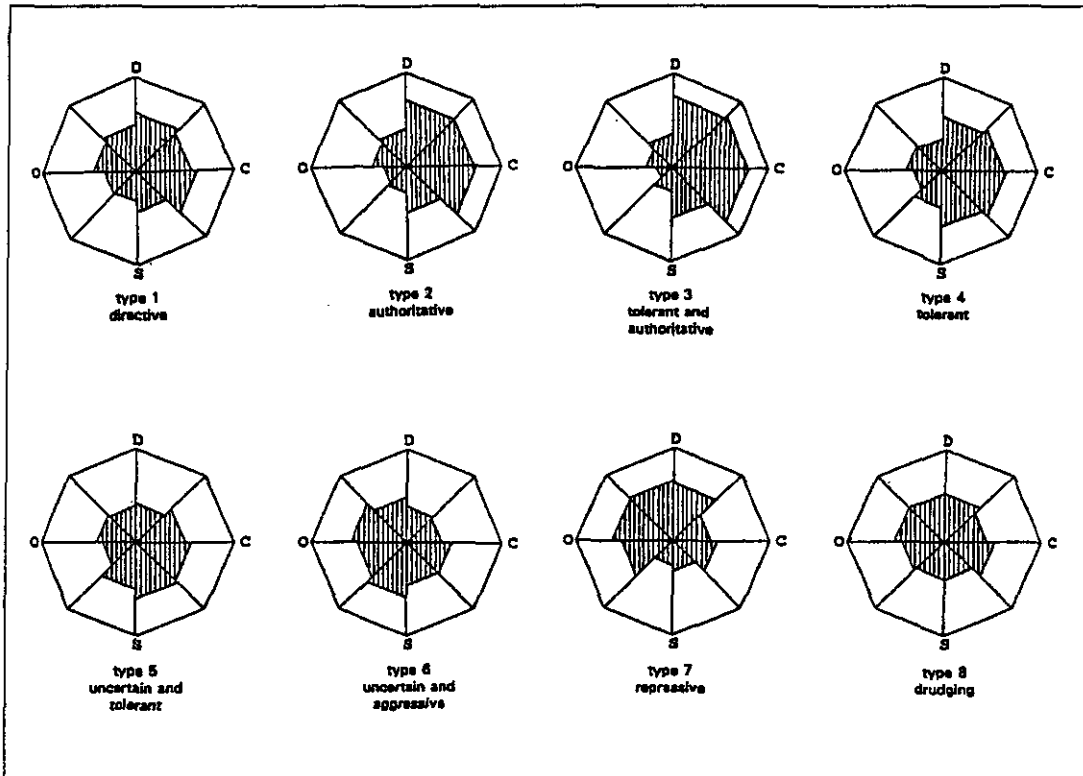


Fig. 2.4. Mean Profiles of the Eight Types of the Teacher Communication Styles Typology (Brekelmans, Levy and Rodriguez, 1993, pp. 48-49)

The Utrecht researchers found that the “ideal types” were 1, 2 and 3 for American students but 1 - 4 for their Dutch counterparts. This they interpreted as being attributable to differences between American and Dutch teachers, the former preferring to be more dominant and the latter wanting to treat their students with greater responsibility and freedom. As with any

typology the classifications need to be handled with care. It is the labels which may appear to be crude and absolute and it should be remembered that the terms have been translated from the Dutch by the Dutch. The more detailed descriptions are less emotive but are located in aspects of demonstrable behaviour both of teachers and students, that is, what is observable and capable of being categorised. The model has also been applied in teacher education where students are reluctant to engage in positive feedback. Wubbels, Creton and Hermans “tried to find ways to change this denial” by settling on a combination of “change of conception and change of behavior” (p.160). They adhere to educating reflective practitioners in the Schon tradition but acknowledge that some of the strategies they advocate “are contrary to the usual techniques to promote reflective teaching ... They can be employed with care and with moderation, but we believe *they should be usually followed by a period of reflection*” (p.161) (italics added).

Harkin and Davis (1996a, 1996b) considered that types 1 - 3 in the Utrecht Typology would be more conducive to effective learning on GNVQ courses and that types 2 and 3, because of the positive ethos of co-operation between teacher and learners, should represent the “ideal” types for post-compulsory education. The Utrecht data had shown that older learners expect to be allowed more responsibility but also to develop more friendly and supportive relationships with teachers. The corollary is that there will be a lower level of strictness and teacher leadership. This then is contiguous with the idea of the learner/teacher relationship in GNVQ or other outcomes based courses. Harkin and Davis found that most teachers in their sample were identified by their students as conforming with type 2 which was where they were observed to be. However, the ideal teacher type for students was type 3 which was where teachers perceived themselves to be. A possible explanation for these differences could be that teachers may overestimate their influences and behaviours, which resonates with Tabberer’s findings (1997). Other significant factors in educational achievement, for example, socio-economic influences, ability and prior learning are not accounted for in

this typology. A significant number of teachers (12 of the self-identified 50) was perceived by their students to be in the unsatisfactory types 5 - 8. A possible explanation for this could be a dilemma for older or more inflexible teachers allocated to GNVQ classes and finding difficulty in accommodating the fundamental shift from a more traditional teacher-dominated to a more teacher-sharing mode. There is a clear desire by students to be treated as responsible partners in the learning process. This then may create a tension for teachers who might feel more secure in more controlling behaviours, both overt and covert.

In one episode of observation of a GNVQ classroom Harkin and Davis (1996b) give a graphic account of a GNVQ teacher reminding a class of a deadline that must be kept, “even Wednesday afternoon, last thing”, (p.102) and making deliberate eye contact with one student who has not responded, gaining acquiescence. This is interpreted as showing an effective teacher, treating students as adults and responsible but also maintaining authority. The communication style is shown as being consistent with an adult - adult transaction, not as parent - child or adult - child which tends to characterise educational transactions in key stage 4 and below.

Fisher (1997) reminds us of the importance of speech in learning, “what makes the human mind so powerful is the use of speech for learning, and in particular an elaborated syntax linked to a powerful symbolic memory which enables humans to elaborate, refine, connect, create, and remember great numbers of new concepts” (Fisher, 1997, p. 124). It is in communication with and in interaction between students and teacher and other students that learners can test out and refine ideas, or even have ideas challenged. Learning involves changes in thought, ideas and behaviour with this last being the only evidence that change has occurred. It “demands that the individual engages with their own learning in contexts which make necessary some experimentation with different ideas, or, indeed, make urgent the revision of meaning in the face of challenge” (Denicolo, 1997). This focuses again on the agency of the learner in learning, including reflection on

the process. Denicolo defines teaching in the process of learning as “finding ways to help others to engage in learning” (p.63). That is, there are two aspects of this process which are dependent on each other, teaching and learning, and without the active participation of one or the other, the relationship is impoverished.

Kolb’s Taxonomy of Learning Styles

In 1984 David Kolb published a detailed treatise on the development of his theory of experiential learning. By drawing on the work of Dewey, Lewin and Piaget he developed a typology of individual learning styles based on research in psychology, philosophy and physiology. He took further the thesis first proposed by Vygotsky, that learning from experience is the process through which human development occurs. This is significant in beginning to understand why certain teaching and learning styles have become associated, particularly those which are more student-centred, with GNVQ “where learners perceive a greater degree of control over their own learning” (Oates,1997, p.141).

Kolb’s first proposition is that “learning is a process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb, 1984, p. 38). There are four elementary forms of knowledge. Fig. 2.5 below represents the relationship of these: on the horizontal axis is transformation via extension which results in active experimentation, and transformation via intention which results in reflective observation. On the vertical axis is grasping via comprehension which results in abstract conceptualisation, and grasping via apprehension which results in concrete experience. It is the combination of the grasping of experience and the transformation of this into knowledge that gives rise to the four forms of knowledge:

- Accommodative knowledge
- Divergent knowledge

- Convergent knowledge
- Assimilative knowledge

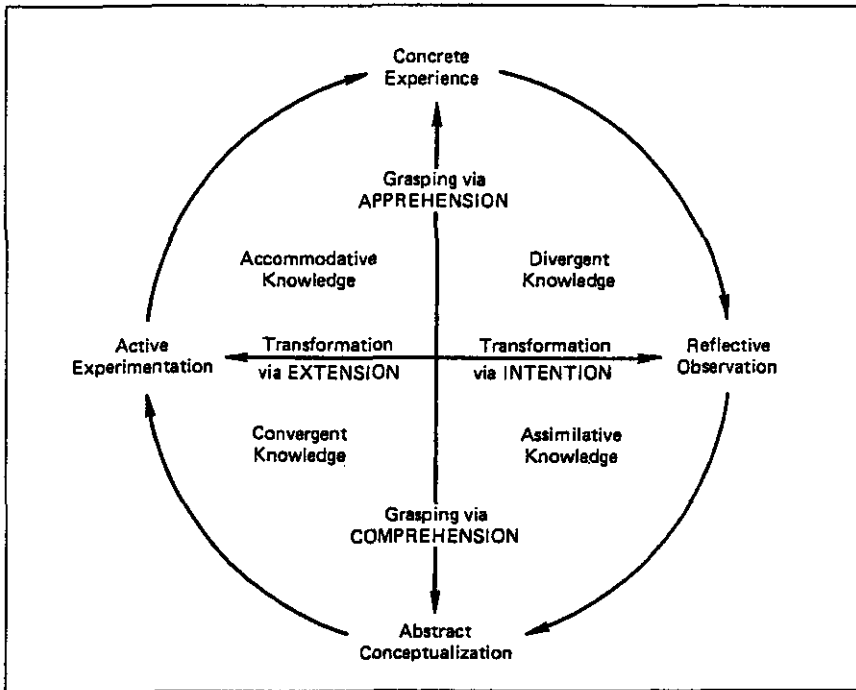


Fig. 2.5. Structural Dimensions Underlying the Process of Experiential Learning and the Resulting Basic Knowledge Forms (Kolb, 1984, p. 42)

Secondly, associated with these are learning styles:

The **accommodative** learning style emphasises concrete experience and active experimentation. The orientation lies in doing things, carrying out plans and tasks and getting involved in new experiences. The tendency is to solve problems in a trial-and-error way and to rely heavily on other people for information.

The **divergent** learning style has an emphasis on concrete experience and reflective observation. Its strength lies in imaginative ability and awareness of meanings and values. Divergent learners are adaptive and capable of seeing situations from many perspectives. They are interested in people and tend to an imaginative and feelings orientation.

The **convergent** learning style relies on the ability to make abstract conceptualisations and active experimentation. The strength is in problem solving, decision making and the practical application of ideas. Convergent learners are supposedly controlled in their expression of emotion and prefer dealing with technical tasks rather than social and interpersonal issues.

The **assimilative** learning style is characterised by abstract conceptualisation and reflective observation. There is an ability to create theoretical models and in assimilating disparate observations into an integrated explanation. The focus is more concerned with ideas and less with people.

Thirdly, Kolb adds to the taxonomy Jung's theory of psychological types so that accommodates are characterised as enthusiastic, divergers as imaginative, assimilators as logical and convergers as practical. These are "pure" and theoretical forms of learning and personality styles. In reality it is unlikely that people will fall neatly into one category or another, "individual styles of learning are complex and not easily reducible into simple typologies" (Kolb, 1984, p. 66). In order to identify individual orientations towards learning he developed the Learning Style Inventory (LSI). The results from the questionnaire-inventories are located on each axis and the scores in each are used to plot a single point in one of the four quadrants. What is located is a preferred primary learning style, not necessarily exclusive of facets of other styles. Riding describes the LSI as dealing with "information processing style concepts applicable at the intersection between fundamental personality level individual differences and environmentally offered learning format choices" (1997, p.42). Kolb believed that more effective learners would be able to use different styles when confronting new and varying situations. Individual learning styles "are not fixed but possibility-processing structures ... best thought of as adaptive states or orientations" (Kolb, 1984, p. 96-97). In this way the four primary types may be seen as making up a cycle of learning.

This seems however to present learning or wanting to learn as being unproblematic. What is not questioned is the motivation to learn; rather this is presented as achieving integrity:

The pinnacle of development is integrity The motivation to achieve integrity is a profound gift of humanity - a desire to reach out, understand, become, and grow, a pervasive motivation for mastery ... motivation for competence In the theory of experiential learning, integrity is a sophisticated process of learning, of knowing It is not primarily a set of character traits The prime function of integrity and integrative knowledge is to stand at the interface between social knowledge and the ever-novel predicaments and dilemmas we find ourselves in.

(Kolb, 1984, pp. 224 - 225)

Seen thus it seems that motivation is taken as being intrinsic and that we learn and want to learn because to do otherwise is almost to deny our very humanity, a somewhat noble interpretation of human behaviour based on innate curiosity. The taxonomy then is valuable in explaining and describing learning situations but is virtually silent on why people will “invest time and effort in learning” (Moonie, 1997, p.3). Race (1994, cited in Moonie, 1997) offers an account of learning based on the four principles of:

- wanting
- doing
- feedback
- digesting

By including wanting, an emotive feeling, or the desire to do something, Race maintains that development or learning will be blocked if it is absent. Kolb demonstrates what constitutes effective learning; Race begins to illustrate why people want to learn, the prior step to learning. However, in

maintaining that learning does not proceed as cognitive psychologists tell us, he is being slightly disingenuous. He tacitly acknowledges in his principles of learning what have already been identified as facets of experiential learning. In a sense wanting equates with the desire to achieve integrity, but his emphases are different; feedback is vital in maintaining learning; it lets people know how they are doing and it also puts learning in a social context. Being in an effective learning cycle does not in itself explain why progress is made (Race, 1994).

The Newcastle research used the LSI with students and teachers showing how students in groups will differ from each other and from students in other groups, “confirming what centres already know; that their students come with very varied and complex learning requirements” (Meagher, 1997, p.46). However, what are indicated are primary learning styles. Kolb considered that effective learning is a cyclical process in which people move between the different methods of grasping and transforming information, but not necessarily through all of them. Meagher (1997) relates this to learning experiences on successful GNVQ courses, where evidence suggests “that students are involved in direct experience, in opportunities to reflect, to gain information from abstract sources and to work interactively with the information they have obtained” (p.47) and thus incorporate the four aspects of Kolb’s learning cycle

The idea of style applied to learning and teaching is not new; as a construct the term has been used widely and more or less loosely to describe characteristics which might be attributed to “personality, cognition, motivation, perception, learning and behaviour” (Rayner & Riding, 1997, p.5). In these terms style has not always been closely defined but may be interpreted as allowing individual differences to be described and categorised in a number of different ways. There are distinctions to be drawn between cognitive and learning styles, that is, between the ways that individuals perceive and think about the world around them and the impact of these upon pedagogy. Work on cognitive styles has developed since the 40’s

largely in the field of psychology. Kolb's model takes cognition or perception as one dimension and adds processing of perceived information into knowledge. These then make up the experiential learning cycle. Because the model is process based the individual styles identified are by no means fixed and allow for the developmental nature of much learning, that is, depending on where an individual is and what is being attempted might determine a position in time on the cycle. This is the essence of experiential learning, that it is adaptive and reflexive, and allows for both activity and reflection.

Kolb's model has been influential since its introduction and has led to further developments or adaptations. For example Honey and Mumford applied Kolb's theory in business settings, again identifying four types of learner, activists, theorists, pragmatists and reflectors (Honey & Mumford, 1986, cited in Rayner & Riding, 1997, p. 16). A version of their Learning Styles Questionnaire has been applied directly to GNVQ teachers and students (Coles, 1998, pp. 8-10) and draws out learning preferences. A point to be made here is that teachers, as well as their students, will probably have one or more preferred learning styles and these will need to interact with those of their students. Teachers need to be aware that the way they learn will not necessarily be the way that some or any of their students will prefer.

Entwistle's Model for Surface and Deep Learning

Writing at the same time as Kolb, Entwistle (cited in Rayner and Riding, 1997, pp.16-17) developed a further dimension of learning theory by describing learner actions linked to strategy in a learning situation and whether a surface or deep engagement with the task is sought. This has a bearing on how learners will want to be taught or instructed but could be used by teachers to develop deeper levels of cognitive skills in students. Entwistle's model explicitly recognises motivation for learning, an aspect implied in Kolb's model, but not an integral part of it, as being linked "to the

underlying motives and goals of the learner...and to the interest generated by the teacher and to the rewards provided by the system” (Entwistle, 1987, p. 129). The underlying motives and goals can be both extrinsic and intrinsic factors to learning.

The idea of deep or surface approaches to learning was originally developed by Entwistle and others in higher education but is increasingly being applied in secondary education. The model consists of three approaches to learning and orientations to study:

Defining features of approaches to learning and orientation to study

Deep Approach

The intention is to understand ideas for oneself and transforming knowledge by:

relating ideas to previous knowledge and experience and by looking for patterns and underlying principles; checking evidence and relating it to conclusions; examining logic and argument cautiously and critically; becoming actively interested in the course content.

A meaning orientation is brought to study, learning is for comprehension, motivation is intrinsic, i.e., the learner is interested in learning for its own sake

Surface Approach

The intention is to cope with course requirements through reproducing knowledge by:

studying without reflecting on either purpose or strategy; treating the course as unrelated bits of knowledge; memorising facts and procedures routinely; finding difficulty in making sense of new ideas presented; feeling undue pressure and worry about work.

A reproducing orientation is brought to study, characterised by syllabus-boundness and fear of failure, unwillingness to look for relationships between ideas

Strategic Approach

The intention is to achieve the highest possible grades through organising work by:

putting consistent effort into studying; finding the right conditions and materials for studying; managing time and effort effectively; being alert to assessment requirements and criteria; gearing work to the perceived preferences of lecturers.

An achieving orientation is brought to study linking organised study methods, qualifications as the main source of motivation which is extrinsic, characterised by hope for success

(after Entwistle, 1997, p. 19 and Ramsden, 1997, p. 211)

Whether a learner adopts a surface or deep approach to learning will depend on the motivation for learning, the classic example being of rote learning to pass an examination. Here the orientation will be towards reproducing knowledge and the engagement with learning towards the surface; students memorise those parts of the text or pieces of information which are likely to be tested. One of the features of successful learning that has become associated with GNVQ has been the support and development of students in becoming autonomous learners. If this is so then part of the teaching strategy has to include specific development of the skills of learning to think, and encouragement of a deeper approach to learning. Students will adapt their strategies depending on the pedagogical demands made of them.

In their account of working with undergraduate Business students Evans and Honour (1997) categorised Entwistle's characteristics of surface and deep learning which their students moved through during a set project:

Surface learning characteristics

Intention simply to reproduce parts of the content

Deep learning characteristics

Understand the material itself

Accepting ideas and information passively	Interacting vigorously with the material and critically with the content
Concentrating only on assessment requirements	Relating ideas to previous knowledge and experience
Not reflecting on purpose or strategy	Using organising principles to integrate ideas
Memorising facts and procedures routinely	Relating evidence to conclusions
Failing to distinguish guiding principles or patterns	Examining the logic of the argument

(After Evans & Honour, 1997)

One of the aims of the project was to help students “make connections between complex ideas and to contextualise the acquisition of knowledge” by utilising “a problem-solving approach” (p.130). At first students reproduced factual information and views expressed in discussion were based on personal experience, keeping to a narrow interpretation of the task. Students had to be quite deliberately guided to approaching this in a deeper way through relating previous knowledge and understanding to the task, and engaging in open discussion. This interchange of ideas was then fundamental in producing their own open learning materials. Students were able to engage in comparative discussion and to make reference to a wider range of literature. In addition they had reflected on their own learning experience and had identified inter-relationships between the components of what they had found.

Although Evans and Honour were working in higher education much of what they found can be related to sixth form GNVQ students:

The sequence and apparently subtle combination of groupwork, teasing-out discussions, directed reading, reporting back and intensive personal research towards

a well-defined open learning goal ... would thus seem to be important in generating and sustaining the desire for probing the material, extending the knowledge base and getting inside the newly acquired knowledge.

(Evans & Honour, 1997, p. 138).

The idea of identifiable learning styles that can be utilised to enhance the learning process is beguiling, if elusive, and is attracting attention in curriculum areas other than GNVQ, and further reflects a growing interest in the affective and environmental aspects of education.² Kolb described two dimensions of learning in his model, Entwistle recognised a third, the motivational. Rayner and Riding (1997, p. 22) describe the motivational as acting as a bridge between an individual's cognitive style and learning strategy, and being the least "fixed". What they describe is a multidimensional or multi-layered model. There is the first level of cognitive style which is the core of any individual's learning style, the "hard wiring" (p.23), then the "soft-wiring" of "formation of learning strategy" (p.23) with the added motivational and affective dimensions. They conclude that an individual or personal learning style reflects "primary features of the individual's learning repertoire", including "cognitive, behavioural and affective features" (p.24).

The student's role in learning will surely involve the formation and refinement of learning strategies which reflect their own particular learning style and the learning task. The teacher's role in learning must then surely be to incorporate an awareness of style in their approach to the task of teaching and learning.

(Rayner & Riding, 1997, p.24).

² In a study of the relationship between the affective and cognitive dimensions on the performance of undergraduate mathematics students Evans and Tsatsaroni (1996) found that student perceptions and cultural variables had a direct affect on how they constructed mathematical knowledge and used mathematical language. These preconceptions were found both to support and interfere with cognition.

Race's "spreading ripples" model of wanting, doing, digesting and feedback (1994, p.17) can be related to Kolb's cycle but allows the further dimension of the affective wanting. It is then an example of a multidimensional model of learning but does not go far enough to delineate what could be the motivational role of the teacher in the learning process. There are other influences which need to be taken into account when considering the impact of an individual cognitive style on learning. For any individual task Riding (1997) has identified those of :

- level of ability/intelligence
- present relevant knowledge which is necessary to give meaning to the new information, or, on the other hand, that could make the new learning redundant
- degree of motivation, including the perceived relevance of the task
- gender
- style: not likely to be critical when the task is simple, but will be when the learner is under pressure because, relative to their ability, the task is difficult

(after Riding, 1997, p.45)

Implicit in this is the idea of tailoring a task to individual learners. If a task is presented in such a way that students are unclear about what they are expected to do, perceive that the task does not relate to work already undertaken or is irrelevant, then they will disengage or do something else which is apparently off-task; motivation has dissipated. Where the task is perceived as being difficult the requirement is to build "scaffolding" from work already undertaken and knowledge already held so that the task itself does not appear to be impossible but at least to be achievable. "Unless the teacher, in comments and marks, unambiguously rewards what is required, pupils will follow the lines they perceive to be important" (Entwistle, 1987, p. 142).

In further studies (Riding and Agrell, 1997, Banner, 1998, Sadler-Smith, 1999) the effect of cognitive style and skills on subject performance in schools and in higher education has been shown to have a profound influence on how individuals interact with the structure of learning material. This is seen as an indication that the mode of presentation by teachers also has an influence - there are those students, characterised as verbalisers, who will learn better from verbal presentation whereas those characterised as imagers will do better with pictorial presentations and are more likely to use illustrations in their own work. This is very much to do with teaching strategies and also with teacher and student interaction. Cognitive style would appear to have little to do with innate intelligence but both will contribute to the performance of an individual on a given task depending on its nature and how it is presented. This knowledge then can be turned into strategy, both on the part of learners and teachers. This has resonances of Kolb's learning cycle in that individuals need to recognise their own strengths and how they best learn. Seen thus the recognition that individuals learn differently is as pivotal in learning as innate intelligence.

In their discussion of metacognitive realism Jans and Leclercq question whether this is a facet of cognitive style, learning style or learning strategy, and the extent to which learning implies a learner's ability "to assess the quality and reliability of one's own knowledge encapsulated in the question: How far do I already know the content I am supposed to learn?" (Jans & Leclercq, 1997, p.101). In other words this is self-knowledge about how we perceive, remember, think and act, and how confident we are in making judgements on how easy learning will be. It also self-knowledge about whether learning has occurred, on a feeling of knowing and confidence in retrieved answers; the 'metamemory' defined by Nelson and Narens (cited in Jans & Leclercq, 1997, p.102). People are not always realistic in the ways that they monitor memory when what they may be remembering is not what was perceived but is a product of imagination. Jans and Leclercq contend that many of us demonstrate "an illusion of knowing" (p.106) which in itself may lead to overestimation of performance. They conclude "that

metacognitive realism is not a clue to deciding *how* to learn in the easiest way, but it is a clue to deciding *what* to learn” and therefore differs from a cognitive style. There are implications here for teachers in dealing both with over-confident and under-confident learners, in their decisions to learn or not and in their decisions to learn rapidly or over a longer period of time. This can be influenced and reinforced by experience and develops from a style to a strategy for learning.

Learning as a Construct

As von Glasersfeld views it, learning is a constructivist activity where “knowledge is not a transferable commodity ... knowledge and competence are products of the individual’s conceptual organisation of the individual’s experience” (1989, p. 16). The role of the teacher here is very much as guide to the student in the “conceptual organisation of certain areas of experience” (1989, p. 17). To do this teachers need to know where students are and where they need to be in relation to a proposed course of study. Crucial to this is the role of communication. The social constructivist theories of Vygotsky (cited in Britton, 1989; Wood, 1988) and Bruner (1989) are appropriate to understanding working with GNVQ students. Group work, discussions and shared projects are part of most courses and promote understanding. At 16+ students’ pre-existing knowledge is considerable; how to access this and to enable students to recognise its value could be addressed through collaborative work and building in success early in the courses. The unit based structure of GNVQ, almost the idea of building in “credits”, supports this. The views of Vygotsky and Bruner emphasise the social and material context of learning in which communication with peers and adults is crucial in clarifying and extending understanding. Vygotsky identified the “zone of proximal development” (Wood, 1988, p.187) as the gap between unaided achievement and the capacity to learn from an informed adult: the idea of the student trying to make sense of what people mean and then using that knowledge reflectively

should be an important feature of GNVQ teaching and learning. It is when interaction and co-operation take place with people that the student's potential for learning and achievement will be realised.

In a comparative study in 1997 Barry analysed the relative demands of Advanced GNVQ Science and A level Chemistry on students and teachers. She concluded that "teaching style, assessment procedures and course characteristics ... are more conducive to a deep approach to learning than A-level". What she is saying is that GNVQ students show in their learning not only understanding of their work but an intention to understand, that is, that they understand how they learn and are concerned to relate new ideas to previous knowledge and experience. She poses an interesting question of "whether GNVQ attracts pupils with a more meaning orientation towards their study compared to A-level, or whether this is an orientation that they adopt as an influence of GNVQ" (p.52)? Part of the criticism of A levels has been of the content which has to be learnt because it will be examined. At worst this might mean that students will rote learn and acquire a superficial knowledge without questioning new ideas and information. "Students who conceive of knowledge as collections of facts will use surface-learning strategies that are aimed at successful memorisation" (Stobart and Gipps, 1997, p.15). The data retrieval exercises model of knowledge construction identified by Bloomer (1998,) could be further explained as a surface learning activity by students, prompted by the requirements of assessment. Oates and Harkin (1995) writing about successful learning in the Key Skills consider that "deep as distinct from surface learning is more likely to occur" when learners are given the "skills and opportunities to take more responsibility for their own learning" (p. 194). This is a knowing how to learn, based on a shared understanding by teachers and students of what is required for learning and assessment. We also need to be aware that any group of students will be diverse in their own beliefs about regulating their own learning, something that they may not have been encouraged to do before embarking on a GNVQ course. Cantwell (1998) compares the beliefs in their own ability to control learning

of 15/16 year olds and university students. He found that in the adolescent group these beliefs tended to be passively held whereas the university students were much more positive, a feature that may be partly explained by being in a more independent learning environment. The idea of learning to learn, metacognition, may well need to be fostered and nurtured. GNVQ students who are mostly in the transition stage of late adolescence might need help in being able to generate higher-order self-regulatory beliefs and understanding, learning to recognise relationships between effort and ability and that inflexibility in confronting new learning can be overcome.

In a more recent and larger comparative study of teaching and learning in A-levels and advanced GNVQs McEwen, McGuinness and Knipe (1999) based their research on three main comparators:

- classroom activities assessed by the frequency and variety of teaching methods
- cognitive outcomes showing the breadth of intellectual demand
- learning to learn or the degree to which students are developing independent learning strategies which enable them to enhance and direct their own learning

Their findings are supported by those of Barry (1997) and Meagher (1997). Whilst they found that there is broad overlap between the two courses GNVQs “are characterised by more teacher guidance of students, teacher-led instructions, independent reading by students, groupwork, practical work in class, planning, use of ICT and giving presentations” (p.13). On both types of courses there was a commonality in learning outcomes with “memorising, terminology, understanding and consolidation” (p.13) predominating in both. However, GNVQ students also concentrated on applying theory to practice, constructing their own explanations and decision-making, this last appearing much less frequently in A level lessons. It appears from the research that GNVQs are “better suited to helping students become self-starters in taking responsibility for their academic and

vocational future...showing higher levels of use of sources, planning, independence, confidence, teamwork and communication” (p.14). The main finding was that students in their responses were demonstrating “a wider range of cognitive management in GNVQ lessons than A-level and in this respect they could provide a more secure foundation for their later development as independent learners” (p.15). Central to Harkin and Davis’ research (1996a and 1996b) was the idea of the curriculum model provided by GNVQs having “the potential to increase the engagement of students with the learning process, in ways that will benefit their use of language and consequently their self-confidence” (Harkin and Davis, 1996b, p.15).

This puts the learner at the centre of learning where this is not seen as passive nor learners responding merely to external stimuli: they are actively seen as constructing knowledge. As Swann (1998) depicts it:

learning takes place through the modification and refutation of expectations which individuals bring to their experience of reality. Every incidence of learning begins with a problem. A problem occurs when an individual finds that expectations which she or he brings to experience are refuted (or otherwise shown to be limited or inadequate) by experience, and when the individual *desires* to resolve the mismatch in some way.

(Swann, 1998, p. 215) (italics added)

Implicit here is the idea of learning not consisting of simplistic trial and error but based on experience and depending on elements of risk-taking, attitudinal stance and goals of the learner. It is certainly far removed from a transmission model of teaching and learning. The place of constructive criticism or feedback in learning is important; students’ assumptions will sometimes need to be challenged, either by teachers or by themselves. Responding positively to this is also a skill which has to be learnt, both by students and teachers. A crucial element is the nature of the communication and the level of student confidence. The way in which such criticism is

given and received can have profound effects on learner confidence.

Broadfoot does well to remind us that we should not forget “that the quality of our learning is inseparably related to how we feel about it” (Broadfoot, 1998).

GNVQ Students’ Learning Styles

Whilst there are similarities between A level and Advanced GNVQ courses, in his comparative study (1997) of four A level subjects (Biology, Business Studies, Economics and Psychology) and four GNVQ courses (Business, Health and Social Care, Hospitality and Catering, and Science), Meagher found there were distinguishing aspects of the learning experience which indicated that there are key differences.

A Level students:-

- spend about 70% of time in classroom discourse with the teacher who supplies information and explains what it means, defines the work to be done, directs the method and sets the pace
- are required to participate in seven or eight different tasks during the course, some of them, like answering curriculum questions repeatedly. Tasks will have been selected by the teacher on the basis of pedagogical content rather than on the curriculum content
- normally work on the same task as all the other students in the group, who, even

Advanced GNVQ students:-

- spend about 30% of time in classroom discourse with the teacher
- will participate in seven or eight different tasks during the course, some of them, like working on portfolios, for long periods of time. Tasks will have been selected to fulfil course requirements, often in negotiation with the teacher, and they will be referenced to vocational contexts
- decide for themselves how to complete each task. Communication and

though they may be sitting together, will rarely be required to work collaboratively. Some work will take place outside the classroom

numeracy work are built into assignments. Probably working collaboratively with one or two other but on a different task from other students, in the class or off-site

- rarely use IT applications. make extensive use of low level IT skills
- recognise that the work requires problem solving skills, and the application of past learning to new topics recognise their work requires application of problem-solving skills, in a vocational or real world context and the application of past learning to new work
- are rarely seen to be off task during lessons regularly seen to be off-task during lessons
- receive extensive formative feedback from the teacher receive extensive formative feedback from the teacher
- may have some coursework assessed, but sit external examinations are required to pass external end of unit tests, but are graded on a portfolio of coursework, assessed internally and externally verified

(after Meagher, 1997, pp. xiv-xv)

Meagher had gathered data primarily through a series of classroom observations using a schedule which was designed to focus on the students' learning experiences in a similar way to that used by Neville Bennett (1983, cited in Meagher, 1997) where evidence of the quality of pupils' learning experience was based on analysis of the nature of classroom tasks. The descriptors Meagher used in the schedule were themselves compiled from ALIS (A Level Information System, based at the University of Durham)

descriptors of classroom activities. These had originally been developed to cover a comprehensive range of classroom activities about which A level students could be questioned. For the purposes of analysis Meagher grouped these descriptors into four broad categories of note making and taking, discourse, other work in the classroom and other activities. The term discourse is used in a broad and literal sense to cover the activities of conversation or discussion and other forms of interaction related to learning in a classroom setting.

GNVQ students are very well able to articulate what they want from post-16 study, both in the ways of working and in the forms of assessment they perceive will show what they know, understand and are able to do fairly and accurately (Dearing, 1996b). The pedagogic challenge described by Meagher (1997) is to construct courses for GNVQ students that involve them “variously in direct experience, in opportunities to reflect, to gain information from abstract sources, and to work interactively with the information they have gained” (p.97).

In an attitudinal survey of teachers, co-ordinators and students concerned with advanced GNVQ Business courses Smith and Tizard (1995) found that generally courses had been received favourably by students and staff. One problem identified was a lack of time for the student-centred approach and a further concern “was expressed about the amount of responsibility placed on the student, and the students’ reluctance to accept such responsibility” (pp.89-90). *We do not know how many responses indicated problems with time or student responsibility/autonomy nor at what stage in the courses interviews were made, but it is possible to detect what lies behind these.* GNVQ students do not come to their advanced courses as fully fledged autonomous learners. There is enough evidence to show that learning to learn is a skill that needs to be taught and acquired. We also know that students come to courses with their own preferred cognitive and learning styles. Dransfield (1998) identifies “a lack of structure on some GNVQ programmes” and expecting “learners to take on too much responsibility too

early in a course” as providing too little support for students. His view is that when starting with a new group of students that they should be given fairly tightly structured guidance in the first few weeks, for example, a guided enquiry where a teacher will be reasonably sure of the key aspects of the expected outcomes. Later, with growing confidence and success, students should be better able to engage in more open-ended work; almost like using a template as they attempt further assignments and units with increasing autonomy. Dransfield’s objective is to “move students forward from being dependent on the tutor to become independent learners” (p.6). Students do not do this alone; tutors and teachers need to know how to create effective structures to support students in the learning process. This requires detailed and systematic work and allows students to develop from being “hunters and gatherers” of information (Bates, 1998) to becoming ‘farmers’ or processors of knowledge.

What would seem to be happening here is almost a turning of seventeen and eighteen year olds (for the most part) into reflective practitioners in the sense that Schon describes. Bates (1996) identifies the controversy that GNVQ and competence-based education and training generally have aroused amongst educationalists. There is the tension between seeing assessment of performance as embodying a behaviourist approach and “consequently as mechanistic, reductionist and unlikely to foster the fullest possible development of human potential” and emphasising the “importance of individual agency in the construction of meanings ... and for education to treat learning as a creative process” (p.10).

