

**Comparative Perspectives on Initial Primary Teacher
Education and Training in England and Pakistan**

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the extent to which initial teacher education and training programmes provide an adequate preparation for the needs of the primary school teachers in England and Pakistan. An integral part of this exploration was the identification of particular aspects of ITE programmes which had a significant impact in enhancing the professional development of teachers, the effectiveness of the ITE programmes and then overall quality.

The second notable feature is that this study is a comparative one. The researcher chose two countries where initial teacher training programmes were being implemented, albeit in different ways. England and Pakistan are two contrasting countries from different global regions and having different cultural and social contexts. This is not a problem for comparison because the issue is whether they provide an adequate and enriching professional preparation for beginning teachers in their respective contexts. The study also aims to explore how far the English experience has potential for development and improvement in the Pakistani initial primary teacher education programme. The issue was examined in detail in different teacher education institutions located in England and Pakistan. For this purpose the researcher used Bereday's comparative methodology to investigate the juxtaposition of these two initial teacher education programmes. The researcher hopes thereby to add to the stock of theory through the use of a cross-national study.

The study indicated to what extent the beginning teachers were adequately prepared for the demands of work and the responsibilities expected of them as perceived by the profession and other stakeholders. A number of factors were found to contribute to the perceived adequacy of the professional preparation of student teachers. An

enriching curriculum together with availability and quality of physical facilities and educational resources contributed to this situation. At the same time, the support from the principal stakeholders in terms of funding and staff professional development was also cited as impacting upon the quality of pre-service teacher education provided to the beginning teachers in England and Pakistan.

The aim of this research was to investigate initial teacher education in Pakistan and England to gain insights into two initial teacher education systems with a view to improving initial teacher education in Pakistan. To achieve this aim, a cross-cultural study using a multi-method approach was adopted. This research revealed how questionable it can be to merely state what the similarities and differences really are between two initial teacher education systems. Nonetheless, it did identify some important differences as between the two initial teacher education systems, namely in terms of:

- cultural differences affecting initial teacher's attitude and values;
- differences in governmental vision, political will, and government policies and institutional provision;
- teacher education curricula, policies and delivery;
- traditional and economic disparities; and theoretical underpinning.

Having conducting this research, it is the view of the writer that it is possible for Pakistan to gain from certain aspects of the experience in England, especially in administration and quality control.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to the memory of my beloved parents who made sure that all their four children made the most of their educational opportunities. They were a great source of inspiration and support in my life.

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My true strength and inspiration has been and will always be Allah Almighty. He is my source of existence and saviour. He keeps me functioning each and every day. I turned to Him in times of need and He never let me down. Without Him I would be nothing. He gave me the courage to go on. He gave me the ideas and the wisdom to use those ideas in a concrete manner. Thank you God for these blessings!

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LISTS OF ABBREVIATIONS

Acronym	Description
ACR	Annual Confidential Report
AD	Administrator
AED	Academy for Educational Development
ASE	Association for Science Education
BEd	Bachelor of Education
B.S.Ed	Bachelor of Science in Education
CT	Certificate of Teaching
CU	Curriculum
DCTE	Directorate of Curriculum & Teacher Education
DEO	District Education Officer
DES	Department of Education and Science
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DIE	Diploma in Education
DIUS	Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills
DU	Duration of ITE Programme
EFF	Effectiveness of ITE Programme
EP	Educational Policy
ERIC	Education Resources Information Centre
GCE	Government College for Education
GCET	Government College for Elementary Teachers
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GoP	Government of Pakistan
GTTR	Graduate Teacher Training Registry
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectors
HSSC	Higher Secondary School Certificate
HT	Head Teacher
ICG	International Crises Group
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IR	Involvement in Research
INSET	In-Service Teacher Training
IR	Involvement in Research
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
ITT	Initial Teacher Training
LEA	Local Education Authority
ME	Mentor
MoE	Ministry of Education
NEP	National Education Policy
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NWFP	North West Frontier Province
OECD	Organization of Economic Development and Cooperation
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
OS	Organizational Structure
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate of Education
PM	Policy Maker
PPC	Pakistan Planning Commission
PR	Principals
PTC	Primary Teacher Certificate

QCA	Qualification and Curriculum Authority
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
QUANGO	Quasi-autonomous non-governmental Organisation
QY	Quality of ITE Programme
RAE	Research Assessment Exercise
RITE	Regional Institute of Teacher Education
SCITT	School-centred Initial Teacher Training
SMK	Subject-Matter Knowledge
SSC	Secondary School Certificate
ST	Student Teacher
TDA	Training and Development Agency
TDP	Teacher's Professional Development
TE	Teacher Educators
TP	Teacher Professionalism
TTA	Teacher Training Agency
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WCOTP	World Council of Teacher Agency

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INTRODUCTION

The Context of the Research

The field of teacher education is recognized here as one whose problems have been generally well known since the turn of the century...the troublesome circumstances remain basically unchanged. (Lanier and Little, 1986: 527)

This thesis is a study in the field of comparative education. The researcher focuses on the topic of the initial teacher education, its programme and the system of teacher training. This thesis integrates the researcher's professional interests in teacher education and professional development of teachers. As such, the thesis is grounded in her work as a teacher education practitioner and explores the issues associated with the effectiveness of teacher education programmes and teacher professionalism in educating trainee teachers. It does so through a comparative study of ITE in England and Pakistan

In a world experiencing rapid socio-economic and technological change, there is a real need for a well-endowed and flexible teacher education system to meet any society's needs especially in terms of occupational requirements. The problems of raising finance for an expanding education system and finding qualified teachers to work in it, and effectively using the resources of which education disposes, seem to be significant for local authorities, policy makers and economists. Attention to these problems is needed to help education to play an essential role in supporting socio-economic growth.

Leaps in technological development may leave behind some victims, who can be viewed as a burden on technological progress. If that affects the education system, then society could pay a heavy price, unless serious effort is made to design and support viable teacher training programmes for professional preparation and development. It is easy to adopt or transfer new technology to be used in developing production, but when

it comes to individual human's development, the fate of all future generations is heavily dependent on the knowledge and behaviour of teachers. In this sense, real development is derived from preparing effective resources for work, quality production and better human life, which should be viewed as the outcomes of learning and teaching. Accordingly, some educators, policy makers, economists and politicians urge further investment in education (Pettinger, 2002; Harrison, 1992; Esland, 1990).

The teacher is one of five major elements involved: the teacher, pupils, school, the curriculum and the community, which all play a role in the learning process. 'Teachers have a crucial role to play in preparing young people not only to face the future with confidence but also to build it with purpose and responsibility' (Delors, 1996: 141). Teachers remain the most important resource in schools and this is especially the case in the primary schools of many developing countries, where other types of resources are often limited (Hargreaves and Lo, 2000). As TTA (2004a) indicates:

'Teaching is one of the most influential professions in society. In their day-to-day work, teachers can and do make huge differences to children's lives: directly, through the curriculum they teach, and indirectly, through their behaviour, attitudes, values, relationships with and interest in pupils'. (P: 3)

Brief Background to the Study

The World Declaration on Education for All (Jomtien, 1990), The Melbourne Conference on the Theme Education for the 21st Century in the Asia-Pacific Region (1998) and World Education Forum (Dakar, 2000) all called for improvement in the quality of education and student achievements. These conferences illustrated the evolution of a series of expectations for education internationally. To achieve this expanded vision of education, well-prepared teachers are needed in our education

systems, particularly those who are chosen to be part of the teaching profession at the primary and secondary school levels.

The work of a teacher is complex and demanding, and therefore beginning teachers need to be provided with an adequate professional preparation to carry out their work effectively in three main domains: the classroom, the school and the community (Turney, et al., 1986). Since teachers are recognised as a critical factor in the provision of quality education, it is helpful to examine their professional preparation at the pre-service level. This is the initial point at which future teachers begin to shape their professional competencies. Haggstrom, Darling-Hammond and Grissmer (1988) believe that:

School teachers constitute an invaluable natural resource. As the persons who are entrusted with a mission of vital importance –the education of our children –they play key roles in society. Who they are, how they are trained, what experiences and talents they bring into their classrooms, how they perform their tasks, how they fare as professional workers are questions of great importance. (P.62)

In view of this, a detailed investigation into initial teacher education in the context of England and Pakistan would be justified. Such an investigation is undertaken in this study. It examines the adequacy of the preparation for all the needs of the teachers, and for meeting the responsibilities which confront them in the field in both countries. It analyses the preparation of teachers through intrinsic case studies along the lines suggested by Stake (2000), focusing on major stakeholders associated with initial teacher education in both countries.

Nature and Scope of the Study

The research is organized into two parts: the historical development of initial teacher education (policy and practice); and the contemporary situation of initial teacher

education. The historical part (*Chapters, 4 and 5*) examines the parallel development of initial teacher education in both countries and analyses the evolving circumstances, in order to understand ongoing changes, reforms or debates and explain the reasons or aims underlying them. Raffe et al. (1999) emphasise the importance of having a historical perspective and a capacity for analysing social change as being fundamental. The historical background focuses on policies from 1944 onward, looking at the different education policies, their implementation, and the organisation and governance of ITE in both countries. Discussion of the contemporary dimensions (*Chapters, 6 and 7*) offers a rich description of current initial teacher education practices in Pakistan and England, including the perspectives of participants in the research through semi-structured interviews.

There is considerable evidence that the restructuring of teaching is a global phenomenon (Smyth et al., 2000; Morrow and Torres, 2000; Robertson, 2000) and the aim of this study is “to gain insights into British approaches to restructuring through seeking to identify what professional knowledge is deemed to be essential” (Menter, et al., 2006: 270) in these two countries.

Statement of the Problem

The key issue addressed by this study is whether initial teacher education in Pakistan and England is perceived by the profession and other stakeholders to provide adequate, relevant and enriching professional preparation for the teachers’ work. The general argument is that we still know very little about the problems, changes and challenges in teacher education. In part this may be the result of weak links between research and teacher education as well as between research and education in general. However, most of the available research is in fact less than helpful in promoting our understanding of

the problems and achievements, and there can be no doubt about the necessity of a fundamental change in research strategies.

Moreover, the study also illustrates whether teacher preparation is still considered inadequate in both countries or whether this is the case only in particular with the present initial teacher education in Pakistan. This is because policymakers have identified the poor quality of Pakistan's education system and teachers education in particular as relevant to both immediate and longer-term improvement overall.

Research Purpose and Objectives

The study seeks to contribute to knowledge by increasing the understanding of whether the initial teacher education in England and Pakistan is providing an adequate and enriching preparation for prospective teachers, especially in terms of their abilities to meet the various demands and responsibilities they encounter in the field. This study aims to investigate the differences and similarities in initial teacher education within England and Pakistan. One tends to regard the differences between nations as merely matters of detail while, in reality, it is the differences and not the similarities of nations which create international problems. This broad aim is broken down into the following objectives:

- to compare the different Government policies of Pakistan and England;
- to identify the various dimensions influencing the quality and effectiveness of pre-service teacher training programmes in both countries;
- to ascertain the level of professional development in primary pre-service teacher education;
- to investigate what is going on in terms of practice across the various types of provision.

This is essentially a comparative study which is based on Bereday's (1964) comparative methodology. His model comprises four main stages of analysis which he called mechanics of analysis: *description*, collection of pedagogical facts; *interpretation*, the analysis of the facts by the methods of different social sciences; *juxtaposition*, preliminary comparison of facts; and *simultaneous comparison*, the final fusion of the facts with similarly assembled data from other countries for the purpose of comparison. For Bereday, the prime purpose of the comparative approach is to understand ourselves better in the light of the experience of others and his method is illustrated graphically in *Figure 3* (chapter 3). According to him, comparative education seeks to make sense out of the similarities and differences among educational systems. A multiple case studies approach is adopted within this comparative framework. It is contended that this comparative approach provides a suitable method to investigate the question of the relationship between teacher education programmes and their effectiveness in each of the two selected locations: England and Pakistan.

The research may contribute to answering the question asked by Furlong et al (2000: 175), following their study of initial teacher training in England:

Are state control and market forces or professional self-governance really the only models of accountability available to us - or can we develop new approaches to teacher education and professionalism, based upon more participatory relationships with diverse communities?

Using a comparative approach, the intention is as much to look for established patterns, which transcend national specificity, as 'to elucidate national uniqueness' (Smyth *et al*, 2001). In this research the writer seeks to analyse carefully intra-national as well as cross-national differences and similarities in the way initial teacher education policy and practices, as cultural processes, take place.

The diverse patterns in teacher training which can be found in England and Pakistan, as Buchberger et al. (2000) argue, 'might provide rich material for

(re)defining “problem-spaces” and for developing “problem-solutions” for reforms and improvements of teacher education believed to be necessary in the different cultural contexts’ (p.13) of both countries. The two countries have different features and national contexts. For example, the population of Pakistan is more than double that of England; secondly, the geographical situation of Pakistan is more crucial; and thirdly, England is more stable politically than Pakistan.

In each location, the methods employed by the researcher to collect and analyse the data were exclusively qualitative and involved a combination of semi-structured interviews with key actors in the formation of policy makers, teacher educators, student teachers, headteachers and mentors in both countries, as well as the collection and analysis of national official ITE policy documents and institutional course literature. The same combination of qualitative and documentary methods was employed to investigate the main research questions. These are:

- *To what extent does the initial teacher training programme in England and Pakistan provide an adequate preparation for all the needs of teachers?*
- *To what extent does the provision for pre-service teacher education and training meet the needs of teachers for continuous professional development?*
- *To what extent can a comparative study of these issues between two countries help to identify the problems involved?*

Significance of the Study and Rationale

Issues relating to teacher education policy and practice are previously and currently very topical, attracting a lot of attention both in particular countries, for example, England and United States, and internationally, for example, The World Year Book of Education (2002). Although a number of studies have been carried out in this field, they have, as

far as the researcher is aware, been conducted almost entirely in Western countries, especially in England. There is no in-depth study as yet of Pakistan's initial teacher education policy and practice, and it is important in developing this to relate it closely to the international context. International research in general and teacher education in particular about Pakistan is very limited as compared to England. As far as the researcher has been able to ascertain, international researches have been conducted in this area for academic degrees or to develop country reports for UNESCO and The World Bank, and there are relatively few Pakistani researchers who have contributed to teacher education in Pakistan. These studies have investigated certain issues related to teacher education but are not sufficiently comprehensive to be helpful in describing and transforming initial teacher education in Pakistan. This study seeks to fill this gap, that is, to contribute an in-depth study of the preparation of teachers at the pre-service level and to identify and address important dimensions, essential for the adequacy of preparation of prospective teachers. The outcomes of this study will hopefully be of value to all concerned with initial teacher education, especially in Pakistan.

This study will contribute new knowledge about the problems of teacher education. It is hoped, moreover, that analysis of the various aspects of the main issues might offer some suggestions to assist education planners in dealing with these problems, especially in Pakistan. The findings of this study may be useful in developing future policies governing initial teacher education in both countries, and hence could be of interest to the teaching profession, the Governments and in particular the Ministries of Education. The findings of this study would be of value to those who are engaged in the preparation of teachers in pre-service teacher education programmes.

This research is also significant and timely because we have just entered the early years of the 21st Century. Either by foresight or by necessity, all organisations, and in particular educational organisations, need to take stock of past developments and plan

for the future. Thus, before we advance any further in this century, it is appropriate that we examine all aspects of education, and in particular pre-service teacher education.

Limitations of the Study

The difficulties of learning from another country, due to the different language and cultural differences, are acknowledged. Attempts to transfer any experience or information must take account of each country's specific character (Alexander, 1997). In this study the researcher was aware of differences between education systems in England and Pakistan. Therefore, she was very watchful of each system's problems in particular especially as related to their historical backgrounds.

It was easier to locate policy documents and literature about the initial teacher education in the English system rather than the Pakistani system. Therefore, some difficulties were encountered in conducting this study, especially in terms of data gathering. In particular, information on why and how certain policies relating to pre-service education in Pakistan were formulated is kept confidential.

Despite this limitation, it is important to point out that the researcher nonetheless gathered information on policies from Development Plans, significant individuals, and secondary literature, as well as from the existing programmes and practices of initial teacher education. Similar concerns about confidentiality affected interviews, policy makers and members of the teaching profession tended to be reluctant to discuss matters concerning government policies openly and candidly.

The Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into four parts, containing of nine chapters overall, organised as follows:

Part One: Scene Setting, Background and Conceptual Framework:

This part includes the Introduction, Chapters 1 and 2.

The Introduction has explained the background and aims of the study, and its significance, purpose and scope.

Chapter 1 contains an investigation of the research, dimensions and themes, and definition of terms. Moreover, a conceptual framework for initial teacher education is developed.

Chapter 2 includes a review of literature pertinent to the topic under study. It pays particular attention to global perspectives on initial teacher education, giving special attention to the formation of initial teacher education. It examines a variety of theoretical and background research materials, published and unpublished, from both developing and developed countries, related to the study.

Part Two: Research Design and Methods

This part consists of chapter 3. The chapter describes and justifies the comparative research methodology. It introduces the research questions which emerged from the literature reviews and outlines the sampling procedures and research methods employed. The researcher explains how she used and adapted Bereday's comparative methodology in order to fulfil the aims and objectives of the research questions, as well as making use of the 'constant comparative method' for the analysis of data.

Part Three: Historical and Documentary Analysis.

This part contains Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapters 4 and 5 each provide detailed historical analysis and description of the contemporary situation of teacher education, based on detailed literature review and document analysis of the educational policies and reforms in England and Pakistan, respectively. This also contains relevant information on the social, cultural and educational background that provides the broader context of the study.

Part Four: Data Analysis, Comparison and Conclusion

This part includes chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9.

Chapters 6 and 7 present the results, and analysis of the data derived from semi-structured interviews and documentary research in England and Pakistan, respectively.

Chapter 8 draws conclusions based on the findings of the research. This chapter synthesizes the comparison of teacher education based on the conceptual framework within both countries.

Chapter 9 summarises the research and draws conclusions with discussion and reflection on the research findings, along with suggestions for further research. The whole is reviewed in the hope of adding to current theory and benefiting future researchers operating cross-nationally. Conclusions are drawn from the total analysis in the light of the hypotheses posed and research questions asked. Key issues arising as well as emerging themes that have cross-national significance for the understanding of teacher education are identified.

CHAPTER ONE: FOCUS AND THEME

1.1 Introduction

The theory and practice of pre-service teacher preparation is a complex and growing field, and in recent times has been of special interest to policy makers. Shulman (1987) argued that flexibility is required to investigate a complex environment and any school is complex. Any researcher interested in identifying and describing complex issues need flexibility for patterns to emerge. Methodology, sensitive to describing complex factors is required in order to encourage adaptation of ideas and influences (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

In comparing the provision and effectiveness of pre-service teacher preparation in England and Pakistan the researcher had to select the focus as between the structural and curricular dimensions of provision, in the interest of manageability. It would then be possible for particular aspects of initial teacher education (ITE) programmes to be identified for the purpose of examining their quality and effectiveness. The essence of any ITE programme is to provide an adequate and enriching preparation for prospective teachers. Both structural and curricular dimensions may well influence the effectiveness of the programme. Therefore it was decided to attempt a dual focus on provision in both structural and curricular terms, broken down into six contemporary dimensions (*see section 1.3*) and the research proceeded on that basis.

This chapter sets out to review the available literature in relation to all those dimensions, factors and terms considered fundamental to the study:

'In order to be able to adequately compare teacher education systems, it is obviously very important to have a precise idea about the role and functions of teacher education within the education system and society in general'. (Sander, 2000: 168)

This includes all terms used in the thesis: policies and strategies; effectiveness and provision; administration and financial resources; organisation of ITE; curriculum of ITE; the qualification and recruitment of teacher educators; and selection criteria of student teachers. It is worth noting that the interaction and integration of all these aspects contribute to initial teacher education in every country.

Before describing these terms the researcher explains the themes for empirical investigation, and then develops a conceptual framework to interpret the influence of local and global trends and also provides a brief discussion on the six dimensions of the contemporary situation of ITE in both countries.

1.1.1 The Investigation

Given the objectives outlined above, the empirical investigation centred on the influences on the quality and effectiveness of ITE programmes in terms of the adequacy of the preparation for all the needs of the teachers under four themes:

- the analysis of contemporary dimensions of the ITE programme;
- the provision and quality of the initial teacher education/training programme;
- the effectiveness of the initial teacher education/training programme; and
- the link between initial teacher training programmes and professional development of beginning teachers.

The investigation is also informed by the selection and review of primary and secondary literature which covers both contextual issues and related researches. This assisted in the identification of dimensions of the contemporary provision and effectiveness of ITE programmes in England and Pakistan. A distinctive component of the literature consulted is that concerned with the methodology of educational research, including comparative analysis. It is necessary to explain the terms employed in this research at the outset, to avoid confusion due to different interpretations or cultural uses of the terminology applied here.

1.1.2 Explanation of Terms within the Context of this Study

The key concepts and terms that are used in the present study are discussed in relation to the contributions that the study is expected to make towards teacher preparation. The key terms used in the thesis title and in the study are quality, effectiveness, involvement of teachers in research, ITE programmes, education policies and comparative study. Each of these concepts and terms are discussed below to show their relationships to the problem in question.

Wilson (1994) advises the researcher to ‘clarify the relevant concepts’ when writing. He stresses that concepts ‘have to be thoroughly understood...and it is better to make them as explicit as possible, even at the risk of belabouring points with a persistence which may weary the reader’ (p. ix). Concepts should be clarified in a style that is clear. This will help to pin point what the focus is. Lack of clarity about the exact meanings of words, terms and statements leads to confusion and jumbled thinking.

Quality of Teacher Training Programme

It is necessary not only to attract better candidates into teaching, but also to help them in their preparation to become more effective in meeting the needs of the changing education system (Galton, 1996). One of the current international trends in education is the emphasis not only on quantitative expansion but also in the provision of quality education (*Global Monitoring Report, 2006*). This trend is visible in the educational reforms and developments in the teacher training systems of both England and Pakistan. Several factors influence the quality of teacher education and this study considers teachers as the most critical influence on the effectiveness of formal education (Hawes & Stephens, 1990).

Introducing ideas related to recent developments into pre-service teacher education would enable the production of professionally well-prepared teachers. Therefore, policies governing teacher preparation in every country need to be regularly updated with the aim of achieving qualitative improvement in education overall. The precise definitions of quality are indeed varied according to the local educational contexts of different countries. Aspin and Chapman (1994: 1) argue that; ‘despite the growing concern about the quality of education, its crystallized definition is somewhat difficult’. With reference to pre-service teacher preparation as considered in this study, quality refers to the combination of broad experiences provided to trainees who have met appropriate entry standards, an up-to-date curriculum, appropriately trained and suitably qualified staff, provision of relevant physical facilities and effective management of the programme and other resources to support teaching/learning, such as educational software.

It is envisaged that all these components contribute towards appropriate preparation and, in turn, enable beginning teachers to carry out effectively the interrelated tasks and responsibilities that are part of their professional role. For

example, the provision of competent and effective teaching and learning practices through which children demonstrably attain knowledge, learn skills and develop literacy, numeracy and problem solving abilities, fall under the category of quality education (Sallis, 1997).

Effectiveness

The essence of this study lies in the word ‘effectiveness’. The core definition of effectiveness is ‘the extent to which an activity fulfils its intended purpose or function’ (Harvey, 2004). According to UNESCO’s definition, it is:

‘an output of specific review that measures the achievement of a specific educational goal, or the degree to which a higher education institution can be expected to achieve specific requirements. As a primary measure of success of a programme, clear indicators, meaningful information, and evidence best reflecting institutional effectiveness with respect to student learning and academic achievement have to be gathered through various procedures’.
(Cited in Vlasceanu et al., 2004: 37)

In fact effectiveness is necessarily a dynamic social construct (Blake & Hanley, 1998). The effectiveness and impact of initial teacher education must depend on the interaction of the quality of the teacher education programme and the ability of each trainee teacher. However, there appears to be little by way of an evidence base for effective recruitment of trainees, individual providers supporting their practices on tradition, opinion and administrative suitability (Challen, et al. 2005). There is a very strong link between the quality of provision for teacher training and effectiveness. The belief of the researcher is that improvement in quality of provision for ITT would increase the effectiveness of the ITT programme.

Involvement of Teachers in Research

The literature identifies a number of ways in which schools, students and teachers benefit from the involvement of teachers in research. It also provides evidence that

teacher research is a strong model for teacher professional development. The research literature suggests that engaging in teacher research enhances the teachers' professional self-esteem. Engaging in research persuades personal and professional growth, and provides opportunities for reflection and self examination (Dyson, 1997). It also has the potential to motivate and develop a greater sense of self-efficacy (Berger et al. 2005; Evan and Songer-Hudgell, 2003). Conducting research encourages teacher educators and teachers to reflect on practice, which in itself improves teacher effectiveness, and to try new curricula and pedagogical practices (Holm et al., 1999).

Education Policies

The term policy attracts a diversity of definitions in the literature. Cunningham (cited in Prunty, 1984: 4) says, 'It is rather like an elephant – you recognize it when you see it but can not easily define it'. A comprehensive definition of policy in relation to teacher education is provided by Hawley (1990):

The term policy describes those rules, statements of intent, and specified strategies that are formally adopted by legitimate individuals or agencies to guide collective action. Teacher education policy seeks to influence who shall teach what prospective teachers know, are able to do, and value and how the learning of teacher candidates is structured. The instruments through which policymakers seek to affect these outcomes include financial aid and other recruitment tools, various screening tests and procedures, curriculum requirements and mandated learning experiences. (P.136-37)

The points raised by Hawley capture some of the issues concisely and powerfully, and these issues have been addressed within the present study.

Education policy in most countries is formulated by government, then teachers and educationists are required to implement it at each education stage. Education policy also mirrors the society's culture and civilisation. Education policy is a reflection of a society's culture and mores, so researchers undertaking comparative studies must be aware of the distinctive nature of their own and other education systems, their cultural bases and political structures for delivery.

ITE Programme

Different definitions of the term 'programme' flourish in the literature. According to the universities, the designation 'programme' is preferred to 'course' since the latter is used by different institutions in different ways, one of which entails many courses constituting the overall pre-service teacher education programme. For this reason, the term 'programme' is used in this study to refer to all the courses and other requirements laid down by the institutions which, when fulfilled, lead to particular awards, such as, for example, a Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) or Diploma in Education (DIE). The programme, therefore, should be such that beginning teachers emerge well prepared for the complex and diverse work they will perform inside and outside the classroom.

Comparative Study

One might reasonably ask, 'why a comparative study?' Comparative studies in education have potentially beneficial outcomes, not least being the re-examination of one's ethnocentric assumptions in the light of other countries experiences (Noah, 1983). Comparative study is mainly concerned with making comparisons between different groups of people, stressing and classifying the difference between groups and examining these differences, but the comparison should be relative, not absolute. It aims to discover similarities as well as differences between cultures with the hope of gaining a better understanding of how members of different cultures learn and think, how they are motivated and how they interact with one another and how each culture can help in providing insights into different features of the others (Gagliardi, 1995; Lloyds, 1972). Prejudices may be identified, flaws highlighted, and different approaches elucidated by observing differences and similarities as between practices in several countries.

However, international comparison has the potential of being abused, exaggerated, and used without appropriate contextual information (McLean, 1992).

1.1.3 Research Questions

Three main research questions have been formulated:

- *To what extent does the initial teacher education and training programme in England and Pakistan provide an adequate preparation for all the needs of teachers?*
- *To what extent does the provision for pre-service teacher education and training meet the needs of teachers for continuous professional development?*
- *To what extent can a comparative study of these issues between two countries help to identify the problems involved?*

In addition, further underlying questions will be addressed as an underpinning to the examination of the research questions. It is necessary to explore these questions in order to provide an informed framework to answer the questions themselves.

- What are the governmental policies and programmes of both countries in this regard?
- How does the organization and administration of initial teacher education/training work in both countries?
- Is the curriculum of teacher training fulfilling the needs of teachers in both countries?
- Is initial teacher education/training adequately resourced in both countries, in terms of human and financial resources?

To answer these questions, a cross-cultural study using a multi-method approach was adopted. Identifying answers to this set of questions was made possible by the examination of the processes of initial teacher education in England and Pakistan in their historical framework. This is important because the writer agrees with Sadler (1900) that:

A national system of education is a living thing, the outcome of forgotten struggles and of 'of battles long ago'. It has in it some of the secret workings of national life. (P.49, cited in Phillips, 1997: 286)

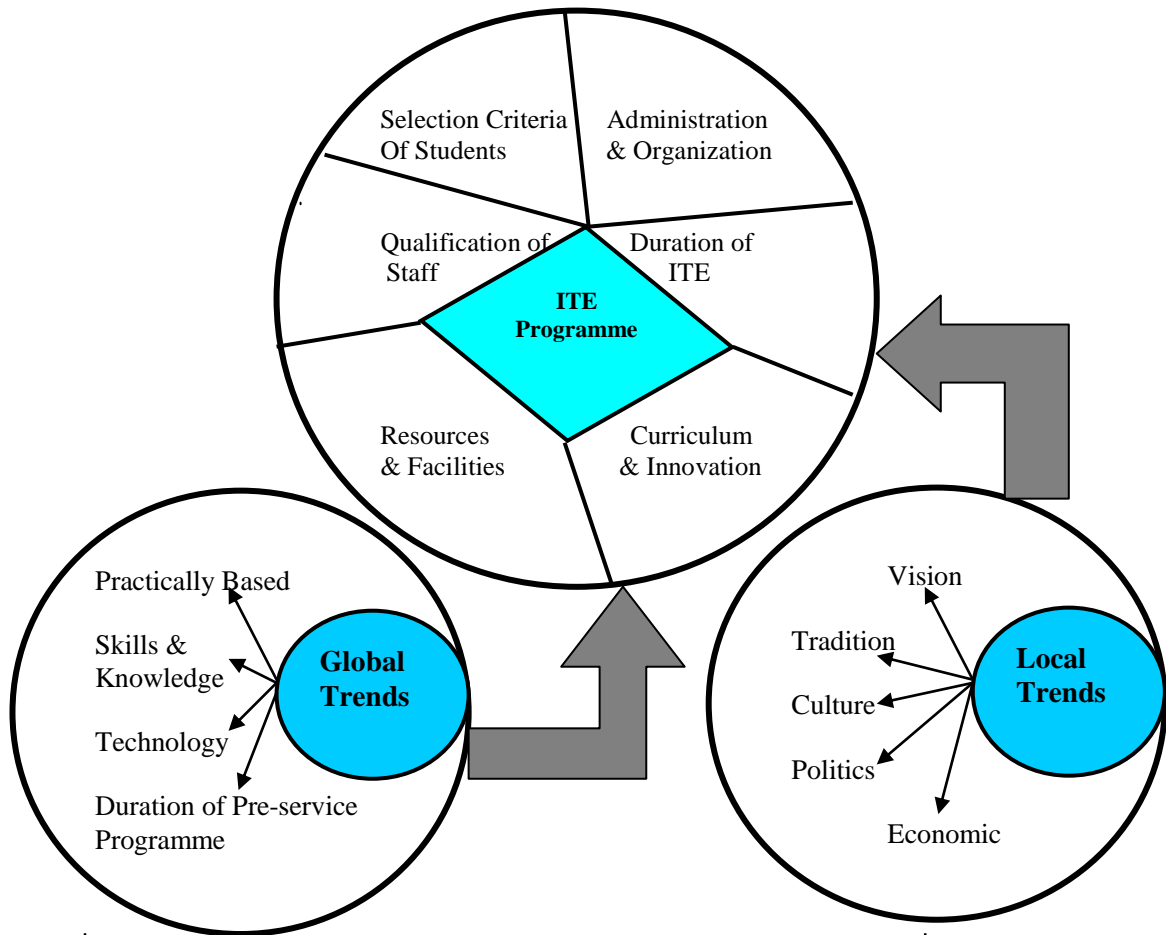
In order to tackle these questions in different contexts, a conceptual framework was developed through which the dynamics of dimensions, stakeholders and their interaction were to be understood and investigated.

1.2 Charting the Conceptual Framework

The literature reviewed to date spells out the need to consider several aspects of teacher education in order to survey the literature related to the provision of an adequate and enriching professional preparation for teachers. This aspect of the literature review examines programmes from England and Pakistan as well as programmes from other countries. It highlights the need to keep examining and reviewing the different aspects of initial teacher education. Another ingredient highlighted in the literature is the need to consider local and international trends and developments in teacher preparation.

This conceptual framework, illustrated in *Figure 1*, has been developed, taking into account: a) the significant dimensions of initial teacher education; b) local trends according to the different cultural, traditional, political, and economical conditions of every country; and c) some strong global trends and pressures on these factors in every country. It aims to provide a more integrated connection between the global and the local, and a more direct focus on the latter (McGinn, 1996). This reflects the complexity of the interplay between the global, the regional and the local, especially in matters of educational policy.

Figure 1: The Conceptual Framework of Initial Teacher Education.



Mah-e-rukh Ahmed, 2008.

The conceptual framework illustrates the integration of the key research questions. It is broad enough to allow a theoretical understanding of the dynamic interaction of dimensions and ITE providers in the context of particular local and global milieu.

Teacher training influences, and is influenced by, the official policies and programmes of pre-service teacher education. Identification of manageable dimensions (*Chapters, 1, 6 and 7*) is made possible by documentary study and initial visits to field locations. The researcher believes that both local and global effects influence the initial teacher training programmes, collectively and individually.

1.3 The Contemporary Dimensions of ITE Programme

Provisions for, and effectiveness of, ITE interact strongly with some very important factors in both England and Pakistan. These factors are termed by the researcher: ‘contemporary dimensions’ in teacher education. They:

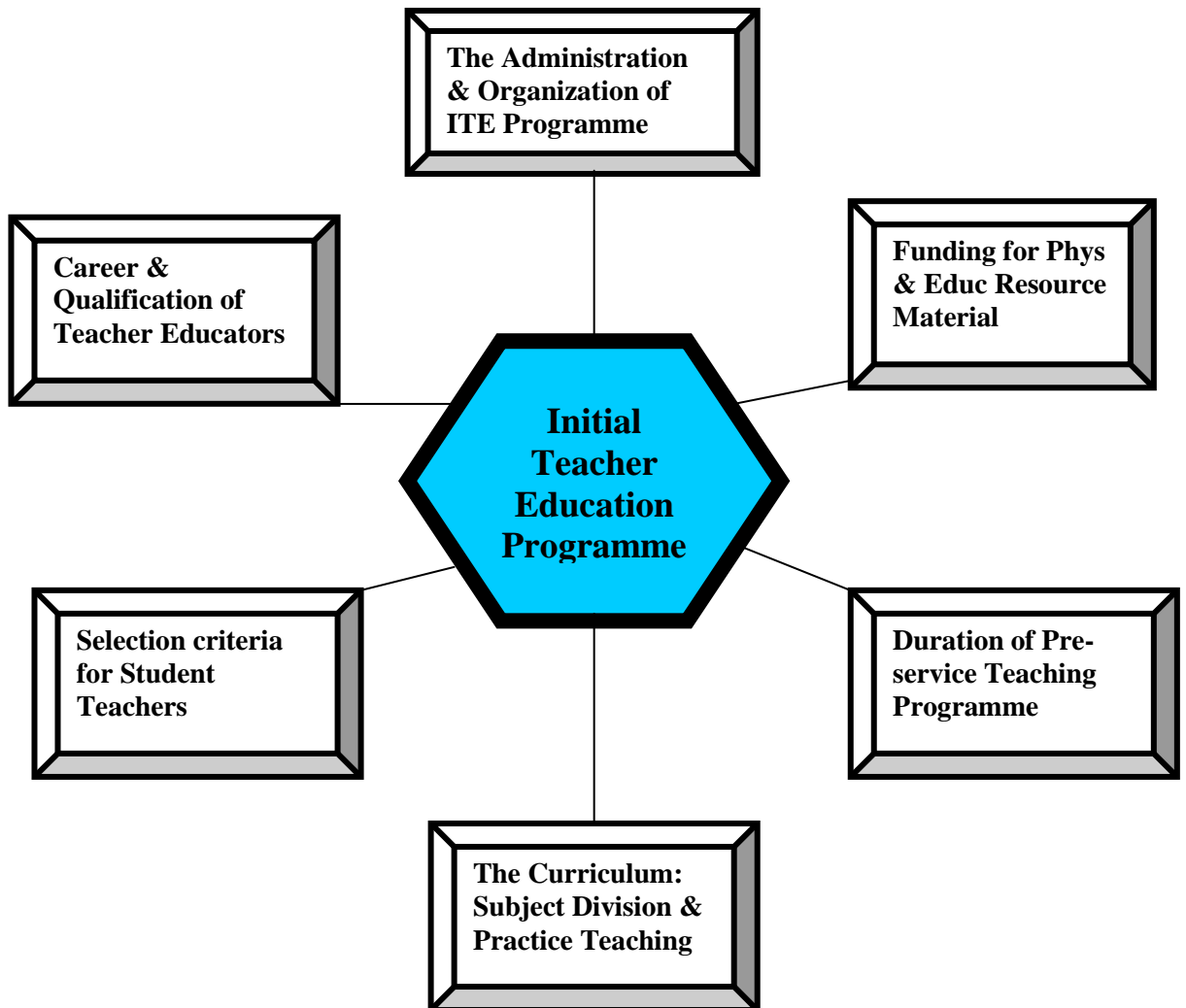
‘do not in fact stand in isolation, each of them being separated from the others, but are dynamically linked to each other in a developmental process and tend to reinforce or weaken each other, depending on the circumstances’. (Sander, 2000:169)

These dimensions, together with international trends and changing national and international contexts, include:

- the administration and organisation of pre-service teacher training
- financial resources for physical and educational resource materials;
- the curriculum of pre-service teacher training;
- duration of the pre-service programme;
- career and qualification of teacher educators, and
- selection criteria for student teachers.

These dimensions are not only significant for this research, but they are also sufficiently broad to accommodate a variety of ideas. These dimensions have potential to control the quality and effectiveness of ITE. The selection of these dimensions was derived from a review of related literature and from pilot-work in the field. The contemporary dimensions devised by the writer are illustrated in *Figure 2*.

Figure 2: The Contemporary Six-Dimensional Framework of Initial Teacher Education and Training



Mah-e-rukh Ahmed, 2008.

The above figure demonstrates that the initial teacher education (ITE) programme is structured by a range of dimensions, all of which will be considered in this study.

1.3.1 Administrative Systems and Organizational Structures

The management and administrative system (for example, policies, procedures, control and decision-making) should ensure that an institution functions effectively and in a responsive way to provide the high quality educational services necessary to enable quality professional preparation of teachers for the demands of work in the field (Throsby & Ganicott, 1990). Certain organizational structures put in place by government could enhance or impede the attainment of the stated aims of teacher preparation. It is important that the focus of management be on its stated function, rather than on its own administrative process. Highly centralized control may limit the ability of the institutions to respond effectively to local needs and even hinder the necessary flow of resources (Strivers, 1994; Velayutham, 1994). On the contrary, decentralization could allow for the gap between service providers and consumers to be narrowed. However, decentralized accountability and functioning can have a negative impact if there is a weak chain of command, ineffectiveness and inadequate infrastructure (Lewin and Stuart, 2003). According to Throsby and Ganicott (1990) decentralized management structures could lead to improvements in the performance of educational institutions and according to Karstanje (1999):

'Decentralization involves the assignment of decision-making tasks to a lower level. In the centralist system, this usually means a shift in decision-making powers from central government to local council level'. (P.29)

In developing countries, however, there is often an over-control of teacher education programmes and resources by the central offices. There are suggestions that decentralization could take the form of relatively more autonomous educational organizations, characterised as 'self-managing schools' (Caldwell, 2002).

1.3.2 Funding for Physical and Educational Resource Materials

The resources available for the professional preparation of teachers have a major impact on the quality of graduates and their ability to meet the demands of the work which they are expected to carry out (Hawes and Stephens, 1990; Throsby and Gannicott, 1990).

Documentary analysis and interviews were conducted to examine the availability of financial resources, physical facilities and educational resource materials for the professional preparation of teachers at teacher training institutions.

1.3.3 Curriculum of Teacher Education

The quality of teachers depends, to a large extent on the quality of their preparation and, in particular, the courses in their pre-service programme. The courses should be aligned with, and relevant to, the work and responsibilities they will meet inside and outside the classroom. The courses should also remain responsive to emerging ideas and issues related to teacher education. The teacher education curriculum should be broad-based and well-designed to ensure a smooth transition of the graduates into the teaching profession and, in particular, into the wider work environment comprising the classroom, the school and the community. This would also ensure that the teacher education programme meets the present, and attempts to predict the future, demands expected of teachers. The curriculum of teacher education is varied and contested, is widely criticised, and in many countries is in a state of flux. In different countries emphasis has recently been placed on the importance of education to help countries compete in global markets, on social transformation, on technology, as well as developing individual capacity (Perraton, et al., 2002).

Initial teacher education programmes usually have five strands: general education; specialist subjects; education foundation studies; professional studies; and

the practicum, including teaching practice. The OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1994: 14-15) has regarded the following types of ‘knowledge’ and ‘skills’ as being appropriate for teachers:

- Content knowledge or knowledge of the substantive curriculum areas required in the classroom;
- Pedagogic skills including the acquisition and ability to use a repertoire of teaching strategies;
- Reflection and the ability to be self critical, the hallmark of teacher professionalism;
- Empathy and commitment to the acknowledgement of the dignity of others;
- Managerial competence, as teachers assume a range of managerial responsibility within and outside the classroom.

A number of writers (for example, Bacchus, 2000; Baba, 1999; Thaman, 1998) have suggested that there is a particular need to regularly review and up-date pre-service courses to ensure that they are in line with the current demands required of teachers in the field. This thesis attempts to go some way toward meeting the challenge by examining England’s and Pakistan’s pre-service courses to determine whether they meet the work demands encountered by beginning teachers.

1.3.4 Duration of Teacher Training Programmes

The duration of teacher education programmes varies across systems from one year or even less to four or five years. That range exists in quite a variety of countries and seems not always to depend on the economic development level of the countries concerned.

Research indicates that, within reasonable limits, there is a positive correlation between length of pre-service education and the quality of teachers (Avalos, 1991,

Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991). That is to say, short duration pre-service education may not prepare teachers adequately for the range of work and responsibilities expected of them. An optimum period of pre-service teacher education could be between two to three years (Lingam, 2004). To have teachers suitably qualified for reforms and a broadening school curriculum demands a longer duration of pre-service education in order that they be well prepared, not only in respect of content, but also with regard to pedagogy (Carter, 1990; Logan et al., 1990). A short duration pre-service education is not sufficient to cover all areas of the curriculum adequately as teachers are not normally already prepared in both subject matter and pedagogical knowledge (Lingam, 2004). Most European countries now have a minimum of three years training for primary teachers (Galton, 1996). In more developed countries such as UK, USA, Australia and New Zealand, those who have completed a three-year degree, such as the Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of science degree programmes are able to complete a Diploma in Education or Post Graduate Certificate of Teaching (Galton, 1996). The worldwide trend is to increase the duration of pre-service teacher training programmes.

1.3.5 Career, Qualification and Role of Teacher Educators

Teacher educators are much talked about but rarely studied. John (1999) stated that:

'Fewer than two per cent of the entries on the ERIC database deal directly with them and it is paradoxical that those who purport to study others are they themselves so seldom the subjects of study'. (P. 5)

From a human resources development point of view, recruitment of well qualified and adequately experienced staff is needed in order to improve the quality of the teacher preparation programme. Lecturers at teachers colleges and university departments of education or teacher education are the key players responsible for the delivery of teacher education programmes and the preparation of future teachers. The underlying

assumption here is that better qualified staff, assuming reasonable workloads, can help raise the quality of the teaching profession. This notion is supported by evidence from the literature (for example, Berry and Loughran, 2002). Many teacher educators, whether teaching at a university or a teacher training institutes, do not have the educational background necessary to teach the existing teacher training curriculum effectively (John, 1999). Therefore they need to be upgraded in terms of their pedagogical knowledge and understanding.

1.3.6 Criteria for Selection of Student Teachers

Among the most important features of teacher education are the criteria and procedures by which candidates are selected or recruited for entry to programmes and institutions. Unlike some other professions, teaching often suffers from a shortage of qualified candidates for admission.

For the purpose of producing good quality teachers a comprehensive set of recruitment and selection criteria is desirable. Factors influencing recruitment include the status of the teaching profession; the supply of, and demand for teachers; and the economic resources of the system. Selecting suitably qualified candidates for teacher education is a matter of concern. Some of the questions that could usefully be asked in order to inform this process are:

- *How should they be selected?*
- *Is the academic record a good guide?*
- *Is an interview helpful?*
- *What other criteria of selection might we use?*
- *How can we tell if our selection system works?* (Elley, 1984: 14)

Student teachers are those pursuing professional studies to become teachers. A number of writers (for example, Darling-Hammond and Berry, 1988; Galambo, 1986) have indicated that comprehensive selection criteria can contribute to effective teacher preparation. For example, the quality of professional preparation of the teachers, and in turn, their ability to meet the demands of work in the field, depends partly on the basic qualifications with which they enter the pre-service programme (Logan et al., 1990; World Bank, 1990).

1.4 The Stakeholders

A stakeholder may be identified as:

Someone who has a legitimate interest in the organization and its activities and, as a result, may have some right to influence the direction of the organization. (Tuohy, 1997: 32)

Key stakeholders include the government, ITE providers, and teacher educators. Each category of stakeholder is positioned in the conceptual framework. Each stakeholder is assumed to be linked directly to the key factors which they represent. The extent to which the six dimensions influence stakeholders' perceptions or behaviour is difficult to determine. However, insight can be obtained through the interviewees' perceptions of the importance of such dimensions to the initial teacher education programme.

1.5 The Selection of Case Countries and Locations

The value of a cross-national comparison is 'to see schools of other countries not only as they appear in their own national contexts but in terms of other systems'; as it is important to 'appraise educational issues from a global rather than an ethnocentric

perspective' (Bereday, 1964: 6). As the provision and operation of all education, including teacher education is a culturally embedded phenomenon (Sigler, 1997), the broad cultural and historical dimensions of provision of teacher education in both countries are analysed in chapters 6 and 7.

While localities are undoubtedly distinctive, it is necessary to select cases for comparison that have sufficient similarities. Cross-nationally it can be problematic, especially when selecting two national cases where urban social development – with public education as a key component – needs to exhibit sufficient parallels (Smith, 1976 and 1977). For instance, there are significant differences between social and cultural aspects of education and language barriers in the delivery of the service. However, due to the limitations of what one researcher can hope to achieve in the scope of a three-four year doctoral programme, it was thought unwise to include the social and cultural aspects at this stage, although this situation is noted.

Although each case is unique, for a multiple case-study approach it is better to select locations with as high a degree of comparability as possible so as to maximise the potential value of replication logic that may arise from the analysis (Yin, 1994; Wolcott, 1990; Hammersley, 1987). This in turn will enhance the potential outcome of the research in its contribution to theory.

Within England, it was decided to avoid capital cities, but in the case of Pakistan, one capital city of the selected province was included, in order to reduce the level of differences between the two case locations.

The English Location

The English case-locations are provincial cities of two neighbouring counties with a combined population of about $243,595+85,616=329,211$ (UK Census, 2001) (The

population growth rate for England is 0.275 per cent (2007 est.). These cities have grown from both towns established in medieval times and particularly through large expansions in the nineteenth century and then the late twentieth century. These periods of significant urban growth represent very different economic developments. Much urban growth is associated with the establishment of a large working class population in traditional industries. More recent economic development- electronic and modern manufacturing industries, and social and professional sectors –are associated with the growth of a middle class. In this case, it was decided to select two main Higher Educational Institutes (HEIs) and two primary schools from these counties.

The Pakistani Location

The Pakistani case-locations are the two main cities of two districts in one province with a total area of about 28,773 square miles (74,521 square km), of which federally administered tribal areas, amount to 10,509 square miles (Britannica.com, 2007). According to the 1998 census, the total population of the province was approximately 17 million, out of whom 52 per cent were males and 48 per cent were females. In 2003 the estimated population of the province was 20,170, 000; and that of the federally administered tribal areas was 3,420,000 (Britannica.com, 2007). Again, both cities have a substantial history, both having been established in the nineteenth century.

The province has a long frontier with Afghanistan and is the guardian of the historic Khyber Pass and other trade routes with Central Asia and Afghanistan. Here also urban growth is associated with the establishment of a large working class population in various industries. The province has one of the largest sugar factories in

the whole of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. Coincidentally, one of the English cities involved has one of the largest sugar refineries in the UK.

1.6 Summary

The study examines the adequacy of teacher preparation in two countries, England and Pakistan. One main theme is the adequacy of ITE programme, and the influence of key dimensions and stakeholders on this process. A second theme of interest is how these compare cross-nationally and cross-culturally. Both themes are influenced by a wide range of dimensions which themselves overlap and interconnect to provide dynamic contexts (Griffin, 2001).

With this broad outline of the study, the discussion turns in chapter 2 to learn what the existing literature has to say about the system of teacher education and professional development of teachers. This will put the study in context of philosophical, historical and cultural forces on global and national scales. The chapter will also, as Brock (1996: 7) mentions ‘highlight the predicament of teachers in widely differing locations and situations in global perspective’.

CHAPTER TWO: PRE-SERVICE PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING: a global perspective

2.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out to review relevant available literature. First, it is useful to review literature pertaining to the importance of initial teacher education, and its global perspective. Second, a review is made of literature associated with selected aspects related to teacher preparation. This includes teacher professional preparation with respect to the organization of initial teacher education and professional development of teachers. ‘Such a research focus may also be taken as one case in the wider debate around the impact of globalisation on national educational policies and practices’ (Menter et al., 2006: 269). Much of the literature review is from western publications, as there is a paucity of research into teacher education in the South Asian region. Based on this review of literature, initial teacher education will be evaluated in the light of what is considered to be appropriate current practice in teacher education within England and Pakistan.

The World Declaration on Education for All and the Framework for Action which were agreed by all delegates at the Jomtien Conference of 1990 say remarkably little about the subject. One of the six areas identified for regional collaboration is ‘training of key personnel, such as planners, managers, teacher educators and researchers’ (UNESCO, 1992: 85), but there are only two or three brief side-references to teacher education throughout the rest of the two key documents (Iredale, 1996: 12). The Framework merely states that ‘depending on the outcomes desired, teachers have to be trained accordingly, whilst benefiting from in-service programmes as well as other

incentives of opportunity which put a premium on the achievement of these outcomes' (UNESCO, 1992: 81).

Teaching is without doubt one of the most rewarding professions. It offers constant intellectual challenge and stimulation, good career prospects and, above all, the opportunity to make a difference. Wise & Leibbrand (1993) argue that teaching becomes a profession when teachers practice with a common knowledge base and apply their knowledge to effective practice. Fullan (1991: 326) expands the definition to include 'the sum total of formal and informal learning experiences throughout one's career from pre-service teacher education to retirement'. Professional practice, based on an accepted knowledge base and state of the art pedagogy, lies at the heart of educational reform. To meet the demand of this century teachers need to be professionals and this professional development of teachers is a lifelong process. This process enables teachers to teach effectively at every level of education.

The main purpose of this chapter is to highlight the different aspects of pre-service primary teacher education. In order to assess the current scale of the issues relating to the teacher education of England and Pakistan, selected data published from 1944-2008 by various authors and agencies, such as government documents, are also analysed. This chapter outlines the need for changes and reforms in initial teacher education. The literature review includes discussion about the importance of teacher education, global perspectives on initial teacher education/training, and teacher professionalism.

2.2 Teacher Education and Training

As reflected in the literature from both developed and developing countries, it is evident that pre-service teacher education and training does make a positive contribution to the

teaching profession. This is the field which attracts much attention, doubts, criticism, reviews and challenges (Cameron and Baker, 2004; Hobon, 2004). Teacher Education is likely to include four elements: a) improving the general educational background of the trainee teachers; b) increasing their knowledge and understanding of the subjects they are to teach; c) pedagogy and understanding of children and learning; and d) the development of practical skills and competencies (Perraton, et al., 2002: 8). Teacher education is a part of what Western convention refers to as the 'social sciences' (Sharpes, 1988: 9). Yet researching teacher education in any developing country does not fit neatly into a single form of inquiry, because it is impossible to regard the education and training of teachers as 'a single methodological variable' (ibid: 9).

Teacher education and training is a crucial matter and its importance increasingly recognised. To perform any work effectively good knowledge and training are essential to acquire the skills to successfully accomplish it. Teacher education and training is a continuing process. Evans (1991), confirming this view, argues that initial, induction and in-service, are three successive stages through which the teacher is led towards professional development and mastery of the task. In most of the developed and less developed countries teacher education refers to a process of education and development prospective teachers go through as they prepare to enter the classroom for the first time in their role as teachers. It is normally assumed that teacher training satisfies both the theoretical and practical needs of the teaching environment; that a teacher who comes from training will know how to cope with the practical management and organization of instruction in the classroom, as well as the theoretical aspects of child development and learning. It cannot be assumed that a teacher will absorb this knowledge indirectly or will be able to apply theoretical knowledge to practical problems automatically without further instruction.

Teacher education, as it exists today, can be divided into two stages, pre-service or an initial teacher education¹ and in-service. Pre-service education includes all the stages of education and training that precede the teacher's entry to paid employment in a school. This is the first phase of teacher education (DeLandsheere, 1987). Anderson (1995: 571) defines it as 'the education that teachers receive before being licensed to teach' and Blair (1980: 327) states that 'pre-service education starts the engine for teacher education'. Pre-service teacher education commonly takes place in post-secondary institutions such as universities or teacher training colleges. Initial teacher education programmes usually have five strands: a) general education; b) specialist subjects; c) education foundation studies; d) professional studies; and e) the practicum, including practice teaching. In-service training is the education and training that the teacher receives after the beginning of his or her career. This research is concerned only with pre-service teacher education.