The Role of the GNVQ Teacher

There is scope for manoeuvre in GNVQ for teachers and students. Reports show (Barry, 1997; Bates, 1996, 1998; Meagher, 1997; Thorne and Cashdan, 1994, Yeomans, 1998) that teachers do make a real difference to the success of GNVQ courses. NCVQ Scrutiny Reports repeatedly pinpoint

the quality of the assignments prepared for students by their teachers as being a key factor in supporting their successful achievement. "Assignments that are complex in nature, vocationally relevant and integrated across the Key Skills units as well as the mandatory units should be developed and internally verified If students are to succeed tutors/assessors need to be able to fully explain ... and understand the requirements" (Smith, 1997, pp. 5-6). There is further anecdotal evidence, for example at GNVQ centres' meetings, that not all teachers develop complex assignments before presenting them to students. What would appear to be done is that the assignment as such develops out of a discussion with students of what a unit and its elements entail. In these cases an assignment is very much a combination of the evidence indicators plus action planning, keeping close to the unit specification, or, in the 2000 specifications, the evidence of achievement grids and the underpinning 'what you need to learn' section. What is crucial, however, is ensuring that students undertake appropriate work which begins "with the teacher recognising the nature of what has to be learnt: is it concerned with the development of understanding, the *acquisition of knowledge and/or the acquisition of skills*" (Tabberer, 1997, p.3)?

Allied with the criticism of GNVQs and their derivation from the NVQ model is the requirement for teachers and tutors (for the 1995 standards, not the 2000 specifications) to become assessors and work towards or hold the TDLB (Training and Development Lead Body) Assessor Award, and that there will also be in each institution holders of the Internal Verifier Award. In order to assess candidates (students) assessors are required to take into account diverse forms of evidence and to ensure that opportunities to demonstrate or acquire competence are in place. Writing in 1996, Elliot describes the misgivings of further education college lecturers as they looked towards the introduction of GNVQ and their own assessor training, at a time when the organisation of the college was undergoing radical restructuring. This they perceived almost as a form of de-skilling in that the apparent reduction of what they saw as their professional practice as teachers would

vanish or be devalued as they became assessors of student outcomes. In this view what is being lost is the closely held set of values on the teacher/student relationship. Lecturers in this institution more or less implicitly held a view of themselves as reflective practitioners in the way that Schon (1991) has described it, that is, they “have a facilitative, enabling role in working with students” (Elliot, 1996, p.90).

It perhaps needs to be made explicit that nothing quite as radical as incorporation has affected school sixth forms. There are considerable differences, including those of scale, between the two types of institution. When Elliot (1996) talks of further education teachers’ anxieties about impending changes, the introduction of GNVQs was an added major factor at a time of far-reaching change. It is not surprising that the idea of de-professionalising of teaching has been widely held.

In reality what further education teachers thought might disappear from professional practice has become very much a part of successful teaching and learning in GNVQ courses. It is precisely the interaction between students and teachers, the willingness to look beyond a narrow range of assessment practice, and the explicit nature of what is expected of students that generates this success (Harkin and Davies, 1996a, 1996b; Meagher, 1997). Bates, (1996) and Harkin and Davies, (1996b) also point out very clearly the shortfalls in GNVQ courses when teachers who have been used to a more traditional form of A level teaching are unable or unwilling to adopt a more reflective and reflexive style with GNVQ students.

Whilst the idea of the reflective practitioner should be at the heart of what is required in any form of teaching it appears to be even more critical in GNVQ teaching and learning. Schon asserts that the work of the professional or reflective teacher is distinguished by a “knowing-in-action” (1991, p.50) which is tempered by a “reflection-in-action” (1991, p.54). Fundamental to this is the use of judgement in drawing upon professionally

built skills and experience. His theories are important in understanding those of Kolb (1984) on learning as a social process, moving between the cognitive and affective domains, learning from experience. Hodgson-Wilson (1997, p.7) talks of always encouraging “the concept of the self-reflective practitioner to ensure a quality entitlement for current GNVQ students”. Convery (1998) questions Schon’s promotion of reflective practice and its appeal to the teaching profession. He asserts that Schon encourages teachers to focus on the situation rather than the professional as the source of a particular problem. Convery is writing from a particular action research perspective, that of the teacher as lone researcher or senior learner in a classroom. A dilemma associated with this is that of supposed isolation and “remaining locked into limited and immediate problem solving and engaging in reactive rather than reflective practice” (Convery, 1998, p.200). What is missing for him is the idea of reflection requiring confrontation and collaboration with others. This is a critical view of Schon’s influence and can be traced to a disjunction between a narrow view of reflective practice and action research in an education setting.

Reynolds and Salters, writing in 1998, are also critical of approaches to reflective practice that appear to be narrowly focused within a context of classroom practice. Such a focus is concerned with activity, performance and skills, and gives little place to knowledge and understanding in professional practice. It narrowly seems to confine reflection to a problem-solving approach in a limited range of settings which seems not to recognise “the ambiguity and complexity of teaching” (p.198). Schon’s approach to reflection does not blandly assume that grasp of the significance of any experience is automatic; it has reliance on already held knowledge, entails a shift from an emphasis on competences and a broader conception of knowledge and education values which do not relate directly to classroom practice. Reflection for Reynolds and Salters “provides a means of evaluating goals, purposes and methods, thereby clarifying the values which lie at the root of successful practice” (1998, p.199). Both the idea of the critical friend advocated by Convery (1998, p. 203) and the vision of the

reflective process fostering an ability to “think about personal action in a richly connotative way which prompts insight into professional practice” (Reynolds and Salters, 1998, p.196) could be located in the process of working towards the TDLB units. As with GNVQ students little of it is achieved in isolation and the critical friend or assessor support is part of the process.

Hunt (1998) offers a caveat on reflective practice: that it does not proceed in an orderly fashion, but it might be seen as a “bridge between the swampy lowlands of practice and the high ground of academic theory” (p.29), consciously naming the things to be accepted or rejected and articulating the reasons for so-doing. It is rather more than a survival skill, and closer to a personal reconciliation of the many inconsistencies and ambiguities between ideologies, legislative and managerial requirements, and private beliefs; and also a tacit acknowledgement of self in the teaching and learning process. “The ability to identify and articulate ‘what is going on here’ in professional and organisational terms ... requires practitioners to stand outside, examine critically, make sense of, and so develop the wagonload of experience and knowledge they travel with” (Hunt, 1998, pp. 29-30).

GNVQ teachers do teach but their range of skills necessarily widens if students are to be able to become independent and autonomous learners. It is the shift from a teacher centred to student centred pedagogy that is the key, and what Schon (1991) has said about reflective practice is critical to this. It is this sense of professional practice that does not reduce teaching, tutoring or assessing to a very precisely confined set of technical tasks. The structure of GNVQs in all their versions has always allowed more scope for diverse experience and modes of learning than A level syllabuses could. Whilst these also have never specified how any particular subject would be taught, the demands of terminal or synoptic assessment have constrained the ways in which a defined body of knowledge can be covered and ultimately remembered.

To an extent the role of the GNVQ teacher is that of “organiser of learning opportunities and circumstances” (Open University, 1990, p.46). It would be possible for much of what has to be learnt to be transmitted didactically by reading and note-taking but if, according to von Glasersfeld (1989), knowledge is not given, the teacher’s role is to help and guide students in the generation of knowledge and understanding. Freire reminds us of the crucial nature of language in that “learning demands among teachers and students a relationship of authentic dialogue” (Freire, 1989, p.48).

None of this happens in a vacuum. Much has been made of the significance of affectivity in GNVQ students’ lives. It is also of fundamental importance to teaching and teachers. Nias believes that “one cannot separate feelings from perception, affectivity from judgement ... one cannot help teachers develop their classroom and management skills without also addressing their emotional reactions and responses and the attitudes, values and beliefs which underlie these” (1996, p. 294). It is perhaps to state the obvious by saying that teaching involves interaction between people and this carries with it an emotional dimension. In the same way that teachers should recognise they may well have different cognitive and learning styles from those of their students so they bring into the school context their own feelings, and need to take these into account when dealing with others. Traditionally, many teachers have invested a great deal of their “selves” in their work and may identify particularly closely with a particular subject or department. This may lead to feelings of territoriality and possessiveness and might make teachers vulnerable to criticism from others. The sense of having to justify their sense of who and what they are and the challenge of validation of what they do by others is partly a response to the politicisation of education. Nias argues that if “teaching as work is deprofessionalised ... it will necessarily also be depersonalised” (Nias, 1996, p. 305-306). If this is so then this also will necessarily have an impact on how teachers handle feedback with students.

“Curriculum change is an ever-present fact of school life and one important factor in successful curricular change is the classroom teacher” (Blumenfeld-Jones, 1996, p.209). This takes a less bleak view of the role or lot of the teacher than that delineated by Nias (1996) but also emphasises the need to have a better understanding of how teachers think about their practice. Blumenfeld-Jones considers that the cultural dimension of teachers’ beliefs and perceptions should not be ignored in that this acts almost as an “inherited script” whereby “individuality is mediated and conditioned” (1996, p.209). This human dimension should not be ignored in planning for curriculum reform; culture is “something that we carry mentally and act out in behavior simultaneously” (p.210). In order for curriculum reform to be effective Blumenfeld-Jones maintains that it should be equally composed of curriculum change and substantive self education by both teachers and curriculum designers. The curricular change entailed in becoming a GNVQ teacher and changes in perception of self can indeed be substantive.

Despite the cautionary tales offered by Nias and Blumenfeld-Jones interesting accounts are emerging of how some teachers are preserving a sense of self. As teacher autonomy has been curtailed by centrally controlled successive changes in all sectors of post-compulsory education so the promotion of critical and reflective practice could be interpreted as a measure to preserve autonomy. Harris (1997) detects that part of this may derive from recent moves to teach thinking skills to pupils but more importantly, the recognition that teaching is highly complex but not highly predictable, where teachers need to make informed and thoughtful decisions in specific and unique contexts. She talks of a “reflective conversation with oneself” or in face-to-face interaction (p.155). This presupposes a system of teaching and learning, for teachers and their students, where the learner actively participates, as should happen in GNVQ courses. The convincing argument for the enduring relevance and importance to teachers of the reflective practitioner envisioned by Schon remains, particularly in GNVQs.

The view that curriculum and teaching causes pupils' learning is deeply held and is one that underpins the moves to central control of education (Bates et al, 1998; Yeomans, 1998). In a critical examination of this dictum Davis (1998) shows that the relationship between curriculum and teaching, and learning, is not causative:

At best, and that 'best' is always sought, teachers may influence pupils' learning. Teaching and curriculum can be important, even crucial to pupils' learning. Influence, importance, cruciality, however, do not constitute causation. Moreover, teaching and curriculum can not cause because neither controls what or how much pupils learn. Influence, even extreme influence, is not control.

(Davis, 1998, p.30)

This is not to say that learning is caught rather than taught. Davis does well to remind us that as teachers there is more to be done than lay down a curriculum, construct a scheme of work, prepare materials and hope for the best. In a very different milieu Jessup also recognised that it is the learner who is in control of learning. There is more to teaching than making an offering to pupils or students. The planning has to be more thoughtful, perceptive and deeper, taking into consideration a broader range than subject knowledge and expertise, important though these are. There also needs to be a knowledge and understanding of students themselves and their diverse needs. Davis's recognition of the practicalities of reality and truth "do not let teachers off the hook" (p.31). Rather they provide clues to practice:

Understood in this way teachers must teach more mindfully in order that their actions begin to match their principled and rich intentions. Curriculum planning, in these terms, must recognise the moral imperative to offer enriched and multiple choices, access to more abundant knowledge and

ways of using knowledge, and resources with which pupils can construct their meanings.

(Davis, 1998, p.31)

The Interaction of Assessment, Learning Style and Motivation

Assessment not only defines GNVQ in any vocational area but also provides the underlying foundation for the support and guidance of students as they progress through a course. The mediating influence between the specifications and students is that of teachers, and they have a considerable role to play, *different perhaps in nature from what they might previously have enacted*. Crucial in the mediating process is the role of communication and language in creating shared meanings and interpretations.

GNVQs in any of their versions are framed by their assessment, that is, what is to be assessed for achievement of a whole award has always been laid out very clearly in the specifications, available to all at the beginning of a course. In this sense they may be said to be providing for both formative and summative functions of assessment. Summative assessment may be characterised as leading to a classification of “achievement by what is known and what is not known.” (Open University, 1990, p.99). Assessment interpreted in this way differs from formative assessment where the concern:

is not just with what is known but how it is known...the totality of children’s knowledge: the personal; the tacit and the explicit; and how their knowledge is integrated and accessed. Formative assessment provides the insights needed to plan children’s curriculum

(Open University, 1990, p.99)

William and Black (1996) distinguish between the summative and formative functions of assessment by defining the summative as prioritising “the

consistency of meanings across contexts and individuals” and formative as when evidence is elicited “that yields construct-referenced interpretations that form the basis for successful action in improving performance” (William and Black, 1996, p.537). The elicitation of evidence is a key point in the assessment cycle: in order for an assessment to be made there has to be some kind of evidence to assess; the evidence itself has to be interpreted and then some form of action taken, based on the interpretation made.

There are two players in the assessment cycle, the assessed and the assessor, although there are occasions when these may be the same individual, as in self-assessment or self reflection. There is a further step between interpretation and action in assessment for formative functions. This is feedback, defined by Ramaprasad (1983) as “information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way” (cited in William and Black, 1996, p.538). This definition is important in that the information about the actual and reference levels is considered as feedback only when it is used to alter the identified gap. Without action the assessment forms only words on paper or in the air; there is no effect on curriculum and learning. Much successful teaching, more or less consciously, has relied on adaptation of teaching in the light of experience in previous sessions, that is, matching teaching to learning. Also of significance in the assessment cycle is that the relationship between assessor and the assessed will be influenced by aspects of a wider social context which each brings to the relationship.

The forms of evidence which may be presented for GNVQ assessment are many and diverse. If we take Ramaprasad’s definition of feedback as providing the crucial step between interpretation of evidence and action to be taken then the nature of the information provided by interpretation is critical in formative assessment. For example, in GNVQ terms it will mean that a teacher will have a very clear idea of what students should be able to do in relation to a particular unit or element. Providing this has been shared with students and both teacher and students have shared understandings of

what is to be attained then the “teacher’s schemas and the students’s schemas both fit the frames established” by the work set (von Glasersfeld, 1987, cited in Wiliam and Black,1996, p. 343). This is more likely to mean that something different can happen as a result of assessment. If nothing can happen:

there can be little point in conducting the assessment in the first place ... to qualify as feedback, as well as alerting us to the existence of a gap, the information must actually be useful in closing the gap between actual and desired levels of performanceIt must be related to a developmental model of growth in the domain being addressed.

(Wiliam and Black, 1996, p.543)

What we see here is a further distinction between formative and summative functions of assessment. Any assessment by definition must elicit evidence of performance and the evidence must be capable of interpretation and thereby be able to serve a summative function, for example, as a measure of attainment or for placement purposes, but there are some of these which additionally may serve formative functions of assessment. Presented in this way formative and summative functions may be seen not as in opposition to each other but as the two ends of an assessment continuum. Inevitably there will be tensions between the two extremes of the functions.

At one extreme (the formative) the problems of creating shared meanings beyond the immediate setting are ignored: assessments are evaluated by the extent to which they provide a basis for successful action. At the other extreme (summative) shared meanings are much more important, and the considerable distortions and undesirable consequences that arise are often justified by appeal to the need to create consistency of interpretation.

(Wiliam and Black, 1996, p.544)

As far as GNVQ are concerned tensions may well be created when the same assessments need to serve both formative and summative functions.

Because GNVQs are driven by their assessment what is expressed in the Evidence Indicators in the 1995 specifications or in the Evidence of Achievement section in the pilot specifications is what a student is expected to produce as evidence for assessment. If the units were given to students as starkly as “this is what you have to do” without the support and feedback that formative assessment will provide then assessment itself becomes meaningless. Unless there is space for the shared schemas advocated by von Glasersfeld, based on careful teaching and interpretation of students’ understandings of what they are being asked to do then the units themselves can become overwhelming. The formative function represents in part the closing of the gap between actual and desired performance, on the behalf of students and teacher, defined by Ramaprasad (1983).

Hankinson (1998) believes that unless assessment supports student learning and development then it has no value in its own right. This approach values the process of learning above the content in that how a student learns is critical in what a student may learn. “Assessment, therefore, needs to be linked to the learning outcomes of the course and where there are several, a range of assessments may be required to allow appropriate ‘inferences’ to be made about a range of student learning and development” (Hankinson, 1998, p.42). She groups learning theories into two broad categories, the quantitative and the qualitative. In the first, learning is perceived as the aggregation of content, that is, factual knowledge and a transference of knowledge from teacher to student. Because assessment will focus on reproducing this knowledge correctly methods used will include unseen examinations, multiple choice and short answer tests. In the qualitative, learning is seen as cumulative with students actively connecting current learning with previous learning. Thus it is more progressive and multi-dimensional. Assessment methods may include “portfolios, logs, diaries, revealed papers, live projects, where learning may be demonstrated over time rather than under the time constraints of an examination context”

(Hankinson, 1998, p.43). This also chimes with Entwistle who reminds us that we should not expect students to “consistently adopt either deep or surface approaches to their academic work” (Entwistle, 1988, p. 105).

Both quantitative and qualitative assessment methods are features of GNVQ assessment. In the 1995 version a student has to produce portfolio evidence of achievement in twelve units in addition to multiple-choice end-of-unit tests. In the 2000 version portfolio evidence will have to be produced for those units which do not have external assessment. For those units which are externally assessed the assessment, in whichever way it is presented, will determine the grade for them.

Oates (1997) notes the distinctiveness between the different qualifications which is retained post-Dearing. GNVQ with its recognised characteristic strong link between assessment modes and a variety of activity-based learning styles is a very good example of the “unintended outcome effect”, in that that these were not an overt feature of any of the specifications. (Oates, 1997, p.135). It is the opportunity for one to one discussion between student and teacher which seems to have made the most impact: *seemingly most students have not hitherto had the chance of individual discussions with their teachers about their learning on a regular basis and it is this process itself would appear to subtly change students’ view of themselves and of their learning.*

When Barry (1997) posed the question of “whether GNVQ attracts pupils with a more meaning orientation towards their study compared to A-levels, or whether this is an orientation that they adopt as an influence of GNVQ?” (p.52) part of the answer lies in GNVQ assessment modes. There is no evidence that GNVQ are seen as an “easy option” at any level; students make positive choices for GNVQ study post-16 partly because these offer different ways of learning and assessment, and partly because they may want to leave experiences of the more traditional qualifications behind them. This

puts assessment practice in a very positive light for both assessor and assessed and as a key part of motivation and learning:

assessment mode → motivation → learning → achievement

(Oates, 1997, p.146)

There are however, other views which cast assessment of GNVQ in a less constructive light. Rolle (1996) identifies the burden of extensive record keeping which could be a feature of GNVQ and in particular in the Key Skills where there may be a perceived need to record decisions over many criteria and range statements leading to a “lack of coherence in the learning and assessment programme” (Rolle, 1996, p.162). The Further Education Unit acknowledged “atomisation of learning and assessment in the specification of units, elements, performance criteria, range statements and evidence indicators ... has led to the endless recording of achievement at the cost of learning” (FEFC, 1994, p.9). This is to see assessment at a systems level with a different underlying set of values on the relationship between motivation, learning and achievement and in which the learner is cast in a more passive role. It is yet another example of the tensions which exist between summative and formative functions of assessment and in the subtleties of interpretation of the term itself.

If students are to learn to take responsibility for their own learning and progress then they need to be involved in assessment and understanding of what is being asked of them from the beginning of their GNVQ courses. This could be a part of induction in that it initiates students and introduces them to the assessment patterns, learning styles and the terminology of GNVQ in any of their versions. Oates and Harkin (1995) consider that “if students are to be active in the process of learning and assessment they need a framework which assists them” (p.195). Induction programmes can be used to:

- give students full information about what is expected of them

- give students insight into their own learning styles
- provide opportunities to share understandings of units with teachers and each other

(after Oates and Harkin, 1995, p.195)

In an investigation of induction programmes for GNVQ students Benett (1996) identified induction as “a conscious attempt by schools and colleges to help students with the transition to their GNVQ programmes of study” (Benett, 1996, p.86). Students appreciated the creation of an open atmosphere between themselves and their teachers early in their induction. A critical feature appeared to be learning “in the GNVQ way” through “working on assignments, action planning, portfolios of evidence and *review sessions*” (Benett, 1996, p.92.) (*italics added*). Students were anxious to know “if they were doing it right” and liked the focus on “assessments on a one-to-one basis” (Benett, 1996, pp.94-95). Induction itself, at vocational area or subject level, then reflects the stages in the causal relationship between assessment mode, motivation, learning and achievement (Oates, 1997) but moves this from a linear to a cyclical progression. Seen thus it also elegantly mirrors Kolb’s model of experiential learning (1976, 1984) and Entwistle’s conception of the learning process (1987, 1988, 1997).

The leitmotiv that runs through all considerations of formative assessment is that of feedback, either from another or self-generated. The term justifies some examination. For Black (1998) the application of feedback is the process of formative assessment where the teacher’s task is to:

help the learner to a clear view of the aims, to provoke the elicitation of evidence which can help the learner understand his or her state of learning, and to assist the learner’s own work of closing the gap ... between the desired state or leaning aim and the current state, the knowledge and understanding of the learner in relation to that aim.

(Black, 1998, p.64)

There is much evidence to show that pupils find self-assessment difficult because of a reluctance to “reflect on their learning in terms of meaningful sequences and structures ... it follows that such assessment has to work within the framework of reflective dialogue” (Black, 1998, p.64). If students are to engage in construction of their own learning they need to be guided in how to give meaning to new knowledge by reflecting on and integrating this with their own existing knowledge.

It is not only school pupils who may show reluctance in self-assessment. Garrigan, (1997) writing of Post Graduate Certificate of Education students found that not only were they reluctant or unable to engage in self-assessment but were also reluctant or unable to write about or critically analyse their own writing. This also reflects the findings of Wubbels et al (1993). Those who did were more likely to write about their teaching, not about their learning, almost as though they were wary of admitting to any kind of “weakness” that might then become a part of their summative assessment. Students seemed also to lack a language in which to talk about learning or to be really aware of the “extent or nature of their own learning ... as if they are only accustomed to thinking about their learning in terms of factual knowledge and do not recognize other forms of learning (often including skill acquisition) as learning” (Garrigan, 1997, p.178). Some students also seemed to find accepting responsibility for their own learning, as when attempting individual project work, difficult. The comment made by one student has resonance with observations made by some of our GNVQ students:

Why don't the tutors just tell us what we need to know in order to pass our exams? Why do we have to find out for ourselves when we might not find out what we really need to know?

(Garrigan, 1997, p.178)

What we ask of students in formative assessment and in guiding them to become autonomous learners is hard. Until they embark on a course this may well have been the first time that they have been asked to take responsibility in this way when hitherto teachers would have identified what needed to be learnt which itself was closely bound up with examination requirements. Entwistle also reminds us that in a “society which stresses the importance of both academic and vocational achievements, strong feelings become associated with the judgements made of success and failure. People have to explain these outcomes to themselves” (Entwistle, 1987, p. 138). The pain of hearing in assessment that one has not achieved may well lead to denial of responsibility for one’s own learning.

For Sadler (1998) the quality of feedback is critical. “Incorporating feedback” in the process of learning “is surely as fundamental a characteristic of responsible and responsive learning systems as having a teacher at all The source of the feedback to facilitate learning is less important than its validity” (Sadler, 1998, p.79). Frequently this will be a teacher, but could be a peer. Highly competent teachers bring a range of resources to the act of feedback:

- superior knowledge about the content or substance of what is to be learned
- a set of attitudes or dispositions towards teaching as an activity and towards learners including an empathy with students
- skills in working out ways to elicit revealing and pertinent responses from students
- a deep knowledge of criteria and standards appropriate to the assessment task
- evaluative skill or expertise in having made judgements about student efforts on similar tasks in the past
- expertise in framing feedback statements for students, from simple to more complex

(after Sadler, 1998)

The place of language in feedback for Sadler, as for Garrigan, is crucial in giving this quality. A learner by definition has a partial knowledge of what is to be learnt or produced and the language to be used must be in a form already known and understood by the student. To contribute to constructive feedback performance must be measured against adequately specified standards which are incorporated into an system of assessment. In GNVQ this is assessment against known criteria, not comparison with the performance of other students and where marks as such, for the portfolio, are not used.

If feedback is to be constructive there will be instances when it will need to be negative. Culturally we find difficulty with this and the tendency is to interpret it as criticism. This points to the building of a supportive and non-judgemental relationship between teacher and students, and one in which the personal interpretation can be subdued. This relationship should typify not only feedback but the course as a whole. Harkin and Davis (1996a, 1996b) in their research of GNVQ classes expected to find that the relationship would be one of more flexibility and negotiation on the part of teachers and students. Students, as they gain in confidence also have ideas to bring to feedback. The use of language is critical in encouraging a more collaborative process in GNVQ where the requirements for assessment are clearly specified and the presentation of work for students is in a form and language that clearly lays out what they are expected to do.

Perrenoud (1998) is critical of assuming that feedback alone is the means of regulating cognition and learning. There are other factors in play during assessment and this can be seen as a proviso: that of not making assumptions about the automatic affect of what may be categorised as commonplace aspects of the classroom, “the role of the teacher as initiator and conductor of regulation remains central, even if and especially if he does not intervene in person, but puts in place a metacognitive culture” (Perrenoud, 1998, p.100). He writes from a French perspective which takes an essentially

different view of the purpose and process of education from that in the UK. Nevertheless, his somewhat austere critique is a reminder of not making too many assumptions about what is happening in terms of learning in a classroom or other situation, which in GNVQ terms can be diverse. It also reminds us, as Davis (1998) does, of not presuming that an automatic relationship exists between curriculum, teaching and learning, and also of the importance of motivation as defined by Entwistle (1987, 1988, 1997).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

My research takes the form of a case study in that it is based in one institution and is designed to capture and interpret the characteristics of a particular group of people at a particular moment. It is also evaluative in that it seeks to analyse a set of phenomena associated with that group of students and their teachers. I am a participant in the group and I acknowledge that I cannot eliminate bias from what I do. However, I have endeavoured with the forms of research design I developed to introduce a form of triangulation through student Learning Styles Inventories (LSIs), student Questionnaires on Teacher Interaction (QTIs) and semi-structured interviews with small groups of students on Advanced GNVQ courses. Classroom observations were a significant feature of the research with each followed by a mutual feedback session between the teacher involved and myself. Teacher perceptions are a vital part in assessing what is actually happening in any GNVQ course. Classroom observations can be made at two levels; the first is to categorise the activities and events as they happen. The deeper and more subtle one is to analyse what is occurring in discourse between student and student, and between student(s) and teacher. The observation of feedback is a crucial further part of this. The kind of results generated through the “study of local interactions and meanings as related to the social context in which they actually occur” (Pidgeon, 1996, p.75) could be said to be contributing to grounded theory in that they arise from detailed analysis of relatively unstructured data collected through mainly qualitative means. The purpose of this is “to build theory that is faithful to and illuminates the area under study” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p.24). This is not easy; the preparation of data for analysis is time consuming, the continuing sifting and coding of data, as it is accumulated, and the

exploration of similarities and differences as described by Pidgeon and Henwood, (1996) is demanding. But what results should be coherent and enable some form of “understanding of complexities, multiplicities and shifts of meanings” (p.100) that is recognisable as truthful by the participants.

Consideration of Case Study as a Research Method

Case study applied in educational settings has gained acceptability over the past two decades and has been of interest in that the unique features of each case may be helpful in understanding complex human situations and encounters. As such, case study has not been of interest to policy-makers, unless it offered easy support for decisions to be taken; less credence has previously been given to understandings generated from a single case. A recent, more politically inspired, use of case study has been to use the techniques associated with it to represent different sites or sampling frames. This however fails to recognise that the social product which is genuine case study is led by a social process, that is, similar data collection techniques might be used in a range of settings, with similarities or differences being looked for but without the acknowledgement that these are due as much to the relationships existing in a particular group of participants as much as to prevailing wider external conditions, if not more so. “Case study celebrates the particular and the unique and frequently yields outcomes that are inconclusive” (Simons, 1996, p.227). Case study and other related forms of qualitative research can be broadly categorised as naturalistic inquiry in that the study is based in a specified social context, the methods used are qualitative and the forms of reporting are accessible to non-technical audiences. Another of the facets of educational case study is similar to one of the purposes of anthropology; that of making the unfamiliar familiar and the familiar strange. Simons argues that in our current political climate “case study research is needed now more than ever before to challenge orthodox thinking, to get beneath the surface of policy implementation to reveal in-depth understanding and, most importantly, to take a quantum leap

in how we come to understand complex educational situations” (1996, p.231). The paradox of case study which she identifies is that by studying the uniqueness of the particular we begin to understand the universal. We are encouraged by case study to alter our perceptions and to acknowledge as evidence the knowledge we construct personally. For Eisner:

This qualitative world is immediate before it is mediated, presentational before it is representational, sensuous before it is symbolic ... perception is a cognitive event ... construal, not discovery, is critical ... humans do not simply have experience; they have a hand in its creation. Representation... is the process of transforming the contents of consciousness into a public form so that they can be stabilized, inspected, edited, and shared with others.

(Eisner, 1993, pp. 5-6)

The search for certainty, valid comparisons and strong conclusions in educational research would seem to diminish alternative ways of seeing, whereas it is the latter, in case study, which have the ability to offer new insights, new ways of understanding and communication of truths about complex educational situations. If this means having to accept ambiguities, to challenge previously held certainties then new ways of seeing are a valid way of so-doing. Eisner reminds us that forms of representation which invite interpretation and seeming ambiguity have a significant cognitive contribution to make in the shedding of light on such cases. Wolcott (1990) offers the following nine points of advice on what he does to “satisfy the implicit challenge of validity” or “not getting it all wrong”:

- Talk a little, listen a lot - providing opportunities for people to talk to me
- Record accurately - in precisely their words ... make notes during observations or interviews, including written notes

- Begin writing early - begin preparing a rough draft soon after fieldwork begins - move forward by successive approximations
- Let readers see for themselves - include primary data in the final accounts, trying to capture the expressed thoughts of others
- Report fully - include comments and observations that cannot be fully explained or interpreted
- Be candid - opt for subjectivity as a strength of a qualitative approach but draw a distinction between revelation of feelings and the imposition of judgements
- Seek feedback - accuracy of reported information is critical - readers close to the setting can check on correctness and completeness
- Try to achieve balance - read and reread field notes and the current draft - does the account square with the setting and individuals on which it is based
- Write accurately - check for coherence or internal consistency, the wordsmithing, that allows for accurate reporting without contradiction

(after Wolcott, 1990, pp. 126 - 135)

The research results should be strong in reality, grounded as they are in one part of the work of the school. What I research through case study should “recognise the complexity and ‘embeddedness’ of social truths” (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.123). *It is intended that the results of the research should contribute to action and “may be directly interpreted and put to use for staff ... development, for within-institutional feedback; for formative evaluation”* (p.123). It makes no implicit assumptions and should also be accessible. Because the school itself is part of the audience for the research then it follows that the language used should not be dependent on specialised interpretation and that it will “allow readers to judge the implications of the study for themselves” (p.123). “Qualitative research has its own language” and the research itself should be “properly informed by *both* philosophical *and* pragmatic considerations” (Richardson, 1996, p. 9).

Context

The research is based in a rural community college with a sixth form. There are approximately 240 students in the sixth form of whom some 100 are following GNVQ courses. Roughly one third of these are intermediate students with one or two foundation students and the rest make up the Year 12 and 13 advanced students. The timetable is divided into six 50 minute periods each day; in some subjects there are double lessons, but mostly not. Advanced students are allotted twelve taught periods with their vocational tutors with an additional four periods for the key skills of application of number and IT. They are expected to spend additional time in private study. All subjects have access to a 'base' although this is not always exclusive to GNVQ students. They have unrestricted access to the library. They are in mixed tutor groups in the 6th form, that is with students who may not all be following GNVQ courses. For the most part Year 12 and Year 13 students are timetabled separately, that is, advanced and intermediate students in Year 12 will be taught together. Teachers do not teach exclusively on GNVQ courses; *all make significant contributions to other areas of the curriculum.*

The original focus of my data gathering was following three groups of Advanced GNVQ students in the second year of their courses, and their teachers, through their final year. Because of timetabling arrangements Year 12 and Year 13 students are taught together in some instances; this then provided too good an opportunity to miss to include the Year 12 students in the data gathering. The most successful courses at present appear to be Art and Design, Business, and Health and Social Care. As both Art and Design and Business students are enrolled on the New Model Pilot I elected to follow the Art and Design as one group representing the new model and the Health and Social Care students who are registered on the 1995 standards (but following the 2000 Key Skills specifications). I also included the Leisure and Tourism students where the course appears to proceed differently from the Art and Design and the Health and Social Care courses;

one difference being that in Leisure and Tourism the completion and final assessment of most of the units seems to come towards the end of the course, in contrast to the other two subjects where students “claim” units throughout the two years. This is now de facto a feature of the New Model in that standards moderation of specified units takes place at times published by the Awarding Bodies. Therefore the three courses with their students and teachers appeared show some variation in how they were managed and provide opportunities for comparison.

I already knew at an administrative level where students ‘were’ in terms of progression through a course and I also knew where at any stage teachers had planned that students would be. I knew about the quality of planning and provision for courses and how teachers had planned for each unit of work. This evidence arises from course planners, study guides which all teachers of all 6th form students are required to prepare, and monitoring of 6th form students which takes place half-termly. We also have students’ own growing portfolios of evidence which, for most of them, will include more or less extensive evaluations of their own work.

Talking to some of my own students in Health and Social Care in the November of the first term of their course about how they thought they were doing, and whether the course was what they expected, I was pleased when they said they were enjoying the work but more intrigued when they agreed with one who said the work was not as hard as she had thought it would be. By this time several were already working at Merit level and the monitoring system showed that several of the Art & Design students were reaching Distinction standard. These are all students who had taken the big step from GCSE to advanced study and whilst it is a truism to say that GNVQ students need in a way to “hit the deck running” these seemed to have got up to speed in about seven weeks. I was curious as to what has happening in these two subjects, and if it had also happened in Leisure & Tourism, and why. The group comprises seven teachers (including myself but not including Key Skills tutors) and some forty students. I also expected

that students' individual perceptions of how a course is proceeding would differ depending on the stage they have reached. The difference in those perceptions, if it exists, is potentially illuminating of accepted practice. To include these should both enhance and strengthen the data, besides providing a form of constant comparison.

The research was small in its extent and in a milieu where everyone knows everyone-else, in some cases since students joined the school at age 11. This intimacy gives rise to its own dilemmas, not just of assumptions being made but also those of ethics, in that no-one, student, teacher or school, should be damaged by the research, but at the same time I would not have wanted to side-step difficult issues which might have arisen.

My adopted methodology is necessarily qualitative and I am quite aware that I carry my own 'baggage' with me: how I frame questions and observation schedules through to interpretation, analysis and presentation will essentially be my story or depiction of a set of events, about a group of people during a specified period of time in a defined social context. In a small setting there will inevitably be tensions and constraints associated with doing research where the researcher is not even one remove from the participants. We are all wrapped up in the same continuing enterprise.

There are also considerations of possible power issues in the unequal relationship between researcher and those being studied to be taken into account. The ground to be covered is not neutral terrain; the researcher might be perceived to be approaching from a position of strength founded in knowledge, position and working relationships with participants, personal history, values and assumptions. If these influences on the research process are not acknowledged by the researcher then data gathered may not be truly reflective of a particular situation and there is the risk of a researcher hearing, reading or observing what he or she wishes to hear, or even of participants saying, writing or doing what they perceive coincides most closely with the wishes of the researcher. The implications for the outcomes

of research if these issues are not addressed are that results could be partial, restricted, biased and ultimately unreliable. King (1996) reminds us that in the course of research both researcher and those being studied are in vulnerable positions:

Even when they are given clearly presented guidelines, it is unlikely that interviewees will have been in a similar situation before, one in which the focus is almost exclusively on them for a considerable period of time, with the expectation that they should 'tell their story' in depth.

(King, 1996, p.177)

This makes intellectual and emotional demands on people and the implications are similar when observations are being made or questionnaires being conducted. Underlying these are risks of intrusion into other people's lives, "it is acknowledged that you cannot be neutral; yet on the other hand, you would probably wish to restrict any direction to a minimum ..." (King, 1996, p.178).

As a researcher I hoped to partly redress these inequalities in several ways; firstly, all students and teachers I approached decided whether to participate or not. When negotiating lesson observations, I left the choice of which lessons would be observed to each teacher. Student questionnaires were anonymous and completed in their own time. Interviews with students took place on their territory, that is, where they happened to be at a mutually agreed time. Interviews with teachers were also arranged in a similar way, with place and time being chosen by them. Data collected shows that this approach has been successful. For example, responses in the student questionnaires are not uniformly positive and clearly students have felt secure enough in my assurances of anonymity to record their true beliefs and feelings.

I believe that the quality of relationships between student and student, between student and teacher and the part that communication plays in these is the key to the relative success of courses and the levels achieved by students. Without these the significant factors of staff knowledge and expertise, and student prior achievement might be diminished.

Linking methodological approaches to research questions

My review of the literature enabled me to identify several research strands, some deeper and more potentially revealing in data generation than others, in teasing out answers to my two research questions:

1. What is GNVQ intended to do in terms of teaching and learning approaches?
2. What actually happens in practice?

Kolb's model of experiential learning provided the measure against which it is possible to assess the planning for different styles of learning in study guides and assignments. It had not been one of the intentions of this research to use the Student Learning Style to inform the planning of work for students but, as Meagher (1997) had found, it does offer a means of analysing how teaching and learning were approached with diverse groups of students. Entwistle's (1987, 1988, 1997) conception of the learning process provided a way of assessing how far students have engaged with their work both in what they produce and in how they evaluate their own work. Wubbels et al's (1993) typology of interpersonal teacher styles gives an insight into the quality of teacher/student relationships. In the same way that we use feedback with students so I used a similar framework of open-ended questions and reflection after observations to enquire more closely into what teachers considered might have been happening in the same episode or in their courses more generally.

The methods of data collection include:

1. Learning Style Inventory
2. Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction
3. Classroom observations
4. Interviews with teachers
5. Interviews with students
6. Scrutiny of study guides, assignments and student work

Taken alone none of these would be enough to give more than a partial or superficial picture of what was happening on courses but, analogous to rope-making, folded and plied together each separate strand becomes part of a much more robust whole. They provided a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods which were appropriate to the purposes of my study and to the circumstances of investigating a small single case. For example, the findings of the QTI and classroom observations should create a form of triangulation and, because the overall research is intended to provide detailed and accurate information about this case, 'complementarity' as defined by Hammersley (1996) was also established. This is particularly true where part of the research is designed to look at "interactional processes and participants' perspectives" (p.168).

Learning Style Inventory

Given the influence of Kolb on the whole field of learning styles and on later writers I decided to include this as one element of the research. I had used *this during the pilot stage of this research and after that had considered it as a possible part of student induction.* It was not used as such but I now have records of LSIs for four cohorts of students from 1997. These do show changes in the overall profile from year to year and in and between subjects. The LSI has not been used by teachers to consciously shape teaching and learning but I have included the LSI in the current research with a similar

aim to Meagher's at Newcastle (1997), that is to analyse what our teachers had planned for their students. Students will also have perceptions of their courses and how they best learn. These may well colour their perceptions of how they are taught and their achievements. An adapted version of the LSI titled a Personality Styles Inventory already existed in the school and copies of this were distributed by class teachers in December 1999 and most were returned by the end of January 2000. (Appendix 3.1). Teachers were also given the option of completing a self-inventory.

Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction

I had initially considered using some of the categories of this in a more refined observation schedule on teacher interaction and communication styles. Harkin and Davies (1996a, 1996b) had employed this in their research into the communication styles of GNVQ teachers and had found it valid in assessing how far teachers had adapted or adopted a more student-centred approach with their GNVQ students. My original reason for not using the QTI as the authors intended was that whilst students complete questionnaires on themselves as a fairly regular happening for a variety of reasons they are not usually asked to complete questionnaires on their teachers. However, on reflection I considered this to be a flaw and, after negotiation with the teachers concerned, all six (seven including myself) agreed to conduct the questionnaire with their groups and to return them to me for coding (Appendix 2.2). Teachers' reactions ranged from welcoming the results as a source of personal development, through thinking that we should be doing it more widely, to formalising what students already think and say anyway. The Headmaster also agreed to my inclusion of this in the research with some provisos. However, there remained concerns which influenced the way in which I could use the QTI and in negotiating its inclusion several adaptations were made. Therefore it could not be used as originally intended, and without these changes there was always a possibility of colleagues not agreeing to its use or administering it. All students used

the QTI in actual form, that is, about their teachers and ideal QTIs were completed by Year 12 students in the three subjects. The results themselves were not discussed between individual teachers and students, although they did inform student and teacher interviews. Despite the constraints on its use the QTI in my research remains a valuable strand in data gathering.

Meagher (1997) had found it interesting to note that in the GNVQ courses studied in his research approximately one-third of classroom time was being spent on what he describes as verbal discourse. The research that Harkin and Davies (1996a, 1996b) had done, using the Utrecht model (Wubbels et al, 1993) does, I believe, provide the links between two disparate approaches. Great care was needed in handling the data both for analysis and in returning results to teachers. Copies of the eight profiles and the typology were given to each teacher (Appendix 3.2). As a pilot my Year 12 and Year 13 Health and Social Care students completed the questionnaire. They were curious and completed them in about 10 - 15 minutes. Teachers were again given the option to complete a self-report. The QTIs were distributed in December 1999 and returned to me by February 2000 for hand-scoring. The results were averaged to provide a profile from each. Additionally, the Year 12 students, as they moved into Year 13, also completed 'ideal' QTIs.

Classroom Observations

The results of the Newcastle work (Meagher, 1997) persuaded me of the value of using classroom observation as a form of research. Reading of the work at Oxford Brookes (Harkin & Davis, 1996a, 1996b) added weight to this. Since the focus of one of my questions was to ascertain what happens in GNVQ classrooms it remained to find an appropriate style of observation. Both Harkin and Davis and Meagher used structured or systematic forms of classroom observation, that is, what is being looked for is predetermined. This is a "process whereby an observer or a group of observers devise a

systematic set of rules for recording and classifying classroom events” (Croll, 1986, p.1). This is different from unstructured observation where the researcher may not have predetermined ideas of what to look for and events are recorded as they happen. Delamont (1992) warns of the impossibility of “observing and recording everything going on ... and ... that it is essential to start paying close attention to a selective set of phenomena” (p.112).

The focus of observations I wished to make were closely tied to what happens in GNVQ classrooms. Therefore, the Newcastle set of descriptors provided a starting point in my initial research. I was also aware that as a lone researcher I could not begin to replicate in scope, scale or time what can be done in research teams. Harris (1996) in her classroom observation study designed an observation schedule which was derived “directly from the typologies outlined in the enterprise literature and was intended to record those teacher interactions which would provide evidence about teaching approaches” (p.52). She followed the classic advice that before designing a schedule it is wise to look at one that someone else has developed (Simpson & Tuson, 1995, p.10). This then made the starting point for the design of my own first observation schedule.

It was based on the design developed by Harris (1996) but used twenty nine of the Newcastle descriptors of classroom activities and was divided into one minute intervals. The descriptors (Meagher, 1997) were based on ALIS³ descriptors of activities in A level classrooms with additional items related to student/teacher discourse, negotiation and initiation of activities, and whether these are whole class, small group or individual. These were identified as being particularly pertinent to vocational classrooms from ongoing curriculum debate.

³ ALIS, the A Level Information System, based at the Curriculum and Educational Measurement Centre in the School of Education at the University of Durham, has included descriptors of a range of classroom activities in a questionnaire for A level students in which they report on those in which they have taken part.

Descriptors for classroom observation

- Works on written assignment
- General management/admin. by teacher
- Reviews previous work
- Listens to teacher exposition
- Spontaneously adds to another's response
- Works on practical task
- Spontaneously challenges another's response
- Asks managerial question
- Uses/watches audio visual material
- Answers managerial question
- Uses information technology
- Reads or undertakes research
- Receives individual help from teacher
- Asks curriculum question
- Makes own notes with teacher guidance
- Answers curriculum question
- Makes own notes without teacher guidance
- Student discussion of work
- Receives help from business/industry
- Teacher led discussion of work
- Helps/receives help from another student
- Initiates a contribution
- Receives duplicated notes/handouts
- Presents work/reports
- Other task related activity (e.g. role play)
- Takes dictated notes
- Uses worksheets
- Non-task related activity
- Works on exercises/examples

(based on Meagher, 1997)

In the pilot research for this study I made four observations over a period of three and a half hours. Twenty five of the activities were recorded in the

Newcastle research; I observed twenty two. Meagher found “within programmes of work intended to appeal to more practical students, verbal discourse still occupies more than one-third of their time” (1997, p. 50).

The results from three of my observations were consistent with this.

However, in one lesson the discourse was not based on curriculum question and answer but on student discourse and in an Art and Design lesson

students were engaged on more practical activity for most of the lesson.

According to Meagher this is unusual in GNVQ lesson terms but what one might have expected to see in Art and Design activity.

I was aware that in observations of two of the classes what I was looking at were classes within a class. A schedule which records different kinds of activity allows just that to be done but it cannot offer any kind of qualitative description or analysis of the discourse between students or between student and teacher. Whilst I am particularly interested in what students are doing I am also keen to know what teachers think is going on in the class at the same time. This is one way of avoiding bias and also of establishing the truthfulness of the research. It helps to ensure that the findings are “reflective of the subjects and the inquiry itself, rather than the product of the researcher’s biases or prejudices” (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p.144). Because of anomalies raised by my awareness that there is almost invariably more than one thing going on in a classroom at any time and that the subtleties of interactive processes might be overlooked I discarded this form of classroom observation.

Although the schedule itself with its one-minute intervals was not particularly easy to use, it did allow some comparison to be made of what was happening in the different subjects, at different levels and might have been expected to show any differences in the approaches between student and teacher activity in the pilot subjects and non-pilot. For analysis the activity descriptors were grouped into the four broad categories devised by Meagher (1997) at Newcastle (Appendix 3.3) which has enabled a form of graphical representation of results to be made.

When observing students and their teachers I intended to concentrate on interaction and teaching and learning activities in a particular class and try to reach beyond the “very ordinariness, routineness and everydayness of school and classroom life” described by Galton and Delamont (1985, p. 177). For each classroom observation I made timed field notes which I subsequently expanded into a narrative with a copy given to each teacher concerned for comment and annotation as appropriate. For each teacher I completed a profile check using the QTI (Appendix 2.2). One of my purposes was to seek an insight into the complex, many layered and sometimes apparently disconnected activities which underlie the transactions within a GNVQ classroom, and also to observe the extent to which assessment was taking place and how and whether it informed teaching, and the place of feedback in this. Feedback might be informal but I expected to see instances of it. The observations formed a major part of the data collection and analysis of these proceeded as the research proceeded. When writing up my notes I was able to refer to the list of activity descriptors and locate them under Meagher’s Newcastle categories of note making and taking, discourse, other work in the classroom and other activities (Appendix 3.3).

Although my formal relationship to teachers and students is that of team leader, I was concerned that the observations should not be seen as part of that role but as less formal and as more of a contribution to my research. This was not difficult to achieve; much GNVQ teaching in the school is “open-door” in its nature and it is not unusual for GNVQ teachers to be in each others’ classrooms from time to time. It is perhaps a survival from the time when GNVQs were new to the school and mutual support in the early stages was a pragmatic necessity. As far as possible I tried to be part of the background and would maintain that classes were not overly affected by my presence, and that what I observed were examples of routine teaching and learning. Where a lesson was likely to vary from that teachers would say what they intended to do and why. Because classroom observations were made in this informal style and were not managerial in nature I did not expect that any preparations out of the ordinary would be made.

Teacher Interviews

In the pilot research I had not collected any data from teachers about GNVQ and as such a vital part of the research in presenting a rounded or cohesive picture was missing. My original plan was to interview all six teachers involved at least twice during the course of the study. The interviews themselves were fairly unstructured but there were certain topics I wished to cover. One way of doing this was to follow class observations with an interview. The starting point then would be to consider what the teacher thought was happening and why. Given that I believe it is the mediating influence of teachers that contributes to the relative achievement of GNVQ students I needed to know how they regard this and plan work for, and foster motivation in students. I believed that themes would emerge during these interviews that could then be taken further later. The interviews themselves provided a further form of triangulation and evidence for how teachers approached their groups and assessment of students' work in the ways they did. There are also issues of "intrusion" as identified by King (1996) here; these are to do with the level of trust established between interviewer and interviewee and also that of potential power inequalities. To avoid this the interviews themselves were not simply question and answer in style, were not managerial in nature, were not intended to and did not yield data which had any application to management. Although the range of topics I wished to cover in the discussion of an observed lesson were those identified in the list of factors I devised as facets of the mediating influence, I also wished to include reference to the LSI and QTI results (Appendix 3.4). The interviews were not made as part of my management role in the school but as part of my research and were very much in the form of a conversation between friends.

Student Interviews

These were small group or individual interviews and did not necessarily include every student. In my pilot research I had conducted a student questionnaire with all GNVQ students which included some of the facets of the qualitative research carried out by Social and Community Planning Research as part of the Dearing Review (1996b). These results were presented quantitatively. I considered that the questionnaire was somewhat limited in its scope and some questions would be better as topics to cover in semi-structured interviews and for this reason I discarded it, agreeing that, "questionnaires are inflexible once they are in print" (Drever, 1995, p.2).

I approached students in each of the subjects, outlining the purposes of my research, and asked if they were willing to take part in an interview. No-one refused and during the course of the study I conducted nine arranged small group interviews in total, usually of two or three students, and also made use of notes I had written of opportunistic encounters with individuals. I wished to find out more about students' perceptions of the courses they were following, about how they learn and the progress they were making, their relationships with their teachers and how teaching and learning differed pre and post-16. Year 13 students were interviewed once. Year 12 students were interviewed once in that year and again when they themselves had moved on into Year 13. I was aware in the original questionnaire that there were some comments being made that I had no opportunity to probe further. In interview I was able to do that; also a group of students will, as they do in class discussion, spark ideas from each other and open up other avenues for exploration (Appendix 3.5). I intended to audio-tape these interviews; this proved unsatisfactory, partly due to recording quality and also to the difficulties in transcription of identifying one voice from another, and after the first trial I made notes and prepared fuller written up notes later. The results from these interviews provided a further form of triangulation on and complementarity to LSIs, QTIs and observations.

Scrutiny of Study Guides, Assignments and Student Work

In the Newcastle research into GNVQ Meagher (1997) made extensive use of Kolb's experiential learning cycle to analyse the relative success of a variety of Advanced GNVQ courses. He also devised a schedule to be used in class observations and I used a version of this in my own initial research. This had its limitations in that it allowed activities to be logged but did not go beyond this. Meagher concluded that the four quadrants of the learning cycle should be present in any unit of work for GNVQ students, that is, opportunities for gaining concrete information through direct experience, to gain abstract information, for reflective thought and for activity. Whilst I have not used these in my own observation schedule to the same extent, the four quadrants were used to analyse our own course planning. In itself this poses a further question: if we have not planned for different styles of activities does this really mean that we do not intend to implement them?

Study Guides and Assignments

Initial review of study guides prepared for the year show these to be fairly minimal documents which rendered making a fair judgement difficult. Those with underlying assignments are fuller and do talk about specific activities.

A first examination of our own paperwork shows that there is provision in the Assessment, Recording and Reporting Policy for assessment to be made by a variety of methods but these are largely of the formal type, at approximately half-termly intervals. It is the Marking Policy which requires all teachers to mark work promptly and constructively and provide feedback to students. The intention for assessment and feedback then is present in the policies but without amplification. Study Guides (Appendix 3.6) for GNVQ work are set out in the same format as those used for all 6th form courses. These, besides setting out what needs to be covered in a unit of work, also allow starting and completion dates to be entered, and in some cases

negotiated, and provide for a formal one-to-one review at the end of the unit (approximately six weeks). There is also provision for intermediate dates for sections of work to be set and for the more or less informal assessment of work to be ongoing. Therefore the opportunities for feedback are intrinsic. These documents tend to be fairly minimal and give little clue to how work is to be covered or how teaching and learning styles could be used. What is there is a structure which does allow for some support of students through “both teachers and students ‘working’ on prescribed curricula ... within specific institutional settings and circumstances.” (Yeomans, 1998, p. 143) and I think a lack of specification of teaching and learning styles does not mean that we do not recognise their significance. Observations then add substance to apparent silences in the study guides. The GNVQ specifications themselves offer some sparse suggestions in the guidance. How these were interpreted by us into work for students needed investigating, particularly at classroom level.

There is also a policy statement on vocational courses at the school which sets out our institutional aims in offering GNVQs which are to provide students with:

- a link between vocational and academic education
- a bridge between school and adult life
- alternative routes to further and higher education

Students' Work

Students' completed work is quite revealing in that it not only tells us that they have done what is required of them and they have learnt about a particular topic; it also tells us something about themselves and how and why, particularly in GNVQ, they have approached a unit of work the way they chose. Their powers of analysis and other higher order skills of synthesis and evaluation can be detected in their reports, case studies and

presentations. Research work in particular provides good opportunities for deeper learning approaches as do reflections on work placements or evidence generated in unexpected or individual ways. When students justify their actions and results they are telling us how they went about their learning and why one approach may have been chosen instead of another. That they are able to assess one source of information against another or a piece of practical work they have carried out shows they are confident in using their knowledge of how and what they have learnt. Entwistle's (1987, 1988, 1997) categorisation of surface and deep learning characteristics provided the basis for making judgements on the degree to which they were doing so. This provides us with clues to the extent of students' growing autonomy and I had expected this to be more marked in Year 13 students, some of whom are quite happy to tackle optional units with very little guidance, and treat teachers more as another resource rather than as the main source of information.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA COLLECTION, SUBJECT RESULTS, COMPARISON AND ANALYSIS

DATA COLLECTION

The Learning Style Inventory

A simplified version of the LSI (Appendix 3.1) which had been used for staff development purposes already existed in the school. My pilot research had shown there to be few problems in administering it. Trialling the LSI had shown where likely pitfalls were and to an extent these were rectified in the earlier study. The positive reception of the LSI meant that I could confidently use it with other GNVQ groups.

For the purposes of this study LSIs were distributed by their teachers to Year 12 and 13 students on the three advanced courses, collected and returned to me. Teachers were also asked to complete one for themselves if they wished. Much recent work on teaching and learning has pointed to the significance of cognitive and learning styles in how successfully or not people learn (Coles, 1998; Meagher, 1997; Rayner and Riding, 1997; Riding, 1997; Riding and Agrell, 1997). If students and their teachers are aware of how they will best learn this should then become a factor in planning work for students. We are also reminded that as teachers we will have a preferred learning style which may not necessarily coincide with those of students and we need to be aware that this is very likely to have a bearing on how we will want to develop and present work.

LSIs were completed by students on the three courses being studied for the four cohorts up to 1999/2000 (those for Leisure and Tourism for 1996 and 1997 are unavailable). After collating these were returned to students. Their reactions to these varied; some agreed with the characteristics of each style, others were surprised or unbelieving. Where this happened I suggested that students look at their “secondary” characteristics where they have then found descriptors they do recognise.

The Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction

There are sensitive ethical issues to be addressed in the inclusion of the QTI as one of the strands of data collection. Firstly it asks students for their opinions on their teachers and may well canvass supposedly adverse responses which could be potentially damaging both to students and their teachers. Secondly, and because of the first, teachers had to be fully involved in its handling and coding, and aware of the nature of the resulting profiles. Thirdly I needed to be aware that I might well find myself having to return and explain negative responses to the teachers involved. These three issues were dealt with in stages and meant ground rules were negotiated before involving students.

Rule 1. Through using the QTI with my own students I knew when I asked teachers whether they were prepared to be involved I had my own completed profile to show them the kind of result that might be expected. All teachers were willing to participate; had they not been then that particular access to data gathering would be closed.

Rule 2. Having agreed to participate each teacher was given control of the distribution and collection of the QTIs, that is, it was made very clear to students that they could only complete a QTI about the teacher who had given it to them.

Rule 3. The QTIs themselves are anonymous and it is not possible to detect individual student responses. Even so, after collating them I kept the completed questionnaires and gave teachers a copy of their own profile(s) and the students' ideal profiles. No-one else has access to the questionnaires and no-one, except the teacher concerned and myself has copies of the profiles. It might have been possible for individual teachers to identify students from the small sample of handwriting on the QTI. However, the QTIs were given to students as a sheet of A3 folded, that is, blank on the outside. They were also handed back to me in the same way.

Rule 4. The QTI results have not been discussed with anyone-else in the school. Individual results were referred to during teacher and student interviews.

Rule 5. Dealing with negative responses would have created two problems. The immediate one is that of communicating the results to an individual teacher and had it occurred I think could only have been handled on a level of professional development, and in strict confidence. There is then the concomitant dilemma of how to help that teacher relate to the students: would whatever relationship there was have been destroyed? Probably not. No student knew what any other student said and none had access to the typology. There is here then an element of insulation and a space for a metaphorical or cognitive regrouping on the part of the teacher. The second, almost as immediate, would have been a decision on whether the data, even as a profile, could be included in my research report. Despite being "anonymised", one of the axioms of carrying out research in a small setting is that it is not particularly difficult for others to identify participants, possibly causing speculation, and although this would not be the case in the wider community, there might still be reservations about making results public. There are two possibilities, the first of preparing two versions of the report, one for internal consumption and the other for a wider less immediate audience, and the second of omitting that particular section of data, but perhaps making reference to "other cases" in a more oblique way.

One of the first tenets of research is that no-one should be damaged by it, and adhering to that I think my choice, had that particular situation arisen, would have been the second.

Having given some “ownership” of the questionnaires to participating teachers, as I had with the LSIs, I then gave up a degree of control on their handling. For three teachers the results are a combined profile for Years 12 and 13 and for a teacher who taught Year 12 only there is one profile. For three other teachers separate Year 12 and 13 profiles were compiled. One other teacher besides myself has completed a self-report. This highlights another of the potential frustrations associated with research; in a sense one approaches participants almost as a mendicant and coercion or even persuasion should be beyond consideration. This is further complicated by my line management role in relation to the participants. In other words, even in a small setting, paper, once it is out of one’s hands develops a life of its own and at various stages is virtually beyond control.

To ascribe a particular teacher type to individual teachers I used transparent overlays and compared these to the profiles I had drawn from the totalled questionnaire responses. As with any typology no-one quite matches a mean profile type. However using the principle of ‘best fit’ it is possible to ascribe the nearest profile to each teacher. These are not perfect and there are some anomalies. Of the ten I have eight accord most closely with type 3, tolerant and authoritative, and two with type 2, authoritative. The ‘ideal’ profiles in each subject were clearly type 3, tolerant and authoritative.

Classroom observations

In my pilot research I used a predetermined observation schedule derived from the Newcastle set of descriptors. This did what it was intended to do, that is, it allowed records to be made of a range of activities occurring in GNVQ classrooms. My purposes in observing GNVQ students and their

teachers at work was partly to identify whether a range of activities that have been found to apply to GNVQ classrooms (Meagher, 1997) are part of the student experience in the school and to assess the quality of interaction between students and teacher, and between students. Another aspect to be explored was assessment feedback.

My original intention was to observe each class twice, including feedback sessions and in work outside the classroom. Periods of observation ranged between fifty minutes (the timetable lesson length) and several episodes of between ten and twenty minutes of feedback time between a teacher and individual students. Work outside the classroom included survey work during a lunch break, a visit to the local health trust and collaborative work between students from Health and Social Care and Leisure and Tourism who were working on different subject units but who had found there were similar aspects of human mechanics they needed to record. For the survey and collaborative work they were not being directly supervised by a teacher but had decided for themselves what information they needed to find, how they were going to set about collecting it and then recording it.

The categories of activity taking place in each lesson were also recorded. These show that between five and fourteen different activities took place during each. In all I observed twenty six out of the twenty eight taking place, some of them, not unexpectedly far more frequently than others.

Interviews with teachers

In addition to the feedback sessions after each classroom observation all teachers were interviewed informally once during the course of the study in the style of conversation between friends. This is one reason for separating the immediate feedback session after a classroom observation from a more extensive interview. The feedback sessions tend to be fairly businesslike and took place immediately or soon after the observation, that is, before I would

have had any time to write up notes, make any transcription and consider what I had seen and heard. The feedback sessions themselves focus on what was happening during the lesson itself and also served to clarify reasons for something being said to or by a particular student or to pick up on links with other work that students knew about but which I could not have known.

I also made notes of more opportunistic encounters, that is, of the remarks and asides that are made which seemed to have a bearing on teaching and learning. Records of these, made whilst things were still in my mind, have not been checked but have served as 'pickup' points in the arranged informal interviews. One of these 'pickups' was the identification of the differences between A level and GNVQ; this then became one of the key points in the interviews.

The informal interviews were audio-recorded, later transcribed and a copy of the transcription given to each teacher for checking and annotation if they wished. Of the seven teachers including myself who are involved in the study, one has been teaching GNVQ for a year, one for two years, two for four years and three since the beginning six years ago. This then gives a good spread of experience and familiarity, and comparisons can be drawn between those to whom GNVQ is relatively novel and the 'older hands'.

In addition to wishing to know what teachers thought was happening in their classes and why, I also wanted to know whether they thought there are definable differences between teaching A level and GNVQ classes, and what prompted them in planning work. How did they approach assessment and keeping themselves up to date, and their students on task? In other words what I was looking for here were their views on what I believe constitutes the mediating influence of teachers in relation to GNVQ. Reference to the QTI and LSI results was one strand in teasing out their perceptions of this. A set of prompts (Appendix 3.4) was used during all interviews.

The first two interviews took place on successive days and I tried to follow this pattern with others. I found that what was said in the first of this pair of interviews pointed to areas that I could then explore further in the second. By leaving time between each pair of interviews I was also able to consider and reconsider what was being said. The second pair of interviews took place on the same day and I came to these still having as the focus my features of the mediating influence but also having heard what other teachers had said. It was possible to see similarities and some differences emerging. Focusing on the differences between approaches to A level and GNVQ tells us what teachers believe they are doing and how and why they do this. Elliot (1996) wrote of the advantages of conducting interviews over a period of time so that they informed the research as it developed, that is, the interviews were not necessarily identical and were themselves informed by emerging issues. The fifth and sixth interviews took place towards the end of the data gathering and this time not as a pair; a holiday intervened.

Interviews with students

All students had come to Advanced GNVQ with GCSEs except one who had been educated privately and an adult who had been educated outside the UK. For some years the school has subscribed to ALIS and YELLIS analyses provided by the CEM Centre at Durham University.⁴ According to “value-added” assumptions based on this data Advanced students had GCSE point scores between 14 and 45. Some had come to Advanced courses with Intermediate level which does not figure in the scores. The range of scores indicates that students should be able to cope with the demands of the

⁴ A Level Information System (ALIS) and Year 11 Information System (YELLIS) provide for subscribing institutions a detailed analysis of students’ likely 16+ and 18+ examinations outcomes. These are derived from skills and cognitive abilities testing and a questionnaire based on cultural and individual background factors. ALIS is widely used nationally, YELLIS less so (there are more alternative systems available) and the comparative data is well founded and reliable. For schools the systems provide a means of measuring added value (or lack of it) in individual curriculum areas and a way of targeting, monitoring and reviewing individual student progress through the examination years, although ALIS cannot offer the same reliability in predicting GCSE to GNVQ outcomes as it can from GCSE to A level.

Advanced course. The range of other subjects which students might take alongside their GNVQ includes one additional A or AS level or additional (new) GCSE subjects. In terms of recruitment students were being guided to the right level and had made GNVQ a positive curriculum choice.

Semi-structured interviews are a valuable instrument in qualitative research. They should provide high-quality data and enable any ambiguities or misunderstandings to be clarified and responses to be probed. The last question in the questionnaire I designed for the pilot phase of the research asked students if they had anything to add about their GNVQ courses. Not all students responded here but for those who did the range of responses ranged from quite general or organisational statements about needing more space, time and resources to what must be regarded as specific comments about teachers or about the style of learning. At the time I did not have a mechanism for interpreting these latter types, but I believe the Utrecht typology provided this. The student who wrote 'a teacher who knows what they are doing is needed' is saying something far more serious to us about the quality of provision on that particular course.

Occasionally, students' spontaneous contributions to classroom proceedings can also seem to disclose hints of their sometimes being reluctant to take on responsibility for their own learning. After a fairly lucid (I thought) if lengthy introduction to an Advanced Manufacturing Unit (not part of the research but germane to it) which included a package of resources students might need and some work on how to conduct a questionnaire on a new product that was of particular interest to them (carrying out their own market research is part of the assessment). I was surprised when one student asked, "*Couldn't you just teach us?*" I thought I had; what I had not been doing was the "write on the board and you copy" model which some students find more comfortable, that is, they will work quite passively at reproducing information given them, without questioning or trying to understand. This is in the pursuit of being able to 'tick off' or achieve each of the performance criteria in each element and unit; very much playing the

assessment game, and perhaps indicative of a want for a more receptive style of learning identified by Bloomer (1998).

Topics I wished to cover in conversation with students were derived from my earlier questionnaire but seek, which the questionnaire could not, responses on why students approach their work in the way they do and so afford complementarity to the teacher interviews:

- Reasons for choosing these qualifications
- Finding out about the GNVQ course
- Is it what you expected and wanted to do?
- Perceptions of the standard, relevance and usefulness of the qualifications
- Attitudes towards different assessment procedures
- Relationships with teachers
- Differences between learning - Year 11, Year 12, Year 13, GCSEs/GNVQ, GNVQ/A levels
- What would you want to be different
- Future plans

Scrutiny of study guides, assignments and student work

Much of the Newcastle work (Meagher, 1997) was based on Kolb's taxonomy of learning styles and the linking of these with the more affective student-centred work that has been found to be characteristic of more successful achievement by GNVQ students. The dilemma teachers face when working with GNVQ is the seeming loss of control which results when students work more autonomously. Meagher points to the wisdom of using knowledge of learning styles to construct "a sequence of learning experiences which will neither exclude one group of students nor leave teachers ... to be stranded in a pedagogic limbo of their own making" (Meagher, 1997, p.97).

To promote effective learning in GNVQ students should have:

An opportunity to gain concrete information through direct experience. This could be a teacher or student presentation, a visit to business or industry, a film or video.

An opportunity to gain abstract information. This could be through library research, CD-ROM, multimedia, statistics, instructional manuals (perhaps in a foreign language).

An opportunity for reflective thought. This may need to be stimulated through question and answer: “Why do you think ...? “What do you think would happen if ...?” A consideration of *process* is essential here.

An opportunity for activity. This may be the compiling of information into a portfolio, or as a presentation, or as a video. It could involve making something, completing an experiment, the practical application of ideas. A consideration of *product* is essential here.

(Meagher, 1997, pp. 97-98)

These represent the four quadrants of Kolb’s experiential learning which may also be considered the building blocks of any unit of work or assignment and constitute Meagher's “pedagogical challenge of GNVQ” (p.98). By consciously designing these into learning programmes at individual or class level, and then guiding and supporting students through them, Kolb’s cycle of effective learning is in place. The order or direction in which they are visited is not significant. Although our teachers had not been asked to put these in place, the four “opportunities” could be used as criteria for assessing learning programmes in GNVQ. Study guides are prepared for

all GNVQ programmes and, depending on the subject and the unit in hand, there may also be underlying assignments to accompany the study guides.

Student work

I looked in detail at a selection of student evaluations of their own work in all three subjects and also at Art and Design sketchbooks where it should be possible to detect how students learn and what prompts their learning, and the extent to which students know how they learn. I also looked at samples of completed units of work for Health and Social Care, and Leisure and Tourism.

SUBJECT RESULTS

Art and Design - Learning Style Inventories, Questionnaires on Teacher Interaction, Lesson observations, Interviews with teachers and students, Scrutiny of study guides, assignments and student work

Over time a significant proportion of students show a preference for *divergent learning styles which implies that they might learn best through activities which allow them to build knowledge through concrete experience and reflective observation, showing an ability to see situations from other perspectives.* There are smaller numbers of those who lean towards *accommodative learning through concrete experience and active experimentation and the more convergent learners who learn through active experimentation and the ability to make abstract conceptualisations.* Very few identify with the *assimilative style where the ability to make abstract conceptualisations and reflective observations would be more typical and is supposedly more scientific or scholarly in approach.* This might be expected; Art and Design is essentially not about creating theoretical models or assimilating disparate observations into an integrated explanation. One

might expect to see more students who have imaginative ability and learn from practical experimentation.