2.2.1 Pre-service/Initial Teacher Education and Training Programmes

Pre-service teacher education, which is the central core of teacher education, provides the teachers with initial capital of professional competencies. The primary purpose of pre-service teacher education/training is to provide a supply of high level qualified teachers in sufficient numbers to meet the needs of every school in every geographical location. Therefore, the type and level of the teacher education institutions depends on the structure of school education system. Pre-service teacher education is the first and important step of professional preparation in the long process of professional development of teachers. Initial teacher training of teachers is organized at three levels

¹ Pre-service teacher education is used mostly in Pakistan and initial teacher education and training in England. Therefore both words are used in this study for the same meanings.

in most countries - pre-primary teacher education, elementary teacher education and secondary teacher education.

With regard to teacher preparation programmes, Irving (1999) asserts that pre-service training or initial training refers to all programmes that aim to prepare teachers for the school profession, whether these programmes concern subject-specific learning or teacher training curricula or both. In other words, the concept of pre-service training refers to the process in which student teachers grow up professionally, through involvement in practical education, knowledge construction and behaviour acquisition (Mule, 2006).

Initial or pre-service teacher education varies dramatically around the world 'in such aspects as institutional context, content areas, time allocation, and forms of practical experiences for the students' (Ben-Peretz, 1995: 543). 'It also varies in how societies conceive of its purpose, although many societies consider this preparation as the only professional preparation teachers will receive in their career' (Villegas-Reimers and Reimers, 2000: 27).

The world has turned into a '*global village*', into which new ideas and information are pouring in a constant stream. All over the world, pre-service teacher education programmes are launched and offered in teacher training institutions, education colleges and universities. In many countries throughout the world, developed or developing, primary school teachers are trained differently from their counterparts in secondary education. They often have separate institutional training: the education of secondary teachers is normally set within universities while primary teachers are often trained in non-university institutions. For example, there are separate non-university teacher training institutions in the United Kingdom, India, Israel, and Pakistan to train primary teachers (cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003). In USA, England, Germany, France, Japan, Chile, Venezuela and Netherlands (Ben-Peretz, 1995; Villegas-Reimers, 1998)

pre-service teacher education takes place in the universities, having short programmes of one or two years, and long programmes of four to five years. In England, another scheme for teacher preparation takes place in the school setting (under the guidance of a university or college) and this trend moved the teacher preparation away from higher education and more into schools (Young, et al., 2007). In the USA, as in England, schools have become more involved in the preparation of teachers. As Glenn (2001) states a similar trend has emerged in the USA, as in England, towards shifting funds away from higher education to the schools. In Ukraine, Pedagogical Schools and Pedagogical Institutions arranged pre-service teacher education (Holowinsky, 1995). In Italy and Switzerland, teacher preparation takes place in 'Normal Schools' at senior secondary general level (Vonk, 1995).

Centralised control is probably the most common pattern of educational provision to be found throughout the world. Most of the countries around the world have centralised curricula for pre-service teacher education, in which the government designs the curriculum. For example, these are Germany, France, Italy (Vonk, 1995, cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003), and China (Zuoyu, 2002). In England, the central government has set policies and has gained greater control of the curriculum (Reid, 2000) and in Pakistan the Federal Government through a notification in the Gazette (1976) nominated the Curriculum Wing as the 'competent authority' to design and develop the curriculum (Siddiqui, 2001). In the case of decentralisation, Teacher Training Institutes have freedom to design their own curriculum, although usually within certain guidelines given by the government. Examples of this are Denmark, Sweden and Ireland (Vonk, 1995). Most pre-service teacher education programmes around the world have a mixed record of effectiveness. As Villegas-Reimers and Reimers (2000) point out:

- more importance has been given to subject knowledge rather than pedagogical skills;
- the curriculum of teacher education is theoretical and does not give teachers enough chance to practise their teaching;
- there is lack of well-trained staff and well equipped buildings and textbooks are not updated.

For this reason, Villeges-Reimers and Reimers (2000) suggest that there should be a balance between: a) subject knowledge and pedagogical skills; and b) practical and theoretical elements. Pre-service programmes worldwide provide student teachers with subject knowledge and basic knowledge for teaching, which has to be kept in mind as a guideline for the field. Although subject knowledge has a strong impact on student achievement, teachers must still have sufficient pedagogical skills especially related to the content.

Secondly, teacher education must include a practical element. Pre-service education always has been criticised for being overly theoretical, and not giving teachers enough chance to practise their teaching. The practical part of pre-service training is always viewed as the most powerful influence in the pre-service training or initial teacher education, especially, through contact and involvement with practising teachers and practical knowledge of teaching (Cope and Stephen, 2001). This view is supported by Caires and Almedia (2005) who emphasize that pre-service teaching practice could be a crucial experience directly and significantly affecting teachers' personal and professional development in terms of consolidating new skills and knowledge, developing interpersonal skills and interaction with a new set of situations. Romano (2005) also asserts that pre-service teachers' practice is fundamental for their development as teachers.

Thirdly, textbooks for teacher education ‘should be updated’ and pre-service institutions should be ‘well funded’ and staffed by ‘well-trained teacher-educators’ (Villegas-Reimers and Reimers, 2000: 27).

Pre-service teacher education cultures have been undergoing a shift from traditional models of pre-service teacher preparation, which focus on the dissemination of knowledge from ‘expert’ to ‘novice’, to new learner-centred models, which emphasise a curriculum based on ‘shared’ or ‘collective learning’ (Kiggins, 2001). Teaching practice within pre-service education would be a key strategy in providing student teachers with adequate skills to teach. In recent years there has been a shift of focus from individual learning to more situated learning in the field of education. A more recent variation is school-based mentoring, which is viewed as offering new criteria for determining competence: new forms of student involvement, cooperation, contract and commitment to mentored work. This strategy has become a crucial element in pre-service training programmes, based on the belief that:

‘the development of professional practice is most effective and beneficial when it takes place in the professional setting in collaboration with professional practitioners, i.e. experienced teachers’ (Jones and Straker, 2006:165).

In this sense, this perspective marks a new era of initial teacher education, which should enhance quality and effectiveness through depending more on mentoring and less on lecturing. However, whatever strategy is used for pre-service teacher training, teaching practice in the classroom would be the most effective way for providing student teachers with the professional skills and experience that will enable and motivate them to commence and sustain a teaching career.

With regard to extending the length of ITE programme, a number of countries have expanded the duration of their pre-service programmes to effect better preparation of teachers. There is a global trend of expanding the duration of teacher preparation to more than two years (Villegas-Reimers and Reimers, 2000). Hence, one year or two-

year duration of pre-service education is no longer expected to provide a sufficiently thorough preparation for primary teachers.

For a better educated workforce, teachers should be trained at graduate level and in multi-purpose settings such as universities. Birenbaum and Rosenau (2006) indicate a need to modify the current teacher education programmes towards better conditions for ‘necessary competencies for becoming a self-regulated, lifelong learning professional’ (p: 223). Otherwise, they argue, training itself would not be adequate to graduate professional teachers of sufficient quality.

2.2.2 Can Pre-service Teacher Education and Training Make a Difference?

There are two recurring claims made in the field of teacher education. The first claim is that teacher education does not make any difference to the way beginning teachers teach, or if it does, then such change is unpredictable and indirect (for example, Berry, 2004; Lowery, 2003; Zuoyu, 2002; Fletcher, 1997). The second claim is that teacher education programmes can make a difference to student achievement depending on the type of education programme and support that is put in place. In 2001, Cochran-Smith set out to disprove Ballou and Podgursky’s (1999) conclusion that: ‘teacher ability appears to be much more a function of innate talents than the quality of educational courses’ (p. 532). The literature appears to contain few studies such as that of Brownell, et al., (2005) who confidently claim that teacher education definitely influences what teachers do and how their students perform. Darling-Hammond (2000a) claims that:

‘Reviews of research over the past 30 years have concluded that even with the shortcomings of current teacher education and licensing, fully prepared and certified teachers are generally better rated and more successful with students than teachers without this preparation’. (P. 167)

In this context, according to Villegas-Reimers & Reimers, (2000), one study (Tatto, 1997) shows that teacher education has no obvious impact on teacher performance, is indicative that there are many teacher education programmes that are ineffective. Another study (Husen, et al., 1978) shows that there are teacher education programmes and policies that can change teacher practices and that, most successful reforms rely on them. In a review of 310 studies of teacher education since 1980, Tatto (1997) claimed that the structure of teacher education had changed very little and that the pedagogy in teacher training programmes tended to reinforce mere transmission, or a passive, model of learning. This suggests that few innovations in teaching had occurred over the previous twenty years. Conventional teacher education in general has been shown in many cases to have little impact on teacher learning or subsequent classroom instruction (Tatto, 1997; Warwick and Reimers, 1995). Examining the findings of 170 estimates of the impact of teacher education in various settings, Hanushek (2002) found that only 9 per cent of these estimates showed positive and statistically significant effects on student performance. On the other hand, Husen, et al. (1978) examined 32 studies and found that teacher education can make a difference – qualifications, experience and levels of education and knowledge were all positively associated with student achievement (cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1985: 220).

More recently, different international organisations have taken part to steer teacher education in particular directions. As a result, the context in which pre-service teacher education and training operates has broadened beyond national boundaries. Consequently any analysis needs to accommodate global perspectives. As Kenway, et al., (2003) observed, ‘These new forces of globalisation are bringing pressure to bear on national education policy’ (p.3).

2.3 Global Perspectives on Teacher Education

Globalisation has been defined as 'the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and *vice versa*' (Arnove, 1999: 2; Held, 1991: 9). The global process has resulted in the stimulation of large-scale systemic reform, but necessarily it transforms the local and even personal contexts of social experience also, hence the prevalence of the term '*global village*'. Globalisation has encouraged both global integration and national fragmentation (Taylor et al., 1997). The phenomenon of globalisation has entailed global economic interdependence, a process fostered by multi-national corporations. This has entered social, cultural and political spheres also, resulting in situations where the global and the local compete for expression. The World Trade Organisation (WTO), the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) are international political organisations and are keys in driving globalisation policy.

In Kazmi's (2005) terms:

'Three factors are mainly responsible for converging the world: the introduction of scientific and technological innovation; dismantling of the Eastern Bloc and emergence of the new regional blocs like The Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), the European Union (EU) and South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC); and dominance of the ideology of market-led regulation, initially applied to economic and financial exchanges, and now applied to a variety of other sectors of human activity including health and education'. (P. 91)

'Globalisation, both as a phenomenon and as a creed, may influence and affect education. Different thinkers, philosophers of education and educators entertain different and contrasting perspectives on existing global trends and tendencies' (Tonna, 2007: 90). Ibrahim (2005) argues that the challenges of the new millennium such as the rapid globalisation, the tremendous impacts of information technology, the international transformation towards knowledge-driven economy, and international and regional competition that have driven numerous educational changes in the different parts of the

world. Policy makers and educators in each country have to think how to reform education to prepare their potential leaders to cope more effectively with the challenges of the new era.

Globalisation poses fundamental challenges for all areas of education. At one level it provides, through economic liberalisation, unprecedented access to peoples, cultures, economies and languages. The education sector could also see its response to this phenomenon purely in market driven terms by enhancing the skills and knowledge required to be efficient consumers and workers in the global economy (First Annual Report, 1998) and ‘education cannot ignore the realities of the global market. But nor can it surrender to global commodification’ (Green, 1997: 186).

After these general considerations, ‘concerns are narrowed down to the effects of globalisation on education in relation to the teaching profession’ (Tonna, 2007: 88).

According to Reid (2000):

‘A view of the contents of education journals reveals that many societies are reviewing their methods of preparing teachers, though not all in the direction of centralisation and towards more school involvement’. (P. 223)

Many countries have accepted the idea that teachers’ education and teachers’ professional development are keys to any national reform on education. Throughout the world, teachers’ professional development takes place in very different formats and time frames. Boli & Ramirez (1986) argue that it is crucial that educational development is considered from a world perspective, since borrowing and diffusion of ideas is normal. Further it has to be appreciated that the importance of the preparation of teachers is such that it is, like education itself, a key concern of most societies and their governments around the world.

Around the world a majority of countries utilise pre-service and in-service programmes to promote professional development. Efforts are being made globally to improve teacher education programmes and enhance teachers’ professional

development in the wake of information and communications technology and growing notions of globalisation, including theories of free-trade market economy (Rehmani, 2006). It is important to recognize that despite the familiarity of these ideas there are important differences between the different countries in the way in which these processes of reform have been constructed. While there is convergence in the nature of the challenges in teacher education, the solutions to these challenges are different according to the cultural tradition of every country. That said, the ‘globalisation’ issue is relevant to this research, as it examines two countries from very different regions, normally classified as ‘*Western*’ and ‘*Eastern*’.

The way the system of training teachers has evolved can vary considerably from country to country, and even within one country, due to such factors as;

- the educational culture of the country;
- the historical development of teacher training;
- the schools system;
- financial resources and political imperatives;
- the supply and demand for teachers; and
- duration of teacher education programme.

An OECD (1996) paper demonstrated that many countries in the developed world were engaged in a process of ‘systemic reform’ of their education service. This is based on a growing awareness around the world that changing one element of an education system has knock-on effects on the rest of the system and that it is more effective to aim at changing the system as a whole (Townsend, 1996). Although a trend towards convergence has been promoted by the European Commission and OECD policies, systems of teacher education in Europe remain of ‘a highly heterogeneous nature’ (Buchberger et al, 2000: 12). On the other hand, the nature of teacher training in many countries of Asia and Africa has not had an outstandingly successful track record, for both structural and cultural reasons. Traditionally, initial teacher education has been

viewed as an academic pursuit, albeit at a lower level than university, and in countries where there are separate ministers of higher and ‘ordinary’ education, it is often grouped with higher education and accordingly administratively separated from the schools it is meant to serve (Iredale, 1996).

Cross-national convergence in educational policy and a standardisation agenda have been stimulated by supranational organisations acting in the field of education (Adick, 2002; Arnove, 1999). In initial teacher education specifically, Schnaitmann (1998) accounts for a trend of international convergence since the 1990s by the fact that around the world, technocratic rationality and technicism in teacher education programmes have been denounced. In the face of this criticism, teacher educators have attempted ‘to find a new way to integrate harmoniously the critical, the academic and the professional components of a teacher education programme’ designed to prepare teachers to become critical intellectuals (ibid: 156).

2.4 Initial Teacher Education and Training as the First Step in the Process of Teacher Professionalism

Ingvarson (1997) comments: “I do believe that schools are only as good as their teachers” (p.30). To improve the condition of the schools, it is suggested that teacher education is the most important factor in explaining why some schools perform well at helping students learn and others do not. The education of teachers matters for students’ learning (Rust & Dalin, 1990). Books, teaching kits and lab equipment are not useful without teachers. The performance of students is positively related to teacher quality (Nielson, 1990), and if teachers are given the opportunities to learn about and from new educational ideas, they can change their practice and indirectly influence student performance (Cohen & Hill, 1999).

It is logical to link the overall quality of schooling or even education to teachers, although it is extremely complicated. Therefore, ‘the teaching profession, teacher education, teacher development, teacher accountability and teacher employment are the all key issues for the practitioners, researchers and policy-makers’ (Zuoyu, 2002: 211). ‘Development in an education system can be judged by two factors: the level of general teacher education; and the amount of training they received’ (Beeby, 1966: 69). The main responsibility of a teacher is to enable the students with certain competencies (ibid) and teachers with good professional preparation are a catalyst for quality education (UNESCO, 1995). Teaching is a practical affair and this aspect should be reflected in the training of teachers (Maguire and Ball, 1995).

Professional preparation is the first step in every field of high level manpower development. ‘The professional development of teachers lies nested within school improvement, which in turn is part of the larger picture of educational change’ (Adey 2004: 5). Teacher education is the initial preparation of teachers in teachers’ professional development. From the time teachers begin any initial preparation or practice teaching, provision needs to be made for ongoing development of their subject matter and knowledge; concrete skills to teach, observe, assess, and reflect; incentives; and career growth (Craig et al., 1998). Teacher qualities such as competence in handling the teaching/learning process, and knowledge and skills in assessing and diagnosing pupils’ needs and learning difficulties are some of the additional factors which contribute to teacher effectiveness (Hughes, 1992). The trainees’ qualities need to be developed and shaped so that they are well prepared to operate successfully in different contexts, such as the classroom, the school and the community. If these qualities are not properly developed during pre-service education, then beginning teachers will have feelings of inadequacy when dealing with essential tasks at the classroom, school and community levels.

Improvement in teacher quality is sought in the development of initial teacher education and training. Vonk (1990) related teacher's quality to 'teachers' effectiveness' (p.73) and in order to improve the quality of teaching and to bring about teacher effectiveness Mulshewane (1995, 1999) suggests that 'teacher development must be planned, coordinated and executed properly' (p.156, p.254). 'Teacher effectiveness is usually indicated by such characteristics as formal academic study, teacher training, subject mastery, verbal ability and attitudes towards teaching' (Haddad, 1990: 49). Most of these characteristics could be developed during pre-service education. Pre-service teacher education, therefore, can contribute significantly in terms of improving teacher effectiveness in all the areas of work expected of them. McGinn and Borden (1995) comment that the level of formal academic education is the best predictor of teacher effectiveness, if effectiveness is measured as students' achievement. Thus, schools can function effectively only if they are staffed with well-prepared teachers who are well grounded in their work and address their responsibilities. This is significantly influenced by the quality of teachers' professional preparation.

2.5 Professional Development of Teachers

'The development of a nation depends significantly upon education. The development of education depends on teachers. Essentially, teachers' knowledge, skills, attitudes, morale, devotion, motivation and commitment play a decisive role in raising the quality of any education system'. (Sun and Jong, 2001: 398)

Day (1997) believes that 'investing in education means investing in the continuing professional development of teachers' (p.53). It is impossible to improve schools without first improving the quality of teachers. Improvement in teacher quality is sought in the development of initial teacher education (ITE), further education and in-service education of teachers (INSET). This improvement is directly related to the

professional development of the teachers. It is not a simple task, especially in this age and time when teaching is in the midst of a great transformation. Ingvarson (1997) asserts the professional status of the teacher as follows: ‘To have the best schools, we must have the best teachers. What teachers know and can do is the most important influence on what students learn’ (p.31). Teachers are always at the heart of the educational process in terms of transmission of cultural heritage, developing human resources for work and for life, so teachers are the most important element in the learning process at all times and in all cultures. In Adey’s (2004) terms:

Human teachers are and will remain at the centre of the educational system, and thus the continuing professional development of teachers remains the most important force in the quest for educational improvement. (P: 3)

The professional development of teachers is the result of their education and experiences in their careers. It is a lifelong process which commences with the initial preparation of the teachers and continues with all the educational experiences, professional opportunities, and courses that are systematically planned and experienced by teachers until the end of their teaching career (Villeges-Reimers and Reimers, 2000). Setting professional standards and redefining what it means to be professional in teaching are at the forefront of educational reform. Universities and unions, governments and business all have aspirations to raise the professional status of teaching and establish professional standards in their work. ‘Professional development and training are experiencing sweeping changes, professional standards are being created, self-regulation, professional bodies for teachers are being set up’ (Goodson and Hargreaves, 1996: vii). Aspirations for greater professionalism in teaching are admirable, but what such professionalism might mean is often vague, unclear or contested. Moreover, they claim what teachers themselves think about professionalism or what they experience under its name are addressed all too rarely (ibid: 1996).

Professional development addresses issues of competence that are measured by: an educators' mastery of an academic subject; the educators' understanding of learner development; classroom management; learning processes and instructional strategies (Vonk, 1990). Professional development addresses competence by 'considering its three dimensions of professional competence: subject matter knowledge; didactical and pedagogical knowledge; and skills' (Bisschoff and Gobler, 1998: 197).

2.5.1 Elements of Professional Development

The notion of teacher professional development implies two concepts: (a) the concept of teaching as a profession, and (b) the concept of teachers as professionals (Gu, 2004). Teaching embodies the four critical elements of a profession described by Corrigan and Haberman (1990) as; knowledge base, quality control, resources, and conditions of practice. Teachers possess the key characteristics of professionals who are 'equipped through specified and prolonged preparation to use validated practices and to apply them intelligently' (Doyle, 1990: 7-8). According to Jeff and Gunstone, (1997) the meaning of professional development is:

- *knowing and implementing system and school policies (Delivery)*
- *understanding and modifying changes with experiences (Follow up)*
- *developing new teaching and assessment strategies (Teacher Research)*
- *acknowledging their own and their colleagues' achievement (PD part of teaching role)*
- *documenting and sharing experience (the teacher's voice). (P. 51)*

The four levels beyond the first all require interaction with colleagues' and it would seem important for all new teachers to experience each of the levels of professional development. The second level highlights the importance of teachers developing personal understanding and accepting their responsibility to be independent

learners about teaching and learning. Level 3 highlights the ability of teachers to develop teaching and assessment strategies, the important 'second wave' of activity as new educational programmes and policies are introduced to schools. It needs to be recognised that only teachers can turn the policies and ideas into practice (ibid: 1997). Many researchers of teachers' professional development (Day, 1999; Elliot, 1999) feel that self-determination and autonomy are hallmarks of professionalism. Hustler et al., (2003) comment that there is evidence of much variation in teachers' perceptions, knowledge and understanding of the processes and products of professional development. Day (1999) advocates a synchronisation of institutional and personal development approaches, in order to maximise the opportunities for change and development in schools.

According to Darling-Hammond (1997: 298), 'an occupation becomes a profession when it assumes responsibility for developing a shared knowledge base for all of its members and for transmitting that knowledge through professional education, licensing, and ongoing peer reviews'. Weiler (1995) believes that professionals can bring highly specialized expertise to solve complex problems. Professionals are at the apex of a hierarchical model of occupations, experts in a particular field, and ideally employ advanced knowledge for the common good.

'There are five criteria of teachers' professionalism: social functions, knowledge, practitioner autonomy, collective autonomy, and professional values' (Hoyle, 1995: 13). Goodson and Hargreaves (1996: 20) identify seven principles of a new professionalism for teachers that they term 'post modern', which seek to extend the debate on teacher professionalism beyond "the recent clamour for technical competency and subject knowledge". These are: 'discretionary judgement; moral and social purpose; collaboration; heteronomy; active care; continuous learning and complexity' (p.21).

Hargreaves & Lo, (2000: 167) argue that ‘teaching is a paradoxical profession’. Indeed, today it is a uniquely paradoxical profession. Of all the jobs that are professions or aspire to be so, teaching is the only one that is now charged with the formidable task of creating the human skills and capacities that will enable societies to survive and succeed in the age of information. According to Burke (1996):

a professional vision of teaching raises the sights of teachers, lowers their defensive barriers, broadens their educational horizons, gives them a sense of pride/ownership of and responsibility for their area, and creates a climate in which constant development through initial, induction and in-service education, though demanding of its nature, will be seen as normal and necessary. (P. 537-8)

Even, and especially so in developing countries, it is teachers, more than anybody, who are expected to build learning communities, create the knowledge society and develop capacities for innovation, flexibility and commitment to change that are essential to economic prosperity and development in the twenty-first century.

2.5.2 Professional Development of Teachers in the Age of Globalisation

The professional development of teachers has been a global concern for the last 40 years at least. The last four decades have seen ‘a growing recognition of the importance of arranging opportunities for the continuing professional development of the teacher’ (Beeson, 1987:103). During the latter half of the 1990s, there has been resurgence in the interests of professional development for teachers around the world. The main reason for this is that professional development for teachers has increasingly been viewed as a ‘fundamental ingredient’ of successful educational reform and local school improvements (Bredeson & Scribner, 2000; Joyce & Showers, 1995).

Teachers' professional development has a serious impact on the quality of education received by children and adolescents all over the world, and is central to implementing educational change and to enabling schools to educate all children. Throughout the world the professional development of teachers takes place in very different formats and times. While many in the West think of teachers who have received some serious and systematic professional education by the time they come to the classroom to teach, in most countries of the world, teachers develop their professional skills as teachers only when they are on the job, often as totally unqualified teachers (Villeges-Reimers & Reimers, 1996). Some develop those skills by receiving some form of professional preparation and support while in the classroom; others only develop some of those skills, and they do it on their own, simply based on their experiences and mistakes.

Many governments around the world identify the need to educate teachers as professionals well before they enter the classroom, and to continue teachers' professional development in a systematic way after they have received a degree, but they cannot always attend to do so (Villeges-Reimers & Reimers, 2000). The way teacher educators, administrators, and policy-makers think about teachers and about their professional development influences the kind of teacher education approaches they are likely to prefer and foster. Most countries have accepted the idea that teachers' professional development is key to any national reform on education. Among policy makers, researchers and practitioners, there is an emerging consensus that teacher professional reform is vitally important to educational reform in general as we move through the 21st century. Teacher professional development is critically important to school improvement focused on enhanced student learning outcomes and teacher competences (Bredeson, and Johansson, 2000; Bissschoff and Gobler, 1998).

2.5.3 Teacher Education and Teacher Professional Development: what is the difference?

That teacher education has an important role in teachers' professional development and pre-service training is a basis for all professional development. Teacher education is understood as a professional development continuum that normally begins in an institutional setting. As teachers move along this continuum to eventual retirement, they should improve their understanding of content, the quality of their instructional strategies, and their decision-making capability in order to deal with children and young people of different ability, gender, and cultural backgrounds (UNESCO, 1998).

Wallace (1991) distinguishes between teacher education on the one hand and teacher development on the other. Whilst the former, in his perspective, can be externally provided, development is achieved through personal commitment and pursuit. Wallace argues that 'training or education is something that can be presented or managed by others, whereas development is something that can be done only by and for oneself' (p.3). Such a distinction is not accurate. Firstly, teacher education also needs personal motivation and commitment and secondly, whilst it is true that development is a personal project, it can be externally supported in the individual's workplace or through formal educational experiences. Eraut (1994) argues that 'the need for at least some off-the-job learning has been recognised by most professional workers' (p.10). This is because not all individuals are reflective practitioners, nor can all reflective practitioners scrutinise their action or subject it to conscious criticism without external support (Day, 1999).

According to Tang (2003: 483), 'the field experience (real teaching) is the most important component of the student teacher's professional learning'. Accordingly,

teaching practice within pre-service teacher training has always been regarded as the cornerstone for teachers' professional development. As Graham (2006) states that, 'Student teaching is eagerly and anxiously anticipated by pre-service teachers, and remembered as a significant milestone by in-service teachers' (p: 1118).

Edge (1995) also distinguishes between teacher education and teacher development in a similar way. He stresses the role of the individual in his/her development. However, the focus on the self in Edge's distinction does not imply working in isolation. Edge explains that first the individual's development is in his/her own hands with or without official training and education as a teacher. Secondly, members of an organisation, society, or culture co-operate to overcome problems, reduce frustrations and improve performance. Richards (1998), notes the distinction between teacher training and teacher development by highlighting 'the need to reorient training away from the mere imparting of skills towards the notion of the teacher as a 'critical and reflective thinker' (p.xiv).

From the above definitions and discussions it becomes clear that professional development is a learning process that continues throughout a working life. If pre-service teacher training programmes equip teachers with skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary to take up teaching as a profession, in-service teacher training ensures that the acquired skills, knowledge and attitudes continue to grow and improve with the changing times.

2.6 Summary

This chapter had three main objectives to derive from a review of the literature. The first was to present a brief synopsis of initial teacher education and professional

development of teachers. The second was to outline the importance of both themes in terms of globalization. The third was to show the interaction of initial teacher education and professional development of teachers.

It is hoped that by this stage the problems, identity, focus and context of this study are clear. A detailed outline of the data collection and analysis procedures adopted during the research now follows in chapter 3.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN, STRATEGY AND METHODS

3.1 Introduction

Abu Hatab and Sadeq (1991) identified four main ways in which research methodology in the educational, psychological and social sciences can be classified:

1. *According to the time dimension, such as Historical, Empirical and Predictive Research;*
2. *According to the size of the specimen, such as the Case Study, Survey Research and Qualitative Research;*
3. *According to the use of variables, such as Correlation Research; and*
4. *According to the goal, such as Descriptive, Comparative and Development Research. (P. 55-56)*

The methodology employed for the execution of this research is a threefold approach: *documentary, empirical and comparative*. Documentary analysis was carried out to obtain relevant information on current policies and practices in initial teacher education. The empirical approach taken in this study is qualitative in nature. Semi-structured interviews were used, as they are ideal for exploring issues and for gaining an in-depth understanding of a situation. A comparative approach was used in the analysis of the data gathered so as to enrich the outcome and understanding of both case studies.

With the purpose of the thesis established, a conceptual framework constructed, the historical and global content reviewed and the contemporary research literature critiqued, it is now time to turn to the primary research conducted in the field so as to be able to address the research questions.

3.2 Questions and Approaches

Research Questions

The aims and objectives of this study can be highlighted by the following research questions:

- *To what extent does the initial teacher training programme in England and Pakistan provide an adequate preparation for all the needs of teachers?*
- *To what extent do the provision for pre-service teacher education and training meet the needs of teachers for continuous professional development?*
- *To what extent can a comparative study of these issues between two countries help to identify the problems involved?*

It is important first to identify assumptions made within these questions, so as to highlight potential problems with the reliability and validity of the research (Wolcott, 1994). Identifying potential weaknesses goes some way to reducing any inherent bias that might otherwise threaten the credibility of the research.

3.2.1 Assumptions and Potential Weaknesses

‘It is impossible to begin serious research without a framework of assumptions, concepts, and theory’ (Neuman, 2003: 413).

The First Research Question

The main assumption made within the first research question is that there are certain dimensions involved in adequate preparation to meet all the needs of teachers in England and Pakistan. Six dimensions (*see chapter 1*) have been identified on the basis of both a literature review and documentary analysis (*Chapters 2, 4 and 5*). The

literature review demonstrated that every dimension contributes directly to the preparation of beginning teachers in both countries. It is assumed that the research cannot be conducted without taking account of the influence of these dimensions. It is also assumed that the empirical research methods have been designed to cover the issues of adequacy, effectiveness and quality of pre-service teacher education.

The Second Research Question

The main assumption underlying the second research question is that pre-service teacher training meets the needs of teachers for continuous professional development. It is assumed that pre-service teacher training is the first and strongest rung on the ladder of continuous professional development.

The Third Research Question

The third question related to the execution of a comparative analysis, is in a sense a 'leading question', although it is asserted in the literature quoted that such an approach would be profitable in generating or enhancing theory. So, the underlying assumption is that comparative study of different dimensions between England and Pakistan can help to identify the problems as well as enhancing the possibility of solutions.

3.2.2 Hypotheses

Payne & Payne (2004) state that:

'a hypothesis is a reasoned but provisional supposition about the relationship between two or more social phenomena, stated in terms that can be empirically tested and which forms the focus of research, particularly in quantitative studies'. (P.112)

The word *hypothesis* is generally used in a more restricted sense in research to refer to conjectures that can be used to explain observations. The researcher used hypotheses to guide the research. Although, as is explained in the section on ‘qualitative research’, the nature of this approach does not necessarily require hypotheses, the researcher found that they are useful to give direction to the inquiry. Hypotheses were therefore not accepted or rejected, but rather developed and modified as the analysis continued. This process served to structure the research (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992).

According to Burns (2000):

‘A hypothesis is a hunch, an educated guess which is advanced for the purpose of being tested. If research were limited to gathering facts, knowledge could not advance. Without some guiding idea or something to prove, every experiment would be fruitless, since we could not determine what was relevant and what was irrelevant’. (P: 105)

The researcher’s hypotheses changed in their nature and form as the study progressed.

However, the hypotheses developed in this research were:

- That the initial teacher training programme provides an adequate preparation for all the needs of teachers;
- That the provision for pre-service teacher education and training operates very differently in different educational cultures of every country;
- That the adoption of a cross-national comparative multi-case study approach would help to identify the problems involved in initial teacher education in both countries and locations selected.

Hypotheses act as a ‘useful bridge between the research question and the design of the enquiry’ (Robson, 1993:28). This is because within qualitative research the hypothesis often comes after the data collection. If the interpretative approach is taken here, the data collection and analysis are not rigidly separated. Similarly, ‘initial theory formation takes place before, during and after the analysis of the data, and it is constantly checked as the process continues, right to the end’ (p.19). Verma and Beard

(1981) define a hypothesis as ‘a tentative proposition which is subject to verification through subsequent investigation and it may also be seen as a guide to the researcher in that it depicts and describes the method to be followed in studying the problem’ (p.184). They add, ‘in many cases the hypotheses are hunches that the researcher has about the existence of relationships between variables’ (p.184). Therefore, hypotheses are used as aids or signposts to guide the analysis of data.

3.3 Qualitative Research

This research has its philosophical underpinning in the qualitative research tradition. Qualitative research is a form of inquiry that explores phenomenon in their natural settings. It uses ‘soft data’ in the form of impressions, words, sentences, photos and symbols to collect data about events, processes, programmes, issues and activities as they happen within real-life contexts (Neuman, 2006; Lankshear and Knobel, 2004). Qualitative research is concerned with the relationship and the interaction between the researcher and the research participants in such a social context, which helps them to understand the world from their viewpoints and elaborate or generate theory (Cohen et al. 2007). Qualitative data tends to provide the researchers with rich descriptions of the events that are investigated. Often qualitative research uses multi-methods to gain a thorough understanding of context. This is a particular kind of enquiry that needs to be explained in detail before proceeding. Moreover, the researcher’s experience of doing both quantitative (in her MEd Dissertation) and qualitative research here led her to realise a greater relevance in the latter for the particular enquiry.

3.3.1 The Nature of Qualitative Research and its Philosophical Underpinning

The two fundamental paradigms among research philosophers are ‘positivism and phenomenological inquiry’ (Collies and Hussey, 2003:47). The terms philosophies and perspectives are also used by some authors ‘in order to explain the difference between the two main traditions of inquiry’ (Smith, et al., 2002: 28). These research paradigms tend to be associated with two distinct research approaches, qualitative and quantitative.

The positivism paradigm uses quantitative and experimental methods to test hypothetical deductive generalisations. In contrast, phenomenological (interpretive science) inquiry uses qualitative and naturalistic approaches to understand human experience inductively and holistically in a specific setting (Neuman, 2006; Smith et al., 2002; Amaratunga et al., 2001). From the perspective of research paradigms, there are clear differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches.

The division between the two research paradigms, qualitative and quantitative, has a long history and is well documented in the literature (Boulton and Hammersley, 1996; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). Qualitative research is often referred to as ‘naturalistic research’ which, as mentioned above, claims that human behaviour can best be understood by exploring it in its natural settings (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The latter paradigm, quantitative, often occurs in a more ‘controlled’ setting (such as psychological or scientific experiments) and is also referred to as the ‘positivistic’ paradigm (Hackings, 1990). This is one of the main distinguishing factors between qualitative and quantitative research and consequently, one of the main reasons why the researcher chose the qualitative approach. The reason for the differences between the two paradigms is because they are grounded in different epistemologies (Cassell and Symon, 1994).

Qualitative research emphasises inductive analysis, description and perception in the natural setting, rather than the focus on measurement and manipulation of variables which characterises the experimental method of the quantitative paradigm (Creswell, 1994). It provides more understanding of the interaction of ‘mutually shaping influences’ and makes explicit the interacting realities and experiences of researcher and participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 40). The purpose of qualitative research, therefore, is to focus on understanding the people under study. This is an appropriate paradigm to use when the study is subjective and humanistic in nature and emphasises a focus on people's subjective experiences and interpretations of the world.

This involves direct contextualised interaction, rather than an experimental situation. Qualitative research has been defined in the literature as a means of examining peoples’ ‘words and actions in narrative or descriptive ways more closely representing the situation as experienced by the participants’ (Cassell and Symon, 1994: 2) which exactly fits the design of this research. Before proceeding to the design and structure of the research, the philosophical epistemology, which forms the rationale for such an approach, will now be examined.

Philosophical Underpinning of the Present Research

The philosophical underpinning of this research draws on the naturalistic paradigm, particularly Lincoln and Guba’s notion of human behaviour (1985). The ‘vital’ philosophical approach, i.e., the positivistic paradigm, derived originally from the scientific method, is often referred to as the ‘dominant’ paradigm (Hacking, 1990). The dominant paradigm derives from a positivist movement owing partly to the success of the natural sciences in testing phenomena through the use of the ‘scientific method’. The assumption behind such a paradigm is that ‘there is an objective truth existing

where the focus is on measuring relationships between variables systematically and statistically' (Cassell and Symon, 1994: 2).

Whereas the positivistic approach focuses primarily on prediction, control and explanation (Stromberg, 1986), the qualitative, or what is often referred to as the 'alternate' paradigm, focuses on understanding the meaning of events, actions and contextualised interactions between people within particular contexts (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). This is because the 'alternate' paradigm grew out of the '*hermeneutic*' (anti-positivist trend) tradition. This epistemology rejected the 'methodological monism of positivism' as the 'sole and supreme ideal for a rational understanding of reality' (Wright, 1993: 11). As a result, the qualitative technique develops from phenomenological and interpretative frameworks where there is an acknowledgement that 'there is no clear-cut objectivity or reality' (Cassell and Symon, 1994: 2). Consequently, the qualitative research approach takes 'an inductive form of inquiry' as its method (Anderson and Arsenault, 1998: 119). The inductive approach enables the researcher to observe a phenomenon (Best & Kahn, 2006) and analyse the observation (Bryman, 2004) and its nature is more open-ended and exploratory, especially in the beginning. So, the phenomenological paradigm is more consistent with the ideals of a cross-cultural approach for studying and understanding the experiences, perspectives, and identity development of a small sample of the experience-rich participants of this study.

3.4 Research Design

A research design is concerned with 'turning research questions into a project' (Robson, 1993: 38). Yin (1994) defines research design as 'an action plan for getting here to there, where 'here' may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered, and 'there' is

some set of conclusions about these questions. Between 'here' and 'there' may be found a number of major steps, including the collection and analysis of relevant data (p.19). Kerlinger (1973) explains that the research design is a plan, an outline and scheme which elaborates what the investigator will do, from formulating the hypotheses to the analysis of data. It is said to be concerned with two purposes: (1) to provide answers to research questions and (2) to control variance. Marsh (2000) believes that it provides a full picture as to how to proceed towards the stipulated aim. All this clarifies that there are different designs and different methods (De Vaus, 2001) and their application and selection depends upon the nature of the study (Crotty, 1998). This study is concerned with investigating and exploring the views of officials, teacher educators, student teachers and teacher mentors involved in participatory development, about the adequacy of initial teacher education programmes in England and Pakistan.

3.4.1 Documentary Research

'Documentary analysis is commonly referred to as Content Analysis' (Robson, 1993: 272). Merriam (1998) uses the term 'document' to refer to print and non-print materials. Documentary research is, in both its primary and secondary forms, an indirect mode of data collection, as the researcher is not involved in observing, interviewing or surveying. For the most part, it is an unobtrusive measure (Robson, 2002) of data collection, which may be conducted in libraries, archives, offices and such institutions of public administration.

Documentary research involves the use of texts and documents as source materials: government publications, newspapers, certificates, census publications, novels, film and video, paintings, personal photographs, diaries and innumerable other written, visual and pictorial sources in paper, electronic, or other 'hard copy' form

(Scott, 2006). Caution must be exercised in the analysis of such documents, depending on how their content has been derived and for what purpose (Barzun and Graff, 1977). In the present study, documentary analysis was carried out to obtain relevant information on current policies and practices in initial teacher education and training. To ascertain this, written accounts from different sources were scrutinized and analysed. These sources were categorized as primary or secondary sources.

Primary Sources

Primary sources are those which come into existence in the period under research (Bell, 2005). These included the teacher training institutes' handbooks, bulletins, inspection reports and annual review reports; minutes of a school's governors' meeting and yearly planning review reports. These documents provided very useful information about course approval and certification of students.

Secondary Sources

Secondary sources are interpretations of events of that period based on primary sources (Bell, 2005). These written accounts included international reports and journals, education policy documents, addresses given by Government officials, Ministry of Education Annual Reports and newspaper articles. These documents indicated the international and national views and intentions with regard to initial teacher education and training. The primary and secondary, both sources were evaluated on the basis of the framework derived from review of literature as well as being used to cross-check with informants during interviews. Such literature has already been referred to in chapters 2, 4 and 5. These written accounts provided a range of useful data, and in so doing contributed to the scope and understanding of the present study. The documentary component was necessarily employed first for a number of reasons:

- to obtain relevant information on current policies and practices in pre-service teacher education;
- to explore key secondary resources that would contextualise the research;
- to conduct a literature review of related research; and
- to gather data from primary sources at the local level.

One of the key issues is in the selection and evaluation of the most appropriate and reliable sources of documentary evidence to inform the topic of interest (Robson, 1993). The process of selection is explained in *Table 3.1*. In the present study, documentary analysis was carried out to obtain relevant information on current policies and practices in pre-service teacher education. The documentation collected may come from any of the four scales: International; national; regional; and local.

Table 3.1: Main Sources of Documentary Research

<u>1</u>	International level	International Journals; Commission and Survey Reports by International bodies such as UNESCO, World Bank and OECD etc.
<u>2</u>	National Level	Federal Government Educational Acts and Policies; National Journals and Periodicals; National Newspapers; National Departmental Reports and Documents of Interest. Circular of Federal Ministry of Education.
<u>3</u>	Regional/Provincial level	Provincial Government Policies; Regional Books, Documents; Regional Annual Inspection Reports; Provincial/Regional Newspapers and Magazines
<u>4</u>	Local Level	Internal Institution Policy Documents, Regulation and Reports; Governing Body Regulations; Local Newspapers

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Given the nature of this study and the research questions, a qualitative approach was judged as likely to be the most appropriate. This study necessitates employing the multiple case-studies approach. Although case-studies are criticised for lack of

generalizeability (Punch, 1998; Bryman, 1988) however, their propositions can be effectively utilized for others.

The main intention of this empirical research is to understand the effectiveness and adequacy of initial teacher training in all ITT providers, the researcher decided to take a case-study approach, as context is a vital part of the case study design.

3.4.2 The Case-Study Approach

Case-study is a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence (Robson, 2002). Yin (2002) also supported this idea and also noted that case studies should not be confused with qualitative research per se. In case study design either one case or many cases may be taken (Yin, 1994; Platt, 1988) for detailed and in-depth (Bulmer,1988) investigation by whatever methods (Punch,1998) of social entities like communities, social groups, organisations, events, life histories, families, work teams, roles or relationships (Hakim, 1992).

The case-study is here defined as ‘an in-depth multi-facet investigation, using qualitative research methods of a single social phenomenon’ where the case-study is either the examination of a ‘single instance of a phenomenon under investigation’ or ‘an instance of a broader phenomenon, as part of a larger set of parallel instances’ (Feagin, Orum and Sjoberg, 1991: 2). Or as Stenhouse (1978a), puts it ‘the case-study is an approach to understanding a situation in its totality’ (p. 24). The case-study is an appropriate research tool for the purposes of this study.

There are several fundamental lessons that can be conveyed by the case-study:

- *It permits the grounding of observations and concepts about social action and social structures in natural settings studied at close hand;*
- *It provides information from a number of sources and over a period of time, thus permitting a more holistic study of complex social networks and of complexes of social action and social meanings;*
- *It can furnish the dimensions of time and history to the study of social life, thereby enabling the investigator to examine continuity and change in life world patterns;*
- *It encourages and facilitates, in practice, theoretical innovation and generalisation.* (Feagin et al., 1991: 6)

All of the above facets of case-study research are in accord with the conceptual framework already described. Although a case-study may employ both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection procedures, it is more common that qualitative methods use the main tool employed for the purpose of achieving greater ‘depth and detail’ (ibid: 3).

There are many strengths and weaknesses of case-studies. Among the strengths are that it helps the researcher to study in depth the relationships of individuals and small groups in their natural settings (Moore, 2006; Walsh, 2001). It encourages familiarity and close contact with the informants. In addition, it gives the researcher freedom to select different sources and methods. Furthermore, it concentrates on direct life experiences. Finally, it produces data or knowledge that covers the whole unit and not only small aspects of it (Sarantakos, 2005). On the other hand, the result does not allow inductive generalisation, because it is connected to the units of analysis. There is no guarantee of objectivity, validity and reliability of its outcome, because it may be influenced by personal impressions. In addition, case-study research cannot be replicated. Moreover, case-studies can be used to generate hypotheses or theory, but not to test them as the case of this research (Maanen, 2000). Finally, there are always

limitations of access to the field and to personal and subjective information, which constitutes the basis of case-studies (Sarantakos, 2005).

Again, whether case-study is appropriate largely depends on the research questions, their assumptions and the research method most appropriate to its construction. The value of the case-study approach in comparative education has long been advocated (Stenhouse, 1979). However, despite its special qualities, its potential has still not been maximised (Crossley and Vullimy, 1984). This is true particularly when applied at the local levels, as it is able to focus on, ‘the complexities of educational practices’ which in turn can lead to ‘important modifications to both educational policies and comparative theories of educational systems’ (ibid, p.204).

3.4.3 Multiple-Case Studies

The purpose of multiple-case studies is similar to that of individual case studies: they seek to investigate a common phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. This kind of case-study involves many more ‘variables of interest’ than data points, which means the researcher must rely on multiple sources of evidence, and this information needs to converge at the point of interest, i.e. the research question (Yin, 1994: 11).

According to Yin (1989) conducting multiple-case studies is similar to conducting multiple experiments. The purpose in the case of this project is to replicate a similar study in different locations so as to be able to provide enough evidence to arrive at an analytical generalisation at the end of the study, and possibly to contribute to theory. Naturally, the more cases under study the better one can assess the validity, reliability and replicability of such ‘theory’. The value of multiple case-studies is that,

by virtue of the number of in-depth analysis of locals, they help to explain in some detail the following:

- *Causal links in real life interventions that are too complex for the survey or experimental strategies;*
- *An intervention and the real life context in which it occurred;*
- *Certain topics within an evaluation form, in a descriptive mode;*
- *Situations in which intervention has no clear single set of outcomes.* (Yin, 1994: 14)

Yin (1994), comments that the comparative case-study is a distinctive form of multiple case-study, one which performs all of the above functions, but within the cross-national comparative approach. Miles and Huberman (1984), recommend using matrices to document the data and analysis of multiple-case studies. Bereday (1964) also recommends the use of matrices. He suggests this should be applied to document points of interest.

3.4.4 Qualitative Survey

The semi-structured interview is ideal for exploring issues and for gaining an in-depth understanding of a situation. While Kvale (1996) believes that the purpose of the interview is ‘to understand the world from the subjects’ point of view’ (p.1), and Brown and McIntyre (1993) believe it is to ‘get it.....professional knowledge and thought...knowledge which is not generally made explicit’ (p.19). Interviewing plays a key role in educational/social researches. McPherson & Raab (1988) and Humes (1986) have respectively argued for interviews as the main method of data collection in educational policy research.

Gage (1993) has shown that the ‘allegation of obviousness may now be countered with the research result that people tend to regard even contradictory results

as obvious' (p: 237). Similarly, Cooper and McIntyre (1996) believe that such perspectives, which seem 'obvious in retrospect', have 'transformed the face of educational research' (p.3).

This study used semi-structured interviews as the main method to answer the research questions. This is because this type of method helps the researcher to understand the viewpoints of stakeholders (Boutelle, 2004). The overriding purpose was to gain an in-depth understanding of the perceptions of those interviewed, who, in this study were the main individuals involved, officials, teacher educators, student teachers, mentors and principals. This method helped the researcher to gain in-depth information about the teacher education programmes and be closer to her respondents. In addition, semi-structured interviews gave the researcher an opportunity to probe what the respondents said. The researcher also discovered and made use of unexpected and unforeseen information as it was revealed.

3.5 Comparative Educational Research

Comparative education seeks to make sense of the similarities and differences among educational systems (Bereday, 1964: 5). The comparative perspective provides a particularly useful research instrument to try to identify and understand what factors affect the way initial teacher education is conceived and implemented at national and institutional level. The forms of initial professional development adopted in a given country generally reflect the historical construction and evolution of the teaching profession and of its relationship with the State. Comparative education's status as a discipline, as Gross (2000) describes it is frequently a contested one. Because it exists at a crossroads between qualitative and quantitative methodologies, and amalgamates elements of sociology, philosophy, anthropology, political science, and policy studies of education, the nature and direction of comparative education often seem unspecified.

This is primarily a comparative study which allows ‘ethnocentric assumptions to be identified and challenged by the existence of alternative and equally deep-rooted practices’ (Broadfoot and Osborn, 1991: 71). In other words, exposing them to comparative analysis will enhance the understanding of professionalism in teacher education. According to Mallinson (1981), all comparative educators have been concerned to take into consideration the cultural, social, political, economic and religious features of a society or nation in analysing an education system.

3.5.1 The Value of Comparative Approach

The main purpose of comparative education is, according to Bereday (1964), ‘to see schools of countries not only as they appear in their own national context but in terms of other systems’, as well as to ‘appraise educational issues from a global rather than an ethnocentric perspective’ (p.6). Baistow (2000) has outlined four main reasons for carrying out cross-national research: to learn *about* others, to learn *from* others and *with* them, and also to learn *about ourselves*. Comparative research is therefore a way to increase our knowledge of other ideas or practices and thus broaden our horizon about what it is possible to do. O’Sullivan (1992) refers to this as taking a ‘cultural stranger’ approach by adopting an artificial sense of strangeness or positive alienation for the purpose of illuminating the ‘hidden...features of daily life that otherwise remain part of the unexposed cultural fabric’ (p.445). This has the benefit of challenging our ‘relation of intimacy with modes of life and thought which remain opaque... because they are too familiar’ (Bourdieu, 1988: xi)

Bereday, in recognising the eclectic nature of comparative education in terms of its reliance on other disciplines particularly that of political geography, observes that ‘educational facts are deeply enmeshed in a matrix of other social circumstances’ (cited

in Jones, 1971: 85). Ultimately, he sees comparative education as having a ‘most challenging intellectual context of its own’, which prompted him to formulate a comprehensive comparative methodology to be used in cross-national situations. This model comprises four main stages of analysis: description; interpretation; juxtaposition; and simultaneous comparison. Bereday’s approach has been selected for the study because its philosophical underpinnings are consistent with the researcher’s methodological and analytical frame of reference, which is inductive and, therefore, anti-positivistic.

The qualitative paradigm, adopted by the researcher, does not rely on explanation or predicted outcomes from the research. Instead, qualitative research takes an interpretative approach by focusing on the meaning of data. This is in accord with Bereday’s approach. Bereday takes a total analysis approach and illustrates, through his comparative method, how this may be applied. The researcher has taken this total analysis approach, and has expanded on its development for the purposes of gaining in-depth analysis of the data collected. Bereday’s method seemed to be the most logical choice, both philosophically and empirically.

3.5.2 Multi-site Case-Study Comparative Approach

Building on the discussion of multiple case-studies above, this research takes a case-study approach which, according to Stenhouse (1982), gives us a ‘grounded representation of day-to-day educational reality, resting on the careful study of particular cases’ (p.10). The ‘contemporary phenomenon’ in this instance refers to the initial teacher training programmes, while ‘the case’ in question is the local context (Yin, 1994). The unit of analysis, therefore, is the local milieu or locale in which these programmes are established, where the locale is defined as ‘the settings’ or ‘the

resources for social action' (Taylor et al. 1997: 13). However, as this research is ultimately a comparative study, it undertakes a comparative multiple case-study approach.

A long-standing difficulty in comparative research is the question of the selection of suitable units of comparison. In a study such as this one, a first level of comparison is cross-national, and a second level is across case-study sites. Some justification has already been given as to why the researcher felt a study of initial teacher education policy and practice in England and Pakistan is useful and appropriate. Multiple case-studies are a distinctive form of case-study as they involve looking at the same phenomenon in different sites. The advantages of using a multiple case-study design are that the outcomes are perceived to be more robust and the evidence more compelling than in a single case study design (Bassegy, 1999; Yin, 1994).

Multiple-case studies follow a 'replication' logic which is analogous to that used in multiple experiments (Wolcott, 1990). Broadfoot and Osborne (1991) illustrate that the adoption of a comparative multiple case study approach 'provides an ideal "laboratory" since it allows ethnocentric assumptions to be identified and challenged by the existence of alternative and equally deep-rooted practices' in different locations and contexts' (p.71). They believe that this approach 'can play a vital role in comparative education in examining the hiatus....that may exist between the policies and practices of schooling' (p.74).

All four scales of observation, from international to local, are operated here within and between the case study localities. All four scales are useful in terms of their contribution to the understanding of the impact of teacher training programmes at the 'grassroots'. Empirical methods are complemented by a documentary analysis of both policy documents and official records. The use of a variety of sources of data within a

multiple-case study approach not only enriches comparison but, according to LeCompte and Goetz (1982), also enhances reliability and internal validity.

As indicated above, the two case-studies have been carefully selected so as to provide comparable contexts. The four cities were comparable in terms of attributes such as population structure, size and provincial city functions. Some issues, which were not so comparable, such as ethnicity or religious orientation, could not be 'matched' since these patterns were distinctive to the locations in question. This may have a bearing on the content and process of teacher training programmes, and may also affect the degree of relative impact of each factor in each location.

3.5.3 Bereday's Comparative Methodology

Bereday's approach provides a useful model for organising and structuring the data from the field. His method is valuable on a number of counts, not least because it is an intellectual exercise with very practical applications. For Bereday (1964), the prime purpose of the comparative approach is to understand ourselves better in the light of the experience of others.