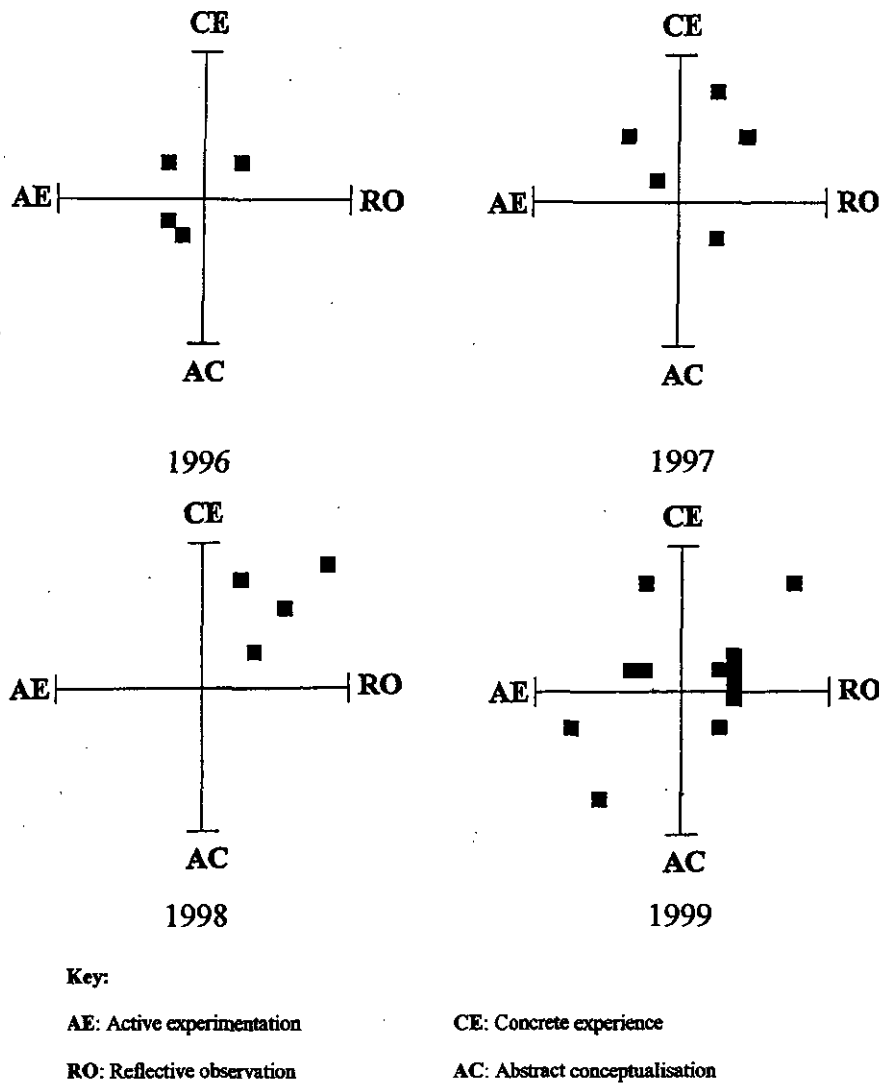
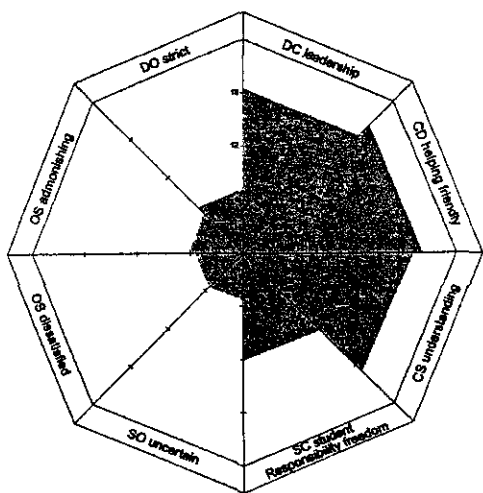


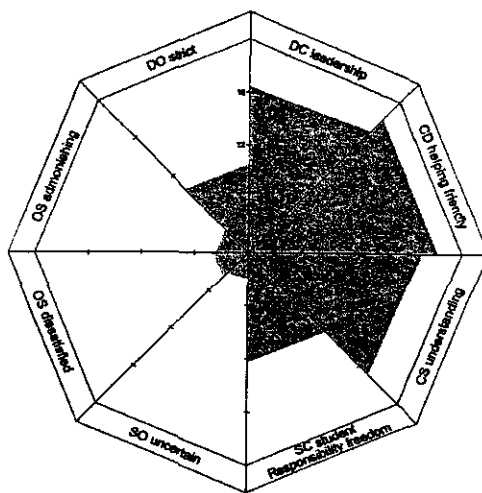
Fig. 4.1. Learning Style Inventory Results 1996 - 1999, Individual Student Profiles, Art and Design (positions determined by individual LSI scores)

The Questionnaires on Teacher Interaction for one teacher showed little variation between Year 12 and Year 13 students and are type 3, tolerant and authoritative which indicates that overall students will consider that the teacher maintains a structure which supports their responsibility and freedom. Students should respond well to the variety of methods being

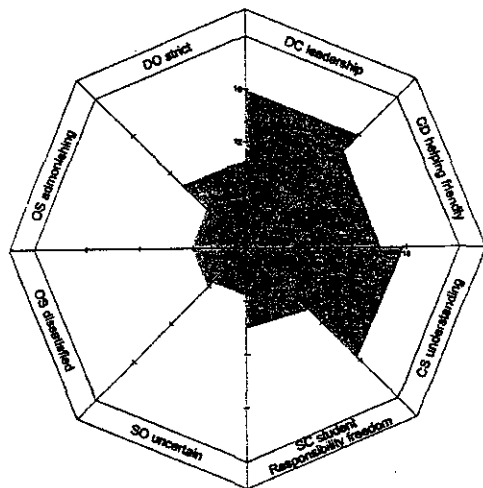
used, including small group work with close relationships being developed with students, who work to achieve their goals. A combined profile for the other teacher is different and shows this to be predominantly type 2, authoritative, but with some aspects of type 1, directive. Students are likely to consider that the class atmosphere is well structured, pleasant and task-oriented, that they are attentive, and the teacher enthusiastic and attentive to their needs.



Year 12 (type 3)



Year 13 (type 3)



Year 12/13 (type 2/1)

Key:

- D: Dominance**
- S: Submission**
- O: Opposition**
- C: Co-operation**

Fig. 4.2. Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction Profiles for Art and Design

In Art and Design much of the work is individual, for example, as part of a lesson in an early unit in Year 12 a teacher demonstrated the use of a camera

and tripod so that students could photograph their own plaster sculptures. They were confident in doing this and checking back about settings, focus and height, using specialist language and reflecting understanding of what they were doing. Other students then took turns in arranging and taking photographs of their work and also worked on other projects, including making and beginning to assemble models of futuristic buildings. These were fascinating and the individual tasks involved cutting sections for a spiral staircase, interconnecting box shapes for a model museum, drawing and measuring card for a tiered 3-dimensional tower. Another student was using textile techniques on a lampshade she was making to fit the plaster sculpture base she had already finished. At one point during the lesson a student presented some finished work to me, a piece of batik, which I had seen in its earlier stages, and, towards the end of the lesson, another student discussed her work in some detail with the teacher.

All Art and Design students are encouraged to keep sketchbooks which contain not only ideas for development and notes on techniques but provide opportunities for trying these out small scale, thumbnail assessments of these, references and clippings. From the perspective of an observer these were invaluable in showing how far students had developed in the short space of three months and where the seeds of this development lay.

Throughout this lesson students were on task, some of them working in meticulous detail. The atmosphere was calm and purposeful with some conversation, not necessarily about work, between students.

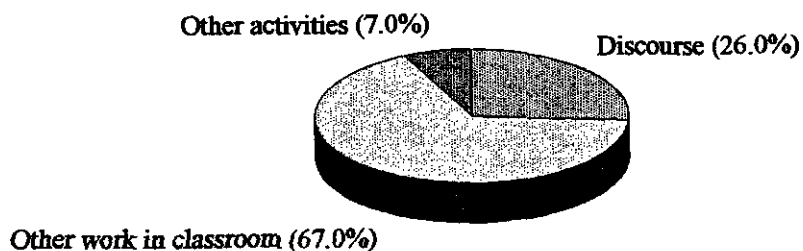


Fig. 4.3. Balance of classroom activities in Art and Design, Year 12
Detailed breakdowns of the activities observed during this lesson, and other art and design lessons are shown in Appendix 4.1. The four broad

categories of activities shown in each of the charts are those devised by Meagher (1997).

In a later lesson the same group of students were working with another teacher where the pattern of activity was similar with students working in two and three dimensions according to assignment briefs, and characterised by the teacher moving around the room working individually with students, giving advice and assistance where needed or discussing the next stages in particular cases. As with the earlier lesson there were also instances of individuals talking together, about football in one case, or discussing their work with each other, with no-one visibly off-task, but more in a buzz of activity. Towards the end of this session the teacher did bring the class together and this was to remind them about keeping sketchbooks and paperwork up to date, approaching deadlines for work for the unit to be complete.

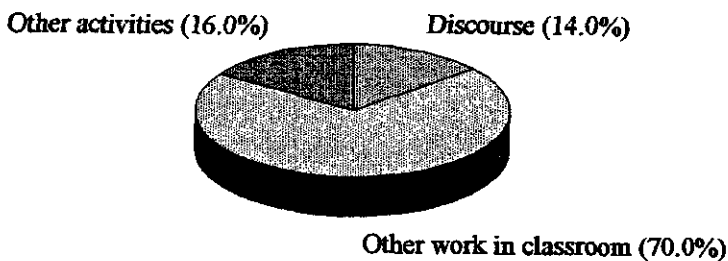


Fig. 4.4. Balance of classroom activities in Art and Design, Year 12

Year 13 students are much more confident and competent. In a lesson in a sculpture unit in their fifth term all students were working on individual pieces and the teacher's role here was that of one to one support. He clearly had high expectations of the students. Some were working in a scale or with materials that were new to them. In one 50 minute lesson individuals were involved in pouring and carving plaster, shaping and finishing metal, marking and cutting wood, moulding clay, making notes, getting feedback and guidance. This was characterised by questions such as, "*what do you want to do...?, how will you ...?, what will you do...?, how will you make...?*", encouraging students to think and respond, which they did, purposefully,

showing confidence and competence, with the relationship very much an equal one.

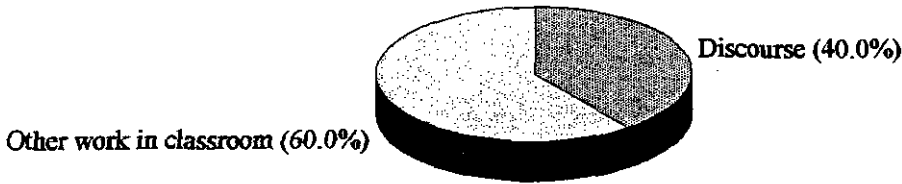


Fig. 4.5. Balance of classroom activities in Art and Design, Year 13

Similarly in a lesson later in the day Year 13 students were working in their “chosen field”. This was the same group working with a different teacher, this time with mosaic, metal and fabric, fabric painting and clay and again the work was highly personalised. In addition to individual work with each student the teacher also set deadlines by the end of term for various pieces of portfolio work to be completed, “*I’ve been growling at them*”, said lightly but with underlying firmness. The growling consisted of the reminders of deadlines, the importance of getting outstanding work finished and the demands of standards moderation, “*their practical work is lovely, but you’ve still got to get the paperwork finished.*” Body language and faces told more clearly that this transaction had taken place more than once; but in the management of extended portfolio work, is one that is not unexpected. There are similarities here with the Year 12 lesson where the teacher had also brought the class together for administrative but necessary purposes. The expectation of standards in students’ work was high and possibly, together with the reminder of deadlines, students were beginning to feel pressurised, with the completion date for all work in *three months’* time.

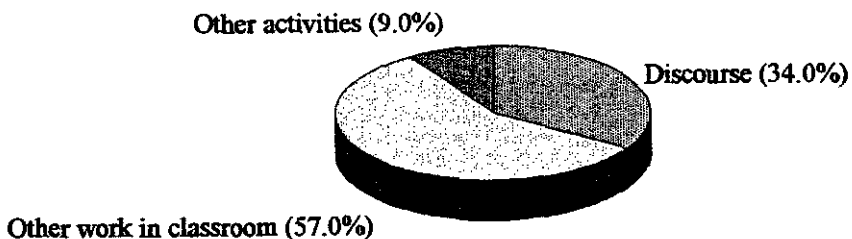


Fig 4.6. Balance of classroom activities in Art and Design Year 13

At about the same time I made notes of a conversation with this teacher, two months after the first interview and just before an observation. She mentioned her anxieties about the students and worried about getting them to complete their work. *"I feel anxious, and I hope I'm not turning into a nag ... I don't want this to destroy the relationship."* This has a direct link with the QTI results in that the profile for her was directive/authoritative, but nearer to authoritative, type 2. She herself had recognised that she was becoming more directive in her approach to the Year 13 students. This encounter also provides evidence of the way in which teachers invest their "selves" in their work with students, identifying closely both with them and the subject.

Both teachers had been teaching GNVQ for four years since the introduction of Art and Design and talked about the way they develop work with the students. For one teacher:

It starts off with a general discussion ... for instance, Unit 7 ... we're looking at meanings and messages conveyed by images, so we look at a broad base ... we look at graphics, fine art, sculpture, adverts and we use it ... to try and identify what's being said by a particular thing and who it's directed to and then the students go off on an individual basis and decide upon the actual issue they want to look at, and it's very much them researching it, writing, finding out on the Internet, gathering information on which to base a piece of work. And then I come in again and try to help them formulate the designs towards that piece of work with this vast amount of information they have.

Both considered that the GNVQ was the more rigorous course and was more concerned with concepts and ideas than with the acquisition of drawing and painting skills. *"I prefer teaching GNVQ to A level ... really it's the better course. I think A level is self-indulgent ... if I went back now*

to A level I would teach it better. It's because of the structure ... the work is more focused." This teacher considered that unlike A level which is more self-expressive the GNVQ itself provides more impetus. *"Their portfolios are more varied and relate to the units - GNVQ relates to what students will eventually have to do ... students are getting offers on BA courses and they don't have to do a foundation year."* Both saw part of their role was making students think, analyse, reflect about what they were doing and then plan for that. Neither felt constrained by the language of the specifications in the work they could do with students; this is partly because they were working with the New Model Pilot and not the 1995 model with their elements and performance indicators which one had been described as *"a bit iffy ... I didn't like the old one at all ... it seems more about the tests."* One was concerned that students should be able to *"do something that's extraordinary using the ordinary in a different way."* This certainly applied to his approach to Year 13 students:

I lay off them more in Year 13 and allow them to think and produce and widen their scope really. I do make sure that they understand that nothing's impossible so they have massive scope ... I suppose it's just giving them an aspiration, a dream, where they can be and what they can do ... I was pushed like that and I think that's what you need because otherwise you start making work that is middle of the road and quite mundane.

There was recognition by both of the need to be able to cope with differing learning styles and preferences, and for flexibility when dealing with students with different abilities and aptitudes, *"Less able students need to understand exactly what's required of them"* and recognising that they would want to work in different in different ways but still have access to grading, *"that is a learning curve for you as a teacher ... as well as knowing what the student's capable of ... I think the recording of students' progress is good for them and it's interesting to see."* One also placed a value on links outside the

school for professional purposes, *“There’s current things happening in Cornwall that I see first hand ... and through the gallery you learn a lot.”* This teacher offered further thoughts on dealing with Year 13 students, trying to jolly them along and cajole them into looking for resources, *“the difference between apparently similar outcomes is in the process - I want them to go deeper.”* A colleague, *“approaches things differently.”*

Later I returned to the Art department to see a Private View the Year 12 students had mounted for their parents and friends. The work I had seen in progress was now finished. Students were clearly pleased with what they had achieved in one term and quietly articulate in how they had gone about their work. *“I didn’t realise I had a personal style but I can see it now ... I had the idea and wanted to take it through what I was doing, but I didn’t know exactly what I would do.”*

Others talk of more resources and equipment being appreciated *“as we appear to be running out here”* and there being *“nowhere near enough space in the Art Department as you are all squashed together and quite a lot of work gets messed up due to this.”* Their teachers would agree with this.

Art and Design students are consistent in their reasons for choosing the subject. *“Art was and is my favourite and best subject.”* and *“Mine’s the same - my best subject - the one I enjoyed the most.”* are typical. This would seem to indicate that they knew about what they wanted to do in Year 12 because in one sense they were already doing it in Year 11, but, perhaps more significantly, they were quite clear that they saw their career as being somewhere in the art and design field. Depending on whether they were Year 12 or Year 13 students’ future plans were more or less fluid but with an art focus. Towards the end of Year 12 one had spoken of wanting to be a fashion designer and, *“I’m looking everywhere.”* Another wanted to be a teacher, *“infants - I don’t know whether to do the B.Ed or a degree then a PGCE.”* *“I love working with boats, I want to be near the sea ...*

I've got a conditional offer ... a four year Yacht Manufacture and Design course.” Several of the Year 13 students had already had offers from higher education establishments but were beginning to feel the pressures of what they were doing. For some December to February is a nadir, to them it appears that there is no respite, *“It's hard to do another A level due to the work load with the GNVQ.”* and *“The pressures are building, the interviews - I have fourteen detail sheets to finish by half-term.”* This was said by a student after he had moved from Year 12 into Year 13; the pressures he identifies are of an almost eternal nature and seem to be part of a rite of passage from formal schooling onto the next, sometimes unknown, stage.

He also drew comparisons can be drawn between A level and GNVQ modes of working, *“There's a lot more work in the GNVQ; Graphics goes more into detail and more depth, and is more controlled. In the Art and Design you work with weird things and build the work through the portfolio.”*

Another reflected on his growth in autonomy, *“I am now very self-sufficient.”*

Students agree that the work is hard, *“It's a lot of work, but you've got to be committed otherwise you won't get on.”* and *“It is different to what I expected - there's less painting - more sculpture - it is wider. That's good.”* A Year 12 student looked forward to Year 13, *“doing what we want to do but within the unit.”* and perhaps pre-figuring what the Year 13 student had already discovered. Further,

The standard is high ... I think it's quite easy - I do a lot of work but it seems easy - it's not like work. I enjoy it. It is very useful. I want to be a designer - I won't have to do a foundation year. I can go straight to uni .

Students in a second interview when they had moved into Year 13 were very clear on the differences in teaching and learning in the 6th Form:

It differs hugely from GCSE, it's a very big step, you don't do half as much work but the demand is twice as much. I think in Year 10 there should have been a bit of pressure and in Year 11 there needs to be more pressure, to build towards the 6th Form. I'll give you an example; I wasn't shown how to use a sketchbook (in a previous school) and it took me a long time to learn, now I can do this properly, now I'm improving. You need to do this before the 6th Form. Year 9 flows, but to the GNVQ is like going from town football to the national team!

Both Year 12 and Year 13 students have a very clear idea of their level of work and thought that *"the assessment is pretty good - you can build on a pass to get a merit - I'm working at distinction."* and *"I'm almost a merit."* The structure of the pilot units in Art and Design allows students to know this very early in that the different requirements at each level are set out explicitly. The broad field that is Art and Design is welcomed by students:

The multicultural unit was good - I was just fascinated with it all. There was so much to choose from for the final piece - this had to be a piece of textiles and jewellery or a headpiece.

Some were somewhat sceptical of the value of key skills, they *"cover the business side I suppose but I think they were a bit pointless."* and *"The application of number, the portfolio wasn't too bad, the test⁵ was hard! What was it about?"* Is it pointless because it is not seen as being relevant to art and design or because work is undertaken away from the art area and perceived as having little connection with the mathematical skills they were undoubtedly using in their practical work? I suspect it is closer to the latter. *"The IT will go better because it needs research and it links with the mural project - we're using different things in the write-up."* The IT too is

⁵ All GNVQ advanced students had followed the Phased Implementation of the 2000 model of key skills which included internal assessment of a portfolio for each skill and an external assessment, which at level 3 was timed and taken in controlled conditions.

developed away from art but because the focus of the portfolio students were compiling was a group community art project then it was almost a case of the IT being more acceptable to them in this way. The following comment would seem to confirm this view, *“The communication is fine - it’s in the lessons (art and design) - it’s better.”*

Students are perceptive on how relationships with teachers have changed:

They’re more relaxed, it’s more like adults, they don’t take it as an insult when we say some things. We have got (become?) friends. Mrs. X gets a bit heavy sometimes - it’s because she’s so interested in our work, it can be overpowering. I was talking to Mr. Y and saying I don’t really like Art but he said it’s a means to an end - I was talked back into it.

One reflected on relationships in the GCSE years, perhaps recognising that building these is more of a two-way process:

I think teachers can get in the way, they can hold you back. If I could go back (to GCSEs) I would change things, trying to get relationships to work with teachers, trying to get better grades.... From my GCSE grades I don’t look like an academic but with my hands I can draw.

In Art and Design students are given an outline for the year which shows the sequence of work and the dates for completion. A typical study guide is a fairly minimal document and sets out the themes to be covered, dates and the titles of the two related project briefs. Students are informed that they will need to:

- develop the use of sketchbooks, worksheets, working drawings/ samples and record and evaluate responses to visual stimuli
- develop skills in self-analysis and refine work accordingly

- develop skills in good working practice with particular regard to health and safety standards

The first two provide some evidence that students will have the opportunity to gain abstract information and also for reflective thought. The third is the opportunity for practical activity. However, as the study guide stands it is not particularly helpful to the student. The accompanying project briefs (Art and Design nomenclature for assignment and covering two A4 sides) are much more useful and student-friendly as they are written in a style more likely to capture students' imagination:

*For a final exhibition/installation at The Shire House
produce a series of 3D objects based on the theme of
'The Self' with particular regard to your use of the body
to convey thoughts and feelings, and produce actions*

This is more exciting and in a sense students begin where they will end. The advice on where to find information, how to approach the preliminary work and the routes they could take through the project, conventional and non-conventional techniques they might investigate, thinking about how to mount and display the final pieces and where, is given but is not overwhelming. Students are reminded that they will need to plan for the project and to evaluate their work. Over the span of this unit of work they will have had opportunities to gain concrete experience and abstract information, for reflective thought and for a variety of activity. There is enough here to include all students with their varied learning styles and also for teachers to be involved at all stages, thus avoiding Meagher's 'pedagogical limbo'.

At the end of her first term a Year 12 student had completed and evaluated a unit and throughout the evaluation she clearly reflects on what she wanted to do and how she ensured that she did so. She has a clear knowledge of the nature of the materials she is working with and at several points shows how

she overcomes difficulties and learns from mistakes. Reference to her sketchbook shows that this essentially curious and questioning approach is very much a part of her work. For her it isn't enough to describe a technique; she thinks ahead to how it could be used. Later on she has looked at the work of Klimt and quite consciously sets about trying to achieve a similar effect, not just of the artist but of a particular painting. This is evidence of knowledge being brought into play and being used to promote new learning. Looking at the sketchbook shows where the evaluation has its foundation. There is a cyclical pattern here which mirrors Kolb and shows quite clearly a cognitive process and a language with which to express this. This student clearly has an intention to engage with the work and to seek meaning and comprehension, evidence of a deep approach to learning.

Health and Social Care - Learning Style Inventories, Questionnaires on Teacher Interaction, Lesson observations, Interviews with teachers and students, Scrutiny of study guides, assignments and student work

According to the LSI results, each year a small number of students shows a preference for more assimilative learning styles indicating an ability for reflective observation and abstract conceptualisation, relating what is observed to theory. In other years similar numbers identify with more accommodative and divergent learning styles and may prefer to learn through activities involving concrete examples and direct experience, or concrete experience and reflective observation, being able to see situations from other perspectives. Only recently have any students identified with convergent learning styles where they will prefer to learn through abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation, with an ability to apply theory in practical situations. The current Year 12 students show more variation than the Year 13s which should indicate that teachers would need to be aware of student differences when they are planning and introducing work, and also in supporting students as they work through their units.

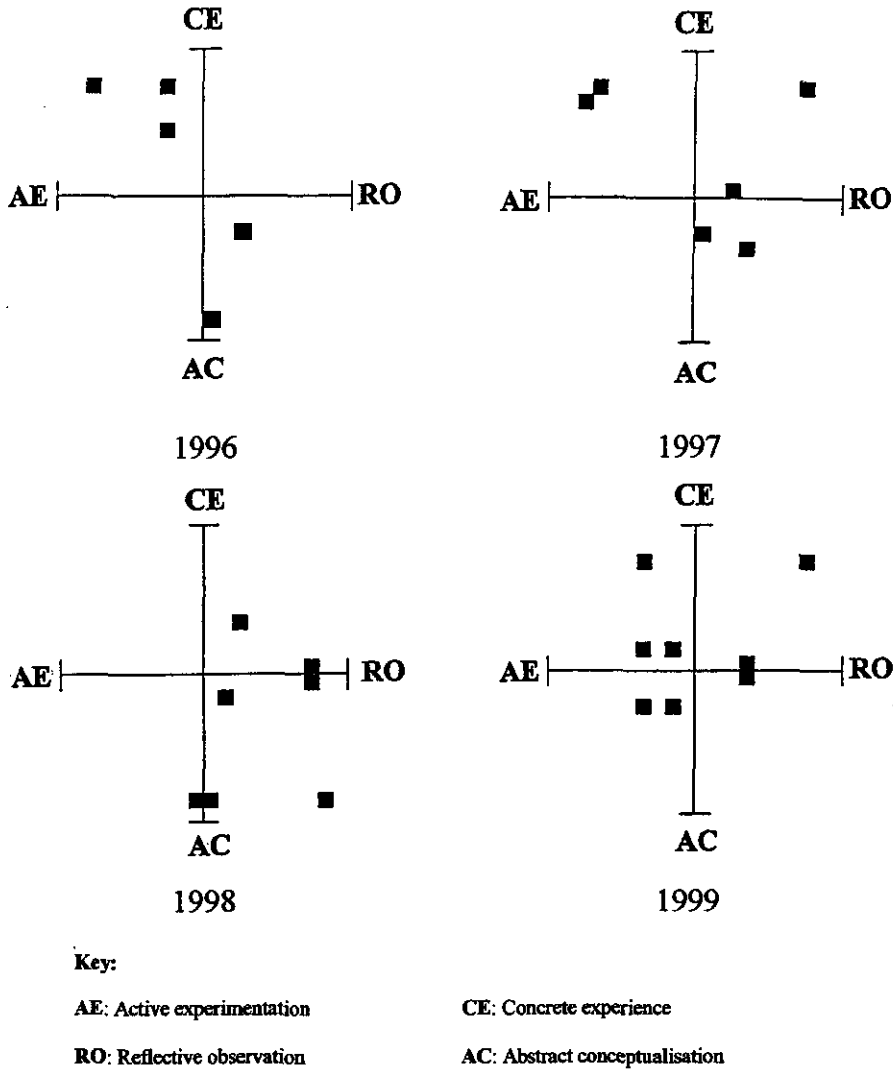
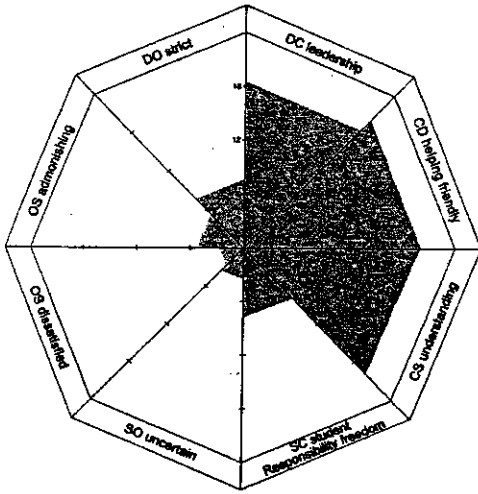


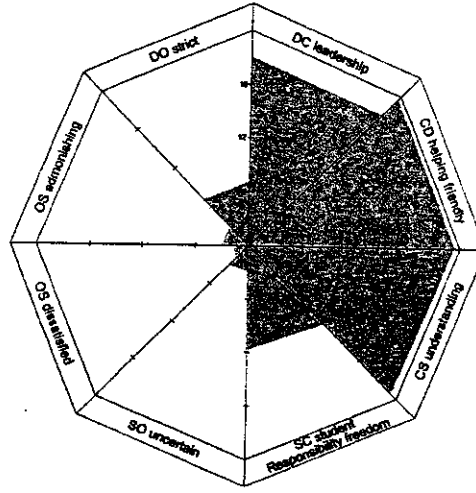
Fig. 4.7. Learning Style Inventory Results 1996 - 1999, Student Profiles, Health and Social Care (positions determined by individual LSI scores)

For two of the teachers the Questionnaires on Teacher Interaction are combined for Years 12 and 13. One is clearly type 3, tolerant and authoritative, whereas the other teacher is between 2 and 3 but closer to type 3. These profiles indicate that both teachers are considered by their students to maintain supportive structures and that students will respond well to the variety of methods used. My own profiles are separate for Years 12 and 13. As I had expected there are differences between Year 12 and Year 13. That for Year 13 is type 3, tolerant and authoritative, and for Year

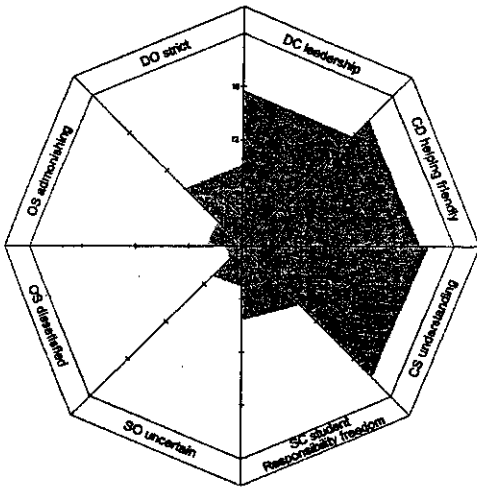
12 type 2/3, authoritative/tolerant and authoritative, but nearer to 3.
 According to the typology the working relationships between all teachers
 and their students could be expected to be close and students goal-oriented



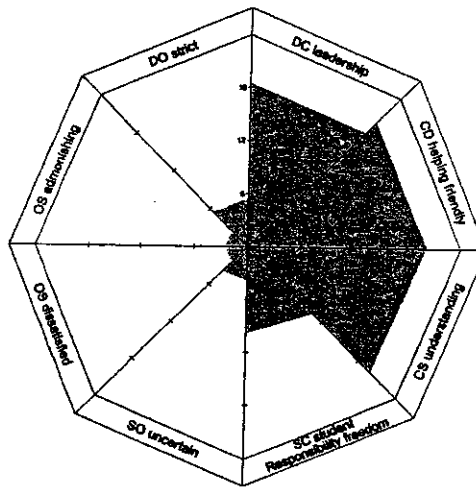
Year 12/13 (type 3)



Year 12/13 (type 3)



Year 12 (type 2/3)



Year 13 (type 3)

Key:
 D: Dominance
 S: Submission
 O: Opposition
 C: Co-operation

Fig. 4.8. Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction Profiles for Health and Social Care

In a subject which involves working with other people and dealing with working relationships it might be expected that students would be more aware of their own developing relationships with each other and with members of staff. One lesson which I found particularly difficult to observe and record involved the Year 12 students and their teacher trying to resolve issues surrounding a difficult situation that had arisen between some of the students and another teacher who is not part of the study. However, it does point to what might be a pitfall of conducting research in a close context. When I make a prearranged observation of a lesson what I see in this sense does then become a part of my study in that I am looking at the experiences of students on that particular course. What is important is how the teacher with that group of students interrelate and how that affects both teaching and learning. An open discussion was initiated by the teacher outlining their responsibilities and gaining acquiescence and agreement on future behaviour. Students contributed freely to the discussion and clearly valued being heard. Very clear objectives were drawn out during the group discussion summed up by one student, *"s'pose well have to give it a go, won't we!"* perhaps indicative of the taking on of responsibility for their actions in future transactions with the other teacher. For the remainder of the lesson all students were involved in checking their work with the teacher and each other, finding feedback sheets and preparing portfolios for an external verifier visit. During this part of the lesson I was no longer in observer mode but into participant role as another hand in assembling students' work. The atmosphere was good humoured; students were able to talk openly about genuine problems and seemed to move almost seamlessly from the discussion of problems to the discussion of their own work.

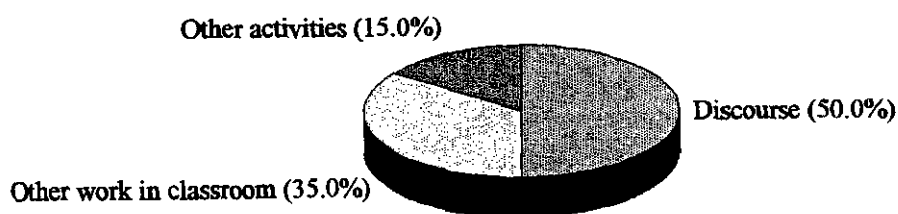


Fig. 4.9. Balance of classroom activities Health and Social Care Year 12

Detailed breakdowns of the activities observed during this lesson and other health and social care lessons are shown in Appendix 4.2. The four broad categories of activities shown in each of the charts are those devised by Meagher (1997).

Feedback between teachers and students is very much part of the working relationships, more so when students are working outside the classroom and need feedback and advice on how to proceed with a particular piece of work. The teacher had prepared for a session, ready listed for the student what he needed to do and had earmarked relevant pages in a textbook with “post-its”, with the admonition, *“Don’t throw these away until I have gone through your work.”* but smiling and gaining eye contact, answered with a rueful *“Yeah”* and smile. This session was characterised by both focusing closely on the student’s work in his assignment and clarifying what needed to be done and how it was to be done. In terms of formative assessment this was valuable. Each time the student asked a question the teacher turned this round so that he understood at a deeper level what he should be doing, *“What do you ...? How would you ...?”* By the end of the session he had a plan of action and a new deadline for work to be completed. This was seeing one of the steps forward in student learning, focused on how and what to learn, with a more equal discussion of work in hand, which was completed four days after this.

When two years are being taught together this really means that there will be effectively two lessons going on at the same time. For example when a group of Year 13 students were working individually on their portfolios the teacher and the Year 12 students were sitting in a group and pulling together their work on educating for health and well-being. The teacher had initiated the discussion on what this meant to them. Students were actively involved in this and were quite willing to put forward their own ideas and to build on others’ contributions. They knew from their own case studies and observations the very real difficulties involved in food shopping on a low income. They were also able to advance reasons for the differences between

the take-up of health screening between men and women, not all of these anecdotal, showing that they were able to link theory to practice. When the discussion turned to their work placements which they had enjoyed and were keenly interested in a Year 13 student observed quietly, *"They're different from us ... they like going out ... we didn't want to go out."* - smiling - she had been taking all this in whilst working assiduously on her own portfolio, almost as a co-observer or conspirator. When the group broke up for individual work there was individual feedback with two students. One of these was striking in the student's response. Overall the feedback was positive, *"Did you say why you used these ... state the source and justify it?"* The student's reply was to point out how, where and why in several places she had used her sources and related them to each other. She had engaged with the work and in her identification of sources had shown some evidence of deeper learning. She was also quite clear on further work to be done:

No, hang on ... I'll do this in registration. That work will be in Thursday, pointing to folder, picking it up purposefully and putting it into her bag - very optimistic and no doubt about whose work this is.

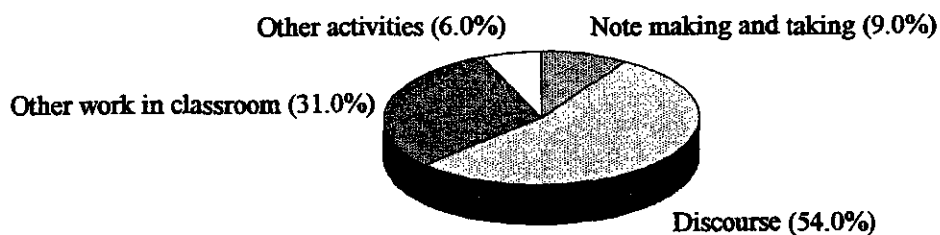


Fig. 4.10. Balance of classroom activities in Health and Social Care Year 12/13

Students also need to study how individuals cope with transition and change, and in a lesson with another teacher this was characterised by individual work with students with the teacher knowing very clearly where individuals 'were' in their work, and sitting alongside to clarify what needed to be done next. *"You could use this (Hopson's model) to explain coping with change*

and transition through change ... I'm sure I have been through this ... I would certainly use the diagram." The student was interested in this and although she had not completed the work on that section saw the value of this particular theoretical model in explaining her work, *"It's something I've got to do, and do a little conclusion for, take people I know and write about them."* What was also evident here was a level of mutual trust between student and teacher. The teacher had referred to personal events in her own life in explaining to the student what needed to be included in her work. The transaction was that of one between equals, adult to adult.

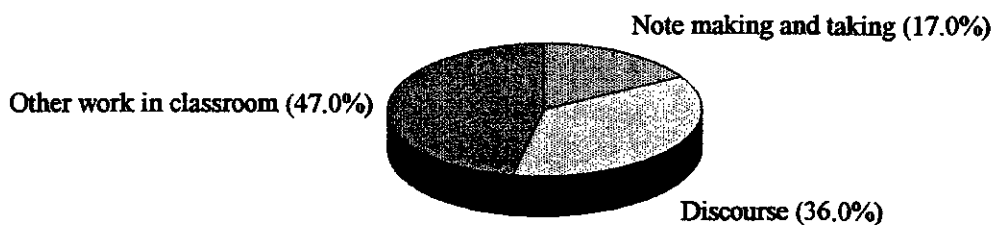


Fig. 4.11. Balance of classroom activities in Health and Social Care Year 12/13

One teacher had been teaching GNVQ since its introduction, the other for two years. Both considered that their approach to A level was different in that this would be much more formal whereas,

I think with the GNVQ learning style it's very specific and structured around the students' abilities and pace ... and actually developing that and building on it and that's more a team approach both for the student and the teacher ... I think the approach to GNVQ enables you to also highlight the students' own interests and therefore explore that more in terms of drawing out their motivation for studying and then supporting around that ... it enables you to work from a base of where the student's coming from at that level.

This teacher spoke of how she structures the work for students, "*Pace doesn't mean I let the students take as long as they want ... they're actually being involved in setting themselves targets ...*" Being able to work with other things that have been planned for them was important "*so making sure they're aware what the time span is and how it can be broken down and structured is important.*" Another spoke of the immediate difference being:

on the delivery. I think with A level there's such a lot of content that one has to work through with the student straight away ... that's the first line in teaching the course whereas with the GNVQ I think understanding the process is as important as understanding then the content.

Both teachers were prepared to change the direction of what they were doing with students. For example if one had perceived they had not understood her or needed a different approach or focus, "*to trigger them, to start them to think about, to read, to listen or stimulate a discussion, or we haven't thought about this ... or this is an area you ought to include or where can we go to get this information?*". The other considered that "*it's never the same twice, is it?*" and:

it's virtually responding to their interests and where their strengths are. Some of them, for instance, particularly enjoy the research, factual based work, will go on to study the technical details of the particular path to the performance criteria and much enjoy doing that and don't enjoy the freedom of the free response, and others are quite the reverse, and we have a mixture of those students within a group.

Both have recognised that within the groups of students they were teaching there were differing learning styles and levels of knowledge, and differing approaches to work and support for students would have to be employed.

Implicit here too is a recognition of the crucial nature of building and maintaining relationships with students. Discussion is encouraged as something students would do very willingly if they were confident:

On the whole they generally are very quick and very willing to participate in discussion ... and they've got a lot of views that they want discussed and also they're interested to know what yours are, and what other people's are. So I think that's quite exciting ... I think students are more confident at discussing and that's for me a very good way of making sure of their understanding and learning, and that they're comfortable with that, because when presented with a piece of work that they might have to do as written they might say 'I don't know where to start - I don't know what this means' and yet, when you're talking to a student and discussing it you can actually draw them out and they're saying the things they need to say and they do know what they need to know and the fact that you actually acknowledge that publicly through discussion is reassuring for them and then they are confident and realise that they do know it, and can then go on and write it down.

This teacher also valued the outside links that she could bring to GNVQ, *"the opportunity it gives me professionally to work with other professionals closely ... it gives me the ability to teach across quite a broad subject."* She was aware of the power of the assessment structure of GNVQ in motivating students.

It's very clear cut ... it's nicely structured into neat units and therefore they know they can work through, complete, that it's finished, it's assessed, they've achieved. I think for them, not having to wait for the big, ultimate, final

assessment is quite a big boost for them and quite important for raising their self-esteem and the style of actually having something that is evidence that has been assessed but then is theirs as well.

Both teachers thought the content, the way it is assessed and the style of teaching and learning it provides was an opportunity both for them and students:

it's a style you can feel very comfortable with, you know, you want to make it exciting, to make it very real to stimulate and bring in a lot to it, and that can be driven or tailored by a particular interest on the part of a student. It can be a push and a struggle and if someone's really struggling with a unit finding an area to actually grab their attention can be hard, and it can mean as well that you can't just deliver ... but I think that's quite a narrow point of view of teaching ... I think it means you've got to be a lot more prepared to face that challenge and to draw out and examine your own style, about how you can actually get this person through that, and what's going to actually interest them to get them there.

and:

It would be very easy to destroy them completely and say it's wrong - go away and do it again ... but it's building on what they've already done and found out and discovered, whereas with the A level I think it would be very easy for them to think, believe they've done it all wrong and this has been marked. I think that's where marks can be soul-destroying, particularly in their early stages when it's a skill they're developing.

Students' reasons for choosing to study Health and Social Care have some similarities, for example one had been pleased that at registration her results had been good enough to go on to the Advanced Health and Social Care course.

At my careers interview I wanted to do Sociology but I was advised my predicted grades weren't good enough. This (advanced HSC) is good as it has different aspects - sociology, psychology, ethics - I love this, it leads on to other things.

and:

I thought it would be easier than A levels - there would be less pressure - there would be no lengthy exams - it would be based on coursework ...I was interested in Health and Social Care - in a career in that ... I didn't consider myself academically able.

Further:

It's a different way of learning ... also, I wanted to do something to cover all different areas, not to be stuck in a single A level.

Students differ on whether they find the work more difficult or easier than expected. One considered that the course is more academic than practical and some find the language of the units confusing. Another wanted to be more directed in her learning, *"I want to be told what to do, when to do it and not being left by myself to do it."* Is there a problem here, in a student seeming not to want to develop as a more independent learner or is it more a case of needing more support in the initial stages of the course? Probably the latter; this was said early in the course and the student did go on to

achieve the award. The broad nature of Health and Social Care surprised others, *“It’s different from what I thought, I thought it would be more about health and not so much on the laws and legislation.”* Others like the way of learning,

it’s more relaxed, teachers respect us more, it’s more independent. If you’ve got the information you can get on. We have the study guides to show us the resources and how to get on. It is harder but I like the challenge. It builds better. The teachers are all there to help - any of you - I can ask about any of the work, not just the person’s who’s teaching it.

For a student moving from Year 12 into Year 13 the more independent style of learning had become problematic, *“There’s nothing to keep you going, there’s loads of bookwork. I wanted more practical work - “like this (a jigsaw she has made for a child for one unit). I would have liked you to be more strict with me at the beginning - then I wouldn’t be so behind now!”*

A fellow student appreciated the different way of working, *“It’s more independent than GCSEs when you had to do things by a certain date; there are not so many deadlines.”* There are deadlines in GNVQ; in any two year Advanced course with twelve units to be completed simple arithmetic makes a six week unit almost a rule of thumb for everyone.

Deadlines however, are flexible and open to negotiation in GNVQ. The student who considers there are not so many manages to keep to what she has negotiated, and perhaps provides some evidence of having developed a strategic approach to learning and studying. The student who finds that she is behind had renegotiated deadlines several times and has developed a surface approach to her studies. She is almost driven by a fear of failure which may partly explain why, for her, *“The worst thing is the book work.”*

Year 13 students who were also following A level courses were able to make comparisons between learning styles, *“I’ve enjoyed it a lot more - it’s*

more for you ... it's very individual, not aimed at a whole group." Another thought *"The A level was easy - the Philosophy, not the Buddhism."* A year later a new Year 13 student made similar comments, *"The Maths is taught, then you get on with it. I like the longer time frame (of GNVQ) and value the responsibility we have."* This differs from perceptions in the Art and Design group, where doing another A level was considered to be hard work. When asked how they go about organising their own work one student interviewed in her second year had the following to say:

For Unit 2 I looked at other people's work and then went step by step in my head. I knew it would be O.K....You can work at your own pace, you can go fast or slow; sometimes you can let it go then pick it up again. I like looking at other people's units - what's been done before.

This is by no means a confession of plagiarism but more an indication of using the way other people have approached their work as a resource, much as she has used text books, research of her own and working with teachers and others.

In a subject which is concerned with the formulation and enacting of social policy some students develop acute political awareness:

You are an individual, not a statistic. I have spoken to other students - that's what it's like - and been to certificate presentations. There's too much politics and pressure and league tables. GNVQ works at an individual level. I love my GNVQ teachers - it's all about self-esteem. I wasn't good at the core subjects of English, Maths and Science and I felt I wasn't valued as much. The GNVQ has said I am worth something. It isn't just the course, it's the teaching.

Perhaps here there is also a clue to the origins of some students' views of and attitudes to the Key Skills. Several had referred to Key Skills which for a very few of them appear to be "a pain". *"Application of Number is a bit of getting through hoops but we need it."* This was said in the planning stage of a major piece of work students were to do through the summer term and also in preparation for the 2000 model of external assessment. Key skills in a school are taught by the same teachers who might have taught Maths and IT to students at Key Stage 4; neither students nor their teachers come to 6th form work as tabula rasa. What may be surfacing are some very deep seated, intensely held beliefs and feelings. Year 13 students are clear on the developing relationships with their teachers, *"This year we have more independence; we are closer to you, we can talk to you, it's a more equal relationship, you can talk to us."*

Some Year 12 students appeared to be well aware of the relevance of the qualification, *"I want a career in primary teaching ... I must work. I want to get on. I'm not going to live off benefits. I want to work."* Year 13 students are more reflective, *"Some units, like unit 5, I really thought - why do I need to know all this, but now I've done it I understand what's in the news and I have learnt from it"* and *"It's got me into university ... I've learnt how to find out things and research."*

Most seem unconcerned by the assessment structure, a typical response was, *"The tests create pressure but they're better than one end-of-year exam. The portfolio shows what you're capable of - the tests prove that you've learnt it."* Year 13 students are more perceptive about the structure of some units, *"I prefer the portfolio especially the ones with the evidence indicators that let you do a bit more for yourself,"* and also recognise that in some ways they have learnt to play the assessment game, *"I am pushed, not in an intellectual way, the work is laborious and often mundane, you have to meet the criteria. The optional units are better."* Another thought the optional units were more difficult in that after deciding which to do:

There's more work, you have to find your own resources, it makes it a challenge but it's more rewarding. I suppose it gives a good grounding for higher education. I'm going to take a year out, then apply for paediatric nursing - I'm not giving up completely but I need a change."

How students make progress at the start of the course is partly determined by their introduction to the way of working. For example a study guide for Physical Aspects of Health is part of an induction unit for first year advanced students and it is laid out in a way that allows students to "walk" through an element. Concurrently, with other teachers, they will be "walking" through the other two elements and will have learnt how to plan, find and handle information, review and evaluate their own work and performance by the completion date. The opportunities to gain concrete experience through direct experience are there in that a visit should take place to the local hospital. Students are recommended to use a variety of listed sources for information including CD-ROM, texts, and Internet, thus providing the opportunity for gaining abstract information. There is no apparent opportunity for reflective thought, except in the reference to evaluation of the unit as a whole. There is also scope for activity in that students are required to take a range of medical measurements, analyse these and then prepare illustrated reports. Overall however the impression is one of dryness which does not reflect the range of activity seen during classroom observations.

Study guides are not prepared for students' individual optional units. When Year 13 students work on these they are much more independent in how they approach and plan for what they need to do, that is, they decide what they will research, how they will gather evidence and how they will present work. Perhaps it is then not surprising for them that merit or distinction for work is often achieved on the optional units.

In an evaluation of work on an early unit a Year 12 student has explained her method and logical working, and by talking about her presentation possibly has an awareness of this on an assessor/verifier. She talked of planning and setting her own deadline and of monitoring although there is little evidence of this. She does not say why she felt she needed more information but she does talk of pointers to future learning which prompts the question - how does she know what the smaller points are until she has done the work? She has used the Internet to find information but does not refer to this in her sources. Is this because as it is not text it “doesn’t count”. The evaluation as it stands is pedestrian and does not yet trace her development of knowledge and learning. Another question here is whether all seventeen year olds have developed a language to be able to do this. She has not, for example, traced links between the three elements comprising the unit; this is clearly something for which she will need more guidance and help. What is shown is a student trying to understand what evaluation is but not yet knowing quite how she learns, rather she knows how to set about her work, to locate resources, to set her work out, and to complete it to deadlines. In this sense what she does show is some evidence of a strategic approach to learning, that is, she has already learnt how to read and work with a unit and, by applying logic and method to her work, knows that she has what may almost be considered as a template to achievement.

Another Year 12 student shows evidence of a more surface approach to her work in an evaluation of her second unit. She talks of having a little trouble and tending to

*leave it until last where I found that I fell quite behind ...
I do feel as if I really should have spread each element out
to fit in with my time ... I think what caused me the most
trouble was that I didn't find element 1.2 interesting at all
and then lost interest ... which caused me to hand my work
in a lot later than planned. For my next unit I need to
consider a lot of improvements such as time.*

So, she did finish the unit; it was assessed, passed and is now behind her. She is honest about her approach which was to get the work done, late. There are traces of anxiety here also as she contemplates what needs to be done. In a sense she is pressured; if students are late completing work then they are also likely to be late in starting the next piece of work, which in itself creates further pressure. There is a signal here to teachers, in this case me, that of being aware of potential difficulties for students and at an earlier stage trying to build in supports or smoothing the passage through the unit.

By comparison a student in the same group has been inspired by the assessment requirements to change her action plan:

I wanted to use more case studies in my report in order to achieve a more detailed analysis. I used newspaper cuttings as case studies to help me to illustrate types of discrimination by showing examples of the different bases and contexts, and as evidence of equality of opportunity legislation that applied to preventing discrimination. The newspaper articles could run the risk of being slightly biased towards an individual or group however the information reported is reported second hand and so the reporter is not directly involved in the case and is less likely to be biased. It is also reliable because there has to be fact behind the story to begin with ... I used the newspaper articles ... in order to illustrate different examples of discrimination and as an example of equality of opportunity legislation that related to disability.

This shows clear evidence of engagement with the work, to the extent that the student has changed her plans in order that she can incorporate information from a source she has identified and recognised will enhance her work. She has a clear understanding of the unit requirements and shows discrimination in how to meet these. She has also developed a language in

which to rationalise her actions and to adeptly weave in the language of the evidence indicators.

A feedback session with a Year 13 student brought surprises. We were talking about her work on a unit which had been “minded” by a supply teacher during long term teacher absence. Students had been briefed on *how to tackle the unit and to cross refer the performance criteria to those which they had covered in earlier work*. The key to this unit is two child studies which require students to apply knowledge in specific instances. The student asked if, as she had done all the notes she needed, she need not do the child studies. My dilemma was to say she must, as positively as possible, without disregarding the quite considerable time she had put into replicating, not even photocopying, work she had already had assessed and verified with her indicative grading being at Merit level. This is evidence of a surface approach to her work, that is, she had not engaged with the real task, the child studies, but had found the lengthy but non-threatening route through almost rewriting the textbook. We agreed on a solution where she would compile comparative charts of the development of two children that would enable her to fulfil the requirements of the evidence indicators. The sadness is that this unit, despite the time she has put into it, cannot be more than a pass. It also needs to be said that the teacher too in this instance had sought the “safe” route *through textbook based work*. It is also an example of feedback which had to be genuine and honest in order to help the student to close the gap between actual and desired performance identified by William and Black (1996), by not rewarding effort that has missed the point of what was to be assessed.

Leisure and Tourism - Learning Style Inventories, Questionnaires on Teacher Interaction, Lesson observations, Interviews with teachers and students, Scrutiny of study guides, assignments and student work

The results of the LSIs in Leisure and Tourism are broadly similar to those in Health and Social Care for the two years for which they are available and show a significant number of students identifying with more accommodative learning styles and a smaller number leaning towards more divergent learning styles. Few identify with assimilative learning styles and in 1999, for the first time, three students have identified with convergent ways of learning.

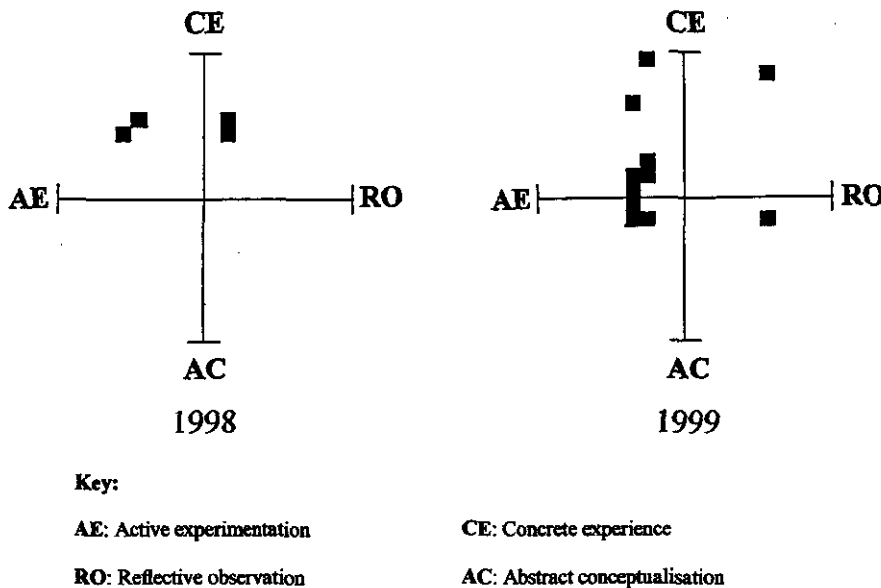
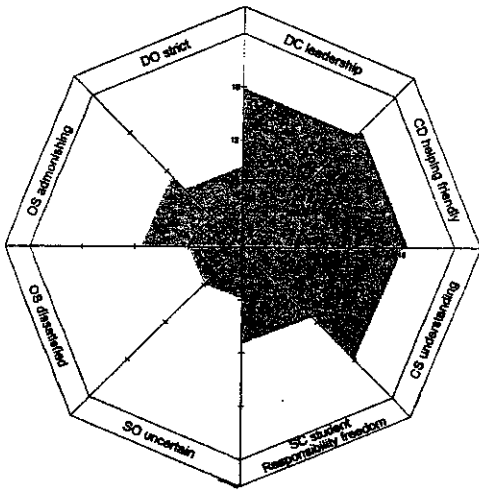


Fig. 4.12. Learning Style Inventory Results 1998 and 1999, Student Profiles, Leisure and Tourism (positions determined by individual LSI scores)

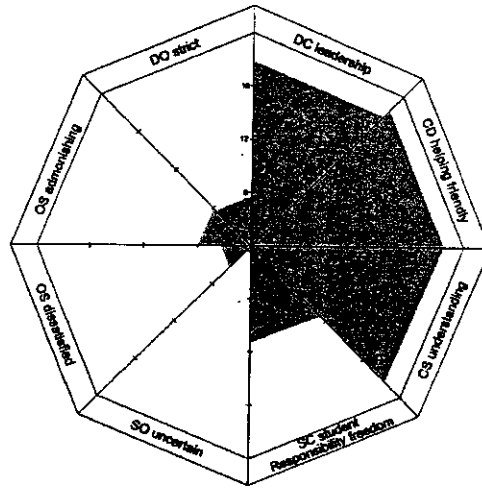
However, the small number of results also shows one of the potential difficulties in interpreting statistical data. Trends cannot be drawn safely; the results show variation, and it might be expected that with more students comprising the 1999 profile compared with the 1998 there would be more variation within the larger group. Nevertheless, it might be expected that different students will approach their work differently and that teachers will be aware of and be able to accommodate these differences. In both groups

there are those students who will probably prefer to obtain information through concrete specific examples and direct experience, and then to transform that information into knowledge through activity. However, in the 1999 group for almost half the students this is not likely to be their preferred learning style.

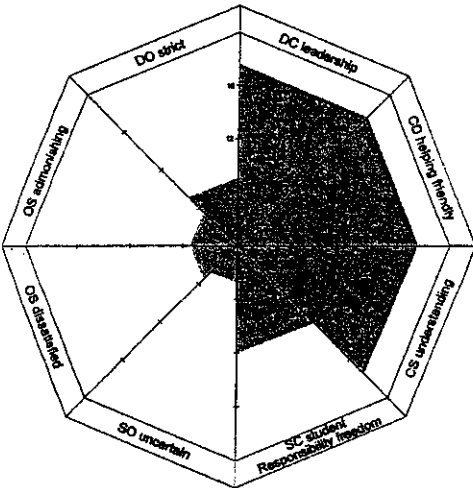
In the profiles for the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction there are clear differences between those for Year 12 and Year 13.



Year 12 (type 2)



Year 13 (type 3)



Year 12 (type 2/3)

Key: D: Dominance
S: Submission
O: Opposition
C: Co-operation

Fig. 4.13. Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction Profiles for Leisure and Tourism

That for Year 12 shows students consider one to be type 2, authoritative, and Year 13 as type 3, tolerant and authoritative: it might be expected therefore that there would be qualitative differences in the relationships between both groups and this teacher. There are noticeable differences in students' interpretations of the extent of strict, admonishing, dissatisfied and uncertain behaviours. The other teacher who teaches Year 12 only has a profile indicating type 2/3, authoritative/tolerant and authoritative, similar to those for other GNVQ teachers, closer to type 3, but indicating that different types of relationships might exist between the Year 12 groups and their teachers. The LSI results might offer a clue to the differences in perception of one teacher between the Year 12 and 13 students. The Year 12 group is larger and has more variation in preferred learning styles, some of who may not respond as readily as others to the activities planned for them.

Lessons in GNVQ subjects are diverse and very often their format will depend on the topic or particular piece of work being covered. When I observed a Leisure and Tourism lesson with the Year 12 students in the early stages of their course I was forewarned by the teacher that it would not be typical and would be fairly directive because students were being introduced to what for most of them would be the highly technical and fairly alien concepts of financial accounting. Students sat in rows at tables for the whole of the lesson (50 minutes) and took notes, without being told, from what the teacher was saying and from what was being written on the board. There was *interaction between students and teacher and several short interactive question and answer episodes between the more lecture style delivery of new knowledge and concepts.* During one of these there was some good-natured banter between the teacher and one of the students over daytime television. The discussion had turned to shares and share dealing, with one of the students clearly having a greater understanding of what this meant than the rest of the group. When asked to elaborate he said he had learnt a lot from "*Daytime TV.*" "*Ha! Jerry Springer! (Mock horror)*" "*No, the finance channel! I watch in the afternoon when I'm not in school.*" In a subsequent interview I asked the student to say a little more about what he

had been doing. The reply was interesting; as he had known that work was about to begin on this particular unit he would do some preparation of his own and as he also knew they would have the support of a textbook had decided to look a little wider in a more immediate way. In this instance then, it had not only been the teacher who had made careful preparation for work to be done. The intention of this student had been to engage with the material on a deeper level and certainly not passively. Links were drawn with previous work and how students could use previously issued materials, which for many of these students was quite appealing in that they were focused on the dealings of Manchester UFC.

Towards the last part of what was to be done to complete one element there was some deadline setting and summing up. *“This completes 4.1 and it should be in on Friday, C, E and P,”* looking at students as they are named and making deliberate eye contact. When another is asked he replies, *“Nearly.”* - *“Nearly equals YES!”* said with some humour. This almost mirrors an episode described by Harkin and Davis (1996a) where a teacher gains acquiescence from students in an almost identical fashion. They considered that this showed an authoritative teacher, building relationships with students but maintaining authority. I observed this teacher for this lesson to be in QTI type 2, authoritative, which is where his students considered him to be.

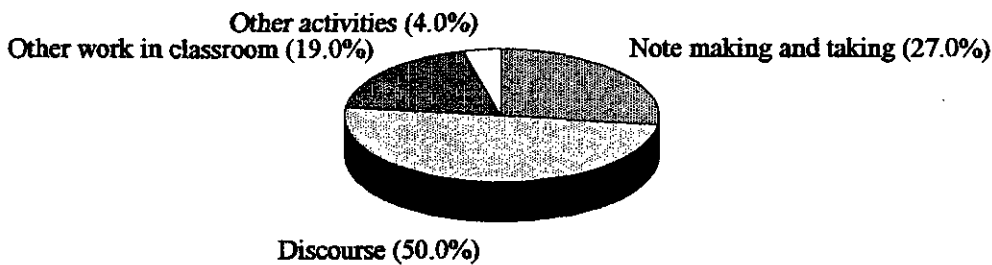


Fig. 4.14. Balance of classroom activities in Leisure and Tourism Year 12
 A detailed breakdown of the activities observed during this lesson and in the other Leisure and Tourism lessons are shown in Appendix 4.3. The four broad categories of activities shown in each of the charts are those devised by Meagher (1997).

A week later I observed the same class with another teacher working on a later section of the unit. For this they were carrying out market research into consumer preferences for crisps and coke and, having set up a blind tasting session open to all comers in the entrance hall during the lunch break, had designed their questions, had all the group present and conducted the session in a well organised way. By the next day they had collated their results and displayed them in graphical form in the entrance hall. There could not have been more contrast between the two sessions. A point to be made here is that in designing work for students teachers will have to be mindful both of students' capabilities and of what work needs to be covered and how this is best done. In this instance the students had taken responsibility both for organising and carrying out the work.

With a Year 13 group, as with the Health and Social Care students when they are working on their optional units, a student was sitting alongside the teacher with the unit in front of them and making her own notes. A student from another GNVQ course was also working here from her own choice and contributed to the discussion from time to time. By the end of the session the student had enough information to write her own action plan, knew where the resources were and had already made connections to her own previous work. There was also some advice on grading:

There's the difference between pass and merit. For the pass you churn out the stuff. For the merit you bring in other stuff, ideas, anecdotes. Bring in Butlins ... (referring to an earlier discussion about a holiday both students had shared). If for 20.1 you only get a pass, that's OK. But for 20.2 and 20.3 use personal examples ... look for at least merits if not higher.

This is not high academic language but it sums up what had occurred in that particular session. By getting the student to talk through her own experiences and to think and talk about what was needed to complete the

unit the teacher had helped her to rehearse in discussion what she would then be able to write up in her assignment with a degree of confidence on both parts. *“I’ve just got to say what they do ... I put that in Unit 7 ... bring in Butlins ... Is there any more stuff in the two big folders?”* She did go on to do this, the completed unit was not a full merit but did have merit “overtones” in the outcome. The articulation of ideas, the sharpening of phrases, and the melding of new experience with already held learning, in a sense provide the building blocks in the construction of knowledge.

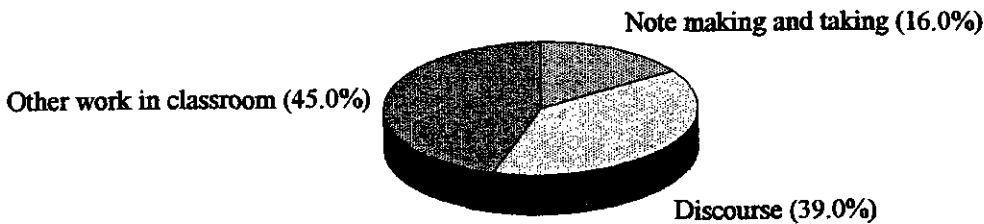


Fig 4.15. Balance of activities in Leisure and Tourism Year 13

In Leisure and Tourism, as in Health and Social Care, when students are working on optional units two lessons might be occurring in one; optional units to advanced students are just that, in other words they decide which they will do, teachers do not decide this for them. In Leisure and Tourism these are introduced in Year 12 which allows students to shape their own qualification. The teacher had arranged for three students to work on their own on their chosen unit, using IT resources if they needed. The others were outside on the tennis court with the teacher acting as scribe taking medical measurements for a physical recreation unit. Students had been given and had taken responsibility here in that they had decided what activities would take place, located and borrowed the equipment from the Science Department, arranged themselves into pairs and persuaded their teacher to record heart and respiratory rates before and after exercise. Whilst all this was going on there was some very good natured banter between her and students and some joking when comparing individual results. This was very much students deciding the pace of what they were doing and also the way in which it would be done. It was only later on when the work was completed that it was possible to detect how students had

engaged with the task by relating rather distant theory with their own practice.

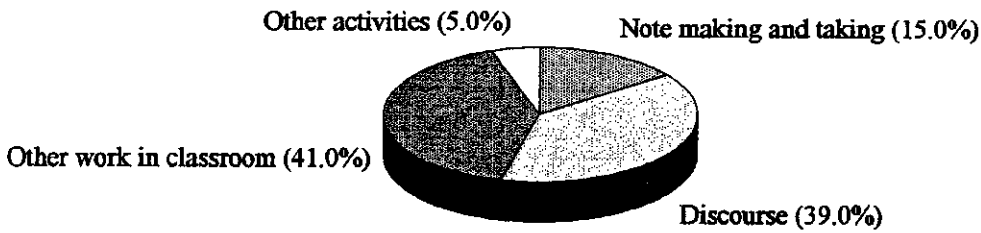


Fig. 4.16. Balance of classroom activities in Leisure and Tourism, Year 12

A later lesson with Year 13 students towards the end of the course was very much concerned with pulling their whole portfolios together. *“Where do I put this?” ... “Where did this come from?” ... “I can’t find ...” ... “You haven’t signed this ...!” ... “Help!” ... “Just do it!”* Reading these comments it is not easy to decide who made them, teacher or students, and this was characteristic of that particular session. What was happening here was very much a joint activity with both teacher and students intricately involved in the work, as more equal partners. When a portfolio is presented for assessment and verification in one sense it is both a measure of student and teacher capability and achievement. This might also be seen as another instance of the teacher’s investment of self in the work, identifying closely with the subject.

Depending on how long teachers have been involved with GNVQ may also colour their perceptions. One had only recently started teaching GNVQ and felt, *“I am one chapter ahead of them in the book. I think they are doing well and I am about to pass the work on to ... for double-marking.”* (In this instance this can be inferred as for verification - double-marking is what this means). This is not GNVQ “nomenclature”. She is very aware of the differences between teaching on GNVQ and other courses, *“In other work I do I set the pace. In GNVQ the pace is more set by the students ... I feel less in control.”* She has found it difficult coming in late and having had unavoidable absence. *“I am only just coming to grips with the organisation*

- the calendar and timing - the end-of-unit tests." Her colleague wanted students:

to be able to get on with things ... I think with the GNVQ you've got to be that much more practical. The big problem I've found ... is that students need much more advanced research skills straight away if they're going to be successful at a high level than the A level students.

Both recognised that there would need to be differences in teaching styles and that one of these would be the importance of communication between students and themselves, typically:

It's very, very important to get students talking to you very, very early, that they have the confidence to talk. Really, initially, it doesn't matter what they're talking about, as long as they have the confidence to talk. Because that way you can actually interact with them and develop communication skills and also pull out ideas that they've actually got which perhaps they're reluctant to do unless you, and they, have this tradition of all this development of ... speaking, interacting with other people, both students and staff, and when they go out on visits they have the confidence to ask and even challenge people.

One teacher spoke of the importance of:

the relationship between their confidence and experience outside the classroom however much work you do in the classroom ... The ones who actually realise there are things in their lives that are relevant to what they're talking about and use as examples tend to be the ones ... who are graded higher ... And in fact, it can actually save time if they're not

wading through a long case study that someone else has written they can put their own ideas together. We had a lad who was working for Ford Bike Hire and the whole of his customer service unit was based on his experience of working in that environment. He didn't need to go and spend a long time looking at lots of examples of customer service ... they had a prompt sheet of how to deal with customers, how to deal with a problem ... he used that and it was much better and more realistic to him and a lot higher quality than if he'd just churned out something that somebody else had written for him.

This perhaps provides some evidence of the teacher encouraging a deeper approach to study and guiding the student into a more autonomous approach to engaging with the work for the unit. This teacher had also been looking at the “*stuff for the new vocational certificate. There still seems be plenty of opportunity for students to bring in ideas of their own. Not quite as widely as GNVQ but only time will tell.*” Both were prepared to change what they were doing with students as a result of the direction students wished to take and clearly recognised the impact that differing learning styles might have.

The first time we did one of the units which I'd planned as separate elements, one of the students suggested that he'd much rather do it in a different way. And it's a much more logical way of doing it. I'd been looking at it in a very blinkered way; they'd looked at it in a much more open way and come up with what was a much better idea, and that, particularly with optional units, I often suggest they be done in that way.

This has similarities with the approach to optional units in Health and Social Care, that is, optional units are chosen by students and in effect they decide,

in discussion with their teacher, how they will approach and go about their work for that unit. Whereas in Art and Design, the optional units are not chosen by students but by their teachers. However, judging from what students say, there is within each unit considerable scope on how they will work towards it.

Flexibility is valued by both teachers, *“actually sitting down with them and talking them through how they can best make use of the different perspectives they’re bringing to the subject.”* Also, as in Art and Design, and Health and Social care, there can possibly be as many routes through the course as there are students and that according to one, *“sometimes, they’ve just got to go their own way.”* Allowances are made for students’ own interests and other ways of seeing a piece of work. One teacher also saw a value to the course in how it developed students as individuals, even those who do not complete, *“he’s doing the Police Course, and he came in to check his application and there’s an awful lot of what they’re asking for, ideas arose out of the things he’d done for the GNVQ course.”*

Relationships are seen as being important:

I think the fact that in order to be successful you’ve got to, and for some of them that takes until the Upper sixth, to treat them as mature individuals. You’re talking about more a university-type relationship to be successful ... and we’re beginning to see that with the Lower sixth now ... they’re developing a more mature approach and they’re doing it because it’s actually for them rather than some vague idea of pleasing me or having to get a qualification.

How it feels to be a GNVQ teacher was touched on:

I think that’s a measure of success in a way; you actually look forward to those lessons and I’ve found that sometimes

it's a haven of sanity in a pleasant environment and you can go along and talk in a more mature way, socially as well as academically, with these people.

and:

It needs an immense amount of work to be successful ... it's dynamic ... you never stay still, which is quite stimulating, but it's a huge amount of work to keep on top of it. That's something on any of these courses; you need to be right up to date, you need to be reading, you need to be constantly aware of the up to date materials to develop resources ... I would like to think I could do it a lot better if I could give it a lot more time.

All GNVQ teachers have other roles in the school. Most of those involved in the research have management positions, pastoral or curriculum, and these other, equally important, responsibilities will inevitably make similar demands on their time, particularly as they contemplate and prepare for impending curriculum change.

As with the other subjects students' reasons for choosing to study Leisure and Tourism are varied. One had started on the Intermediate course but had been promoted to the Advanced course, *"my teacher thought I was doing well enough, I didn't do well on GCSE. I wanted to do something to do with animals but you don't do anything here so Leisure and Tourism was a second choice because I wanted to come back here."* Another was *"interested in sports and travel, the whole area. Also my brother was doing it."* Another student had changed courses, *"I was doing three A levels but that was too much so I converted to this and one A level."* Year 13 students had similar views, *"It looked as though it could be fun - better than doing A levels."* perhaps provides some evidence of a student looking for a different way of working, but, *"There aren't any exams at the end, it's all*

coursework, that's better for me - I don't like exams - I'm not good at them." provoked a chorus of agreement which indicates that the pattern of assessment itself was a significant factor.