Comparative educational studies are often divided into two categories: *area studies* and *comparative studies*. Bereday makes the following distinction between the two. He argues the former to be merely descriptive, whereas the latter does something with the data. The former, area studies, are necessary in order to have a more thorough understanding of the education systems and contexts under study. In order to achieve this, one needs to record one's impressions, both instinctive and visual, and collect sufficient amounts of data so as to have a 'rounded' picture of the context within which one is researching. As far as this research is concerned, area studies are represented partly through contemporary documentary study, but also from the researcher's prior

living and researching experience in both countries under study². Meanwhile comparative studies imply juxtaposition of the data collected. The primary aim in conducting this juxtaposition is to see if comparisons are actually feasible.

The notion of area studies, or context studies, may be further divided into categories of description and interpretation. The former involves an in-depth reading and understanding of the documentary evidence collected, for example, items such as minutes of the meetings, government reports, other official reports, for example, government policies, inspection reports, and other such auxiliary information. Gathering such data involved visits to teacher training institutes, schools, TDA and DCTE, and time spent within the general environment, all of which have to be organized and worked out in advance. Bereday recommends that such information be described in many different ways, both in narrative form and visually in the form of diagrams, tables, and models.

Interpretation, by contrast, consists of ‘subjecting the pedagogical data to scrutiny in terms of other social sciences’ (1964: 19). In other words, one should view the data through the lens of other relevant disciplines. This is attempted here by isolating a number of different aspects and dimensions by which to view the data collected, such as historical, political, economic and social. This interdisciplinary approach, Bereday argues, broadens the scope of comparative education and does not give the false impression that education somehow operates in a vacuum. In other words, the data collected will be scrutinised, among other things, for their social relevance. This is important for interpreting the data, as well as for describing them.

The first stage of comparison is therefore to match the data from different sources (cases, sites, locations, and countries) to prepare for the process of comparing. However, this in itself is not a real comparative approach until one can determine a

² Including Masters in Economics and BEd in Pakistan and Masters in Education in England.

‘unifying concept’. From this one may, however, devise a working hypothesis or a ‘defining statement’ in relation to which the data will be compared.

Following this stage, once the data have been grouped under suitable themes or categories, Bereday suggests compiling a matrix in which to view this information. The columns and rows therein are set up side by side so as to view the same data can be viewed in relation to other locations. Bereday favours the textual listing of material when comparing countries, thereby highlighting the ‘dynamic’ details of change and enabling reforms to be better identified. Once this is achieved, and the terms are firmly established, one may proceed to the process of simultaneous comparison.

Simultaneous comparison is also divided into two hierarchical categories: balanced and illustrative. The first of these refers to comparing in relation to the different dimensions, and second refers to points of investigation for adequacy of preparation of beginning teachers, i.e. the same or equivalent information displayed in terms of international, national, regional and local levels.

In practice, the researcher followed an adaptation of Bereday’s model which extends in its execution over chapters 4 and 5. In detailed preparation for these analyses, the information gathered was summarised at each of the scales of analysis into synopsis-like statements, or paragraphs. This tends to be a time-consuming and difficult task, especially when aspects of one system do not correlate with an equivalent in another country. At this stage, appendices may be attached to explain distinctions between or within the systems of education. Bereday warns against the danger of forcing equivalences when none exists. At this point, one must take the decision to move towards an illustrative comparison, which Bereday refers to as an ‘inferior’ model (p.65). The reason for this is that illustrative models cannot arrive at generalisation. However, the illustrative model will be useful, as some aspects of the education system in Pakistan are not directly comparable with the system of England, and vice versa.

Nonetheless, one is not attempting to generalise in this instance, but rather to illuminate, and hence the ‘inferior’ model proves useful at this stage.

Within the *balanced comparative method*, Bereday makes a further two-stage distinction. The first is called the *problem approach*, which leads on to the *total analysis approach*. The problem approach is intended for beginner researchers in comparative methodology. This involves the selection of the theme, and the examination of its recurrence and variance in different educational settings. Bereday uses the example of the relationship between church and state to illustrate one such issue which varies in different locations. He uses a bi-polar approach to illustrate this relationship at extreme points. Other cases are filled in along the spectrum of differentiation. This approach is one way of formulating a typology of educational reforms.

The second stage deals with the formulation of a typology which may become a particularly distinctive and original contribution of the research. This leads to an understanding of the ‘complex interrelationship between school and society in an international perspective’ (Alexiadou, 1994: 10, cited in Griffin, 2001). The total analysis phase builds on the initial stage, the problem-approach. This is utilised in chapters 4 and 5 of this research.

Bereday’s approach provides a complex and sophisticated model for this total analysis approach as described above, but can be summarised as:

- **Description:** including the systematic collection of data from each system under examination;
- **Interpretation:** The analysis of such data in terms of the social sciences;
- **Juxtaposition:** A simultaneous review of the information in order to determine the framework within which to compare them; and
- **Comparison:** The selection of the problem, followed by the ‘total relevance’ of education in the different countries.

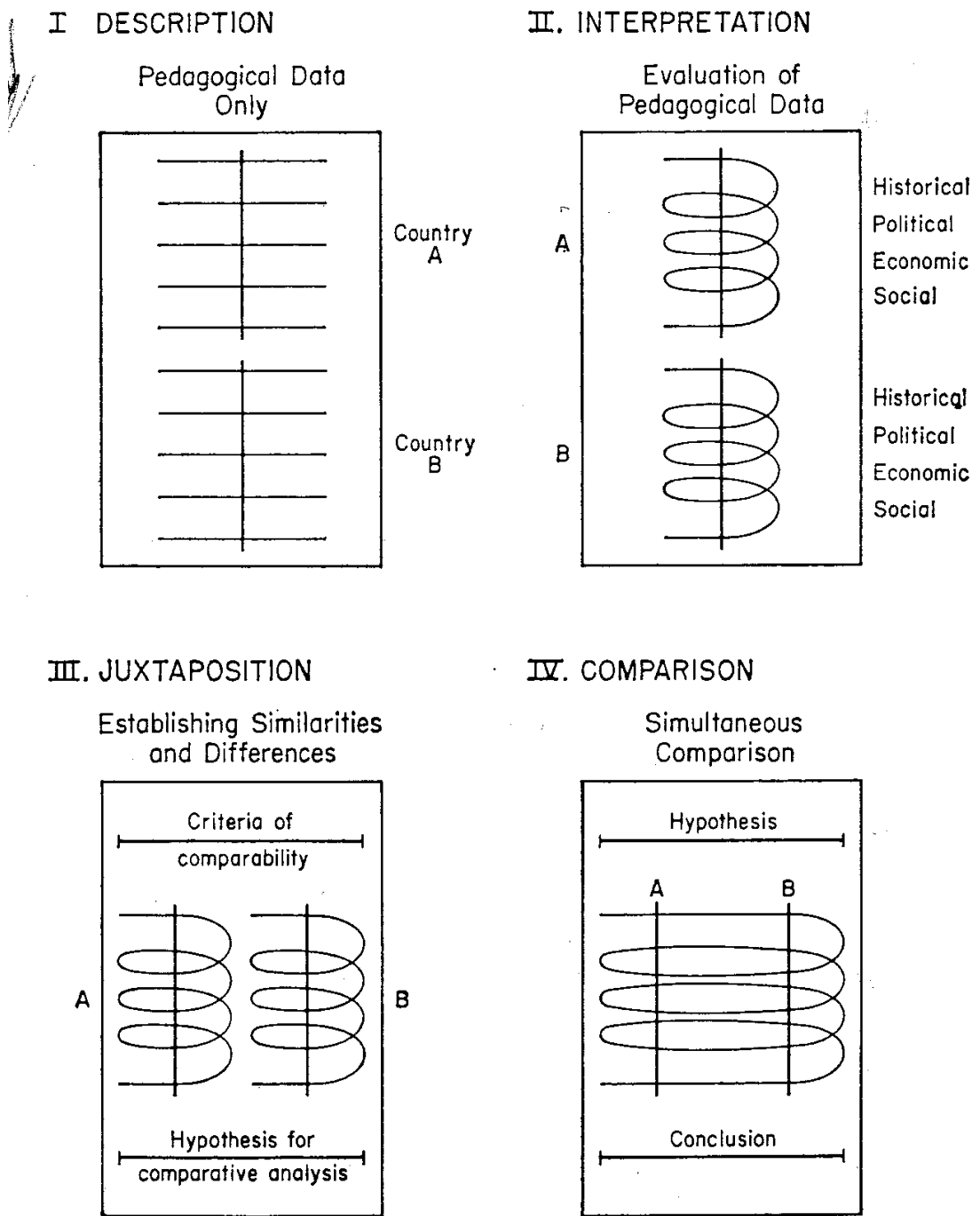


Figure 3: Bereday's model of comparative education.

Source: Bereday, G. (1994): 'Comparative Method in Education', New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston INC. p. 28

Although Bereday's method is a good working model, the researcher agrees with Griffin (2001) that there is gap between stages 3 and 4 of his comparative methodology. Certainly, there is no clear direction as to, for example, how the data ought to be analysed, or how hypotheses ought to be formulated, which examine and cross examine one's own subjective proposition. For this reason, and for the purpose of ensuring validity and reliability, the researcher has also employed the 'Constant Comparative Methodology' (this Constant comparative method is explained in detail... as a part of data analysis procedure).

In the case of this research, the constant comparative approach was loosely applied, as it was used in conjunction with Bereday's method and not independently. So, while the constant comparative method aided both the analysis of the responses from the stakeholders as well as the documentary evidences, Bereday's method aided in the presentation of the data. The conceptual framework served as a template for the 'juxtaposition' part of Bereday's method in the final analysis. It is hoped that this combined approach will also aid the development of theory.

3.6 Empirical Data Gathering and Analysis

There are different ways of data collection but the selection of a specific tool depends upon the nature of problem. In this study, as noted previously, a qualitative approach was used in collecting data, and semi-structured individual interviews were utilized for the generation of qualitative information. The qualitative survey (interview) was used because of its capability to explore in detail and to gain an understanding of a situation and the context in which people operate (Creswell, 1994). Sometimes qualitative research methods are classified according to their complexity of design and the degree of close interaction with participants. In an in-depth interview, the researcher should

have an intimate relationship with the participants (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Using interview schedules increases the possibility of respondents paying greater attention as a result of face-to-face, direct contact. Yet, this does not mean that an interview is easy to design or to carry out and analyse.

3.6.1 Interview Design

An interview is a snapshot of what the respondent feels about their work and the context in which they operate at any given time. The sequence of stakeholders' interview schedules was given special attention. It began with straightforward factual questions, leading into more in-depth ones (Oppenheim, 1992). The ordering of the questions and the general structure of the instrument were deemed important. They were designed in such a way that they revealed first-hand information about visions, policies, strategies and preliminary satisfaction. Questions used were 'open-ended'. The chief advantage in using this type of question is 'the freedom it gives to the respondent.....unencumbered by a prepared set of replies' (Oppenheim, 1992: 12). Attempts were made to eliminate bias from the questions. This involved the removal of such weaknesses as implicit assumptions within the question, leading questions, and ambiguous terminology (Oppenheim, 1992). Nevertheless, it is acknowledged that, according to Boulton and Hammersley (1996), the mere fact that questions are asked at all is 'likely to have influenced the answers given' (p.283).

Four interview schedules were developed, each designed for specific people related to the initial teacher education. Each schedule consisted of six questions with related potential follow-up or sub-questions, derived from the research objectives and literature review for each category: teacher educators and principals; student teachers; mentors and head teachers; and officials. The first question allowed the respondents to

elaborate on their own role and experiences and the last question gave respondents the option to add their own comments. The researcher had by this time established sufficient trust with the respondents to help reduce ‘systematic responsive bias’ where respondents give the answers which they think the interviewer wishes to hear, thus gaining ‘social approval’ (Rubin and Rubin, 1995; Creswell, 1994; Oppenheim, 1992). All of the open-ended questions pertained to the stakeholders’ special interests and their perceptions of other stakeholders’ interests in the teacher training programme.

3.6.2 The Semi-Structured Interview Questions

The nature and number of themes covered during the interviews depends on whether the interviewees were officials, teacher educators, student teachers, headteachers or mentors. Each question relates to different aspects in the conceptual framework. There were six themes derived from the main research questions. The first seven questions and the last question were posed to the respondents in all categories in both countries. The eighth and the ninth questions were asked particularly to the English respondents. The questions were ordered as follows:

Q1: *What is your opinion about the overall quality of teacher training programme?
How could it be possible to improve the quality of teacher education?*

The first question was concerned with the quality of teacher education and its related dimensions which can improve the quality. Answers to this question gave an insight into the different aspects of teacher training programmes, such as provision of ITE programme. The question asked the respondents also to discuss the administration and organization of ITE. Issues underlying the question included the objectives of ITE; the

role and responsibilities of teacher educators, their qualification and recruitment; selection criteria for students in ITE; and importance of teacher education.

Q2: What is your opinion about the effectiveness of the ITE programme in your institution and as well as in country?

The second question tried to explore the effectiveness of the teacher education programmes currently going on in both countries. The question aimed to focus on the implications of pre-service teacher education programmes for the quality of education. The answers to this question also covered the areas of appropriate curriculum, financial resources and sufficient facilities in ITE providers.

Q3: Is Initial Teacher Education very important to enhance the professional development of teachers?

This question was related to the improvement of professional development of teachers through the teacher training programmes in both countries. The question involved some underlying points, such as the importance of professional development of teachers; current scenario of CPD; and the link between teacher education and teacher professionalism.

Q4: What is your perception about the teacher education policies and current organisational structure of ITT in your country?

This question was particularly for the officials, principals and teacher educators. This question covered the areas of teacher education policies and particularly the role of main stakeholders, the funding arrangements for ITT programmes, designing the curriculum, duration of ITE programme and different routes of ITT in both countries.

Q5: How important is the role of the curriculum in teacher education? Do you feel that the curriculum of teacher education has appropriate practical application?

The fifth question related to the major dimension of teacher training and sought to define the role and importance of curriculum of ITE. The researcher was particularly interested in the role of the curriculum to provide the best preparation for real life and decision-making roles in curriculum development.

Q 6: Does involvement in research enhance the performance of teacher educators in the classroom? Have you ever been involved in any research related to your subject and/or interest and for professional development?

The sixth question related to the involvement of the teacher educators / mentors in further research in their own field. The question allowed the respondents to talk about their research and involvement in research related to their subject.

Q 7: To what extent does the pre-service teacher education programme is helpful to a teacher in practice?

This question focused on the link between theory in teacher training institution and practice in schools. The question also explored that to what extent pre-service teacher education is helpful in terms of relevant knowledge, skills and understanding to teach in the classroom in both countries.

Q8: Do you think OFSTED plays a major role in improving the quality of ITT in England? And how do you perceive the teacher educator's and mentors' role?

The question was particularly interested in the role of OFSTED in England and the perceptions of officials about the teacher educators, their qualification and their role.

Q9: *What is your personal view, and that of the TDA about the use of the untrained classroom assistants in primary schools?*

The question was asked particularly to officials, mentors and head teachers. The majority answered that it depends on the role played by such assistants. This question was particularly focused on the role of teacher assistants and how teacher assistants can help the class teacher during the teaching-learning process and improve the quality of teaching.

Q 10: *Are there any other comments/suggestions or observations about the system of teacher education in your country which you wish to make?*

At this point, the respondent was given a chance to reflect on the answers given, clarify other points they have made, or expand the points they had not thought through the first time. This also gave the respondent the opportunity to add new or other interesting or relevant material to the topic in questions. The researcher had the same opportunity to revisit questions that needed further clarification or that raised other issues relevant to the topic at hand. In any case, this ‘unstructured’ question at the end elicited relevant information.

The researcher made every effort to design the questions in such a way as to maintain an objective position and be as unbiased as possible. As Cohen and Manion (1994) explained:

‘Perhaps the most practical way of achieving greater validity is to minimize the amount of bias as much as possible. The sources of bias are the characteristics of the interview, the characteristics of the respondents and the substantive content of the question’. (P. 281-282)

Furthermore, the advice of Wragg (1984: 15) was followed ‘when you have assembled a schedule, always do two things: pass it to experienced people for comments; or do one

more pilot interview'. The interview questions were therefore modified following discussion and consultation with the researcher's supervisor Dr. Colin Brock and some other experts at the University of Hull.

In both the pilot and the actual interviews, consideration was given to the potential advantages/strengths and disadvantages/weaknesses of the interview technique. For example, the advantages of open-ended interviews, such as direct contact with respondents were utilised to get greater control over the interactive situation and to probe areas of interest as they arose during the interview. Interviewing the stakeholders at their work places in both countries was not easy; since it entailed hundreds and thousands of miles. The major disadvantage of this overall process was the high cost of long journeys in both countries and to avoid the disadvantages of interviews, efforts were made to reduce travelling costs by scheduling most of the meetings for each location on the same days.

3.6.3 Respondents/Stakeholders

The 'stakeholders' primarily represented interest groups on the board of management of their ITT providers and schools, including principals, teacher educators, student teachers, and teacher mentors. Outside informants were also consulted, including teacher education departments, for example, Chairs of Teacher Development Agency (TDA), Secretary of Education and Director of Directorate of Curriculum and Teacher Education (DCTE). Approximately, forty-six interviews were conducted in all, twenty-three per country, and an average six to eight per teacher education/training institution and two to three per primary school case-site (See Appendix 3).

Interview Process

All interviews were conducted in the workplace of the respondent. The interviews took an average thirty to forty-five minutes, depending on the detail in the answers, and also on the researchers' probing. The researcher was conscious of the kinds of the bias that could contaminate the data. A brief introduction started the interview, to give the respondents the chance to ask questions as well as relax. Similarly, following the interview, the researcher allowed time for the respondent to bring up any issues or questions they wished to elaborate or comment on. The researcher, careful of literature on the 'psychology' of interviewing (Robson, 2002), interpreted to an extent the comfort levels of the respondents, which seemed to correlate with their willingness to impart information.

Interviewees' Perceptions

It is important to note that the data derived from the semi-structured interviews were based on the respondents' perceptions. Perceptions are, by their very nature, subjective. Therefore, the aim here is to depict as accurately as possible the dominant perception amongst stakeholders as to the influence of various factors on their institutions/schools policies and practice. During the pilot study, over ten people were tested on the semi-structured interview. It was found that few questions yielded different responses: therefore, questions were simplified or clarified.

3.6.4 Validity of the Semi-structured Schedule

Validity in social studies is quite significant because it gives the researcher confidence in the device used. Sarantakos (2005) defines validity as:

The property of a research instrument is to measure its relevance, precision and accuracy. Validity tells the researcher whether an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure and whether this measurement is accurate and precise. (P.83)

To test the validity of research instruments, researchers usually send a copy of their questionnaire and interview questions to experts who can be trusted to give them an honest opinion (Moore, 2006). The interview schedules used in this study were checked out by both the researchers' supervisor and some of the experts at the University of Hull. Then the instruments were translated from English into Urdu and tested by three more academic professors in the universities in Pakistan, to make sure of the suitability of the questions to the culture and environment in that part of Pakistan.

3.6.5 Pilot-Study of Semi-Structured Interviews

A pilot study is an important stage in any research. It is concerned with administrative and organizational problems related to the whole study and the respondents. Before commencing the main study, a pilot study was conducted in order to test the methods that would be used, and in order to detect any unexpected problems that might arise when conducting the interviews in the main study. It was very important to pre-test the interviews to ensure that they yielded reasonably unbiased data (Borg and Gall, 1989).

The aims of this stage were to establish whether respondents were accessible, the techniques of data collection produced enough information, and the research plan

was well constructed or needed any changes (Sarantakos, 2005). This stage of the pilot study was carried out with teacher educators, student teachers and mentors first in England, and then in Pakistan.

This pre-testing of the interviews helped the researcher to revise the questions and remove the ambiguity, or identify any questions that might be considered threatening before using them in the main study. For example, after doing the pilot test, the questions were clarified and order of the questions was rearranged.

3.7 An Inductive Approach to Data Analysis

Data analysis is an essential stage in all research because it helps researchers to test their hypotheses or answer the research question (Walsh, 2001). The process of analysing qualitative data involves primarily ‘examining people’s words and actions’ which in essence means that ‘qualitative research findings are inductively derived from the data’ (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994: 121). The data analysis is an ongoing research activity which allows the research design to emerge over time.

At this stage, the researcher became aware of ‘*epoché*’, a process that the researcher engages in to remove, or at least become aware of ‘prejudices, viewpoints, or assumptions regarding the phenomenon under investigation’ (Katz, 1987: 36, cited in Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; 123). The researcher dealt with this by recording all her assumptions prior to analysing the research.

Maykut and Morehouse (1994), citing Katz (1987), believe that the setting aside of one’s assumptions is crucial in phenomenological research in order to be able to assess the data without prejudgement or imposing meaning too soon. The researcher has to be both an ‘insider’ (aware of one’s thought processes) and an ‘outsider’ in order to attempt to judge the material as objectively as possible. Wax (1971) believes that it is

only by achieving this that one can 'assure a mental position peripheral to both; a position from which they will be able to perceive and, hopefully, describe the relationships, systems, and patterns of which an inextricably involved insider is not likely to be consciously aware' (p.3). Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to this dichotomy between the insider, outsider (or subjective/objective perspective) as 'Perspectival', and argue that the road to greater objectivity can be shortened by subjecting qualitative research to rigorous and disciplined analysis.

The inductive approach adopted for this study means that the data collected relates to a focus of enquiry, and hypotheses are not developed *a priori*. Therefore, there are no predetermined categories for the data. These emerge from the data through the process of inductive analysis. Inductive reasoning is concerned with moving from the particular to the general. It is important to note that inductive logic is not so much concerned with valid inferences but rather which inferences are probable given the evidence and the data on which those inferences are made. The constant comparative method was used to conduct an inductive analysis of qualitative data (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

Analysing data has been likened to walking through a maze; with many routes available depending on the approach one takes. However, analysing data is more comparable to 'chaos theory' in physics, which is actually a very highly organized and sophisticated way of understanding phenomena, and therefore the label 'chaos theory' as in physics, is a misnomer (Griffin, 2001). This researcher would rather relate the analysis of data to that of 'organising chaos'. Data analysis is said to consist of four main elements: interpretation; coding and organising; application of counteracting theories; and the testing of alternative explanations using a 'knock out' method (Anderson and Arsenault, 1998).

There are two main approaches to data analysis: analytical and thematic. The former takes the literature and theoretical background and uses them as an organisational framework, while the latter organises the data into descriptive themes. It is also possible to use both these approaches, by organising the analysis (Phase I) according to emergent themes (Phase II), and then extending the analysis to 'examine the findings in consideration of existing literature and theory (Phase III) (Bereday, 1964: 158). This is the approach that was taken in this research. Bereday's approach, as described above, was used as the macro analytical tool with which to compare and analyse the data. The conceptual framework illustrated in chapter 1 was used to organise the data, while Glaser and Strauss's (1967) 'Constant Comparative Method' was applied when analysing the data.

3.7.1 Preparation for Data Analysis

This section describes the general procedures undertaken prior to and during the analysis of data. The researcher went through three main *phases* when preparing for the analysis of the interviews. The documentary evidence gathered was also subjected to a similar process of analysis and will be described later in this chapter. The preparation for the analysis of the interviews may be described as follows:

- 1) **Listening to the taped interviews:** *initial familiarisation*. Initial familiarisation involved listening to the tapes and noting points of interest which occurred during the interview process. This process was repeated some time later, before transcribing, in order to hear the interview 'afresh'.
- 2) **Transcribing the interviews:** *through familiarisation*. Transcribing the interviews was a long and demanding process. The time varied depending on the quality of the taped interview; the speed at which the interviewee spoke; the background noise; the accent of the individual; the clarity of the interviewee's voice; and the volume at which it was recorded. However, this process allowed

the researcher to become thoroughly acquainted with the data. As Payne & Payne (2004:132) mention the transcription of recording is probably 'the most tedious and time consuming aspect of these interviewing methods'.

- 3) **Highlighting points of interest:** *preliminary stage in the identification of themes.* Highlighting the points of interest is theoretically the preliminary stage of analysing the interview transcripts. This process was achieved by firstly underlining words stressed by the interviewees themselves, and secondly, other points of interest noted by the researcher were highlighted in bold.

The preliminary focus was on the 'sub sample' of the data, i.e. the data which looked most promising or the most convenient to categories and which was relevant to the research focus (Boulton and Hammersley, 1996: 290). They pointed out that:

'with a small amount of data, it is often difficult to go beyond the description of a few key themes. A larger amount of data may allow greater development of understanding of the perspectives and behaviour of the people being studied, especially in terms of looking for relationships among categories'. (P.290)

The data was then coded into categories which showed where the data had come from. This procedure was carried out for all respondents, colleges, schools, offices and locations to aid the constant comparative method. Thus, when the answers of different responses to the same question were collected, it was possible readily to identify where each response came from by referring to the above coding system. The second stage to analysing the data is to 'unitise the data'.

3.7.2 Unitising the Data

At the beginning of every transcript, documentary evidence and field-notes were unitised. The phrase 'unitising the data' was first coined by Lincoln and Guba (1985). This step involves identifying chunks or 'units of meaning' in the data (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). This process is one of culling the data for meaning from the words

and actions of the participants in the study. This is framed by the researcher's own focus of enquiry and is achieved by 'first identifying the smaller units of meaning in the data, which will later serve as the basis for defining larger categories' (p.128). Each unit of meaning identifying in the data must be understandable, independent of explanations, and although smaller units of meaning, the main unit must be able to stand alone (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

To arrive at 'units of meaning' the researcher must first read all the transcripts, documentation and field notes thoroughly. Each unit is labelled according to its origin. Cutting and pasting together the answers to questions achieved the unitising the data. So, for example, three main folders were used. The first folder represented everyone's answers to a particular question from one particular institution. The second folder consisted of every answer to that question from all locations of that country, and finally, the third folder consisted of everyone's answer to that particular question from both countries, and locations therein. From this stage, boxes were drawn around the main unit of meaning in each response to that particular question.

The next stage is to isolate one word that conveys the essence of what was being said. These are then stored in a separate file with the appropriate references attached, so as to be easily referred to as necessary. This is done so that every piece of information is unitised. Units of meaning may vary from a word, to a sentence, to a paragraph, depending on both the informant and the point being made or expounded upon. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommend that alongside each unit of meaning a clear account of respondent's background be noted, or in the case of documentary evidence, the source of the report and how it was commissioned, if at all, so as to assess the information in the most meaningful light. This will include auxiliary information such as the gender of the respondent and any other personal details which may affect the nature of the response.

3.8 The Constant Comparative Method

The constant comparative method has four stages of analysis: inductive category coding; refinement of categories; exploration of relationships and patterns across categories; integration of data and writing up the research (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994).

3.8.1 Inductive Category Coding

This involves drawing diagrams of the researcher's progress. This is what Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to as an 'audit trail' which traces the researcher's thought development throughout the entire research process. At this point, the researcher had a list of recurring themes or concepts already marked out which were useful to guide her in preliminary analysis of the data. Some ideas overlapped, and these were combined. The first stage then was to select one theme or concept which recurred and this formed the first provisional category code. However, as these were derived from the researcher's initial contact with the data, these were provisional categories that could be changed or modified subject to further rigorous scrutiny.

In the second stage of this phase, the researcher reviewed her unitising files to see if there was any overlap between the categories of unitising meaning and the list of provisional categories as formulated above. Then, 'like was put with like' or the evidence for each category was 'cut and pasted' under this category. This involved evidence from all three sources: documentary, field-notes, and the interview transcripts.

Often the provisional categories differed from those already formulated from the unitising meaning section. If so, then these categories were added, and the data sourced

for further evidence that related, either positively or negatively, to the category in question. This process was continued for all categories that had arisen in some form or other, until all the units of meaning were categorised and all the provisional categories were used or merged. Categories were renamed as necessary, as provisional labels given may prove insufficiently comprehensive or specific as the case may be.

Another difficulty at this point was the fact that data often fell under two categories. At this stage, it is advised to place them initially under both categories. Secondly, extraneous pieces of information may fit under certain categories, for example, unrecorded but noted pieces of conversation, or articles from a newspaper or magazine that are relevant but not directly related. These were initially added under categories for further consideration later. Finally, some pieces of data fell outside any immediate category but appeared nonetheless to be imported. These were placed on 'temporary hold' under the category of 'miscellaneous'. The number of categories had to be expanded in order to reconstruct the data in a more meaningful way. At this point, the researcher accumulated numerous categories, and so moved on to the next stage; refinement of categories.

3.8.2 Refinement of Categories

This stage involves writing rules for inclusion which help to narrow the scope of inclusion of categories. Lincoln and Guba (1985) believe that this can be done by means of writing propositional statements. Propositional statements are statements of fact, grounded in the data from which they emerge (Taylor and Bogdan, 1984). This statement contains the essential meaning of the category. This is the first stage in understanding the phenomenon under research, and the first step towards one's outcomes (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). The data that is placed under such

propositional statements may be either positive or negative. So, some responses may not agree with the propositional statement, for example, a respondent might have said, 'everybody can not be a teacher therefore the teacher education programme has not particular affect on them'. However, Taylor and Bogdan (1984) recommend that such statements should be derived from propositional statements, which are in turn derived from a substantial accumulation of positive instances.

Indeed, Maykut and Morehouse (1994) go some way in explaining this further:

A rule for inclusion is developed for a category when several data cards have been clustered under it based on the look/feel-alike criterion. The rule for inclusion is inductively derived from the properties or characteristics of the initial set of data cards clustered together under it. The rule for inclusion is stated as a proposition that summarises the meaning contained in the data cards. Data cards that on closer examination do not fit the resulting rule are categorized elsewhere. Remaining data are now included in or excluded from a category based on its rule for inclusion, not the look/feel-alike criterion. Data cards are coded to their rule-based categories. Data analysis continues until all data cards have been categorized into a substantive category or the miscellaneous pile. (P.142)

However, the researcher preferred to refine the above process further by placing all the positive responses, first, then followed by the negative responses, so as to get an overall balanced view of the category in hand. The next part of this process involved coding data cards to their categories. Coding data cards is a further refining of the categories formulated. This involves ear-marking the data to that particular category. This is done by means of coding each category (for example education policy). This category is labelled 'Education Policy' and is coded EP. This data piece of information is coded in all the documentary evidences and fieldwork as such. The transcripts were organised around this method, but by cutting and pasting and creating a separate file called 'Education Policy' to cater for all related responses.

Once all the data had been categorised, the researcher then reviewed it again for overlap and ambiguity. This required a thorough re-examination of all the material and reorganisation and readjustment of the categories and their rules, in order to extend

some categories or modify others. Finally, the miscellaneous pile was re-examined for the purpose of either formulating a new category which may encompass some of the issues, or else distributing some of the miscellaneous pile into existing categories. This led on to the next stage.

3.8.3 Exploration of Relationships and Pattern across Categories

This stage involves pulling the categories together which both accurately reflect the data gathered as well as synthesising it into a more comprehensively detailed analysis of the data. This begins with a thorough re-examination of the propositional statements which have emerged so far. The next step is to prioritise these propositions according to importance in relation to the focus of the inquiry. In essence, these propositions form the preliminary outcomes of the research they have yet to be interviewed with other categories, formulating themes. Some may be sufficient to stand alone. This will be the case if it explains the phenomenon under investigation on its own without auxiliary information. Some salient propositions may need to be linked with others to become a core outcome of the research. Either way, both these types of data are referred to as *outcome propositions*.

Concurrently, the researcher still continued to collect new data as indicated by the design of her research. However, there comes a saturation point (Strauss and Corbin, 2000), which Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to as the point of 'redundancy'. In any case, once all the links are made between categories and within categories and the final part of phase II has been completed, the researcher must move on to the next phase. This phase is the fourth stage of phase I, writing up the research and making the findings public.

3.8.4 Integration of Data and Writing up the Research

This is the stage that now links up with part 4 or Phase I of the research as described above-Bereday's Comparative Stage. This stage involves writing up the research which makes sense of the phenomenon under examination. This is the last phase of the analytic process. This also requires a rethinking of the data. This can often lead to new insights and a deeper understanding of the research inquiry. At this point, it is necessary to review a number of facets of the research which are vital for it to have credibility and integrity. The first issue is that of '*the trustworthiness of the research*'. Qualitative researchers use trustworthiness as a criterion for judging the quality of the inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). This is achieved in the manner and process by which the research was carried out. It is also achieved in one's own evaluation of the work of other researchers in the field. The question may be asked 'how can we trust the outcomes of this research? In essence, it is an ethical question. The first issue here is that of transparency. The sources of research must be stated. Foundations, who fund and support different kinds of research reports must have their interests stated from the beginning and the researcher needs to note this. The researcher must be conscientious about the categories formulated, and if she has any prejudices, preconceptions or assumptions about the research and its outcomes, these should be recorded from the beginning, and these checked against the data, following analysis, for the possibility of subjectivity in either the analysis or interpretation of the information gathered.

The researcher also gave her work to English peers to check the language and colleagues in the field to critique which always exposes one's own ideas as to certain aspects of the research, to point out the weaknesses. The research was also carefully checked for bias. The researcher acknowledged that it is virtually impossible to remove

all sources of prejudice, as one needs to arrive at some conclusion based on the evidence. Nonetheless, every attempt was made to be critical and ‘objective’ at all times. Objectivity is a concept which must be placed in inverted commas as from the philosophical ontological argument; while total objectivity certainly can not be attained, it is vital that researchers rigorously attempt to minimise the possibility of bias (Pring, Walford and Wilson, 1997/98, cited in Griffin, 2001).

3.9 Dealing with Validity, Reliability, Generalizability and Ethics

3.9.1 Validity

Validity tells us whether an item or instrument measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe, but this is rather vague and leaves many questions unanswered (Bell, 2005: 117). Oppenheim (1992: 162) divided validity into four types: content validity; concurrent validity; predictive validity; and construct validity. Validity refers to the degree to which conclusions effectively represent ‘empirical reality’ and ‘whether the constructs devised by the researchers represent the categories of human experiences that occur’ (Goetz and LeCompte, 1982; Peltó and Peltó, 1978).

Although internal and external validity are interrelated issues, they are quite often separated in order to clarify the procedures involved; this is a convention used to simplify the issues (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982; Cook and Campbell, 1967; Campbell and Stanley, 1963). Wolcott (1994) cites many different types and forms of validity testing for qualitative data, the convention of using internal and external validity will be applied here.

In terms of *internal validity*, the answers which emerged from the questions put to the respondents in the main study were given without hesitation. This was due to the

fact that the questions were piloted. This process itself entailed ‘testing’ the research instrument on at least ten different people from both countries. Therefore, terms which were uncommon in the culture or had slightly different implications were changed so as to be applicable in both countries where they were used- hence the explanation/definition of terms section at the beginning of this thesis. The researcher cannot guarantee that the questions were absolutely clear to all respondents, but non-verbal language suggested that the questions were clear. This means that, unlike in the pilot phase, the researcher was not asked to repeat questions, did not get the ‘eyebrows-up’ indication; clarification was not sought; and on the whole, respondents appeared comfortable answering the questions put to them.

Wolcott (1994) suggested nine points to strengthening the validity of the research:

- *Talk little, listen a lot (never confront informants with contradictions, blatant disbelief, or shock –even if it makes you ‘look a bit dense’);*
- *Record accurately (i.e. make notes during the observation and interviews and mechanically record the information);*
- *Begin writing early (i.e. even before the event, and immediately afterwards, creating a fuller picture of gaps to be filled and assumptions being made);*
- *Let readers ‘see’ it for themselves (i.e. include primary data in final accounts, and give access to the data themselves);*
- *Report fully (i.e. even the data that do not fit the developing account or interpretation of it, pp.348-9);*
- *Be-candid (i.e. write with honesty, and be ‘straight forward’);*
- *Seek feedback (i.e. share your work with others as part of the process of analyzing and writing);*
- *Try to achieve balance (i.e. re-read and check the field notes once more time if it is fair, balanced, and comprehensive);*
- *Write accurately (i.e. use simple technical accuracy by reading through a manuscript with an eye. (P. 352-5)*

Other advice suggested to researchers is that they should let teachers review transcripts and data collected from them. The researcher did not follow this advice on this occasion, due to temporal and spatial constraints. Instead, the data were opened to scrutiny from colleagues, peers and other academics, all of whom highlighted any weaknesses of the researcher's interpretation and written words.

External validity pertains to generalizations, which do not necessarily apply to the research undertaken here, as it is not the main aim of this study to generalize. As will be discussed later, aspects of local dynamics and interactions may be generalizable in terms of elements of the *modus operandi* of decision-making procedures, or influencing the policies. This can only be established insofar as the experiences recorded here may be valid for others operating in similar situations or contexts. This form of validity is better known as *ecological validity*. Ecological validity will only exist as long as the researcher records the events, experiences and perceptions of the respondents with honesty and accuracy.

3.9.2 Generalizability

Generalizability may be a problem, but as in the case-study approach the study may be relatable in a way that will enable members of similar groups to recognize problems and, possibly, to see ways of solving similar problems in their own group (Bell, 1993). Yin (1994) also explained this that a frequent criticism of qualitative research and especially the case-study methodology is that it is incapable of providing a generalized conclusion. Giddens (1995), for example, considered the case-study 'microscopic'. However, Yin (1994) argues that the number of the cases used does not transform a multiple case-study into a macroscopic study; rather the aim of the study 'should establish the parameters, and then should be applied to all research' (Taylor, et al., 1997: 2). The aim

of qualitative research- to seek an in-depth understanding of the issues- must be borne in mind. Indeed, the issue of generalizability in relation to the aim and purposes of qualitative research has long been widely debated and most qualitative researchers agree that the purpose of qualitative research is not to generalize (see Schofield, 1993; Hammersley, 1987; LeCompte and Goetz, 1982), although some argue this may be achieved (Yin, 1994). Yin (1994) believes that the generalizations based on ecological aspects of case studies can enhance theory building, but those generalizations in themselves can not be made about populations. It is beyond the concern of this thesis to engage in the debate in detail; suffice it to state that this research is not aiming to generalize but rather to understand the process of comparing quality and effectiveness of initial teacher education programmes in specific contexts for the purposes of generating theory to be further tried and tested, qualitatively or otherwise. Though the findings presented here may be applicable to other similar situations and contexts, the researcher is not making any claims to generalize the findings at this stage. Subsequent research would be a prerequisite before such claims could be justified.

3.9.3 Reliability

‘Reliability is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions’ (Bell, 2005: 117). Ways of establishing reliability involve multiple data gathering strategies, reporting any possible personal bias, and decisions made about data and categories (Burns, 2000). In qualitative research reliability can be regarded as ‘a fit between what researchers record as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting that is being researched’, i.e. the degree of accuracy and comprehensiveness of coverage (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992: 48).

Reliability is achieved by the resolution of both internal and external design problems, thus drawing external and internal reliability together. *External reliability* is concerned with the same result occurring elsewhere in similar circumstances. *Internal reliability* is concerned with the degree to which other researchers would come up with the same data using the same instrument or constructs (See De Vaus, 1996). According to De Vaus (1996) ‘replication of results has been one of the key safeguards against falsification. Replication requires that another researcher can collect comparable data in the same way and thus check the veracity and reliability of any set of results and this is an important safeguard’ (p.340). However, he does go on to say that ‘true replication is less achievable in survey research. This is because social surveys (and thus the samples) are different, then any variation between results can be defended in terms of sample differences. This makes true replication extremely difficult’ (1996: 340-41). Such deliberate misrepresentation of data, which De Vaus suggests is as being possible, is unethical. He believes such misrepresentation is accounted for by inappropriate methodology or by not analysing the data according to the approach undertaken. On both counts, the researcher has explained in detail both the rationale for the methodology and the form the analysis took. Similarly, this research has taken De Vaus’s other suggestion- that the research data are available for scrutiny to other interested researchers. This, he believes, is the ‘closest approximation of replication’ (p.341).

Therefore, while reliability is primarily concerned with replicability of findings, validity, as mentioned above, is more concerned with the accuracy of the findings (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982: 32). A multiple case-study design must have a replication rather than a sampling logic. This is achieved through replicating the pattern-matching, which serves to strengthen the result and thus increase confidence in the robustness of the theory (Robson, 1993). Nor can one have reliability without internal validity. While

reliability can not be verified per se, the researcher piloted the research instrument to check that it focused solidly on the research questions at hand. It was noted when confusion arose over the point of the questions; when words and terms appeared to be culturally specific; when the setting was inappropriate; and when a different setting for the interview was sought (and insisted upon) where outside noise could not distract. Attention was also paid to ensure the respondent had enough time to answer all the questions adequately; interviews were never put back-to-back for that reason. Of course, the researcher could not guarantee that information was not passed around. However, by scheduling the interviews carefully, as well as asking respondents not to speak to others still waiting to be interviewed, the researcher went as far as she could to gather discrete responses. Aside from that, the researcher could not enforce an ‘assurance of silence’ within the realm of politeness.

3.9.4 Ethical Considerations

Ethics refers to rules of conduct; ‘typically to conformity to a code or set of principles’ (Reynolds, 1979: 29). In order to do that effectively, researchers have to be aware of the following principles by Lankshear and Knobel (2004) when they carry out their educational research:

‘Have a valid research design; obtain informed consent; avoid deception; minimize intrusion; ensure confidentiality; minimize risk of harm; demonstrate respect; avoid coercion or manipulation; reciprocate. (P: 103)

Ethical issues were considered at every step of the research process to ensure that the research was conducted appropriately. The issue of ethics was a prime consideration during the entire research process. The study was conducted within the range of the guidelines of the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004). Robson (1993) explained that ‘ethics are usually taken as referring to general principles of what

one ought to do' (p.30). Ensuring validity and reliability in qualitative research involved conducting the investigation in an ethical manner (Merriam, 1998). All social research involves ethical issues because it involves gathering data from people and about people (Punch, 2000).

Ethical issues ranged from the identification of people and places to what they actually said. In this study, the identities of informants were obscured through the use of pseudonyms. Pseudonyms served a dual purpose: they maintained confidentiality by protecting the respondent's identities; and pseudonyms also allowed them to speak more freely. All respondents were treated equally. The interviewees seemed comfortable with the interviewer's introduction as it did not affect their work directly. The choice of questions asked was not personal, asking only for general biographical details. The remaining questions were based on the research topic and again were not controversial, as they were not seen to affect the institutions or stakeholders in any adverse way. Permission was sought before taping the interviews. The interviewees were again assured about confidentiality. Pseudonyms protected both the sites and the respondents from being identified, and in this respect the researcher observed Dingwell's (1980) sentiments when he wrote 'ethical fieldwork turns on the moral sense and integrity of the researcher negotiating the social contract which leads his subjects to expose their lives' (p.885) and this issue is 'one of trust between both parties' (Gill and Johnson, 1997: 126)

Overall, the researcher feels that confidence was built up between both herself and the respondents during the course of the fieldwork. She reassured the respondents that the data would be handled carefully and sensibly. At the same, the researcher also feels it is important to be 'intellectually honest' to the findings of the research (and thus retain validity and integrity within the research).

3.10 Adaptation of Bereday's Methodology

The application of the various components of strategy and method described in this chapter culminate in the form of 'an adaptation of Bereday's methodology' (Griffin, 2001) as illustrated in *Figure 4*. This informs the second half of this thesis comprising chapters 6 to 9. The sequence of these analytical chapters falls within the framework of Bereday's methodology and begins with serial consideration of each national case and the location selected within it.

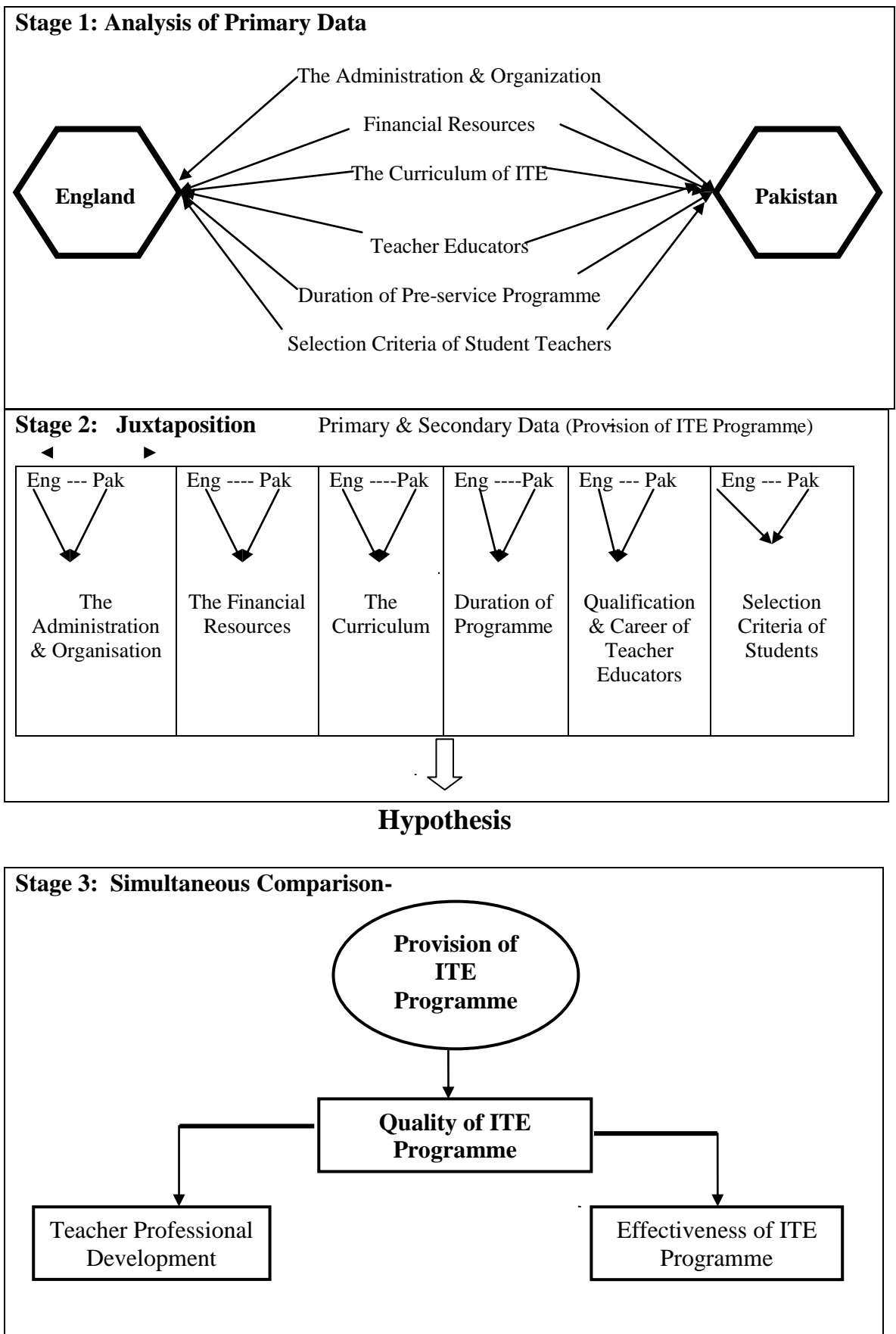
As can be seen, stage I, the analysis of primary and secondary data, documentary analysis and empirical results, comprises unitary chapters on England and Pakistan respectively. This covers both stages I and II of Bereday's methodology: description and interpretation.

Chapter 8 contains stages 3 and 4 of this research method, being 3 and 4 of Bereday's method. The incorporation of the outcomes of the application of the constant comparative method informs these sections, and especially, the categories formed in chapter 8.

Chapter 9 takes the outcome of the simultaneous comparisons a stage further by focusing down on the six key themes informing the contemporary dimensions of teacher education and are evident differently across both countries and case locations.

This chapter required to justify the choice of research methods adopted in this study and, as well, indicated some limitations to be expected of the methods employed. The procedure adopted for the data analysis was also outlined.

Figure 4: Adaptation of Bereday's Methodology



Mah-e-rukh Ahmed, 2008.

Chapter four will provide an historical literature review about initial teacher education in the perspective of different policies and ‘historical examples of England’, and will also shed light on the contemporary situation through ‘an evaluation of teacher education and training’ in the country (Brock, 1996: 7). The rationale for this is Alexander’s (2001) assertion that research which is concerned with the comparative study of pedagogy, ‘should be powerfully informed by history’ (p.5).

CHAPTER FOUR: THE CASE OF ENGLAND

4.1 Introduction

The primary objective of this chapter is to discuss changes in England's teacher education overtime. The chapter also reveals that, as Townsend (1996) asserts, the British government has been increasing its control of teacher training over the last two decades, with prescribed standards, content, and length of student teaching, as well as alternative routes to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS)³ that bypass university based teacher training programmes.

Four interlocking processes provided the basis for this government controlled system: (i) the establishment of a set of Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status by the Teacher Development Agency (TDA); (ii) the use of these standards as the basis for the accreditation, and inspection, by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED); (iii) the development by government of a number of new teacher training programmes delivered by service providers other than higher education institutions; and (iv) a shift of the funding of ITE from the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) to the TDA (Young, et al., 2007).

Before commencing the discussion of teacher education in England, it is necessary to describe the general background of the country in order to understand the existing educational system, since the educational system of any country is affected by its cultural, social, political and economic situation.

England comprises the central and southern two-thirds of the island of Great Britain, plus offshore islands of which the largest is the Isle of Wight. Great Britain plus Northern Ireland constitute the composite nation, the United Kingdom. England is

³ QTS is the licence from the Minister to teach in a state-maintained school. The first list of contemporary standards for the Award of QTS was published in 1998.

bordered to the north by Scotland and to the west by Wales. Geographically, it has an area of about 93, 278 square miles (242,500 square kilometres). Most of England consists of rolling hills, but it is more mountainous in the north with a chain of low mountains, the Pennines, dividing east and west.

The constitution of the United Kingdom is that of a parliamentary democracy and it still maintains a monarchy, headed by Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II. The constitution is to a large extent unwritten. Its rules can be found in no single written document. Many rules of the constitution have been developed by the law courts, as part of the general body of the common law. The national language is English.

The political system of the UK is a parliamentary democracy. Despite the single-member district nature of UK elections, it has a multiparty system. There are two dominant parties that have alternated in power in the twentieth century, Labour and Conservative. A third party that has significant national appeal, the Liberal Democrats, and several regional parties of varying strength that from time to time play a role in pressing regional demands or in supporting or otherwise a government with a weak majority at certain difficult moments. In Northern Ireland there has been an 'Assembly' governing local issues since 1922 while the Scottish Parliament was re-instituted in 1999 and the Wales Assembly in 2006. Each of these local assemblies governs their education systems including teacher training. England has no such parallel and relies on the UK (Westminster) Parliament for education policy and its implementation.

4.1.1 The Cultural and Social Life of England

The ancient man made landscapes, historical monuments, Roman remains, Norman architecture, medieval towns, Georgian squares and modern architectural wonders together reflect England's history of more than a thousand years.

England is the largest and most populous of the constituent countries of the United Kingdom. The population of England in the 2001 Census was 49,138,831. This had risen to 50,093,100 according to July 2004 and in 2008 was estimated at 60,609,153 (CIA, July, 2008) of which about 85 per cent live in cities or towns.

The traditional religion in the United Kingdom is Christianity. In England the established church is the Church of England. About 71.6 per cent of the people are nominally Christians (though only about 10 per cent are church attendees), with the remainder divided among Muslims, Hindus, Sikhs, Jews, Buddhists and other religions.

4.1.2 Economic Background

England is one of the world's most highly developed countries. Its products include a variety of goods, ranging from sewing needles to earth-moving equipment. It was once a leading shipbuilding country and an important producer of textiles. Now chemical products are its major manufacturer. Electronic and luxury goods are among England's other important industrial products, along with service industries, with financial sources being dominant. London challenges New York as the world's major Financial Centre.

4.1.3 The Educational Culture of the Country

Education is an important part of British life but more embedded in Scotland, Wales and Ireland. Education in England is, at the time of writing, the responsibility of two Departments: The Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF); and The Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills (DIUS), each headed by a Secretary of State. There are thousands of schools, colleges and universities. Education is free and compulsory for all children between the ages of 5-16. The literacy rate of England is 99

per cent (CIA, 2008). The definition of literacy is that a person aged 15 and over has completed five or more years of schooling. The National Curriculum, first established in 1988, is set by the government and must be followed in all state schools. Most private schools also follow the National Curriculum, but they have more flexibility in the number of subjects on offer. The main aim of the National Curriculum is to raise standards, making sure all children have a broad and balanced education up to the age of 16 and to ensure that schools in all parts of the country are following the same courses. The National Curriculum provides guidelines about what children must study and what they are expected to know at different ages. Originally there were public national assessments for all pupils at 7, 11, 14 and 16, but only the 11 SATS and the 16 GCSE, as they are known, remain in operation at the time of writing.

4.1.4 Structure of the Education System

Children's education in England is normally divided into two separate stages. They begin with primary education at the age of five and this usually lasts until they are eleven. Then they move to secondary school, where they stay until they reach sixteen, seventeen or eighteen years of age. There are two parallel school systems in England, the state sector and the private sector.

The State Sector: Schools in the state sector are non fee-paying, financed by the government through taxation and administered through local education authorities, in practice schools now manage their own finances even though Grant Maintained status was discontinued. In the UK 93 per cent of the children in England go to "state schools". No financial contribution to a child's education is required of parents. Parents are, however, expected to pay for their child's school uniform and items of sports wear. Charges may also be made for music lessons and for board and lodgings on residential

trips. Broadly speaking, secondary education (from age 11 onwards) is comprehensive, i.e. schools accept children of all academic levels, and are, in the main, co-educational. However there are still some grammar schools which select only the more academically able children on the basis of an examination. There are more single sex schools in this category. Most schools in the state sector are day schools (England, 2006).