Listening and talking to other students is quite a common way for students to find out about courses. The student who had converted from straight A levels, *"spoke to A on the bus, he was already doing it."* Another added, *"my brother ... made it sound better than it's turned out to be."* All had been to assemblies, meetings, registration days and *"there were the subject booklets in the brochure."*

Year 13 students were divided on whether the course had been what they expected, *"Yes and No!"* *"There's too much writing out of textbooks."* *"But it doesn't have to be like that."* *"We didn't want to make the effort to get up and get out!"* One reflected, *"My cousin did it and it was a lot of work."* Others considered that, *"Yes, it is a lot more different - it's more in your own time"* and that *"not having the exams at the end is better, the end of unit tests are OK,"* and to one, *"not like a real exam although Unit 4 is a bit tricky."* Another was quite emphatic about Key Skills, *"I hate them! They're too hard! I can't get into them!"* This was countered by *"IT is OK - well I've done the application of number but it was hard. The communication is better because it's in the lessons."* The student who had converted from A levels *"didn't know there were key skills so I've just got on with it."* A Year 12 student, moving into Year 13 reflected on 'getting into' the GNVQ way of working:

It's what I expected, but a lot more work. It started off a bit busy, or boring, needing to know things. It got better with getting into the hang of it - in about a month. Then when you know the format of it, the elements, the units, you know what you have to do, what it all means.

His fellow students were forthcoming on where they found resources; besides their teachers and textbooks they listed ICT, Tourist Information Centres, Sports and Leisure Centres, local Travel Agents, sports clubs, Daytime TV, “anywhere!” “When we go out we have questions, we know what we need to ask, we prepare questions.” They agreed with one who said:

I like the practical bits, like bringing in your own experience, this boosts your marks. It's bringing in your own knowledge ... you're adding in your own bits and it gets you the merit.

and, “I liked the coaching unit - being able to bring in what I had done, what I had planned to do.” Also, “I like going out, we go out on a lot more visits, field trips, France.”

They had no difficulty in squaring this with the requirements of assessment, “You compare it with the book, with what you're supposed to show, to know.” This would seem to indicate a quiet confidence on their part and perhaps demonstrates a more strategic stance to study.

Two students were taking one A level alongside the GNVQ and were able to compare standards and ways of working with some perception:

The standard seems easier but it might be harder because of the work you do, not like an A level. It needs different skills, researching, A level is more about thinking. To do well you have to do just as much work.

and:

My brother, when he went to university the first unit they did was on finance. All the others who did A levels didn't

know about this - they'd never looked at it. People came to him, asking him where to go. This gave him a lift ... the level is hard in the finance unit and it can hold people up.

Students were also clear on the differences in teaching and learning between GCSEs and GNVQ:

In GCSEs in Year 11 we were sat down and we were told what to do. Then there was all that revision for mocks and the exams.

and, *"I like going at my own pace - we have deadlines but I like that. It adds some pressure but I like that. You know where you are."* Another said, *"I like having the portfolio, when you've done it and it's assessed and signed off."* and looked forward to the next external verifier visit, *"I wish they were in more often - I've got so much work now."* The regular assessment and visits by verifiers seemingly provide welcome milestones for these Year 13 students.

The same students also reflected on changing relationships with teachers, *"They're better, we're treated like adults."* and *"We can get on, on our own, we don't always have to be told what to do. If the teacher is away we know what we need to do."* One provoked some giggles when he said, *"Teaching us is like a day off for the teacher - we don't need teaching!"* then went on to elaborate, *"Teachers are a resource, they're there when we need them."* As with the other groups of students the relationship with teachers was typified as being more equal, more adult, with most students welcoming their growth in responsibility and autonomy.

The same student who, two years earlier had not wanted to leave the school, now did not want to leave the town. *"I'm looking now for something in travel, but I want the summer off."* This was echoed by another, *"I don't know what I'm going to do yet, I would be prepared to move away but I am*

having the summer off.” “It is a two A level equivalent; I’m going to university, after the summer”, a tacit and maybe heartfelt recognition of two years’ work, or possibly “I wish I had done more work in my first year. The pressure this year has been hard, the A levels take priority, the mocks, coursework, the exams But I’m there, getting on with it. It’s worth it.”

The study guides prepared for Leisure and Tourism follow the same format as those for Health and Social Care but are even more austere. Each sets out in some detail what has to be done for one or two elements. Set dates are given and lists of resources, including places to visit and people to see. An underlying assignment is more interesting; it is written around a real situation:

Harbourside House in Rixstow is a small business which has two flats overlooking the harbour. The owner of the business has the opportunity to expand as the third flat, which was on a long let, is shortly to become available. She sees this as an opportunity to devise a new marketing plan. You have been asked to undertake this task.

This is followed by the detail of what students will need to put into their marketing plans. They are advised to provide a description of the business and identify its objectives, to provide details of their market research methods and a SWOT analysis of the business. They then need to go on to explain their own objectives in the marketing plan and to propose appropriate marketing activities. Alongside this students are asked to provide an implementation plan and devise their own criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of their marketing plan. Although it is not written down, implicit in this, as in the Art and Design assignment, are opportunities for students to gain abstract information, to acquire concrete experience, for practical activity and reflective thought. Again there is enough here to include all students, their teacher and other adults in a collaborative venture. They needed to visit Rixstow, interview the owner, gather and analyse their

information and then formulate the plan for presentation. This they did, and parts of what they produced were used by the proprietor.

Students' work in Leisure and Tourism is generally laid out in a manner consistent with the unit specifications, that is, it will be presented in elements and each evidence indicator or performance criterion will be identified through subheadings. The "*getting on with it*" by some Year 13 students can be seen in their later units. For example if they have enough evaluations to pass then these will not be included in the work. Plans at later stages can be somewhat minimal and superficial. The quality of the work is better as is their use of resources but this approach could be seen as another way of playing the assessment game, this time adopting a strategic stance in that they are very aware of what they need to do in order to achieve the award. If they have passed the unit tests, passed the key skills and have offers from higher education or for modern apprenticeships it is understandable that they will do just enough, that is, what they need to do to keep those places. This might also be an explanation for some of the pressure all students seem to experience in the last stages of their courses.

Where evaluations are included these are revealing of students' development both academically and in levels of cognition and perception. For example, in an evaluation at the end of an early unit a student has written very briefly about how she went about the work and part of the outcome, a set of information cards for a holiday bungalow. At the end of the first year the student has evaluated her comparative work on tourist organisations. This is descriptive but also shows how she has been able to assess the different nature of each organisation and to suggest reasons for their relative success. She is able to identify the elements of customer service which underpin this. For her last unit the evaluation is more reflective and she talks of how she has organised and sifted through the information she has collected. She assesses candidly the relative merits of tour companies and how they target their markets. She has used the Internet and comments on the growing

relevance of this both to her personally and to the businesses she has written about:

I did not realise some of the effects tourism can have on an area and that these can be both positive and negative. I had never thought about the 'multiplier effect' before and this would be the same for any industry or shop moving into area. If tourism is going to grow, as it looks as if it will, people will have to take great care to manage the effects that it will have ... the holiday industry is huge and will soon be the biggest in the world.

This a deeper approach to learning and shows the student engaging with and interrogating that which is taken for granted by most people.

Comparison and Analysis

In the Newcastle research Meagher (1997) compared the results of Learning Style Inventories administered in several colleges of further education and school 6th forms over two years. He found that these varied over time and over courses, and from institution to institution, and that it might be tempting to draw the conclusion that the nature of students attracted to GNVQ is changing over time and becoming more aligned with the profiles of A level students. The results from our students also vary from year to year but I believe, with Meagher, the only safe conclusion to be drawn is that the profiles change because the make-up of the students in each group changes; a trend as such cannot be detected and should not be inferred. That the groups themselves show variation is a signal to teachers that the needs of their groups are varied and may well need to be addressed differently in the same subject from year to year.

That there is variation in these groups means that different strategies might have had and have different effects with each group. For example in each of the 1999 groups which are predominantly made up of 'accommodative enthusiasts' and the 'imaginative divergers' it is likely that some form of teacher demonstration followed by discussion and the opportunity for students to become actively involved would probably work for most of them. Some, however, might initially find difficulty with individual research, which will appeal to the more 'logical assimilator' and 'practical converger' students. In each case the dilemma for teachers is to plan work that will engage all groups and to regard individual styles as parts of a cycle of learning which all students need to visit. That this was happening with the groups of students in my study was borne out by evidence collected during observations, in interviews with teachers and also through scrutiny of students' work.

A further step is to consider the effect that a teacher's own preferred learning style will have. For example, my own is 'practical/converger' and only three students in Health and Social Care have so far indicated this orientation. I cannot assume that the way I think I learn best will suit my students and I would consciously need to plan work that will provide for more "hands-on" acquisition of knowledge. This is particularly so in those units, for example concerned with psycho-social aspects of health and social care, which do rely on theoretical models to explain aspects of human behaviour and development. A colleague who ascribes to an 'accommodative/divergent' orientation will in a sense start closer to most of the Health and Social Care students but will still need to be aware of the underlying needs of others in the group.

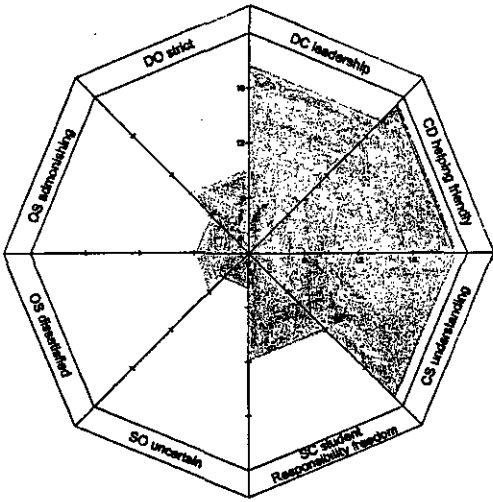
In their report of their research using the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction, Harkin and Davis (1996b) had identified types 2 and 3 (authoritative and tolerant/authoritative) as being most suitable for older students. Wubbels et al (1993) had found that types 1 - 3 (directive, authoritative and tolerant/authoritative) were most conducive to effective

learning and that is where they assert most teachers should be found. Accordingly one should expect to find very few teachers with profiles of types 5 - 8 (uncertain/tolerant, uncertain/aggressive, repressive and drudging). Nonetheless, Harkin and Davis (1996b) found in their research a quarter (12) teachers were outside types 1 - 4 (tolerant). This dilemma then does not arise on the three courses I have studied. That there might exist teachers who may identify with types 5 - 8 in other courses is beyond its scope. When, in interview, a Health and Social Care student talked of liking *"the one-to-one ... the small groups and the friendly, family atmosphere"* another agreed when she referred to, *"It's not like that in all the subjects, not all teachers are like that"* could possibly be taken as an oblique hint of students in another GNVQ subject not having the same working relationships as they had.

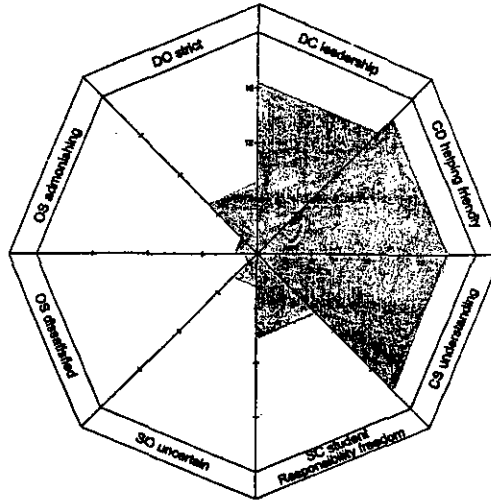
Together with individual profiles teachers were also given a copy of the eight profiles and the typology. One had expected to be found as more directive and another had a self-report indicating type 3 although the students' profile was type 2 in Year 12 and in Year 13 was nearer to type 3. This also reflects Harkin and Davis' findings (1996a, 1996b). They ascribe such differences in perception to an almost subconsciously held ideal of what a teacher is, that teachers often believe themselves to give rather more responsibility to students than their students think they do. *"I am always tolerant"* was one response to the authoritative profile. However it also confirms one of my speculations, that the relationship between teacher and students itself will change throughout a course of study. That students' perceptions might change is what ought to be expected. As they mature and as student and teacher accommodate to working with each other so a more complementary working relationship should develop, and to an extent is borne out by the QTI results; there is less variation, despite small numbers, in the Year 13 groups. This provides another reason for not returning the questionnaires; in a small student group it might be possible to identify individual student responses which is not to say that I would expect this but more that I do not want it to arise even as a very remote idea. The

questionnaires will eventually be destroyed by me. Students also need to be protected.

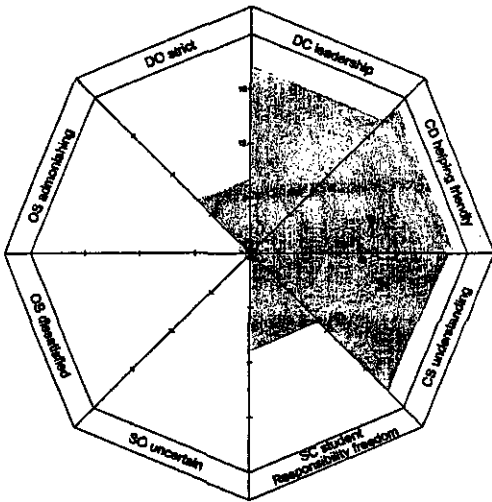
The 'ideal' profiles for each of the new Year 13 groups are broadly similar and show that the ideal is type 3, tolerant and authoritative.



Art and Design



Health and Social Care



Leisure and Tourism

Key: D: Dominance
S: Submission
O: Opposition
C: Co-operation

Fig. 4.17. 'Ideal' Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction Profiles for Year 12 Students

There is some variation between the three profiles but those for our students are very similar to those reported by Levy, Creton and Wubbels (1993) who found that students' ideal or best teachers are "strong leaders", are "friendly and understanding" and allow more "responsibility and freedom" (p. 35). There are corresponding low levels of uncertain, dissatisfied, admonishing behaviours with a slightly higher level of strictness. What is shown is a disposition towards a more co-operative and less oppositional manner and with far less inclination towards the dominance/submission axis. That for Art and Design is the most extreme and close in some aspects to that given by Health and Social Care students for one of their teachers. The Leisure and Tourism ideal comes closer to the profile given by Year 13 students, as does that for Health and Social Care. With one or two exceptions, then, our students have in their teachers what they are looking for. That this is so is borne out by what they subsequently said in interview when they spoke about relationships with their teachers and how they viewed changes between teaching and learning for the GCSE years and those they had developed and experienced during their advanced study.

The way work progresses in Art and Design is very different from how it proceeds in Leisure and Tourism, which again is different from Health and Social Care, and will to a large extent be dictated by the demands and nature of the subject itself. But what I saw was intrinsically different and begs the question of whether the students in the different subjects are essentially different. I think not; there are some differences in the Learning Style Inventory profiles of the Year 12 groups but I believe the differences might be more to do with an already formed aptitude and disposition towards Art, for example, whereas students will not have had any real experience of what Leisure and Tourism is or Health and Social Care. Health and Social Care students seem from what they said in interview to have consciously chosen the subject because they saw this as an area in which they were interested and where they saw possible careers. The same also appeared to be true of the Leisure and Tourism students, in the recognition that they wanted to do something which had to do with travel, or sport, or even saw the

qualification as the 'currency' to take them into higher education. Through students' eyes then, the qualification is both vocational and academic. The differences are more to do with the subject demands and the initiation into the way of working and the nature of the subject being very much teacher influenced. The challenge for teachers seems to lie in how they set work out for students, are alert to student reaction and temper what they do in the light of response.

There are themes emerging here in interviews with teachers relating to the differences in teaching Year 12 and Year 13. In both Health and Social Care, and Art and Design teachers seem to regard the Year 12 year as a transition between supported and more autonomous learning, and talk of the flexibility they need in dealing with students with more or less confidence. Also, in all subjects teachers place a value on contacts outside the school for widening their professional knowledge and as a method of keeping up to date. Teachers in all three subjects saw the assessment regime as providing different routes to achievement which were equally valid and acceptable in GNVQ terms.

The quality of relationships with students is of considerable importance to all teachers. This reflects on the evidence of the classroom observations and also on students' perceptions of their teachers through the Questionnaires on Teacher Interaction. There is a discernible difference in the approach to Year 12 and Year 13 students which one described as being to do with *"learning the skills of independent learning."*

All Year 13 students find the work hard. The pressures at this time on students are considerable; mock exams, preparation for verifier or moderator visits, the almost constant call for coursework or portfolio work and the way that events beyond the school can affect what happens inside. For example, most students have part-time paid work and are more or less connected to busy social lives. Deadlines in these instances are yet another pressure and load, *"I'll do this over half-term, I promise."* is not untypical.

There are clearly things we need to be considering here and perhaps avoiding the slide into anxiety evinced by both some students and their teachers. By July in the second year of the three courses students are tired and seemingly wanting to be gone. Comments to do with *“getting on with it”* may be symptomatic of this.

In my pilot research a Year 13 student had spoken of not liking to work *“with multiple units, you know, working on more than one at a time with different teachers.”* This seems not to arise in Art and Design or Leisure and Tourism as the work for each unit has either been shared or teachers have arranged that students will work towards two units in a term. In Year 12 Health and Social Care three teachers had shared the teaching of four successive units for the first two terms of the year. When the following term’s work was being discussed several students had been apprehensive about the prospect of managing to work on more than one unit at a time. Their concerns need to be taken seriously. This is not simply a matter of convincing GNVQ students that if A level students can cope with this, then so can they. This has more to do with listening to what they have to say about having developed their own learning strategies which we appear to want them to change without a good enough reason.

It would be surprising if the outcomes of work in the three subjects were not radically different. A research report in Health and Social Care will look different from a marketing plan in Leisure and Tourism, which in turn will look very different from a study of a living artist in Art and Design. But the learning skills that students are developing and using are essentially similar. If they are to make progress, between Years 12 and 13 students should have learnt to be capable of planning, of identifying and using varied sources of information, applying these according to subject, assessing and evaluating their own work and that of others.

Evaluations provide valuable evidence on how they do these things. In Leisure and Tourism it was possible to detect the developing sophistication

of this aspect through the work of one student. Comparisons can be made between evaluations written by Year 12 students in Art and Design and in Health and Social Care. The evaluations are very different in style but the link between the two is that some students have an essentially questioning and curious approach to their work. The challenge for teachers is to keep this fire of enthusiasm and interest burning steadily over two years.

One of the things which has crystallised in my mind through the passage of the research is that I am aware that what I am looking at is effective teaching and learning styles through the particular lens or perspective of GNVQ. This is subtly different from looking at GNVQ teaching and learning styles per se. The more student-centred teaching and learning styles may have become associated with GNVQ but these already existed and are not contiguous with GNVQ themselves or exclusive to them. That we see these associated with GNVQ is perhaps a clarion call to teachers of all post-16 students. The remark made by one teacher that if she taught A level again she would do it better is revealing of the level of preparation, of consideration of relationships and a clear sense of objectives that seems to be part of the stock in trade of the GNVQ teachers I have observed and who have talked to me about their beliefs, intentions and actions when working with GNVQ students.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

My original purpose in this research was to investigate and describe teaching and learning practices on three Advanced GNVQ courses in one institution.

I had two questions to answer:

- What is GNVQ intended to do in terms of teaching and learning approaches?
- What actually happens in practice?

At school level there is an institutional intention that GNVQs should provide a link between vocational and academic education, a bridge between school and adult life and alternative routes to further and higher education (from school policy statement on vocational courses). Reference to our own statistics (Appendix 2.1) would seem to suggest that the bridge has been provided as have routes into further and higher education. There are links between vocational and academic education in as much as students who elect to study GNVQs are often studying alongside students who are following 'straight' A levels, and have made positive curriculum choices. Teachers of GNVQ also contribute to other courses both pre and post 16. Students' responses during interview show quite clearly what they intended the GNVQ course they are following to do for them. Teachers' intentions are less tangible. They have articulated what being a teacher of GNVQ has meant and in some detail have conveyed what has been entailed in bringing to life and making real for students the language and requirements of any of the versions of the GNVQ specifications. Both students and teachers have been perceptive in delineating what they see to be significant in teaching and learning styles. In all of this rests the answers to both questions. Underlying

these was the belief, partly derived from my own and others' experience in the school, that it is the mediating influence of teachers between students and course requirements which provides a crucial contribution to the success or otherwise of any GNVQ course. A number of reports (Bates, 1996; Dearing, 1996a, 1996b; Dransfield, 1998; Harkin and Davis, 1996a, 1996b; Hodgson-Wilson, 1997; McEwen, McGuinness and Knipe, 1998, 1999; Meagher, 1997; Newbery, 1994; Oates, 1997; Smith, 1997; Thorne and Cashdan, 1994) provide accumulating evidence that associates student centred teaching and learning styles with GNVQ courses and those prompted me to reflect on what constitutes these. In a further belief that neither students nor teachers are "born to" GNVQ but rather have "grown into" it, I considered what might be the aspects or characteristics of the mediating influence in fostering student centred teaching and learning.

Listening to our students and taking account of what they say is one strand in providing evidence drawn from the microcosm of a school and, for us, the possibility of improving our own practice. Rudduck, Chaplain and Wallace's account of what pupils had to say about learning and their secondary school experiences shows that, whilst it is not shatteringly novel and traditionally they have been excluded from the consultative process, what they want is a clear "sense of self as a learner, status in the school, overall purpose in learning, control over their own lives and a sense of the future" (Ruddock, Chaplain and Wallace, 1996, p. 174). This was said of 11-16 year olds; our students are mostly 16-18, nevertheless these aspirations would apply to them.

Our students will have things to say to us about their life in the school that we need to listen to. Their responses to the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction and Learning Styles Inventory confirm this. The results of the LSIs are interesting to read but it seems to me that unless the results are known to students and their teachers then they have little worth beyond the academic. In an individual institution there is a value in both students and teachers knowing their preferred learning styles and understanding what this

means in terms of planning and tackling work; of adapting teaching styles. Kolb, in writing about administering the LSI with adults, quotes graphically their reactions, "The learning style exercise and assignment had a tremendous effect on me, forcing me to take stock of my standard learning and problem solving pattern" (1984, p.69). The QTI could have been potentially damaging in its process and results but in the event, as the profiles show, was not. What both offer is an insight into how students think, both about the courses they are following, and about themselves.

I had planned to gather evidence in relatively unobtrusive ways (Open University, 1994) and was able to make links and cross links between these. In interview and in less formal encounters students talked freely about their feelings and their responses to their 6th form work. Teachers did likewise. Observations of GNVQ classes were the major strand in several other strands of data collection. Because of my position in relation to the students and other teachers there were constraints on how I could conduct my research. Classroom observations, for example, could only take place at a time when I had a non-teaching period. Observation of classes by peers or managers is a feature of the day-to-day life of the school. An observer in a classroom then is not out of the ordinary and unlikely to be remarkable; an observer with recording equipment is. Therefore audio and video equipment were not used.

I have endeavoured to keep my relationship with all the participants as it always was, that of team leader to teaching colleagues and vocational course leader and teacher to students. Neither my nature nor these circumstances could have allowed matters to be otherwise. Over the period of a year I made over fifteen classroom visits, observed six other colleagues teaching on at least two occasions, observed one-to-one feedback sessions, conducted interviews with teachers and students and analysed questionnaires, inventories, study guides, assignments, student evaluations and sketchbooks. What I hope I have built up is a true and coherent picture of what was happening on the Art and Design, Health and Social Care, and Leisure and

Tourism GNVQ courses for all advanced students. Some intermediate students have crept into the data; these happened to be in a classroom when questionnaires or inventories were distributed, were in a lesson with other students during an observation or were taking part in practical activities or visits. I think these need not affect my interpretation of the data; if they are used to being involved with advanced students then their perceptions are not likely to be radically different. My interest lies in revealing meanings and perspectives, in generating interpretations and understandings of what I have seen, read and heard.

The sequence of the data collection became increasingly focused through the research. The Questionnaires on Teacher Interaction and Learning Style Inventories were the first pieces of data collected. The observations, except for one early one, did not take place until most of these were collected. Teacher interviews of two kinds followed the observations. The first were the mutual feedback sessions after each observations; the arranged interviews took place after initial analysis of the QTIs, LSIs and my observation notes. Interviews with students took place during the same time span. Further interviews took place with Year 12 students when they had moved into Year 13. Scrutiny of students' work, study guides and assignments continued throughout the whole period. In a very real way the classroom observations were central to the research in that what I saw happening between students and teachers could then be compared with what both students and teachers were saying, what teachers had planned and the results in students' work. In addition to this I also had records of "opportunistic encounters" with students and teachers; these were potentially too valuable in adding other dimensions to miss.

If students are to make progress, to become achievers and successful in their studies there are certain conditions for learning that need to be in place and these are directly related to the relationships between students and their teachers. Much has been written about these conditions over the past two

decades and a consensus of what constitutes these could be summarised as follows:

- lessons that are well prepared and are seen to be well prepared so that students know when they have learned something and perceive that their teachers have put effort into preparing lessons for them
- lessons that have a clear focus and a content that finds ways of engaging with students' own experiences
- lessons that have some variety of pace and activity with a matching of content, style and sequencing and having passages of focus and moments of respite
- styles of teaching that signal to students that the teacher enjoys teaching the subject and teaching them

(after Ruddock, Chaplain and Wallace, 1996, p. 176)

These have resonance with Entwistle's general strategies for motivation and underline the need for teachers to spend time and care in explaining the relevance of a topic to students; the introduction or setting out what needs to be done is important before students start on their own work.

Enthusiasm and striking explanations can be critical in capturing students' interests:

- stress value and relevance of school work to everyday life
- show that you expect students to enjoy learning
- treat assessment as a way of checking personal progress

(after Entwistle, 1987, p. 144)

The responses in the QTIs provided evidence of students' expectation and their opinions of what was happening in their lessons. The individual statements which contribute include:

this teacher talks enthusiastically about his/her subject

this teacher trusts us

this teacher explains things clearly
this teacher holds our attention
this teacher is willing to explain things again
this teacher is a good leader
this teacher realizes when we don't understand
this teacher acts confidently
this teacher is patient
this teacher helps us with our work
this teacher is someone we can depend on

Responses to all of these for all teachers were invariably in the range 2-4, sometimes - always. A very few exceptions included reference to trust and being patient. What prompted just two students in Art and Design to respond with 1, almost never, to being trusted: just what had happened in the days preceding the QTI? In the same way it is possible to speculate what prompted three students overall to respond with almost never about their teacher (three different subjects); was it a touch of irascibility over work being handed in late or not handed in at all, or even of a more serious disjunction where teacher and student do not have shared schemas? We cannot know this.

When I observed lessons, in each one I saw, there was substantial evidence of careful preparation and familiarity with the material on the part of all teachers. The teacher who acknowledged her own feelings of some insecurity in being new to GNVQ knew that she needed to be ahead of her students. The QTIs completed by her students show that they did appreciate the effort she was putting into preparation. In the two episodes of observation of her with her students she had clearly shared responsibility with them in deciding how the work would be tackled. Scrutiny of their work confirms that they understood what they were doing and were reaching advanced standards of work, having enough information and resources to meet the unit requirements (subsequently endorsed by an external verifier).

At a national level the debate over the purpose and position of GNVQs at any level persists. In the latest round of curriculum reform the National Framework still retains its distinct triple track nature with GNVQ occupying the middle ground. The recurring criticism of GNVQ that they do not have a syllabus and that teachers had to “decide what to teach” (Smithers, 1993) can be seen as one of their strengths. The 1995 unit specifications are very detailed and enabled teachers, by looking at the evidence indicators in each element and relating those to the performance criteria, to shape what needed to be covered. There is further guidance and amplification attached to each unit on how the work may be tackled. With these as with the New Model Pilot units experienced teachers make professional judgements about what students can reasonably be expected to achieve. The development of the evidence indicators or requirements of the evidence of achievement grid into an assignment by teachers for or with students, making use of local contacts and resources, and the preparation of an action plan by students with guidance from their teachers is part of what constitutes the mediating process in GNVQ. As Yeomans notes:

Such approaches could often draw upon implicit knowledge held by students who were often only too well aware through personal, family or community experience ... students as well as teachers are not passive consumers of the prescribed curriculum but bring their own meanings, values and changing dispositions to curricular engagements.

(Yeomans, 1998, p. 133)

Students do not come to GNVQ at any level being able to interpret the specifications for themselves, nor can they do it alone. They will have ideas about what they want to do but will need help in defining and articulating these. The rehearsal of this is the first step in learning to plan and achieve work and could be said to be more crucial in GNVQs than in A levels. Inherent in any GNVQ, including the Key Skills, is the requirement to be able to work with and learn from other people, and the prerequisite for this

is clear communication. In interviews with teachers several valued the way in which discussion could be used both to build confidence in students that they were capable and knowledgeable about the work they were being required to do and as a way of acknowledging publicly that they “were doing things right”. In this way discussing and communicating ideas in an atmosphere of rapport can be interpreted as almost a rehearsal of what would later be committed to paper, that is, the crystallising of almost inchoate ideas into lucid text. Classroom observations substantiate this, the testing out of ideas, the flexing of terminology and phrasing, and hearing of other perspectives, appear to be important in providing students with the impetus to proceed with the next stages of their work. This resonates with Entwistle’s “inner voice of learning” (1987, p. 145); what happens in group discussion or one-to-one feedback, thinking positively about their ability and their accomplishments, and being encouraged to air views, clarify misunderstandings in a non-threatening atmosphere and polishing their own monitoring processes, can be inspirational in developing cognitive maturity. There will not always be instances of obvious deep learning apparent in classroom proceedings, but what has happened during those may prompt a student’s “inner voice” so that the evidence for engagement with the material and a deeper approach to learning become patent in work which is completed later.

Kolb’s (1984) image of striving for integrity has some affinity with Entwistle’s (1987) concept of competence motivation - promoting the feeling of self-confidence through achievement and the inner need for self-esteem. In many seventeen year olds these could be construed as being tender seedlings. The work of Wubbels et al (1993), whilst developed later and in a different paradigm, provides clues to the nurture of these. Entwistle (1987) and Ruddock et al (1996) also acknowledge the importance of praise and reinforcement in learning. In the feedback sessions I saw I was struck by how each one began with a phrase similar to, “*This is good ...*”. The written word does not convey the inflection of voice, smiles and attitudes, and apparent closeness of teacher and student.

In interview teachers were revealing on how they approached their work. I have not spoken to them about reflective practice but that was clearly informing their work, the needs of students, then the requirements of the units prompted their actions. All talked of the need to adapt, to be flexible and recognised that in some instances that what was being suggested by students was a better approach. There is also evidence of meticulous record keeping by some teachers, showing that they do know where their students are “at”. They seem to tacitly affirm what Davis (1998) was saying in that there is much more than a systems model of straightforward cause and effect in teaching and learning. Formative assessment, both formal and informal was a feature in the dealings of all teachers with their students. Teachers had looked for different methods of assessment and, by association, teaching and learning styles. Assessment is of something that someone has learnt how to do and axiomatically that someone else has taught them how to do. What is encompassed here is a wider notion of teaching than the transmission of a body of knowledge, classroom based and teacher controlled. Black and William (1998a, 1998b), found that one of the features of good teaching appearing consistently in the literature is the use of assessment as a vital part of the learning process and that students should receive feedback on a variety of developing skills beyond work which could be readily marked because it was a matter of fact or written. The Assessment Reform Group identified everyday classroom activities in terms of assessment and how these may be used for learning:

- observing students in role play, discussions, work placement, presentations
- questioning students using open-ended questions to explore their ideas and reasons for approaching a piece of work or an assignment in a particular way
- setting tasks for students which encourage them to enhance certain skills or apply recently acquired knowledge

- asking students to communicate their work and thinking through artwork, storyboards, artefacts, displays, block diagrams, flowcharts, in addition to written reports and evaluations
- discussing language and the synthesis of information from a variety of sources including the printed word

(after Assessment Reform Group, 1999, p.8)

All of these were in evidence during my observations of GNVQ classrooms and in students' resulting work. When working collaboratively with students in feedback, in the one-to-one sessions with students, assessment is invaluable in stimulating the next steps; the progress to further self-regulation and autonomy.

This is very close to how GNVQ assessment should work, with feedback to students as they work through assignments or units of work, that is, assessment is continuous and often informal. In all subjects, with all teachers, I saw instances of this; the feedback, the discussion, was about students' work in hand, with clear guidance on how to proceed. Meagher notes "that even within a programme of work intended to appeal to the more practical students, verbal discourse occupies more than one-third of their time" with the prime activity being 'answering curriculum questions' (1997, p.50). Our students in the lessons I observed also spent a similar or greater time in activities concerned with conversation and discussion of a curricular nature. However, except in one lesson, this was either in group discussion about a topic, in one-to-one discussion or in feedback episodes about individual pieces of work and performed a pivotal part in the teaching and learning process. We should not be surprised that communication plays a prime role in GNVQ lessons. It is critical in creating the atmosphere of openness and trust in which students learn about themselves, each other and their own learning.

My evidence shows that teachers also value this atmosphere and welcome the more equal relationships. They talked quite freely about their changes in

style and preparation. This is very different from staffroom conversation and is a more professional exchange. In a way the internal verification process prompts this. When a teacher as assessor and another as internal verifier talk together about assessed work this performs a dual function, the obvious one of checking standards and assuring quality but also the highly supportive and professional one of teacher discussion and openness about work in hand. This may well happen with other qualifications and other courses, but, because teachers hold or were working towards the Training and Lead Body assessor/ internal verifier awards, it is a more explicit feature. In a very real way then GNVQ does facilitate effective teaching and learning through its distinctive structure and, through its assessment both of and for learning, a learner centred approach.

Students, in observation and interview, were seen and heard to be responding to these more adult and responsible relationships. Some comments students made have connections with events outside the scope of the study. The fact that they have done so means that these are significant to them and if they are concerned it is because they are in effect not getting what they expected. This has clear links with what Wubbells et al (1993) have to say about complementary behaviours and Entwistle's idea of "self worth" (1987, p.138) being impugned. It also resonates with Ruddock et al's (1996) assertion that if teachers hold a somewhat adversarial view of students who have to be managed, then the relationship never develops into one of trust and dialogue. I suspect what happens with some of our students is that if they perceive themselves as being treated as irresponsible and immature then that is the way in which they will respond, i.e. as KS4 or even KS3, if this is the way they will attract a teacher's attention then that is what they will do, because the focus of the dialogue is not learning and has not developed beyond behaviour:

Out of school ... many young people find themselves involved in complex relationships and situations, whether within the family or the peer group. They carry quite tough responsibilities,

balancing multiple roles and often finding themselves dealing with conflicting loyalties In contrast the structures of secondary schooling offer, on the whole, less responsibility and autonomy than many young people are accustomed to in their lives outside school, and less opportunity for learning-related tensions to be opened up and explored.

(Rudduck, Chaplain and Wallace, 1996, p. 173)

Our teachers recognised the value to themselves of links beyond the school; they also recognised that students' own experiences could provide a positive contribution to GNVQ work. The forging of links between inside and outside and expecting a wider view of the world appears to engender a more *positive image of self-worth*.

In interview several teachers mentioned the pace of learning and the extent to which it was set by students. When applied to GNVQs this can be difficult to define and does not always coincide with more orthodox views. Advances in learning cannot always be discerned in every fifty minute lesson. For example, in the Year 12 Leisure and Tourism lessons, the first was very formal with little new learning apparent. In the second however this learning was being applied in a practical situation, but the evidence of the extent to which learning had taken place could be determined by the time students had completed their assignments successfully. If we expect students to become more autonomous in their learning then as teachers we need to accept that there are times when they set the pace of what they are doing. This is when ongoing communication of various kinds with students is vital in enabling them to work within the structure that GNVQ offers and setting their own *targets within a determined time scale*. *Time management for students* then needs to become part of their learning. And, should students decide that they prefer to work through desk and book research, as a few did in Leisure and Tourism, and Health and Social Care, but still meet unit requirements, then this also has to be accepted as a valid way of working by their teachers.

Students learn far more on GNVQ courses than they need for the requirements of assessment. This has always been one of the tensions of GNVQ and associated reports of its non-completion. If we acknowledge that there are other and different pressures on GNVQ students, whilst our institutional goal is for success for students in achieving the qualification, then we must also accept the fact that few of them is likely to be *single-minded in its pursuit*. Is, perhaps, a decision not to continue in education but to prefer to change routes and go into paid employment, a signal of their growing autonomy, independence and maturity; that what they are doing is for them and not out of a wish to please someone else? Or could this be seen as a sign of choosing immediate financial return rather than awaiting the delayed rewards of extended study? More than one teacher alluded to the less tangible advantages of having studied in the GNVQ way being recognisable to employers, that students have made personal growth and developed qualities and characteristics which they did not have at sixteen, but constitute currency in the world of work.

The Further Education Development Agency found there was a relationship between “lower levels of education aspiration, and ... less clarity about future intentions” (FEDA, 1998, p. 3). Retention is an occurring dilemma associated with GNVQs and there is much to be done by teachers in *ensuring through course structure and continuing support that students are aware of and recognise the value of completing the whole award*. FEDA also found that compiling portfolio evidence could be daunting. It remains to be seen whether the 2000 model with its revised assessment regime comprising the reduction in demand for portfolio evidence in two thirds of units and the more rigorous external assessment only of others will afford an ameliorative influence. There is also the funding pressure on institutions to plan for students completing the advanced award in two years. Official statistics for non-completion rates on GNVQ programmes had also been found to be overestimated; additionally there were students who completed in the six months following their two year course through finishing portfolio work or retaking outstanding unit tests. This has always been the case with

a minority of our students and perhaps we should not forget that GNVQs were not originally time bound.

My research findings show that what constitutes successful teaching and learning in GNVQ courses is subtle, very complex, and not readily explained by any one theoretical model. There seem to be several vital strands to be woven together to provide a rational account. Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning provides an indication of what has to be in place in any learning programme for GNVQ students. Entwistle's (1987, 1988, 1997) conception of deep, surface or strategic approaches to learning and study and its emphasis on motivation for learning is important in explaining why students want to invest time and energy in their studies and the role of teachers in this. Wubbel et al's (1993) exposition of the critical role of communication in building teaching and learning relationships which are productive and rewarding illuminates the mutually dynamic processes between teachers and students. Under all of these is the potentially threatening shift and change in the balance of these relationships; accepting these involve a different view of self in an altered transactional compact that can no longer be held as the traditional teacher/pupil bond. An alternative view is to see the change as one of opportunity for students and in teaching terms, the "curriculum entrepreneurs", who seemingly have welcomed the prospect of working in different ways, despite the personal investment of time, preparation and hard work.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS

There is clear evidence emerging from research of the importance of the way in which work is developed for students and how they are supported throughout their courses. *My own findings exemplify and substantiate these.*

It is possible to say what we should expect to see in learning and teaching in GNVQ in the school and we also have the means of identifying what is happening. The growing evidence of what seems to constitute effective teaching and learning in successful GNVQ courses is there to be used in judging and evaluating our own work.

1. For the school, its managers and teachers there are implications as we move towards Curriculum 2000 in the recruitment of students and the placing of staff. The good practice that seems to be characteristic in the courses investigated in my research could be replicated in any post-16 teaching. This is not to say that in GNVQ courses is the place where this is happening exclusively or that indeed it happens on all GNVQ courses. It is not possible to offer a view without having looked in detail at other curriculum areas. The mobilising of the “curriculum entrepreneurs” who are very likely to be found in areas other than GNVQ will be vital in contributing to the successful implementation of the new ACVE and AS levels. The GNVQ teachers who contributed to this research were not the “pressed men and women”; for the most part they have been teaching on GNVQ courses since these began or since they joined the school, and more significantly, their contribution is recognised more widely, inasmuch as they are also in demand in other curriculum areas.

2. For the audience beyond the school my findings are not so much generalisable as recognisable. Anyone who has been involved in GNVQ teaching should recognise what our teachers say about what it means to be a GNVQ teacher. Also recognisable will be our advanced students' views on what it means to be GNVQ student. It would be unwise to believe our experiences are untypical and the methodology I have used is equally valid in other situations and contexts. Participants have spoken for themselves and allow readers to see for themselves the articulated thoughts and impressions of others. My research offers starting points to others for replication or further development.

3. There are implications for the school in further practice; continuing to listen to the student voice, not only from GNVQ students but from all post-16 students is important. They are at least half the equation in any course they have elected to study and need to be seen more as investors than pupils. This is not easy for some teachers, or students, and will involve almost a change in culture. There are implications here for staff development, only part of which is in curriculum development, crucial as this is. Changing the balances in relationships is more subtle and covert, and in some ways more hazardous, in that it necessitates the rather close and personal examination of one's own conduct and view of the world. When Nias (1996) reminds us of the way in which teachers invest their selves in their work, changing that is almost a threat to one's own sense of being and self-worth. There is more to this than bidding it to be done.

4. This research is inevitably constrained in its extent and offers several avenues for further development. Two GNVQ subjects and the Key Skills were not included, nor were our Intermediate and Foundation students. Whilst I offer a cohesive and coherent picture of what has happened in Art and Design, Health and Social Care, and Leisure and Tourism, we do not know comprehensively what is happening in Business and Manufacturing beyond routine classroom observations, records of the work of students and their achievement, although it is possible to make

informed speculations. Lower ability students have different needs from advanced students and follow GNVQ courses for other reasons. For them the examination years of school have probably not been completely successful and the intermediate or foundation year is one of remediation, maturation and a different route to achievement. For some years they have been taught alongside the Year 12 advanced students. There are advantages in this for students but the work load for teachers is increased. It remains to be seen whether this model can be sustained with the new ACVE.

5. My work makes a contribution to research in that it addresses questions which are of continuing relevance to practice, policy and debate in vocational education. The substance of the questions, in one form or another, may have been addressed previously but not in the same way, or in the same milieu, that is at the microcosmic level of just three GNVQ courses in one setting. As such my research represents empirical work which has not been done before, in that it extends somewhat more deeply and comprehensively in this small setting, and provides a synthesis of several disparate theoretical models which has not been made previously. As such it *offers a lucid and authentic representation of a set of phenomena in one institution and brings new evidence to add to that on GNVQ already accumulating from other sources.*

GLOSSARY OF TERMS, ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACVE	Advanced Certificate of Vocational Education (from 2000)
ALIS	A Level Information System, CEM Centre, University of Durham
A LEVEL	General Certificate of Education at Advanced Level
AS LEVEL	General Certificate of Education at Advanced Supplementary Level
BTEC	Business and Technology Education Council
CEM	Curriculum Evaluation & Measurement Centre, University of Durham
CPVE	Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education
DES	Department of Education and Science (superseded by DfEE)
DfEE	<i>Department for Education and Employment</i>
FE	Further Education
FEDA	Further Education Development Agency
GNVQ	General National Vocational Qualifications
HE	Higher Education
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectors of Education
KS3	Key Stage 3 of the National Curriculum (years 7-9, ages 11-14)
KS4	Key Stage 4 of the National Curriculum (years 10-11, ages 14-16)
MSC	Man Power Services Commission
NC	National Curriculum composed of Core and Foundation subjects
NCC	National Curriculum Council (superseded by SCAA)
NCVQ	National Council for Vocational Qualifications (until 1997)
SCAA	Schools Curriculum and Assessment Authority (until 1997)
SCOTVEC	Scottish Vocational Vocational Qualifications
NVQ	National Vocational Qualifications - work or occupation based qualifications
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education

PGCE	Post Graduate Certification of Education
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Education Council (from 1997)
SCPR	Social and Community Planning Research
TDLB	Training and Development Lead Body
TVEI	Technical and Vocational Education Initiative
UCAS	University and Colleges Admissions System
YELLIS	Year 11 Information System, CEM Centre, University of Durham

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Advanced GNVQ Health and Social Care Unit 1 (1993 standard)

**UNIT 1 ACCESS, EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES AND CLIENT RIGHTS
(ADVANCED)**

Element 1.1: Investigate attitudes and other social influences on behaviour

Performance criteria:

- 1 the process of socialisation is explained
- 2 the role of attitudes and attitude formation in influencing behaviour in different social contexts is analysed
- 3 the role of social context in influencing behaviour is described
- 4 social role in relation to behaviour in different social contexts is analysed

Range:

- 1 **Socialisation:** family, culture, group membership, peer group membership
- 2 **Social context:** public setting, private settings, care settings
- 3 **Social role:** power, economic, management knowledge

Evidence Indicators:

A project comparing the experiences of different individuals in order to explain the impact of attitudes and other social influences on behaviour.

Element 1.2: Investigate discrimination and its effects on individuals

Performance criteria:

- 1 different types of discrimination are explained
- 2 different bases of discrimination are explained
- 3 main ways in which discrimination is reinforced through language are described
- 4 potential effects of discrimination on the individual in different contexts are explained

Range:

- 1 **Types of discrimination:** overt, covert, (disadvantage, devaluing, avoidance)
- 2 **Bases of discrimination:** race, gender, age, physical ability, cognitive ability
- 3 **Discrimination in language:** choice of words and assumptions implied, tone, accompanying non-verbal signals
- 4 **Potential effects:** self-esteem/self-confidence; access to services and opportunities

Evidence indicators:

A project focusing on two forms of discrimination, identifying in any context the effects of discrimination.

cont/

Element 1.3: Describe how equal opportunities are maintained

Performance criteria:

- 1 legislation to maintain equal opportunities is identified
- 2 the purpose of legislation to prevent discrimination is summarised
- 3 sources of literature on equal opportunities policies are identified
- 4 systems of redress available to those discriminated against are identified

Range:

- 1 **Legislation:** race equality; gender equality; disability equality
- 2 **Sources:** health and social service agencies; Commission for Racial Equality, Equal Opportunities Commission
- 3 **Systems of redress:** internal policies and procedures, legal rights

Evidence indicators:

A project or case study outlining appropriate legislation and systems of redress associated with discrimination and equal opportunities.

**Advanced GNVQ Leisure and Tourism, Unit 4 (1995 standard), Element 4.1 in detail
(Elements 4.2, Examine financial accounts in leisure and tourism organisations and 4.3,
Investigate and carry out simple budgeting in leisure and tourism omitted)**

UNIT 4: FINANCE IN THE LEISURE AND TOURISM INDUSTRIES (ADVANCED)

Element 4.1: Investigate financial performance of leisure and tourism organisations

Performance Criteria

A student must:

- 1 explain reasons for monitoring financial performance of leisure and tourism organisations in the three sectors
- 2 explain what criteria are used for evaluation the financial performance of leisure and tourism organisations
- 3 explain factors affecting financial performance of leisure and tourism organisations
- 4 describe sources of information and data relating to financial performance in leisure and tourism organisations

Range

- 1 **Reasons for monitoring:** solvency, profitability, cash flow, comparison with financial targets, improving financial performance, budget
- 2 **Sectors:** public, private, voluntary
- 3 **Criteria for evaluating financial performance:** solvency, profitability, achieving financial targets, operating within budgets
- 4 **Factors affecting financial performance:** external factors (recession, boom, local conditions, seasonal factor, competitor activity), internal factors (volume of sales, level of credit, level of debt, wage bills, fixed costs, variable costs, stock control)
- 5 **Sources of information and data:** forecasts (balance sheet, profit and loss account, cash flow), actual (balance sheet, profit and loss account, cash flow)

Evidence Indicators

A report outlining in general terms the theory of financial performance of leisure and tourism organisations in the public, private and voluntary sectors.

The report should:

- explain the organisations' reasons for monitoring financial performance
- explain criteria for evaluating their financial performance
- explain factors affecting their financial performance
- describe sources of information and data relating to their financial performance

**Fig. 1.3. Advanced GNVQ Leisure and Tourism, Unit 4 (1995 standard), Element 4.1
Amplification and Guidance in detail (Elements 4.2 and 4.3 omitted)**

Amplification

Solvency (PC1 range) an organisation is considered to be solvent if it has the ability to pay its debts when they become due.

Seasonal (PC3 range) it is very important for students to understand that the leisure and tourism industries are seasonal, and that this can adversely affect the financial performance of an organisation. To counteract the problem, tour operators may offer cheap or discounted holidays to seasonal resorts during the winter months, for example. In leisure centres seasonality could affect certain activities, eg outside activities during the winter months. For example a leisure centre may offer the use of an outside tennis court to a five-a-side football team during the winter months.

Guidance

Students' knowledge and understanding developed in this element will underpin their practical activity in Element 4.3. It is essential that students have a clear understanding of the importance of monitoring financial performance in leisure and tourism organisations in the private, public and voluntary sectors.

When tackling this element teachers and tutors should consider the requirements of other units and elements, as students' in-depth study may produce evidence towards a number of elements from different units.

Advanced GNVQ Art and Design Unit 2 - Content

(Revised version for New Model Pilot)

UNIT 2: 3D VISUAL LANGUAGE (ADVANCED)

ABOUT THIS UNIT

In this unit you will carry out exploratory work to develop your 3D visual language skills.

You will learn:

- how to use techniques for making 3D about formal elements
- how to use sources to help you create objects
- how to use visual language to communicate
- how to analyse your work to improve its quality

This unit is linked to Advanced Unit 1 (2D visual language) and Advanced Unit 3 (Materials, techniques and technology). These units introduce you to the fundamental skills and understanding which all artists, craftspeople and designers need for their work. You will be able to use what you have learned about 3D visual language when you develop your own examples of visual language in Advanced Unit 7 (Visual communication and meaning).

This unit builds on Intermediate Unit 1 (2D and 3D visual language). After you finish your GNVQ you could further develop your 3D visual language skills through specialist NVQs or art, craft or design courses in higher education.

This unit will be assessed through your portfolio.

WHAT YOU NEED TO LEARN

OBJECT-MAKING TECHNIQUES

When making objects, you need to use the following 3D techniques:

- carving
- construction
- modelling

3D FORMAL ELEMENTS

Formal elements are 'building blocks' which are combined in various ways to create works of art, craft and design. The formal elements used in 3D work are similar to those used in 2D work but the way they are applied is different.

You will need to learn about the potential of visual language in 3D work by exploring:

- structure
- weight and mass
- space and volume
- proportion and scale
- balance and movement

You will need to be able to use these technical terms when describing art, craft and design work.

You need to understand the relationship of light, tone and colour by exploring colour and light applied to 3D objects

SOURCES

When developing ideas for 3D work, you need to use a variety of sources. These sources could be primary or secondary sources.

cont/

cont./

Examples of primary sources are:

- the human figure
- still-life and natural forms
- the environment

Examples of secondary sources are :

- others' art, craft and design work
- your own and others' lens-based imagery

USING 3D VISUAL LANGUAGE

3D visual language is used in many ways. You need to understand how it is used:

- for representation (to create literal and abstract, functional and non-functional objects and sculpture)
- to convey meaning (to express something, such as a function or purpose, a message, ideas or feelings)
- to explore, develop and record your ideas for models, maquettes or mock-ups.

You need to understand that 3D visual language is based on combining:

- skills in object making
- awareness of the potential of materials and associated technology
- visual formal elements in different ways
- the use of a range of techniques and processes.

You need to be able to:

- combine your practical knowledge of object-making techniques with 3D formal elements
- carry out self-directed explorations into the creative possibilities of 3D visual language.

ANALYSING YOUR WORK

You need to analyse your use of 3D visual language to describe and explain your work. Analysis involves considering and commenting on:

- your combinations of 3D formal elements, object-making techniques and sources
- your intentions in using 3D visual language (eg the effects you wanted to create, the ideas you were trying to explore)
- how others' use of 3D visual language has influenced your work
- new directions that you could take in your use of 3D visual language.

When you analyse work, you need to use technical language.

Advanced GNVQ Art and Design Unit 2 - Assessment Evidence Grid

(Revised version for New Model Pilot)

ASSESSMENT EVIDENCE			
YOU NEED TO PRODUCE:	TO ACHIEVE A PASS, YOU MUST:	TO ACHIEVE A MERIT, YOU MUST MEET THE PASS REQUIREMENTS AND ALSO:	TO ACHIEVE A DISTINCTION, YOU MUST MEET THE MERIT REQUIREMENTS AND ALSO:
a a selection of 3D work you have chosen to show the depth of your skills, knowledge and understanding of using 3D visual language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> select and use different combinations of object-making techniques, formal elements and sources competently 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> show independence in your approach to your work carry out in-depth exploration of 3D visual language plan and organise your exploration carefully carry out extensive research and analyse your findings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> use an innovative personal approach to explore a wide range of combinations of object-making techniques, 3D formal elements and sources which lead to improvements in your work
b a selection of 3D work you have chosen to show the breadth of your 3D experience in art, craft and design contexts. This could be in any suitable form, such as models, maquettes, mock-ups, samples, a sketchbook, worksheets or photographs of your 3D objects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> experiment with a wide range of object-making techniques, 3D formal elements and sources organise your work to show how your use of 3D visual language has developed and progressed analyse the intentions of your experiments analyse the results of your experiments identifying your use of object-making techniques, 3D formal elements and sources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> show independence in your approach to your work produce quality experimental work combining a wide range of 3D making techniques, 3D formal elements and sources analyse your experiments with 3D visual language to identify potential new directions for your use of 3D visual language, and understand how others' use of visual language has influenced your work use correct technical language when analysing your experiments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> show a wide range of quality work in different contexts take a well-organised and thorough approach to exploring how 3D visual language can be used reflect continuously on your experimental work to enhance your work and identify possible future improvements use a wide range of appropriate technical terms when reflecting on your work
PASS ▶			
MERIT ▶			
DISTINCTION ▶			

Progression from Foundation Courses 1999/2000 Cohort**Health and Social Care**

1 pass	employment
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Manufacturing

3 pass	2 Intermediate Business (to resit 1/2 unit tests) 1 FE
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Progression from Intermediate Courses 1999/2000 Cohort**Art and Design**

3 pass	1 Intermediate/Advanced Business 1 NNEB course 1 employment (to complete IT Key Skills portfolio)
--------	---

Business

3 merit 1 pass 1 units only	Advanced Business employment part-time employment
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Health and Social Care

6 pass	2 NNEB course 3 employment 1 part-time employment with A levels
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5 units only	2 employment 3 unknown
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Leisure and Tourism

2 pass	1 Advanced Business 1 employment
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Manufacturing

2 pass	1 Intermediate/Advanced Business
--------	----------------------------------

1 incomplete	1 apprenticeship complete by 9/2000 - 1 advanced Manufacturing with AS level
2 units only	1 employment 1 apprenticeship

Destinations - Advanced Cohort 1999/2000

Art and Design

6 distinction	5 HE 1 employment
3 incomplete	2 employment 1 unknown

Business

3 distinction	1 Integration course for severely disabled then HE 2 employment
2 merit	employment
3 pass	1 HE 2 employment (1 to resit 2 unit tests)
3 incomplete	2 employment 1 to repeat Y13

Health and Social Care

1 distinction	employment - NVQ3
3 merit	HE
1 pass	HE

Leisure and Tourism

2 pass	1 HE 1 employment
3 units only	employment

Manufacturing

8 incomplete	employment, 6 to complete by 12/2000 in own time
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STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire asks you to describe the behavior of your teacher. This is **NOT** a test. Your opinion is what is wanted.

On the next few pages you'll find 48 sentences about the teacher. For each sentence circle the number corresponding to your responses. For example:

Never Always

This teacher expresses himself clearly 0 1 2 3 4

If you think that your teacher always expresses himself/herself clearly, circle the 4. If you think your teacher never expresses himself/herself clearly, circle the 0. You also can choose the numbers 1, 2 and 3 which are in between. If you want to change your answer cross it out and circle a new number. Please use both sides of the questionnaire. Thank you for your cooperation.

Don't forget to write the name of the teacher and other details below.

Teacher's name _____ Class _____ School _____

	never				always	
	0	1	2	3	4	
1. This teacher talks enthusiastically about her/his subject.						(Lea)
2. This teacher trusts us.						(Und)
3. This teacher seems uncertain.						(Unc)
4. This teacher gets angry unexpectedly.						(Adm)
5. This teacher explains things clearly.						(Lea)
6. If we don't agree with this teacher we can talk about it.						(Und)
7. This teacher is hesitant.						(Unc)
8. This teacher gets angry quickly.						(Adm)
9. This teacher holds our attention.						(Lea)
10. This teacher is willing to explain things again.						(Und)
11. This teacher acts as if she/he does not know what to do.						(Unc)
12. This teacher is too quick to correct us when we break a rule.						(Adm)
13. This teacher knows everything that goes on in the classroom.						(Lea)
14. If we have something to say this teacher will listen.						(Und)
15. This teacher lets us boss her/him around.						(Unc)
16. This teacher is impatient.						(Adm)
17. This teacher is a good leader.						(Lea)
18. This teacher realizes when we don't understand.						(Und)
19. This teacher is not sure what to do when we fool around.						(Unc)
20. It is easy to pick a fight with this teacher.						(Adm)
21. This teacher acts confidently.						(Lea)
22. This teacher is patient.						(Und)
23. It's easy to make a fool out of this teacher						(Unc)
24. This teacher is sarcastic.						(Adm)

	never					always				
25. This teacher helps us with our work.	0	1	2	3	4	(HFr)				
26. We can decide some things in this teacher's class.	0	1	2	3	4	(SRe)				
27. This teacher thinks we cheat.	0	1	2	3	4	(Dis)				
28. This teacher is strict.	0	1	2	3	4	(Str)				
29. This teacher is friendly.	0	1	2	3	4	(HFr)				
30. We can influence this teacher.	0	1	2	3	4	(SRe)				
31. This teacher thinks we don't know anything.	0	1	2	3	4	(Dis)				
32. We have to be silent in this teacher's class.	0	1	2	3	4	(Str)				
33. This teacher is someone we can depend on.	0	1	2	3	4	(HFr)				
34. This teacher lets us fool around in class.	0	1	2	3	4	(SRe)				
35. This teacher puts us down.	0	1	2	3	4	(Dis)				
36. This teacher's tests are hard.	0	1	2	3	4	(Str)				
37. This teacher has a sense of humor.	0	1	2	3	4	(HFr)				
38. This teacher lets us get away with a lot in class.	0	1	2	3	4	(SRe)				
39. This teacher thinks we can't do things well.	0	1	2	3	4	(Dis)				
40. This teacher's standards are very high.	0	1	2	3	4	(Str)				
41. This teacher can take a joke.	0	1	2	3	4	(HFr)				
42. This teacher gives us a lot of free time in class.	0	1	2	3	4	(SRe)				
43. This teacher seems dissatisfied.	0	1	2	3	4	(Dis)				
44. This teacher is severe when marking papers.	0	1	2	3	4	(Str)				
45. This teacher's class is pleasant.	0	1	2	3	4	(HFr)				
46. This teacher is lenient.	0	1	2	3	4	(SRe)				
47. This teacher is suspicious.	0	1	2	3	4	(Dis)				
48. We are afraid of this teacher	0	1	2	3	4	(Str)				

Theo Wubbels and Jack Levy 1992. Teachers may reproduce this questionnaire for use in their own classrooms.

For Teacher's Use Only

ca..... HFr..... Und..... SRe..... Unc..... Dis..... Adm..... Str.....

PERSONALITY STYLES

Each of us is unique in the way we experience life and respond to events. Some of us rush into new experiences, others hold back and weigh things up, some rush to talk it over with friends, others retreat into themselves. Fifty years ago Jung wrote about different types of personality. He said that the world is experienced differently by people according to how they view and respond to events and people around them. We have taken his categorisation of people as being primarily sensors or intuitors, thinkers or feelers and combined these with David Kolb's work on learning styles in which people obtain profiles on whether they learn primarily through active experimentation, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation or concrete experience.

What follows is an inventory which will enable you to identify which is your primary style for interacting with people and situations. There is no best or worst style, but it is important to be aware of one's own style as it will have some advantages and some disadvantages. We might also sometimes benefit by experimenting with a style which is not so typical for us. The person who will cope most effectively and gain from the greatest variety of opportunities, relationships and events will be the person who can operate to some extent in all styles, but who is clear when facing a problem which is the most effective coping style for her or him.

An understanding of this concept is very helpful when designing or experiencing a learning event, promoting or managing change and communicating effectively with others.

PERSONALITY STYLE INVENTORY *

Look at the following pairs of words and ask which word or phrase most typifies your behaviour.

Tick A if you strongly identify with the word on the left, B if less so, C if you identify more with the word on the right, and D if you identify strongly with the word on the right.

	A	B	C	D	
Talks to					Listens to
Action					Reaction
Going step by step					Getting whole picture
Quick paced					Deliberate
Experimenting					Digesting
Carrying out ideas					Thinking up ideas
Working for change					Working for stability
Animated					Reserved
Doing					Watching
Finding solutions					Identifying problems
Answering questions					Asking questions
Improvising					Planning
Pragmatic					Idealistic
Concerned with the 'end'					Concerned with the 'means'
	A	B	C	D	
TOTAL					

Do the same for the following pairs of words marked 1 to 4.

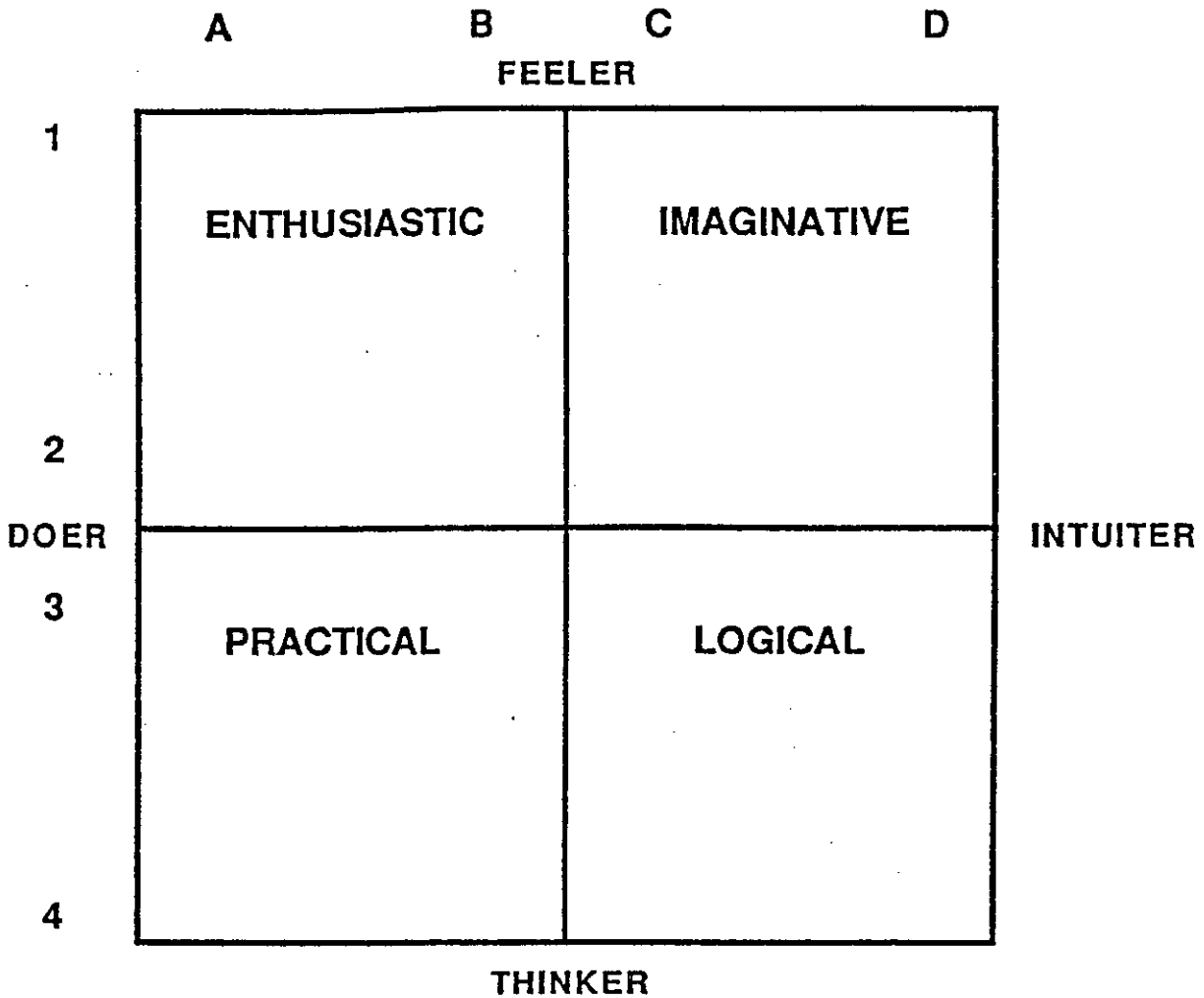
	1	2	3	4	
Intuition					Logic
Personal					Impersonal
Emotional					Intellectual
Having an opinion					Having a conceptual model
Discuss with others					Analyse by myself
Look for new experiences					Look for new ideas
Accepting					Questioning
Feeling					Thinking
Takes risks					Calculates
Trial-and-error					Plan and organise
People-oriented					Task-oriented
Gets involved					Looks for faults
Seeks out others					Works on it alone
Gives support					Gives a critique
	1	2	3	4	
TOTAL					

Circle your highest score for A to D and for 1 to 4.

* This has been adapted from the Excursion-Style Inventory in Janet Hagbert and Richard Leider's "The Inventurers", Addison-Wesley, 1978.

Transfer your style to the Personality Style Profile below. You do this in three steps:

1. Draw a dotted line down the boxes, starting from your letter with the highest score.
2. Draw a dotted line across the boxes, starting from your number with the highest score.
3. Put a cross where the lines intersect. This is your most usual style.



If you have ties, it means that you see yourself using two primary styles. If you tie between B and D, you are probably C.

If you score in the corner of any quadrant - A1, D1, A4, D4 - it means that you identify very strongly with that style.



HEALTH EDUCATION AUTHORITY



HEA HEALTH SKILLS DISSEMINATION PROJECT

DESCRIPTIONS OF PERSONALITY STYLES

ENTHUSIASTIC

Feelings plus Doing

- enjoys new situations, rushes in
- operates on trial and error 'gut' reaction
- gets others' opinions, feelings, information
- involves other people
- likes risks, change, excitement
- adapts well to new situations
- looks to the future
- can be impulsive
- relies heavily on a support network
- likes to discharge emotion

IMAGINATIVE

Feeling plus Intuition

- sees lots of alternatives
- a clear picture of total situation
- uses imagination and fantasy
- works in bursts of energy
- good at imagining oneself in new situation
- unhurried, casual, friendly, avoids conflict
- uses insight
- cannot be pushed until ready
- listens to others, shares ideas with small number of people
- likes assurance from others
- uses eyes, ears, listens, observes, asks questions

PRACTICAL

Doing plus Thinking

- applies ideas to solving problems
- makes theories useful
- has good detective skills; search and solve
- uses reason to meet goals
- likes to be in control of the situation
- acts independently, then gets feedback
- uses factual data, books, theories
- learns by testing out new situations and assessing the results

LOGICAL

Intuiting plus Thinking

- likes to place the experience in a theoretical context
- makes new models in head
- good synthesiser
- precise, thorough, careful
- organised, likes to follow a plan
- reacts slowly and wants facts
- calculates the probabilities
- avoids becoming over-emotional
- analyses experience often by writing it down
- looks for similar past experiences from which to extract learning

ADVANTAGES and DISADVANTAGES

ENTHUSIASTIC

ADVANTAGES

- takes risks
- gets others involved
- gets new ideas from others
- will try several options
- very active
- uses gut reactions

DISADVANTAGES

- no organisation or goal setting
- impulsive, rushes in unawares
- so many projects or alternatives, it is impossible to cope with them all
- loose ends are not always taken care of
- changeability can become difficult for others to live with
- demanding of friends

IMAGINATIVE

ADVANTAGES

- many alternatives
- creative options
- can wait for the best timing
- sees things in perspective
- watching to see how others cope
- sees the potential gains
- recognises stress symptoms

DISADVANTAGES

- waits too long before acting
- can't see the trees for the wood
- can be frustrating to friends
- many ideas but no action
- lacks action plans
- impatient with details
- uncritical

PRACTICAL

ADVANTAGES

- sees problems as normal and to be solved
- uses detective skills to get facts
- evaluates options
- sets up trial situations
- sets goals and acts
- works well independently

DISADVANTAGES

- doesn't use caution in action
- task overrides people
- undervalues personal feelings
- impatient
- needs to control and do it alone
- doesn't use other people effectively

LOGICAL

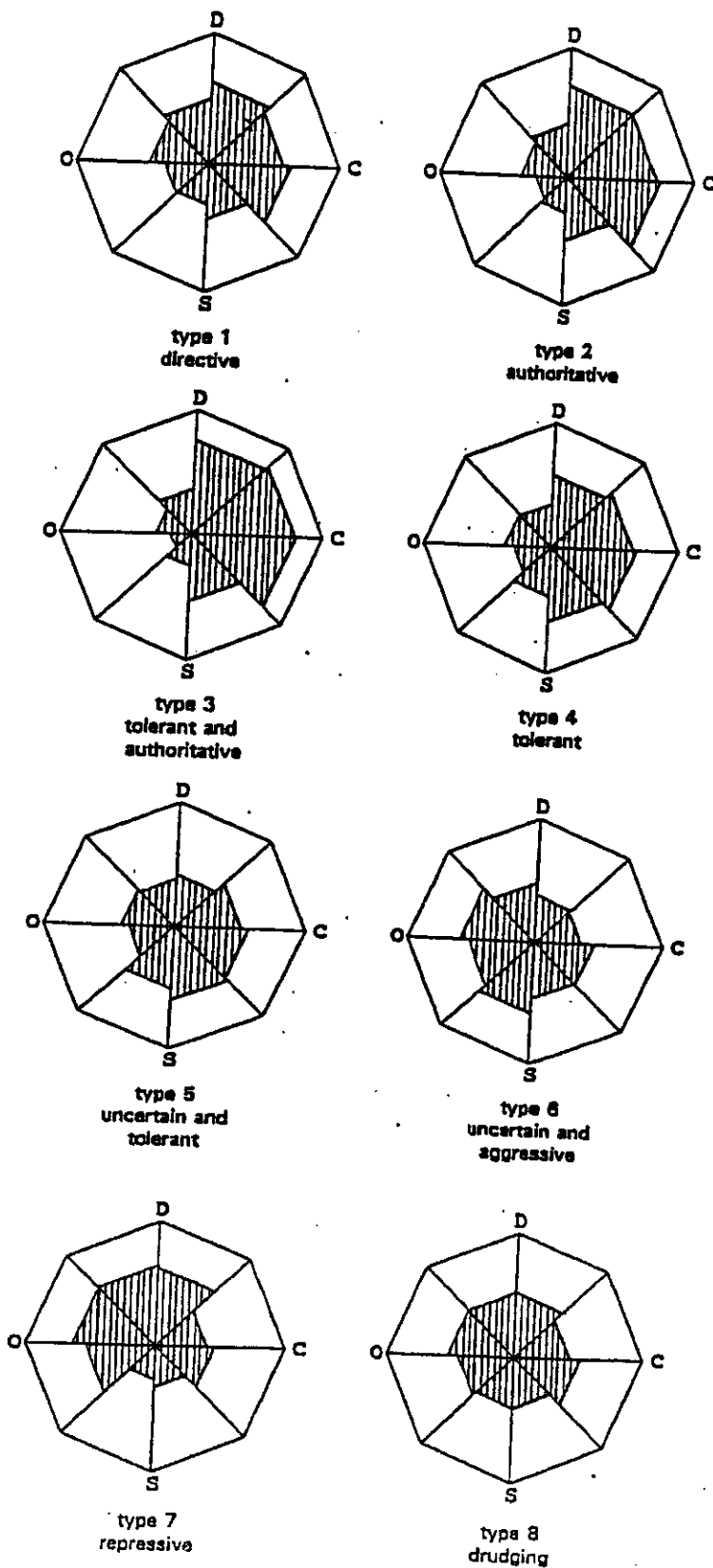
ADVANTAGES

- gathers all the facts
- organised
- reviews models and resources available to help
- reviews different alternatives
- calculates probabilities
- works well alone
- uses past experiences constructively
- looks for gains

DISADVANTAGES

- needs too much evidence before acting
- devalues feelings of others and self
- too bogged down in theory
- takes risks slowly
- overcautious
- lets go of the past reluctantly
- fails to recognise signs of stress in self

Figure 4.1: Mean Profiles of the Eight Types of the Teacher Communication Style Typology



The Typology

Type 1: Directive

This learning environment is well-structured and task-oriented. The Directive teacher is organized efficiently and normally completes all lessons on time. He or she dominates class discussion, but generally holds students' interest. Normally the teacher isn't very close to the students, though he or she is occasionally friendly and understanding. He or she has high standards and is seen as demanding. While things seem businesslike, the teacher continually has to work at it. He or she gets angry at times and has to remind the class that they are there to work. He or she likes to call on students who misbehave and are inattentive. This normally straightens them up quickly.