The Private Sector: Schools in the private sector are known as independent schools. The more prestigious are also known as ‘public schools’. Seven per cent of the children in England go to independent schools. They rely for finance solely on fees charged to parents and income from investments. The majority used to be boarding schools, but there are now many independent day schools, particularly in the London area. Boarding children live at school during term time, only returning home at half term and during the main holidays (Christmas, Easter and summer). However children may also spend one or two weekends per term at home (or, in the case of children from overseas, with guardian families) - these weekend breaks are called exeats. Most schools have fixed dates for exeats, although some will allow children / parents to choose their own exeat weekends (England, 2006).

Higher Education: Around 30 per cent of the 18 to 19 year olds enter full-time higher education. The minimum entry requirements to most degree courses are two A-levels passes and five GCSE passes from grades A to C. In practice, due to heavy demand most offers of university places require qualifications in excess of this. There are now just over 130 university or university status higher education institutions in England in an almost unitary sector, there being one small private university, Buckingham.

Teacher education: Teacher education in England has undergone tremendous changes over the past three decades. The remainder of this chapter contains a historical analysis

and contemporary review of teacher education. It also sheds light on teacher professionalism and related literature in the English context.

4.2 Historical Analysis of Teacher Education and Policy Implementation Measures in England

‘A long historical perspective is essential to properly understand educational development, and hence present policy and practice’ (Reid, 2000: 1). The somewhat turbulent recent history of initial teacher education in England has been well documented over the past few decades (Furlong et al., 2000; Gilroy, 1992). This historical perspective shows that changing methods in the preparation of teachers have often reflected broader changes in educational institutions, standards and theory (Aldrich, 1990). The nineteenth century has been called the period of transition in the history of England’s teacher education. In the Middle Ages teaching and instruction at all levels from university to church-goer was provided, mainly by clerics or by those who had been educated by clerics.

In 1846 a national system of pupil-teachers, devised by Kay-Shuttleworth⁴, was set up. The College of Preceptors (renamed the College of Teachers in 1998) was founded in 1806 and granted a Royal Charter in 1849. It was one of the first institutions to provide formal qualifications, and was responsible for establishing education as a subject and created the first English professor in the subject. ‘The first college for the training of teachers opened in 1808 and by 1847 there were 20 of these. Universities did not become involved until the last decades of the nineteenth century’ (Reid, 2000: 214).

By the Elementary Education Act of 1870, compulsory primary schooling was introduced. This necessitated a great increase in the number of teachers, and emergency

⁴ Secretary of the Committee of Council on Education at that time.

training programmes were set up in the largely church-run colleges. The recommendations of a Royal Commission in 1885 led to the establishment of training departments in universities, which ended the monopoly of churches. The Education Code of 1890 and Circular 187 (Education Department, 1890), established local committees which were to make arrangements for lecturers to give lessons on the theory and history of education to teachers in training (cited in Reid, 2000). For general subjects, college or university examinations would be accepted, subject to approval and moderation.

In the early twentieth century the local education authorities (LEAs) began to develop their own training colleges (Taylor, 1984). These training colleges provided a two year course of general education and professional training, which led to qualification as a certified teacher mainly in primary schools (Board of Education, 1944). Area Training Organisations (ATOs) were established in 1944 to coordinate courses and training alongside colleges and universities (Taylor, 1984). The establishment of ATOs meant that all areas of the country were overseen by a university Institute of Education.

The inter-World War years (1918-1939) were probably most significant for the withdrawal of the National Board of Education from the examination of training college students in 1929 and the virtual ending of pupil-teacher recruitment in 1927. Eleven joint boards of universities and colleges were set up locally to examine student teachers in order to recommend recognition by the Board of these students as certified teachers. In 1930 the Central Advisory Committee for the Certification of Teachers provided a general overview of the examinations. This committee was composed entirely of members who were directly involved in the enterprise, namely; eight members from universities, four from local authorities, four from training college governing bodies and four from the school teaching profession (Gosden, 1972).

4.2.1 Post Second World-War Reforms

The Second World War, like the first, hit the training colleges hard but planning for post-war reform had begun as early as 1941. In that year, the Board of Education sent to a large number of organizations the famous 'Green Book'--- so called from the colour of its cover---a comprehensive analysis of the English educational system, and suggestions for its reform (Dent, 1977).

In March 1942, the President of the Board of Education, Mr R A Butler, appointed a committee of ten persons under the chairmanship of the Vice-Chancellor of Liverpool University, Sir Arnold McNair, to investigate: the present sources of supply; the methods of recruitment training of teachers and youth leaders; and to report what principles should guide the Board in these matters in the future. The Board of Education was replaced by the Ministry of Education- there had previously been no government department dedicated to education- and gave the Minister a creative rather than a merely controlling function, changing him or her with promoting education in England and Wales (Mackinnon and Statham, 1999).

In May 1944 the McNair Report was published, three months before the Education Act (1944) received the Royal Assent. The title of this report was *Teachers and Youth Leaders* (Board of Education, 1944). It dealt comprehensively with the recognition, supply, and training of teachers for Primary and Secondary schools and further education colleges. The McNair committee condemned "existing arrangements for the recognition, the training and the supply of teachers" as "chaotic and ill-adjusted even to present needs" (McNair Report, 1944: 18). S.H. Wood⁵ (1944: 65) commented that 'most colleges were too small and many were poorly housed and equipped'. A two year course for non-graduates was too short. The basic weakness of the system was that

⁵ He was the head of the Teacher Branch of the Board of Education, who had been made a full member of the committee, and who drafted much of its Report.

the 100 institutions engaged in teacher training were “not related to one another in such a way as to produce a coherent training service” (ibid: 48-9).

‘Unfortunately, the committee split and divided into two groups over the role of universities in teacher education’ (Dent, 1977: 113). Five members, including the chairman wanted enlarged Joint Boards to do it. They wanted ‘a partnership between equals’ and did not want the universities to be responsible for the training of teachers. However, that was precisely what the five members of the other group did want:

We do not believe that any area system for the training of teachers can be effective, unless those who shoulder the responsibility derive their authority from a source which, because of its recognised standards and its standing in the educational world commands the respect of the partners concerned, and which because of its established independence is powerful enough, to resist the encroachments of centralisation. (McNair Report, Para. 170: 50)

This group further declared that, ‘The universities embody these standards and have this standing and this independence’ (ibid: 54). The group proposed that each university should establish a School of Education adding an Institute to the Department. The Institute would be responsible for the training and assessment of all students in its area who were seeking recognition as Qualified Teachers. Ultimately, most universities agreed to establish a modified form of the School of Education Plan. This retained the idea of a “federation of approved training institutions” headed by the university, within Area Training Organisations (ATOs) serviced by the Institute of Education staffed and housed by the university. ‘It is no doubt that the university linked ATOs greatly raised the aspirations of college of education staff and students’ (Reid, 2000: 216).

The McNair recommendations were not fully implemented because of the post-war situation in Britain. Nevertheless, initial teacher education was a significant part of education policy as emergency training was necessary to enable schools to have sufficient staff to teach the children in the immediate post-war period. Even before the post-war crisis in teacher recruitment was fully recognised, the structure and content of

teacher education was subject to government intervention (Bell, 1999). The Second World War produced a great teacher shortage, so that emergency schemes were instituted, some of only one term's duration. Between 1944 and 1951, some 35,000 ex-servicemen and women were trained under the Emergency Recruitment and Training of Teachers Scheme (Bruce, 1985). However, between 1947 and 1951, some 15 universities set up Institutes of Education which validated the training college courses and provided administration and further in-service study for teachers (Stewart, 1989). According to Turner (1990), 'eventually there were 23, all but one of which were integral parts of a university- the exception being that based at Homerton College in Cambridge' (p.44).

In October 1963, the Robins Report was published, which was concerned with higher education and consequently paid attention to teacher education. The Robins Report expressed concern about the lack of recognition given to teacher education and aimed through its recommendations to remedy the situation. It noted that:

The Training Colleges in England and Wales and Colleges of Education in Scotland alike feel themselves to be only doubtfully recognised appropriate as part of the system of higher education and yet to have attained standards of work and a characteristic ethos that justify their claim to an place in it.
(1963: 107).

Under the Robins recommendation 'Teacher Training colleges were to be rapidly expanded to respond to the growing demand for teachers and were to be brought into the higher education system and courses were to be made degree worthy' (Furlong et al., 2000: 19).

The Committee's vision of a professional teacher was of someone who had had a strong personal education; they therefore believed that such personal education should take priority over practical training. The committee added three further recommendations, calculated to raise the status of colleges:

- they should have independent governing bodies;
- they should be financed by ear-marked grants, made through their universities; and
- they should provide, not only three-year courses leading to the Teacher's Certificate, but also four-year courses leading to a degree as well as the Certificate.

Paragraph, 333 of the Report declared that:

Four-year courses leading both to a degree and to professional qualification should be provided in training colleges for suitable students. (Committee on Higher Education, 1963a: 279)

This BEd degree would be awarded by the university with which a college was associated. Following the report, not only was the Bachelor of Education (BEd) introduced in the mid/late 1960s but also the Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) was made compulsory for all graduates wishing to be teachers (Hoghin and Jarman, 1998). Teacher training colleges were renamed as Colleges of Education. These developments offered for the first time in England's history the prospect of an all graduate profession.

The first BEd degrees were awarded in 1968, by the Universities of Keele, Leeds, Reading, Sheffield, and Sussex. In 1969 all the twenty-one universities with Education Departments made awards. In 1972 the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA)⁶ also began validating BEd degrees. Numbers in teacher training increased from 50,000 to 130,000 by 1980 (DES, 1963: 78).

According to Wilkin (1996) the Robins Report's conception of professional education was not implemented fully in practice. There were significant unresolved epistemological difficulties concerning the relationship between theory and practice and in the context of practice the majority of lecturers and students remained sceptical about the value of an overly academic approach to professional preparation. Simon (1991)

⁶ CNAA was the body established to validate degrees in the Polytechnics, about 30 of which were established in the 1960s.

similarly rated the positive and negative effects of the new movement. Whilst the academic study of education was moved to a higher level, these studies were not accompanied by the practical application of teaching, or pedagogy.

In the 1970s the structure, organisation and content of teacher education changed. It became the joint responsibility of new colleges and institutes of higher education of polytechnics and the universities (Taylor, 1984). The entry standard to the college of education was elevated to the same level as universities.

Taylor pointed out that:

Changed institutional settings, a stronger academic emphasis and a shift towards more conservative, subject-centred, instrumental educational purposes weakened and diversified what have been the core values of teacher education. Industrial rather than professional models of teacher organisation were in the ascendant. (P.19)

Under the Conservative government of the early 1970s a committee was established to review the education of teachers, under the chairmanship of Lord James of Rusholme, Vice-Chancellor of York University. The Committee's report published in February, 1972 offered 'a novel and ingenious, but extremely controversial scheme of education and training' (Dent, 1977:150). The most important of its proposals was the introduction of the concept of three cycles of teacher preparation (Reid, 2000), consisting of: the personal education of the teacher; initial training and induction (professional education of the teacher); and in-service education:

- Cycle 1, prospective teachers intending to teach one or two subjects to a relatively high level would take a degree course lasting ordinarily three years. All others would take a two year course of academic study leading to a Diploma in Higher Education.
- Cycle 2 would last two years. Students would spend the first year in an education department, doing studies concentrated upon "preparation for work appropriate to a teacher at the beginning of his/her career rather than on formal courses in 'educational theory'" (1972: 23). The second year would be spent in

the school. During this year students would have the status of ‘licensed teacher’, which meant that they would be salaried teachers but under supervision,

- Cycle 3, according to James (1972: 5) ‘comprehends the whole range of activities by which teachers can extend their personal education, develop their professional competence and improve their understanding of educational principles and techniques’.

‘Reaction to the report was extremely varied; but in general Cycle 3 was warmly welcomed, Cycle 2 was totally rejected and Cycle 1 was mixture of liking and disliking’ (Dent, 1977: 155). The report of 1972 was not followed up in any significant way by the governments of the mid-1970s. As Porter⁷ (1996) states:

The proposals of the James Committee were accepted because politically correct rhetoric required acceptance. They were not implemented because of political, economic and demographic factors. They were also rejected because they argued for the development of a well informed professional group that would have the confidence to change schools in the light of experience and research and the independence to sustain the changes in the face of political and economic pressures. In the light of the contemporary Realpolitik that was one bridge too far. (P.45)

Reid (2000) argues that, ‘the implementation of this report was partial, and this was due to lack of political will to provide the necessary resources and to a radical change in the targets for teacher recruitment’ (p.217).

After eleven months in December 1972, a White Paper, *Education: a Framework for Expansion* (DES, 1972b) was published by the government. This gave most of its attention to higher education, including the education and training of teachers. ‘This document brought a severe reduction in student teacher recruitment, from 114,000 to 60-70,000 by 1981’ (Reid, 2000: 217). This target was achieved by closing some colleges and merging others with universities. ‘In 1976, out of 150 institutions, 50 had been closed, 70 amalgamated and 30 remained “free standing”. Of

⁷ One of the members of the original committee 1972.

the last group, 15 were to become major institutions and 15 stayed as small mono-technics' (Porter, 1996: 41). Reid (2000) states that:

This was a big push towards centralisation and the courses of polytechnics were confirmed centrally by the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). It was in severe contrast to the present composition of the Teacher Training Agency. (P. 217)

Since the 1980s, the government has increased its control over colleges of education and universities and over the content of teacher training courses. Before 1984, teacher educators in universities and colleges controlled the education and training of teachers independently. They determined the knowledge base of teacher education courses, and they controlled the curriculum and assessment of teacher education. However, this freedom of teacher educators has changed as the government has taken over these responsibilities.

4.2.2 Changes in the 1980s: towards school-based teacher training

In the mid 1980s, teacher training was not at the top of the public policy agenda, although recent reforms had been imposed on providers of teacher education. The creation of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) set up in 1983 was intended to monitor teacher education in England and Wales, and had responsibility for ensuring that certain standards were maintained and through a relatively gentle approach recommended to the minister responsible for education. The Content of Initial Training (DES, 1983a) was published in 1983 'as a consultation document following much informal discussion the previous year about the ways in which teacher education could best be improved' (McCulloch, 1994: 5). In 1983 another White Paper, *Teaching Quality* (1983b) was published and after one year Circular 3/84 followed it (DES, 1983, 1984). The circular was of fundamental and lasting significance for the rebuilding of the national system of initial teacher education.

CATE consisted of nominees of the Secretary of State for Education and, under the chairmanship of Professor William Taylor, undertook a review of all existing courses of teacher education and examined proposals for new ones. Criteria for accreditation were set up. The major criteria included extension from 30/32 to 36 weeks for post graduate courses (PGCE), regular refreshment school teaching experience for teacher educators and the recruitment for courses to be inspected by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) (Reid, 2000).

Since the late 1980s, changes have occurred that have had a fundamental impact on ITE in England. There has been a move from a model dominated by the higher education institutes (HEIs) to a school-HEI partnership (King, 2004). The circular 24/89 (DES 1989a), which was issued in November 1989 following a consultation document in May of the same year was considered the most significant. The new circular took a number of steps to strengthen central control of training courses and challenge the autonomy of higher education institutions. 'The circular revised and extended the powers of the CATE and added a new layer of bureaucracy to the accreditation system' (Furlong, et al. 2000: 23). CATE local committees were set up, effectively replacing ATOs. These included practising teachers and representatives of 'the community outside the education service'. Other more radical innovations launched at the end of the decade included the development of new (largely school-based) 'articled teacher' and 'licensed teacher' routes to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (Furlong et al. 1995: 11).

Under the 1988 Education Reform Act (ERA), the state school curriculum is organised into different divisions according to the age of children. Primary schools include key stages 1 and 2 for junior level, 7-11 years, and secondary schools include key stages 3 and 4 for those aged of 11-16/18 years⁸. This was reflected in teacher education, as primary school teachers had two routes to follow: either a four year

⁸ The development of 'Middle' or 'Junior Secondary' schools in the 1970s had been largely reversed by the mid 1990s.

undergraduate programme or a one year Postgraduate Certificate Course in education. Secondary school teachers also had two routes to follow: either a four year undergraduate programme, (only a minority followed this route) or a first degree in a relevant subject, that followed by a one-year Postgraduate Certificate course in education (Maguire and Ball, 1995). The relative success of the National Curriculum and other initiatives from the 1988 Education Act had given policy-makers confidence that reforming teacher training to improve standards was achievable (Ellis, 2006). Therefore, during the late 1980s, higher education institutions were encouraged to develop a range of new course models to complement the traditional four year undergraduate and one year postgraduate courses. Furthermore, to reshape the nature of teachers' professionalism two types of training was introduced: The Articled Teacher Scheme; and Licensed Teacher Scheme⁹. Both schemes were announced on the same day in 1989.

The Articled Teacher Scheme, which ran from 1989-1994, was an entirely new form of school-based PGCE. Students, who had to be graduates, spent two years rather than one year, in training with 80 per cent of their time in school. 'The intention of this scheme was to "extend student teachers" time in schools and to involve schools more fully in their training' (Clayton and Pearce, 1993: 134). The schools in this scheme had a greater responsibility in educating student teachers into the profession (Barton, 1996; Tomlinson, 1995; Field, 1994). According to Aldrich (1990), this scheme was expected to bring more people into the classroom. Somewhat counter to government trends at the time, schemes were to be established by local education authorities (LEAs) working in consortia with higher education institutions. The scheme as a whole was relatively generously funded; articled teachers were given a bursary rather than a means-tested grant and school-based mentors were paid for their work with students in schools

⁹ The Articled and Licensed teacher schemes were initiatives to attract graduates into teaching as a second career, with training on the job provided by schools.

(Furlong, et al., 2000). It was mentioned in *Circular (13/91), Overseas Trained Teachers*, that:

Articled Teachers are pioneers of the school-based approach. It is an important experiment which should be put in perspective. The Government's aim is to provide a diversity of routes into teaching offering a variety of choices to people with different skills, knowledge, experience, background and family circumstances. (DES, 1991)

The Licensed Teacher Scheme also launched in 1989 (DES, 1989b), allowed mature entrants with a minimum of two years of higher education to be recruited directly to positions in schools and provided with any necessary training by their employers 'on the job' (Furlong, et al., 2000: 55). Requirement for a teacher entering employment to have a recognized teaching qualification was waived in this scheme. This scheme was different from The Articled Teacher Scheme in that, the former was school-based teacher education and this route provided a legitimate way to gain qualified teacher status without a degree and without taking part in a training programme organized through higher education (Furlong, et al., 2000).

4.2.3 Developments in the 1990s: big push towards centralisation

The present situation of teacher preparation in England commenced with Secretary of State for Education Kenneth Clarke's address to the North of England Education Conference in 1992. He issued a major new set of proposals for the reform of initial teacher education in England and Wales (Clarke, 1992). These proposals were radical in many ways, most particularly in their suggestion that intending secondary school teachers should spend 80 per cent of their time in school, thus significantly curtailing the role of higher education in the training process (Furlong et al., 2000). Universities and other initial teacher training institutions were to develop partnerships with local schools. This led to the involvement of experienced teachers in the planning and

evaluation of training courses, and in the selection, assessment and supervision of beginner teachers. As a response to educationalist critics who argued for an equitable balance for the PGCE, the course was divided into two-thirds of student time being spent in schools, with the remaining third in higher education institutions (Crook, 1995).

The present system has not come about from fundamental considerations such as those of the McNair, Robbins and James Reports outlined above. While consultation has taken place, it was not demonstrated to have been more than minimal (Mahony & Hextall, 2000). One of the premises on which Clarke based his decision to reform teacher education was that ITE courses did not prepare new teachers adequately (Davies & Ferguson, 1997).

In teacher education in England in the 1990s, there was an important policy change towards structural reorganization and increased central control (Gardner & Cunningham, 1998). The Department of Education (DFE) introduced regulations that required all existing teacher training to be delivered through partnerships between teacher training institutions and schools, thus removing the control which the universities had had over the training of initial teachers for over a century (Furlong et al, 2000; Wilkin, 1996).

In 1992 the Government circular 9/92 set out radical changes by introducing a set of competencies required for the award of QTS (King, 2004), by intending secondary school teachers. Then, circular 14/93 (DFE, 1993) did the same for primary courses. The new criteria for both secondary and primary courses involved a major restructuring of the organization and curriculum of initial teacher education. The greater involvement of schools in the training process was the major change. 'The initial teacher training courses were tightened with the emphasis on shifting more responsibility for training teachers into the schools' (Barber, 1995: 77).

Training has since been a partnership, with a significant portion of the teacher education budget to be transferred to schools for their contribution. The concept of teaching practice was centrally placed, becoming the core of ITT. This was to make it more practical than theoretical. Initial teacher training replaced initial teacher education as classroom competencies were considered the only acceptable evidence of whether a course was effective (Jacques, 1998).

The future division of responsibilities between the two partners was clearly defined. Schools were 'to have a leading responsibility for training students to teach their specialist subjects, to assess pupils and to manage classes, and for supervising and assessing their competencies in these respects' (DFE, 1992, para 14). Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) by contrast were merely to be 'responsible for ensuring that courses meet the requirements for academic validation, presenting courses for accreditation, awarding qualifications for successful students and arranging student placements in more than one school' (DFE, 1992, para 14).

The circulars 9/92 and 14/93 required higher education institutes, schools, and students to 'focus on the competencies of teaching throughout the whole period of initial teacher training' (Furlong, et al., 2000). The training was clearly presented as involving only two elements: *subject knowledge*, which the students were to learn in higher education institutions and *practical teaching skills*, which the students were to learn in schools. Circular 14/93 also proposed the creation of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) as a successor to CATE.

Barber (1995) stated that, 'for a brief period it seemed government might attempt to shift all of the initial teacher education out of universities but it stepped back from the brink' (p: 77). Pimm and Selinger (1995) described the move as a model of restructuring the system without purposeful reconceptualisation. They further claimed that the apprenticeship model of teacher training was back in vogue in England. Asher

and Malet (1999) noted that in England the university/higher education contribution to the training of PGCE teachers has been limited to one-third of the year.

In 1993 CATE was replaced by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), which body was legislated for in September, 1994. The move from 'Council' to 'Agency' signalled a change in governance and the, now formal, redesignation of 'Teacher Education' as 'Teacher Training' indicated a profound ideological shift (Wilkin, 1999). The TTA, now TDA is directly accountable to the Secretary of State. It was assumed that the TTA would be predominantly concerned with initial teacher education. Being a non- departmental public body working for the then Department for Education and Skills (DFES), it funds and regulates all forms of initial teacher training in England. The responsibilities and duties of the TTA were to include the diversification of routes into teaching, the recruitment of student teachers, advice about student teacher selection criteria, the allocation of funding to universities engaged in teacher education, policy development, a concern for quality matters and responsibility for professional development. The Secretary of State declared on June 12th 1996:

We have set up the TTA to push forward our reforms. For the first time we have a body with responsibilities across the full range of teacher training. OfSTED can report on the quality of courses and the TTA can close the bad ones...We need to move further and faster to ensure all new teachers are trained to use more effective techniques.... For the first time we will define the essential content of training courses. This is just a start. I intend over time to recast all initial and in-service teacher training within a full scale professional framework. It will cover course content and qualifications for everyone from brand new teacher to the experienced head. (Quoted in Turner, 1997: 66)

The TTA has assisted the government in the development and codification of the earlier lists of competencies into a detailed set of 'standards' for the award of QTS, creating a national curriculum for initial teacher education, policed by OFSTED inspection (Whitty, 2000). This seeks to promote 'improvement through inspection' (Clay, et al., 1998:59). Moreover, 'OFSTED developed a new inspection framework for initial teacher education' (Furlong et al., 2000: 2). OFSTED is a non-ministerial

government inspectorate whose remit, as Lawlor (1993: 7) put it, as collecting ‘objective evidence about schools (and teacher education courses) and reporting on their failings’ (cited in Furlong, 2002).

TTA and OFSTED together immediately exercised a powerful control over teacher education. ‘Non-compliance with TTA requirements can result in the withdrawal of funding from an institution’ (Lo, 2006: 185). ‘This mixture of ‘marketisation’ and central control is reminiscent of what was happening in other aspects of education policy’ (Whitty, 2002: 64). Another important factor of that policy was the ending of the Articled Teacher Scheme and the establishment of School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) and other schemes which involved direct payment to schools for ITT and did not necessarily entail any higher education involvement (Furlong et al., 2000).

The important feature of TTA was to reform the Initial Teacher Training (ITT). ITT reform in the 1990s can usefully be seen within the context of the politics of Conservative governments and, perhaps particularly, the impact of New Right Ideology¹⁰. ‘To date this context has not changed following the election of New Labour in 1997, the Third Way being indistinguishable from the old way in respect to ITT’ (Reid, 2000: 219). Despite a clear commitment to markets the Conservative administrations were responsible for a dramatic centralisation of government power in the public services (Gamble, 1988). The Agency survived the establishment of a General Teaching Council in England in 2000 (McNamara et al., 2008).

In 1998 a National Curriculum for Teacher Education was established by the TTA with a clear list of competencies to be attained for achieving QTS (TTA, 1998a; 1998b). The TTA produced its first draft ‘*Standards for Initial Teacher Education*’ in 1997. It confirmed the shift of training to schools but left quality assurance to

¹⁰ New Right Ideology is associated with the politics of the Conservative governments (1979-97) under the leadership of Mrs. Margaret Thatcher and Mr. John Major.

universities. The circular set out new criteria for all teacher education courses and determined the English and mathematics content which should be taught to all trainees on all primary initial teacher training courses. It was stated in the circular (DFEE, 1997b) that:

Successful completion of a course or programme of initial teacher training including employment based provision, must require the trainee to achieve all these standards. All courses must involve the assessment of all trainees to make sure that they meet all the standards specified. (P.7)

The curriculum was published in two documents. The first, covering primary English and mathematics, was developed and published along with the standards document in June 1997 (DFEE, 1997b). The remaining parts (primary and secondary science, mathematics, English) were published in 1998 (DFEE, 1998a). This first list of 'Standards' for the Award of QTS (1998) was criticised by academics and teacher educators for concentrating on subject knowledge and pupil performance, without respect for the context of the school and community, thus restructuring teacher initiative (Mahony and Hextal, 1998). In 1998, a new document called 'Green Paper' (DFEE, 1998b) was published, which argued for creation of new professionalism among teachers and set the criteria for this purpose. The government took much more direct control of teacher education, for example, in order to establish equality of opportunity and improve quality. According to Furlong et al. (2000):

What the government and particularly the TTA had wanted was a common system with common standards and procedures, no matter who was providing the training or where; this was how the TTA defined quality. By the end of the 1990s this had been largely achieved. (P.149)

The shift away from a traditional, theory-before-practice model of teacher education in England towards the more practice-based methods courses of the 1990s was underpinned by the notions of 'reflection-in-action' and collaborative partnerships between university and schools (Lo, 2006: 185).

3.2.4 The Start of the New Millennium

The new millennium began with the establishment of General Teaching Council for England (GTC) in September, 2000. GTC is an independent professional body for teaching which provides an opportunity for teachers to shape the development of professional practice and policy, and to maintain and set professional standards.