Type 2: Authoritative

The Authoritative atmosphere is well-structured, pleasant and task-oriented. Rules and procedures are clear and students don't need reminders. They are attentive, and generally produce better work than their peers in the Directive teacher's classes. The Authoritative teacher is enthusiastic and open to students' needs. He or she takes a personal interest in them, and this comes through in the lessons. While his or her favorite method is the lecture, the authoritative teacher frequently uses other techniques. The lessons are well planned and logically structured. He or she is considered to be a good teacher by students.

Type 3: Tolerant and Authoritative

Tolerant/Authoritative teachers maintain a structure which supports student responsibility and freedom. They use a variety of methods, to which students respond well. They frequently organize their lessons around small group work. While the class environment resembles Type 2, the Tolerant/Authoritative teacher develops closer relationships with students. They enjoy the class and are highly involved in most lessons. Both students and teacher can occasionally be seen laughing, and there is very little need to enforce the rules. The teacher ignores minor disruptions, choosing instead to concentrate on the lesson. Students work to reach their own and the teacher's instructional goals with little or no complaints.

Type 4: Tolerant

There seem to be separate Dutch and American views of the Tolerant teacher. To the Dutch, the atmosphere is pleasant and supportive and students enjoy attending class. They have more freedom in Type 4 classes than in those above, and have a real opportunity to influence curriculum and instruction. Students appreciate the teacher's personal involvement and his or her ability to match the subject matter with their learning styles. They often work at their own pace and the class atmosphere sometimes may become a little confused as a result. In the US, however, the Tolerant teacher is seen to be disorganized. His or her lessons are not prepared well and they don't challenge students. The teacher often begins the lesson with an explanation and then sends the students off to individually complete an assignment. While the teacher is interested in their personal lives, his or her academic expectations for students aren't evident.

The differences in these two interpretations are in agreement with the results of the study which established the validity and reliability of the American QTI (Wubbels and Levy, 1991). This research showed that American teachers preferred to be more dominant, while their Dutch counterparts wanted to provide students with greater responsibility and freedom.

Type 5: Uncertain/Tolerant

Uncertain/Tolerant teachers are highly cooperative but don't show much leadership in class. Their lessons are poorly structured, are not introduced completely and don't have much follow-through. They generally tolerate disorder, and students are not task-oriented. Uncertain/Tolerant teachers display the classic 'Blindness' behavior described in Chapter 1.

The Uncertain/Tolerant teacher is quite concerned about the class, and is willing to explain things repeatedly to students who haven't been listening. The atmosphere is so unstructured, however, that only the students in front are attentive while the others play games, do homework, and the like. They are not provocative, however, and the teacher manages to ignore them while loudly and quickly covering the subject.

The Uncertain/Tolerant teacher's rules of behavior are arbitrary, and students don't know what to expect when infractions occur. The teacher's few efforts to stop the misbehavior are delivered without emphasis and have little effect on the class. Sometimes the teacher reacts quickly, and at other times completely ignores inattentiveness. His or her expectations of class performance are minimal and mostly immediate rather than long-range. The overall effect is of an unproductive equilibrium in which teacher and students seem to go their own way.

Type 6: Uncertain/Aggressive

These classes are characterized by an aggressive kind of disorder. Teacher and students regard each other as opponents and spend almost all their time in symmetrically escalating conflict. Students seize nearly every opportunity to be disruptive, and continually provoke the teacher by jumping up, laughing and shouting out. This generally brings a panicked over-reaction from the teacher which is met by even greater student misbehavior. An observer in this class might see the teacher and student fighting over a book which the student has been reading. The teacher grabs the book in an effort to force the student to pay attention. The student resists because he or she thinks the teacher has no right to his or her property. Since neither one backs down, the situation often escalates out of control.

In the middle of the confusion the Uncertain/Aggressive teacher may suddenly try to discipline a few students, but often manages to miss the real culprits. Because of the teacher's unpredictable and unbalanced behavior, the students feel that he or she is to blame. Rules of behavior aren't communicated or explained properly. The teacher spends most of his or her time trying to manage the class, yet seems unwilling to experiment with different instructional techniques. He or she prefers to think 'first, they'll have to behave'. Unfortunately, learning is the least important aspect of the class.

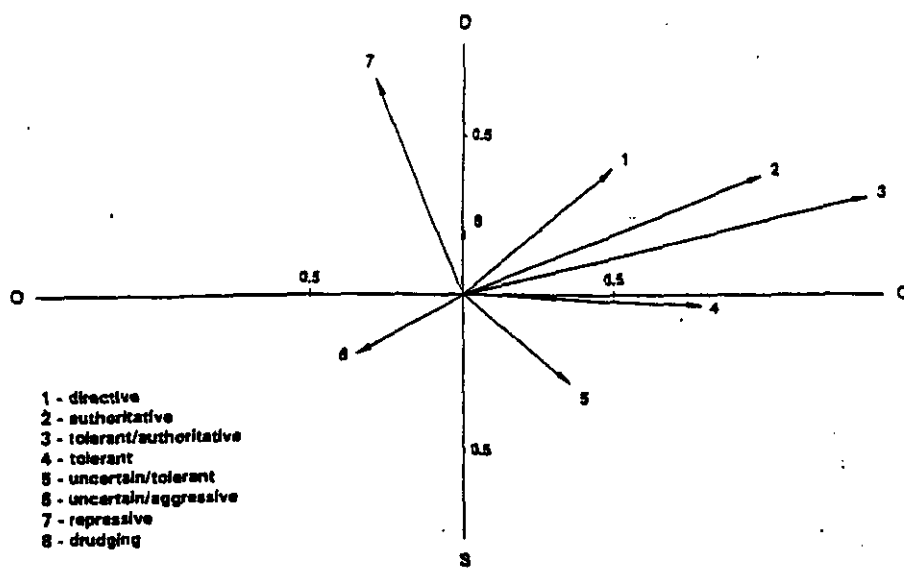
Type 7: Repressive

Students in the Repressive teacher's class are uninvolved and extremely docile. They follow the rules and are afraid of the teacher's angry outbursts. He or she seems to overreact to small transgressions, frequently making sarcastic remarks or giving failing grades. The Repressive teacher is the epitome of complementary rigidity.

The Repressive teacher's lessons are structured but not well-organized. While directions and background information are provided, few questions are allowed or encouraged. Occasionally, students will work on individual assignments, but will receive precious little help from the teacher. The atmosphere is guarded and unpleasant, and the students are apprehensive and fearful. Since the Repressive teacher's expectations are competition-oriented and inflated, students worry a lot about their exams. The teacher seems to repress student initiative, preferring to lecture while the students sit still. They perceive the teacher as unhappy and impatient and their silence seems like the calm before the storm.

Type 8: Drudging

The atmosphere in a Drudging teacher's class varies between Types 5 and 6 disorder. One thing is constant, however: the teacher continually struggles to manage the class. He or she usually succeeds (unlike Types 5 and 6), but not before expending a great deal of energy. Students pay attention as long as the teacher actively tries to motivate them. When they do get involved, the atmosphere is oriented toward the subject matter and the teacher doesn't generate much warmth. He or she generally follows a routine in which he or she does most of the talking and avoids experimenting with new methods. The Drudging teacher always seems to be going downhill and the class is neither enthusiastic nor supportive nor competitive. Unfortunately, because of the continual concern with class management the teacher sometimes looks as though he or she is on the verge of burnout.



Class and Teacher Characteristics

One of the studies which validated the typology (Wubbels, Brekelmans and Hermans, 1987) gathered additional student and teacher information from sixty-six physics classes. Student perceptions of other (non-QTI) aspects of the learning environment were measured by a Dutch instrument based on Rentoul and Fraser's (1979) Individualized Classroom Environment Questionnaire. The instrument has three scales: activity learning, reality learning and participation learning. The sixty-six physics classes which completed the instrument had also completed the QTI. Because the sample size was small ($n = 45$), a significance level of 10 per cent was adopted. Comparative results are presented in Table 4.1.

A significant amount (20-36 per cent) of the variance in the students' perceptions of the learning environment is accounted for by the teacher behavior style. Their views of the learning environment are in general agreement with expectations based on QTI-Scores. For example, participation learning is most closely associated with teachers who demonstrate highly cooperative communication styles. This result agrees with previous research which found that open, non-directive teachers emphasize innovative procedures (Schultz, 1982).

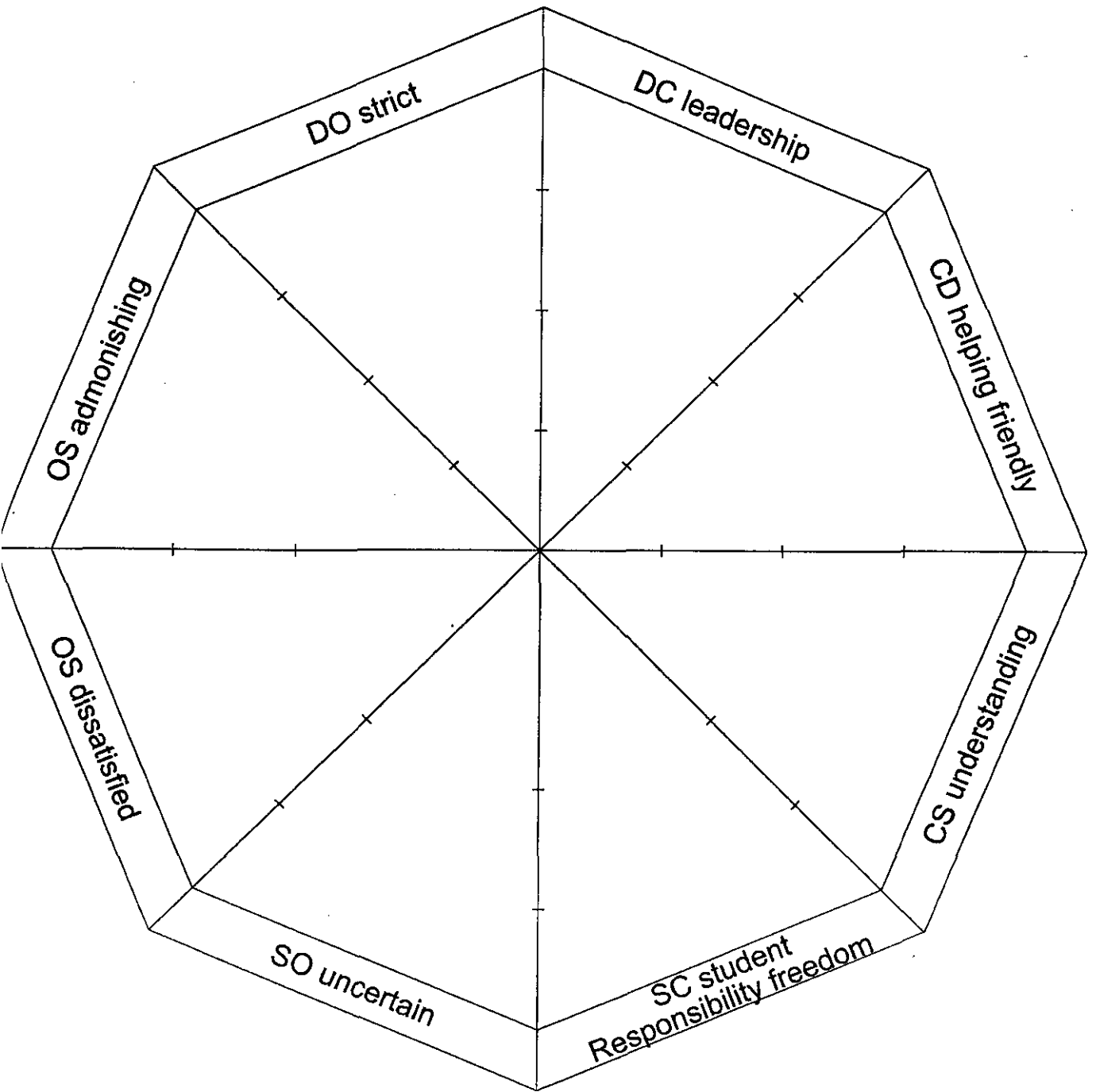
The study also gathered data on teacher characteristics: job satisfaction, experience, age, self-esteem, attitudes toward innovations, the type of interaction they prefer to have with students and their class goals. From this additional data we were able to expand the relationships discussed in Chapter 3 between QTI scale scores and teacher characteristics. Table 4.2 presents the expanded analysis, expressed in terms of QTI communication type (from the typology) and teacher characteristics. No relations were found for class size, mean student ability in a class, and teacher opinions about educational goals. As a result, they aren't included in Table 4.2.

Both experience and age seem to be important to teacher communication type. Older, experienced teachers are represented more frequently among the Directive (Type 1) and Repressive (7) types. Younger, less experienced teachers appear more frequently in the Drudging (8), Authoritative (2) and Tolerant (4) categories.

As can be seen for Types 5, 6 and 8 (those noted for disorder) class disruption is not limited to beginning teachers. Experienced teachers' classes can also be full of confusion and misbehavior. Beginning teachers, in fact, are well represented in the style categories which describe a pleasant class atmosphere. This finding speaks critically to the educational research practice of choosing 'expert' teachers on the basis of experience alone. We will elaborate further on this in Chapter 7.

There was a significant relationship between the way teachers would like to relate to students and the students' view of their communication style, especially in terms of dominance. Drudging (Type 8) teachers prefer to be least dominant and highly cooperative. Unfortunately, they never achieve this goal, and have great difficulty in building a productive class atmosphere.

Directive (Type 1) and Repressive (Type 7) teachers prefer to be most dominant toward students, and only want to show average cooperation. Both realize their dominance goals, but Repressive teachers hardly show any cooperation at all. They seem to mistake aggression for dominance, which is one of the reasons their classes are tense. Being able to separate dominance from aggression is, in our opinion, one of the most crucial teacher competencies. Teachers who are seen to be high-dominant/low-opposition (Types 1-3) have much more productive learning environments.



**Categories of Classroom Observation
(after Meagher, 1997)**

Note making and taking	Discourse	Other work in the classroom	Other activities
Make own notes with teacher help	Answer curriculum questions	Helped individually by the teacher	Off task
Make own notes independently	Teacher led discussion	Work on assignment	Management and administration
Take dictated notes	Initiate a contribution	Use ICT (computers)	Receive help from business/industry
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	Add to/challenge another's response	Teacher presents topic	
	Students discuss their work	Present work to others	
	Ask curriculum question	Exercises/examples from past papers	
	Ask management question	Reading and research	
	Answer management question	Use audio visual equipment/materials	
		Review previous work	
		Give/receive help from another student	
		Other activity, e.g. role play	
		Work on practical tasks	
		Use worksheets/handouts	

Issues to be covered during interviews with teachers

- interpreting the language of the specifications
- students' learning styles and preferences - dealing with these (including QTI results)
- differing or changes in teaching styles - GCSE, GNVQ, A levels
- prompts to these changes - 'do GNVQ teachers still teach?'
- student responsibility
- students becoming autonomous
- prompts to learning to become independent learners
- the building of relationships with students
- the quality of these relationships (including LSI results)
- the role of assessment - who, how and what is assessed, who assesses and when
- the role and styles of communication in all of these between students and teachers, student and student

Issues to be covered during student interviews

- Reasons for choosing these qualifications
- Finding out about the GNVQ course
- Is it what you expected and wanted to do
- Perceptions of the standard, relevance and usefulness of the qualification
- Attitudes toward different assessment procedures
- Relationships with teachers
- Differences between learning - Year 11, Year 12, Year 13, GCSEs/GNVQ, GNVQ/A levels
- What would you want to be different
- Future plans

STUDY GUIDE

The Compact established between you and this College provides you with a range of entitlements. In order to help you to carefully plan your work, we have set out in this document your course details, the assignments you will be expected to complete, the study skills that are specifically targeted and a recommended reading list. You should keep this document as a record of your completion of both the themes and assignments.

Course Title: GNVQ Health and Social Care - Advanced
Unit Title: 16 : Medical Physics for Health and Social Care
Duration of Unit: February - April 2000

This unit will cover the following themes;			
		Started	Completed
1.	An investigation of human body movements, measuring and recording these activities, and analysing and calculating the forces involved	February	April 2000
2.	An investigation of the human eye and ear, common defects and methods of correction.	February	April 2000
3.	An evaluation of biomedical instrumentation, applications, principles and operation, and an analysis of data collected from such instrumentation	February	April 2000
4.	An investigation of the role of ionising radiation in medical practice and an explanation of the nature of applications, measurement and control of ionising radiation	February	April 2000
During this unit you will be required to complete the following assignments;			
	1. Title	Date Set	Submitted Returned Grade
	1. Report on human body movements, including measuring and recording these		
	2. Analyse and calculate the forces exerted in human body movements		
	3. Describe the anatomy and functions of the human eye and how eye defects are identified and may be corrected		
	4. Describe the anatomy and functions of the human ear, how ear defects are identified and how aids can be used to assist hearing impairment		
	5. Describe the purposes, principles and operation of given pieces of biomedical instrumentation and for each one analyse and interpret collected data		
	6. Explain the nature of and generation of x-rays, comparing given radioisotopes and their applications, how they are measured and controlled and likely side effects		

The nature of the work being undertaken during this unit of study necessitates the development of the following study skills;

e.g. how to take notes, how to find information, how to write reports and summaries
planning and monitoring your own work
information seeking and handling from a variety of sources
synthesis of information from a variety of sources
analysis of statistics, reports, case studies and interviews
preparation and presentation of reports and summaries
evaluation of sources and of own work

Key Skills

You will have the opportunity to enhance and provide evidence for your skills in:

Application of Number: identifying, collecting, recording and analysing data and a range of measurements, using research techniques

Communication: analysing, assessing, evaluating and reporting on aspects of human anatomy, medical measurement and treatment, using observation and other research techniques

Information Technology: producing reports and analyses, creating graphs, tables and charts, searching for information, importing information, scanning informing

It is recommended that you read the relevant extracts from the following texts, journals, magazines or other sources;

Advanced Health and Social Care - Heinemann

Advanced Health and Social Care - Oxford

Advanced Health and Social Care - Longman

Advanced Level Physics

Advanced Level Biology

Advanced Level Human Biology

Advanced Level Sports Science

Encyclopaedia Britannica

Handouts - information from commercial sources, e.g. Dollond and Aitchison, hearing aid manufacturers, Frenchay Hospital Procedures, Unit 16 Resource File

Internet, CDROMs

Visits, observations and interviews - Treliske Hospital, East Cornwall Hospital, Leisure Centre, Work placements

You will have an individual review with your subject teacher at the end of the unit and agree specific targets and action which should be recorded below.

Targets / Action	Date
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	

This is an accurate record of the course and the work that has been completed.

Signed: _____ Subject Teacher

Signed: _____ Student

GNVQ HEALTH AND SOCIAL CARE (ADVANCED)

UNIT 16: Medical physics for health and social care

ASSIGNMENT: You have been asked to prepare a report which includes descriptions, measurements and records of human body movements. You will need to explain the roles of the components of the musculo-skeletal system within each movement and include a series of calculations based on measurements of human body movements

ELEMENT 16.1: Investigate human mechanics

OUTCOMES: On completion of this work you should be able to provide evidence that you have met the appropriate performance criteria

ACTIVITIES: When working on this assignment you will, through taking part in practical activities with others, hospital visits, interviews and observations, be able to:

- describe with the aid of illustrations the body movements of walking, running, standing, bending and lifting
- measure and record limb position, limb trajectory, speed and acceleration in each of these movements, using diagrams, photographs and/or video
- explain the role of the components of the musculo-skeletal system including bones as levers, joints as fulcrums, synovial fluid as a lubricant, antagonistic muscle action, ligaments, tendons, support, stability, propulsion, mechanical advantage, thrust and reaction, and friction
- analyse and calculate the forces exerted in standing, lifting and bending and how the body and the ground interact during walking and running, including principles of moments, resolution of forces, compressive stress and shear stress

RESOURCES: The following list may be useful, but it is not exhaustive. You will need to use a variety of sources to find the information you need:

- Advanced Health and Social Care, Oxford
- Your own work for units 3 and 4
- Encyclopaedia Britannica
- Advanced Level Biology
- Advanced Level Human Life
- Advanced Level Sports Science
- CDRoM, Information finder, Encarta
- Internet
- Visits to local sports and leisure centres
- Topical newspaper and journal articles
- Interviews/conversations with people known to you, eg. following PE based courses

KEY SKILLS: You will have the opportunity to enhance your skills in:

Application of Number:

Communication:

Information Technology:

START DATE: 28.02.2000

SUBMISSION DATE: 07.04.2000

COMPLETION DATE: 14.04.2000

GNVQ HEALTH AND SOCIAL CARE (ADVANCED)

UNIT 16: Medical physics for health and social care

ASSIGNMENT: You have been asked to prepare a report which describes and explains the anatomy of the human eye and ear. You will also need to describe how vision and are measured. You should explain both how eye defects are identified and how each may be corrected, and how ear defects are identified together the use of aids in assisting hearing impairment

ELEMENT 16.2: Investigate the anatomy and function of the human eye and ear

OUTCOMES: On completion of this work you should be able to provide evidence that you have met the appropriate performance criteria

ACTIVITIES: When working on this assignment you will, through taking part in practical activities with others, hospital visits, interviews and observations, be able to:

- describe with the aid of illustrations the anatomy of the eye including the cornea, lens, iris, pupil, retina, humours, optic nerve, ciliary muscles, choroid, schera, conjunctiva, lachrymal gland and suspensory ligaments
- describe with the aid of illustrations the anatomy of the ear including the outer, middle and inner ear
- explain each of the functions of the eye including accommodation, range of vision, dark sensitivity, colour sensitivity, resolution, binocular vision, refracting power, visual acuity and the blind spot
- explain each of the functions of the ear including frequency response, stereophoric hearing, intensity levels and balance
- explain how the eye defects of myopia, hypermetropia, presbyopia and astigmatism are identified and how each may be corrected
- explain how the ear defects of conductive loss, neural loss, sensory loss and tinnitus are identified and how aids can be used to assist in overcoming these

RESOURCES: The following list may be useful, but it is not exhaustive. You will need to use a variety of sources to find the information you need:

- *Advanced Health and Social Care*, Oxford
- Your own work for units 3 and 4
- *Encyclopaedia Britannica*
- *Advanced Level Biology*
- *Advanced Level Human Life*
- CDRoM, Information finder, Encarta
- Internet
- Visits to East Cornwall and Treliske Hospitals, local vision and hearing specialists
- Information from commercial sources, eg., Dollond and Aitchison and hearing aid manufacturers
- Topical newspaper and journal articles
- Interviews/conversations with people known to you, eg. on work placement

KEY SKILLS: You will have the opportunity to enhance your skills in:

Application of Number:

Communication:

Information Technology:

START DATE: 28.02.2000

SUBMISSION DATE: 07.04.2000

GNVQ HEALTH AND SOCIAL CARE (ADVANCED)

UNIT 16: Medical physics for health and social care

ASSIGNMENT: You have been asked to prepare a report on bio-medical instrumentation which describes the purposes of different pieces of instrumentation and how they are used. For each piece of instrumentation you will need to collect, analyse and interpret data

ELEMENT 16.3: Evaluate biomedical instrumentation

OUTCOMES: On completion of this work you should be able to provide evidence that you have met the appropriate performance criteria

ACTIVITIES: When working on this assignment you will, through taking part in practical activities with others, hospital visits, interviews and observations, be able to:

- describe the purposes of biomedical instrumentation in gathering information, monitoring, evaluating, diagnosis and control
- explain the principles and operation of electrocardiography, thermography, sphygmomanometry, endoscopy, ultrasound scanning, and magnetic resonance imaging
- collect data, eg. electrocardiograms, normal and abnormal cardiac traces, thermograms, blood pressure readings, records from endoscopy and ultrasound scanning from primary or secondary sources, analyse and interpret what you find

RESOURCES: The following list may be useful, but it is not exhaustive. You will need to use a variety of sources to find the information you need:

- Advanced Health and Social Care, Heinemann
- Advanced Health and Social Care, Oxford
- Advanced Health and Social Care, Longman
- Your own work for units 3 and 4
- Encyclopaedia Britannica
- Advanced Level Physics
- CDRoM, *Information finder*
- Internet
- Visits to East Cornwall and Treliske Hospitals
- Topical newspaper and journal articles
- Interviews/conversations with people known to you, eg. on work placement

KEY SKILLS: You will have the opportunity to enhance your skills in:

Application of Number:

Communication:

Information Technology:

START DATE: 28.02.2000

SUBMISSION DATE: 07.04.2000

COMPLETION DATE: 14.04.2000

GNVQ HEALTH AND SOCIAL CARE (ADVANCED)

UNIT 16: Medical physics for health and social care

ASSIGNMENT: You have been asked to prepare a report on x-radiography which explains the nature of x-rays and how they are generated. As part of your investigation you should include a comparison of radioisotopes and how these are used in medicine. You will also need to explain how radiation is measured and controlled and describe possible side-effects of treatment on clients

ELEMENT 16.4: Explain and compare ionising radiations and their application

OUTCOMES: On completion of this work you should be able to provide evidence that you have met the appropriate performance criteria

ACTIVITIES: When working on this assignment you will, through taking part in practical activities with others, hospital visits, interviews and observations be able to:

- explain the nature of x-rays including photon energy, intensity, quality, hardness
- describe the nature of x-ray generators including tubes, control of intensity and minimum wavelength, the use of metal filters, beam definers, contrast media and image intensifiers in imaging, tomography and radiotherapy
- compare the properties of alpha, beta and gamma radioisotopes and how these are used in diagnosis and imaging, as tracers and in therapy
- explain how radiation is measured and controlled including units, dose, exposure, protection and detectors
- describe the side effects of ionising treatments on clients, eg., nausea, dizziness, trembling, disorientation, anxiety, stress and tiredness

RESOURCES: The following list may be useful, but it is not exhaustive. You will need to use a variety of sources to find the information you need:

- Advanced Health and Social Care, Heinemann
- Advanced Health and Social Care, Oxford
- Advanced Health and Social Care, Longman
- Your own work for units 3 and 4
- Encyclopaedia Britannica
- Advanced Level Physics
- CDROM, Information finder
- Internet
- Visits to East Cornwall and Treliske Hospitals
- Topical newspaper and journal articles
- Interviews/conversations with people known to you, eg. on work placement
- Frenchay Hospital procedures

KEY SKILLS: You will have the opportunity to enhance your skills in:

Application of Number:

Communication:

Information Technology:

START DATE: 28.02.2000

SUBMISSION DATE: 07.04.2000

COMPLETION DATE: 14.04.2000

APPENDIX 4.1

Categories of Classroom Observation - Art and Design, Year 12

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.3

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	0%	Answer curriculum questions	0%	Helped individually by the teacher	14%	Off task	2%
Make own notes independently	0%	Teacher led discussion	7%	Work on assignment	0%	Management and administration	5%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	4%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	0%	Add to/challenge another's response	4%	Teacher presents topic	7%		
		Students discuss their work	6%	Present work to others	5%		
		Ask curriculum question	5%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	0%	Reading and research	0%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	11%		
				Review previous work	0%		
				Give/receive help from another student	5%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	25%		
				Use worksheets/handouts	0%		
Total			26%		67%		7%

APPENDIX 4.1

Categories of Classroom Observation - Art and Design, Year 12

Detailed Breakdown of Fig. 4.4

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	0%	Answer curriculum questions	0%	Helped individually by the teacher	28%	Off task	0%
Make own notes independently	0%	Teacher led discussion	0%	Work on assignment	0%	Management and administration	16%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	0%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	0%	Add to/challenge another's response	0%	Teacher presents topic	0%		
		Students discuss their work	14%	Present work to others	0%		
		Ask curriculum question	0%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	0%	Reading and research	0%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	0%		
				Review previous work	0%		
				Give/receive help from another student	10%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	32%		
				Use worksheets/handouts	0%		
Total			14%		70%		16%

Appendix 4.1

Categories of Classroom Observation - Art and Design, Year 13

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.5

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	0%	Answer curriculum questions	0%	Helped individually by the teacher	14%	Off task	0%
Make own notes independently	0%	Teacher led discussion	15%	Work on assignment	2%	Management and administration	0%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	7.5%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	0%	Add to/challenge another's response	7.5%	Teacher presents topic	7%		
		Students discuss their work	10%	Present work to others	5%		
		Ask curriculum question	0%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	0%	Reading and research	0%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	11%		
				Review previous work	0%		
				Give/receive help from another student	5%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	16%		
				Use worksheets/handouts	0%		
Total			40%		60%		

Categories of Classroom Observation - Art and Design, Year 13

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.6

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	0%	Answer curriculum questions	4.5%	Helped individually by the teacher	13.5%	Off task	0%
Make own notes independently	0%	Teacher led discussion	0%	Work on assignment	14%	Management and administration	9%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	0%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	0%	Add to/challenge another's response	0%	Teacher presents topic	0%		
		Students discuss their work	13.5%	Present work to others	11%		
		Ask curriculum question	7%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	9%	Reading and research	0%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/materials	0%		
				Review previous work	4.5%		
				Give/receive help from another student	0%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	14%		
				Use worksheets/handouts	0%		
Total			34%		57%		9%

APPENDIX 4.2

Categories of Classroom Observation - Health and Social Care, Year 12

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.9

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	0%	Answer curriculum questions	0%	Helped individually by the teacher	11.5%	Off task	0%
Make own notes independently	0%	Teacher led discussion	11.5%	Work on assignment	4%	Management and administration	15%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	11.5%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	0%	Add to/challenge another's response	15%	Teacher presents topic	4%		
		Students discuss their work	8%	Present work to others	11.5%		
		Ask curriculum question	0%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	4%	Reading and research	0%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	0%		
				Review previous work	0%		
				Give/receive help from another student	4%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	0%		
				Use worksheets/handouts	0%		
Total			50%		35%		15%

APPENDIX 4.2

Categories of Classroom Observation - Health and Social Care, Year 12/13

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.10

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	0%	Answer curriculum questions	7%	Helped individually by the teacher	6%	Off task	0%
Make own notes independently	2%	Teacher led discussion	14%	Work on assignment	10%	Management and administration	15%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	12%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	7%	Add to/challenge another's response	9%	Teacher presents topic	3%		
		Students discuss their work	7%	Present work to others	6%		
		Ask curriculum question	5%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	0%	Reading and research	0%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	0%		
				Review previous work	6%		
				Give/receive help from another student	0%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	0%		
				Use worksheets/handouts	0%		
Total	9%		54%		31%		6%

APPENDIX 4.2

Categories of Classroom Observation - Health and Social Care, Year 12/13

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.11

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	0%	Answer curriculum questions	0%	Helped individually by the teacher	0%	Off task	0%
Make own notes independently	8.5%	Teacher led discussion	7.5%	Work on assignment	24%	Management and administration	0%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	7%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	8.5%	Add to/challenge another's response	7%	Teacher presents topic	8%		
		Students discuss their work	7.5%	Present work to others	0%		
		Ask curriculum question	7%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	0%	Reading and research	15%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	0%		
				Review previous work	0%		
				Give/receive help from another student	0%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	0%		
				Use worksheets/ handouts	0%		
Topic	17%		36%		47%		

Categories of Classroom Observation - Leisure and Tourism, Year 12

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.14

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	7.5%	Answer curriculum questions	0%	Helped individually by the teacher	0%	Off task	0%
Make own notes independently	7.5%	Teacher led discussion	2.5%	Work on assignment*	7%	Management and administration	5%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	8%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	0%	Add to/challenge another's response	9.5%	Teacher presents topic	0%		
		Students discuss their work	9.5%	Present work to others	0%		
		Ask curriculum question	9.5%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	0%	Reading and research*	10%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	0%		
				Review previous work	0%		
				Give/receive help from another student	7%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	17%		
				Use worksheets/handouts	0%		
Total	15%		39%		41%		5%

Note: effectively two lessons in one - * 3students in classroom, working on portfolios, with access to ICT if needed. Others on court with teacher as scribe - medical and fitness measurement.

APPENDIX 4.3

Categories of Classroom Observation - Leisure and Tourism, Year 12

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.15

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	8%	Answer curriculum questions	15%	Helped individually by the teacher	0%	Off task	4%
Make own notes independently	11%	Teacher led discussion	8%	Work on assignment	0%	Management and administration	0%
Take dictated notes	4%	Initiate a contribution	8%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	4%	Add to/challenge another's response	11%	Teacher presents topic	19%		
		Students discuss their work	0%	Present work to others	0%		
		Ask curriculum question	4%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	0%	Reading and research	0%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	0%		
		(banter - Jerry Springer)	4%	Review previous work	0%		
				Give/receive help from another student	0%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	0%		
				Use worksheets/ handouts	0%		
Total	27%		50%		19%		4%

Categories of Classroom Observation - Leisure and Tourism, Year 13

Detailed Breakdown of Figure 4.16

Note making and taking		Discourse		Other work in the classroom		Other activities	
Make own notes with teacher help	8%	Answer curriculum questions	7%	Helped individually by the teacher	15%	Off task	0%
Make own notes independently	8%	Teacher led discussion	7%	Work on assignment	17.5%	Management and administration	0%
Take dictated notes	0%	Initiate a contribution	4.5%	Use ICT (computers)	0%	Receive help from business/industry	0%
Receive duplicated notes/handouts	0%	Add to/challenge another's response	2%	Teacher presents topic	2.5%		
		Students discuss their work	7%	Present work to others	0%		
		Ask curriculum question	7%	Exercises/examples from past papers	0%		
		Ask management question	4.5%	Reading and research	5%		
		Answer management question	0%	Use audio visual equipment/ materials	0%		
				Review previous work	0%		
				Give/receive help from another student	5%		
				Other activity, e.g. role play	0%		
				Work on practical tasks	0%		
				Use worksheets/handouts	0%		
Total	16%		39%		45%		