A new version of the training Standards was published jointly by the TTA and DfES in 2002, as an attempt to put forward a more holistic vision of teacher professionalism through the introduction of a section on 'professional values' which was requested by the teacher education profession (DfES & TTA, 2002). This 2002 Education Act gave the GTC further powers: trainee teachers were required to have provisional registration with the GTC, and the GTC defined suitability to teach (GTC, 2005). The key document was *Qualifying to Teach*, first published in 2002, following a much fuller consultation process than had previously been undertaken by the TTA (TTA, 2004a). This was further developed by a lengthy handbook of guidance that was updated in spring 2004 (TTA, 2004b). It was stated in this document that:

The document is relevant to anyone involved in initial teacher training, including trainee teachers, qualified teachers and those who employ and support newly qualified teachers. All those directly involved in initial teacher training should have access to it. The document should be used to establish a common framework of expectations and will help to promote the highest professional standards for everyone coming into the teaching profession. (TTA, 2004a)

Developments included the emergence of a much more cooperative climate between the university providers and the TTA, including partnership promotion and the identification of 'training school' (Brisard et al., 2005).

In the 2005 Education Act the TTA morphed into the TDA (Training and Development Agency for Schools) (McNamara et al., 2008); which was charged with raising standards of achievement in schools impart by improving the training and

professional development for the whole school workforce as well as for the creation of a coherent framework for teacher professional development beyond initial teacher education. The TDA was in fact formed from a merger between the TTA and the National Remodelling Team (NRT). The government's white paper, *Higher Standards, better schools for all*, gave the TDA a key role connecting schools, the government and the providers of ITT. Ruth Kelly¹¹ (2005), the Secretary of State at that time called the TDA "my modernising agency".

In September 2007, following a reform of the Ministry of Education, the Secretary of State for Innovation, Universities and Skills imposed the requirements under the Education (School Teachers' Qualification) (England) Regulation 2003, made under sections 132 (a) and (c), 145 and 210(7) of the Education Act 2002 (a). Existing standards were revised and came into effect in September, 2007. The new requirements set out:

- *The Secretary of State's standards, which must be met by trainee teachers before they can be awarded qualified teacher status (QTS), and*
- *The requirements for training providers and those who make recommendations for the award of QTS.*

4.3 Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature pertaining to initial teacher education, with special reference to England. The literature has shed light on the historical background and current practices and developments in initial teacher education.

The next chapter will contain a literature review of initial teacher education with the same combination of historical background and the contemporary state of teacher education in Pakistan.

¹¹ Rt Hon Ruth Kelly MO, Secretary of State for Education and Skills, speech to launch the TDA, September 2005.

CHAPTER FIVE: THE CASE OF PAKISTAN

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has shown that the professional preparation of teachers in England is a multi-faceted and complex process wherein a range of factors interact. This chapter provides a similarly detailed literature review of teacher education and teacher professional development. It covers: historical development; policy initiatives; educational change; and the current system of teacher education in Pakistan. It also deals with Pakistan's social, cultural and educational context. It provides a brief overview of the demographic, cultural, political and economic situation, as well as considering issues related directly to initial teacher education.

Pakistan emerged as an Islamic Republic State on August 14, 1947. Geographically, it has an area of about 796,095 Sq. kilometres (307,374 Sq. miles). Pakistan comprises four provinces: Punjab, North West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and Sind and some federal units which include Islamabad Capital Territory (ICT), Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) and Federally Administered Northern Areas (FANA).

The constitution of Pakistan is federal and parliamentary. The President is the head of the state and the Prime Minister is its executive head. Political and Civil administration in each of the provinces is run by the Governor and Chief Minister. The national language is Urdu, but Pakistan has historically been a multi-lingual nation. These following regional languages are spoken in various parts of the country: Punjabi and Siraiki in Punjab, Pashto and Hindko in North West Frontier Province, Balochi and Brahui in Baluchistan, and Sindhi in Sind (CIA, 2008). The medium for education is Urdu but English continues to be used in higher education and professional colleges,

particularly in scientific and technical fields and also is used for commercial, legal and other official business in the country.

The political system of Pakistan has undergone several far-reaching changes since independence, which have adversely affected its economic, financial and political stability. This instability led to a 'brain drain' of skilled labor, especially through the emigration of professional people, such as teachers, doctors and engineers. Two conflicting ideas affected the political stability: first, the struggle for authority in the country between the political leadership and military bureaucrats, and second, the struggle between regional groups.

5.1.1 The Cultural and Social Life of Pakistan

The geographical area of Pakistan is heir to one of the most ancient civilizations of the Orient, known as the Indus Valley Civilization. The two excavated sites of Mohenjodro and Harrapa show the advanced commercial activities and rich cultural and social life of their inhabitants. Racially, most Pakistanis belong to the Indo-Aryan group but the region has been a melting pot of several racial types: the pre-Dravidian and Dravidian stocks mingled with those who come from Central Asia, the Aryans, Persians, Arabs, Turks and Mongols.

According to the last population Census in 1998, the population of Pakistan was about 131 million of which 88 million were living in rural areas and 43 million were residing in urban areas (Statistics Division, 1998). Males slightly outnumbered females: about 68 million (52 per cent) to 63 million (48 per cent). Gottelmann-Duret (2000) stated that in 1985-95, Pakistan's population grew faster than the economy of the country with a GNP/capita of only US\$200 and a population increase exceeding the

pace of economic growth. According to the CIA (2008), the estimated population of Pakistan had risen to 167,762,040 by July 2008.

About 97 per cent of the people are Muslim, with the remainder divided among Christians, Hindus, Parsees and Sikhs (CIA, 2008). For most Pakistani people, Islam is not simply a religion, but a way of life. Therefore, the educational curriculum is strongly influenced by religious ideas, and education's role is seen as the preservation and inculcation of Islamic values as instruments of national unity and progress. As an Islamic state, Pakistan educationally places great emphasis on Islamic values. At the same time educationalists in Pakistan express their desires that the people of Pakistan should be good citizens, equipped with technical and scientific qualifications.

According to Allama Iqbal:

'The objective of education should not only be to make good citizens or to equip them with the necessary technical, mechanical or other qualifications, but also to produce leaders possessing a keen perception of the spirit and destiny of Islam'.

5.1.2 Economic Background

Since the time of independence in 1947, Pakistan has faced many economic problems. Unequal distribution of wealth is a one of the problems, a small number of business families control the bulk of the industrial wealth, while the basic economic resource (agricultural) is concentrated in the hands of the feudal lords. In Pakistan, industrial development is considered a vital factor for improving the standard of living of the people, exploiting natural resources and imparting strength and stability to the economy. Inflation remains the biggest threat to the economy, jumping from 7.7 per cent in 2007 to more than 11 per cent during the first few months of 2008 (CIA, 2008).

5.1.3 The Educational Culture of the Country

The development of a nation and its education are closely related to each other. Pakistan is unlikely to change its human development ranking and bring it closer to its ranking in per-capita income and GDP, until it addresses its low achievement in basic schooling and teacher education. In terms of literacy rate, the ranking of Pakistan among the Muslim world is 31 out of 35 countries and globally 124 out of 177 countries (UNDP, 2007/08). Current estimates of the national literacy rate vary from 35 to 54 per cent. According to the 1998 census the literacy rate was 46 per cent (with the definition that age 15 and over can read and write). Since then there has not been a complete national census, so it is difficult to provide an authentic figure of literacy. What we receive are varying estimates according to different methods of definition and investigation. In 2007, the overall literacy rate of Pakistan was estimated at 49.9 per cent, with males at 63.0 per cent and females at 36.0 per cent (CIA, 2008).

Obviously, this low rate is a negative feature of a population of at least 168 million while the birth rate of population is still increasing by 2.20 per cent per annum (CIA, 2008). With such a low literacy rate, it is extremely difficult for a nation to compete with countries that have universalized secondary education (Khalid, 1996). A comparison of the population growth and the rate of increase of the literacy rate show that the literacy rate becomes meaningless in the sense that, in real terms, the number of illiterates is increasing (Isani and Virk, 2005). The most important reason for this is lack of funds for education. Despite UNESCO's recommendation that the governments of low-income countries spend 4 per cent of their Gross National Product (GNP) on education, Pakistan falls short of that figure. Its financial allocation on education falls between 2 per cent to 3 per cent (Aly, 2007; National Education Policy, 1998-2010; Mahmood et al., 1999).

Shami (2005) states that:

'the spending of education according to an optimistic system has been about 2 per cent of our GDP which is very small in size anyway and even much lower than other Asian countries. While the debt servicing and an important sector¹² consume about 70 per cent of the budget, only 30 per cent is left for other sectors from which education is allocated a much smaller share'. (P. 83)

5.1.4 Structure of the Education System

In Pakistan, elementary education is free and compulsory according to the Constitution (1973). Public education is organized into five levels: primary (grades one to five); middle (grades six to eight); high (grades nine and ten, culminating in matriculation); intermediate or higher secondary (grades eleven and twelve), leading to an F.A. diploma in arts or F.S. science; and university programmes leading to undergraduate and advanced degrees (UNESCO, 1994). The enrolment rate in primary school is high for boys, but less than one-half of girls attend school. Five years has been established as the period of primary school attendance (Pakistan Education, 2003).

Pakistan's school system is marked by its diversity. There are government schools, semi government institutions and completely private schools. The government education system has an important role in determining how successful schooling will be in achieving the goal of a progressive, moderate and democratic Pakistan. According to Bregman & Mohammad (cited in Hoodbhoy, 1998: 68), 'four out of five school going children are in government schools'. Children in these schools do learn, but it is not known if what they learn is useful in today's modern society or whether the standards are comparable with similar countries abroad.

Teacher training is primarily a provincial responsibility in Pakistan. Each province has its own ITT management structure, largely driven by frequent *ad hoc*

¹² Ministry of Defence and Interior Ministry

interventions, either through policy changes or donor interventions (UNESCO & USAID, 2006). 'In Pakistan teacher training programmes address two main issues: increasing the number of trained teachers; and improving teacher quality as stated in all successive policies' (Khalid, 1996: 78).

A detailed historical analysis, review of educational policies and the current system of teacher education in Pakistan now follow

5.2 Historical Analysis of Teacher Education and Policy Implementation Measures in Pakistan

In the past, education was considered as general aid to development. However, in the modern era, the perception of the education has sharpened. Now it has meanings for economic and social development at personal level, and human resource development at national level.

On 14th August 1947, Pakistan became a sovereign State. At independence, the new nation was thrown into competition with the rest of the world. Its future status depended upon how well it would meet this competition with the skills of its own people. At that time especially the country needed a dynamic and progressive education system (UNESCO, 1990).

Whilst teacher training in Pakistan is primarily a provincial responsibility, Pakistan's federal government also plays a role through its Curriculum Wing, which is also responsible for teacher education institutions. Primary school teachers seeking employment in government schools are trained in three ways:

- through Government Colleges for Elementary Teachers (GCETs) and Regional Institutes for Teacher Education (RITEs);
- through the distance education programmes of the Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad; and
- through the teacher training courses administered in high schools under the supervision of the Directorate of Curriculum and Teacher Education. The graduates of these institutions are taught a similar curriculum, and receive the Primary Teaching Certificate (PTC) at the end of the course, which lasts one year.

Since independence, there has been a significant expansion in teacher education institutions. Currently, in Pakistan, 270 teacher education/training institutes exist of which 227 are run by the government sector and 48 are operated by the private sector (AED 2005). *Table 5.1* shows the current provincial distribution of TT institutes.

Table 5.1: Number of Teacher Education /Training Institutes by Provinces

Provinces	Government	Private	Total
Punjab	75	07	82
Sindh	56	24	80
NWFP	39	08	47
Balochistan	28	02	30
Federal Area	08	02	10
FATA	05		05
FANA	03	02	05
AJK	13	03	16
Total	227	48	270

Source: Academy for Educational Development (2005). Directory of Teacher Education/Training Institutes in Pakistan.

5.2.1 Post-Independence Reforms (1947-60)

The educational system of any country hinges on the teacher, who occupies a pivotal position in its quality. However, unless s/he is made conversant with the latest educational developments and provided with up to date training facilities and efficient introduction of appropriate new curricula, the implementation of the macro educational policy is not possible (MoE, 1977: 16). After the independence of Pakistan in 1947, several education reforms were launched in order to bring about qualitative and quantitative improvements in the education sector. Seven major education policies along with five-year plans and ten-year perspective plans have been formulated and implemented in Pakistan since 1947 due to the rise and fall of different governments. In relation to these, at least twenty-two major reports on education have been issued by the government, all emphasising the importance of education, and suggesting ways and means of diffusing quality education to the masses. These educational reports touch upon all kinds of educational institutions but they focus more on modern education provided in the government schools, colleges and universities. However, there is still no comprehensive vision or single policy on ITE.

From time to time, committees and commissions constituted by government have recommended major changes in the education system. Some have been implemented, but tradition has been so strong that in its essential aspects the system tends to be resistant to change. The situation did not improve appreciably in the first years after independence, because reforms and development efforts were haphazard and uncoordinated. Education policy from 1947 to 1958 reflected the unsettled political conditions of the country. The development of teacher education in Pakistan can best be reviewed within the framework of past educational policies and the Five-Year Plans of

the Government. These two strands are basic to the educational outlook of Pakistan and essential for a deep insight into the issues.

The first National Educational Conference was held in November, 1947 in Karachi three months after the birth of Pakistan. At that time Muhammad Ali Jinnah, known as the father of the Nation, outlined an educational philosophy which incorporated the fundamentals of Islamic tradition as well as modern science and technology. This conference produced a strong philosophy of education as well as a number of ambitious recommendations indicating the future goals of education in Pakistan. The Primary and Secondary Education Committee of this conference summarised the need for good teachers, as follows:

The Committee agreed that a properly trained and reasonably well paid teaching profession was essential to the building up of a great State. It therefore suggested that the provinces should take necessary steps to assure, 1) the proper training of teachers and 2) an adequate scales of salary. The Committee noted that the introduction of free and compulsory education would require an army of teachers and suggested that the provinces should adopt special measures to meet this need. In this connection they suggested the adoption of short term courses for their training. In particular, the Committee stressed the desirability of adding research departments to training institutions for the study of special problems relating to teaching. (Ministry of Interior, 1947: 21)

Nevertheless, many of its recommendations remained in documentary form only, for lack of institutional capacity or economic resources to pursue them. Jalil (1998) mentions that despite the shortfall in public expenditure, at the end of the decade 1947-57, Pakistan's educational system had shown some quantitative improvement. However, the major thrust of government policy during this period remained on industrial development, and the government's goals for higher level human resource development were deferred to the future.

In 1951, the Educational Conference for the first time made far-reaching recommendations for educational reforms. During this period the Advisory Board of Education, the Council for Technical Education and the Inter-University Board also

reviewed the education system and made recommendations about various aspects of it, within their respective frames of reference. Regular overall planning of education was tried for the first time in 1952 in the form of the six-year Educational Development Plan (1952-1958). However, lack of finance limited the implementation of the Plan. In 1954, a Planning Board was set up which included a strong education section. This Board contributed to the First Five-Year Plan (Pakistan Planning Board, 1956) which because of various difficulties was not released until 1957 and little of it was actually implemented.

It was proposed in this Plan (1955-60) to open 25 new normal schools (primary training institutes)¹³ for teacher training with an average capacity of 120 places each and it was also suggested to improve the facilities of the 99 existing normal schools. To improve female education it was suggested that “at least one-half of the twenty five new normal schools should be for women teachers” (p.422). The First Plan also proposed the raising of the basic qualifications of teachers and the establishment of in-service training programmes. However, during the Plan period only two new teacher training colleges and one primary training institute were opened. Some qualitative improvements were made in the existing institutions, and the entrance qualifications for the primary training institutes were raised, in general to matriculation standard. The number of primary training institutes decreased from 97 to 75 due to the closure of inefficient centres in East Pakistan, although expansion of facilities at the remaining institutes maintained the annual output of primary teachers at 7,400 (2nd Five Year Plan, 1960: 344).

Proposals were frequently put forward during the 1950s to modernize syllabi, upgrade standards, and make course content conform to national aspirations, culture and conditions. A comprehensive approach to educational reform did not exist prior to 1958.

¹³ Pakistan came into existence in 1947. Its two provinces West Pakistan and East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) were separated by more than 1,000 miles of Indian territory. At that time primary teachers were trained in normal schools in West Pakistan and primary training institutes in East Pakistan maintained by the Department of Education in each province.

Uncoordinated changes were introduced, limited essentially to curricular matters in teacher training.

5.2.2 Steps Towards Improvement (1960-70)

In 1959, a National Commission was established by the military Government of the day, which recommended that education should be made compulsory up to primary level by the year 1969 and up to middle level by the year 1974. The first thorough analysis of education came in the Report of the Commission on National Education in 1959 which *inter alia* conceded that no system of education is better than the teachers who serve it (MoE, 1977: 1). This new educational policy seemed a realistic approach to the challenge of removing social, economic and political differences. The Report of the Commission on National Education put the emphasis on quality in general education and in teacher education. It also recommended a complete reorganization of the country's educational system- its structure, curriculum, teacher-training methods and examinations. New types of teaching institutions and specialised centres were proposed to provide technical assistance. These included a Bureau of Education for Research and data collection and Educational Extension Centres to improve the in-service teacher training programme. Educational Extension Centres were established to improve the quality of teaching but failed to introduce new and more modern methods. They soon reverted to classical pedagogy and the teachers came away with little change in attitude. 'The basic philosophy upon which these centres had been established was lost in the process. Efforts to introduce systematic planning into education overall were largely unsuccessful' (Hayes, 1987: 48).

The Commission (1959) recommended that teacher education should not continue to be mainly a preparation for the new generation, but would also become a

final stage for many who could not benefit from higher education but who could fulfil the requirements of school-level trained manpower. The policy stated that more emphasis should be on teacher education in accordance with changing trends. The Commission suggested for the establishment of Colleges of Teacher Educators. The policy emphasised that teacher training programmes should ensure:

- *a sound grasp of the subjects;*
- *knowledge of child psychology and insight into the growth and behaviour of children at various stages of their lives;*
- *the methodology of teaching and the skill to use up to date techniques; and*
- *a strong sense of professional ethics.* (Paras, 15, 16, 17, 18, pp. 261-262)

The Commission divided school teachers into four categories (*Table 5.2*) and suggested the appropriate duration of training for each category as follows:

Table 5.2: Report of Commission

	Teachers' Categories	Qualification for Admission	Duration of Training in Academic Year
1	Teachers I - V	Matriculation	One Year
2	Teachers VI - VIII	Intermediate	Two Years
3	Teachers IX - X	Graduation	Two Years
4	Teachers XI - XII	Masters	Short Training Course

Source: Report of the Commission on National Education, Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Education, 1959.

Isani and Virk (2005: 49) comment that, 'the best parameter to judge the seriousness of any Government with regard to its policies is provided in its financial allocations'. Unfortunately, lack of immediate action, poor financial resources and the

negative behaviour of different religious and ‘secularist’ groups, created many problems and prevented the implementation of the policy in 1960 and the document remained a mere dream among many in Pakistan’s educational history. Hayes (1987) argues that the National Commission on Education introduced a process intended to transform the educational structure in a systematic and planned fashion. However, efforts to introduce systematic planning into education were largely unsuccessful. The main weaknesses were the Commission’s authoritarian approach and the lack of support on the part of public opinion.

At the same time, in 1960, the Second Five-Year Plan (Pakistan Planning Commission (PPC), 1960) was launched. The Plan proposed to open one training college, two junior training colleges and 20 primary training institutes in East Pakistan¹⁴ and two new training colleges and 15 primary training institutes in West Pakistan (Para 19: 344). The Plan also made provision for the in-service training of educational administrators, inspectors, headmasters and specialised teachers through the education extension centres. Other in-service programmes were proposed to operate through the teacher training colleges and selected primary training institutes (Para 22: 345). This Plan was the most successful and the majority of objectives were achieved. The long-term objective of this Plan was to raise the educational and training qualifications of primary school teachers by various means, including:

- *to train 5,000 teacher educators at the Institutes of Education and Research at Dacca and Lahore;*
- *to expand the capacity of some of the best Primary Training Institutes and Normal Schools in terms of academic, residential, library and other facilities;*
- *to overhaul the curricula of teacher training institutions with a view to incorporating in them the latest professional knowledge;*

¹⁴ Now Bangladesh

- *to initiate a vigorous programme of in-service training; and to introduce the subject of Education as an elective at the Intermediate stage of studies.*
(Paras 35: 167)

In 1969, the Ministry of Education published proposals for a new Educational Policy which was adopted by the Cabinet on March 26, 1970 under the military regime. In this publication it was stated that the content of the existing teacher training programme was dominated by a general curriculum which served mainly as preparation for a new generation. It was also stated that there was an increasing need for middle-level skilled workers and the enrolment of pupil teachers, and that teacher education should be scientific, technical and vocational in nature.

The programme envisaged for the Fourth Five Year Plan (PPC, 1970) under the New Education Policy (NEP) 1970 made provision for the preparation of about 128,000 new teachers and the in-service training of 150,000 teachers. With a view to ensuring their adequate preparation, it was proposed that the teachers for primary, middle and high schools should have at least Matriculation, Intermediate, and Graduate qualifications respectively and have received professional training. To expand the training of teachers, a crash programme of teacher training on an emergency basis with condensed courses of shorter duration was proposed to be provided by selected educational institutions to meet the demand for a large number of teachers. It was suggested that there was a need to begin a comprehensive programme of in-service training of teachers to up-grade their qualifications.

However, the announcement of the New Education Policy 1970 coincided with political instability in the country¹⁵. Isani and Virk (2005) mention that, 'The severity of the disruption was such that, the Fourth Five-Year Plan (1970-75) could not be implemented and the policy was abandoned'. (P. 52)

¹⁵ Conflict started between East Pakistan and West Pakistan.

5.2.3 Nationalisation: a house built on the sand...(1971-79)

After the loss of the East Wing of Pakistan¹⁶ in 1971, the New Education Policy (1972-80) was introduced (MoE, 1972) under the new management of the Peoples Party (the first civilian government after almost two decades). The numerous objectives of this policy included equalizing education opportunities, arresting the decline in educational standards and correcting the growing imbalance between various types of education. To achieve these targets, the government decided to *nationalise* all the privately managed institutions. This action promised to provide opportunity for education to every citizen regardless of race, religion or birth. The teachers serving in these institutions were absorbed in the National Pay Scale (Research Wing, 1984).

At that time it was assumed that there were 160,000 teachers available. Over the next eight years, an additional 235,000 elementary and secondary teachers and 300,000 adult and continuing education teachers would be needed if the plan were to be achieved. The existing teacher training colleges and 55 teacher education institutions of the lower level were capable of producing 104, 000 teachers over the eight-year period. To make up the difference, education courses were to be added to the matriculation level in order to provide primary teachers. Similar courses at the intermediate level would provide middle level teachers. A particularly acute problem was the need for women teachers. Accordingly some existing primary teacher education institutions for men were to be converted for the training of women. The system of recruitment of teachers was also to be improved.

The Ministry of Education (1972: 27) promised that all teacher-training courses would be revised and a large-scale in-service teacher assistance programme would be

¹⁶ During the war with India Pakistan lost its Eastern wing in 1971 and a new country called Bangladesh came into existence. At present Pakistan has four provinces, Punjab, Sind, NWFP, and Balochistan.

undertaken to enable practising teachers to teach the new curricula correctly and effectively. The policy also emphasised improvement of teaching methods and provision of instructional materials and teaching aids to primary schools. For this purpose the Ministry of Education (MoE, 1977) decided to develop a comprehensive project, known as the National Teaching Kit Project (NTKP), through which all existing 60,000 primary schools of Pakistan could be provided with teaching kits for the improvement of primary education. These teaching kits were accompanied by a booklet, *“Teachers’ Manual for Teaching Kit”*. The National Teaching Kit as an aid for primary schools was included in the Primary Teaching Certificate (PTC) curriculum.

The effective implementation of the Education Policy (1972-80) demanded a fundamental and continuing reconsideration of teacher education programmes at both the pre-service and in-service levels. For this reason the PTC and CT curricula were revised by the National Committee on Elementary Teacher Education Curriculum in 1974-75. To implement the new curricula effectively, teacher guides were developed in various school subjects and provided to all the educational institutions in the country during 1975-80. In this context, various pedagogical groups were established and the recommendations of these groups were approved by the National Committee. The reports of these groups were compiled and implemented.

However, implementation by the Ministry of Education (1972) was haphazard and uncoordinated in the sense that carefully planned positive steps could not be taken to implement the recommendations of the various committees set up by the Government. Moreover, nationalisation put a great deal of administrative stress and financial strain on the Government (Research Wing, 1984).

5.2.4 Denationalisation and Islamic Ideology: a new hope or despair? (1979-97)

The Fifth Five Year Plan (1978-1983) (PPC, 1978) was introduced in 1978. After one year the *National Education Policy* (1979) and Implementation Programme was published in 1979, again under the new military government. The underlying objectives of the 1979 Education Policy remained the same as the previous policy. However, it denationalized the educational institutions. The policy predicted that privatization would help to reduce the financial burden of the state and to overcome the shortages of educational institutions created over the past five to seven years (MoE, 1978). Another basic aim behind the implementation of this policy was the harmonization of education in Pakistan with the concepts of Islam and the ideology of Pakistan. The fact was accepted that 'education can only be as good as the teachers and teachers are the pivot of the entire educational system' (NEP, 1979: 62).

Considerable emphasis was therefore placed on the improvement of teacher training, including the enhancement of the role of the universities. Primary Teacher Training Institutes and Normal Schools were to be upgraded to Colleges of Elementary Teachers. All teachers would be required to undergo at least one in-service training course every five years. It was also stressed that the curriculum of teacher training should be renewed. Provision was made for setting up an Academy of Education Planning and Management (AEPAM) for further research and improvement in teacher education. Whereas all previous policies emphasised the quantitative expansion of the pre-service teacher education programmes in the general subjects, this policy proposed to put more emphasis on the qualitative improvement through up-grading and enrichment of the teacher education programmes. The more importance was given to in-service teacher training, to improve the quality of teacher education.

The National Education Policy (1992-2002) had its root in earlier policies and placed more emphasis on universal primary education and adult education (mass literacy). The policy proposed programmes to increase the literacy rate. The ultimate aim was to eliminate disparities in education, but the policy contained no particular emphasis on teacher education and training. However, it did encourage the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to set up resources centres for the in-service training of teachers. It was also suggested to begin periodical training for updating the knowledge and teaching methods of primary teachers.

The Eighth Five Year Plan (1993-98) put emphasis on the qualitative improvement of physical infrastructures, curricula, textbooks and teacher training programmes. The Plan admitted the urgent need to update the knowledge and skills of teacher educators. It proposed to review and reform the curricula and training methodology of teacher training institutions at all levels.

The previous Education Policy (1992) had been announced by the Muslim League Government in 1992. Within one year of the announcement of the policy, the Muslim League Government was ousted. There was, therefore, no implementation of the policy. After coming into power again in 1997, the Muslim League government directed the framing of the new education policy in 1998 (Isani and Virk, 2005: 61). They further argue that:

'given the past history of Education Policies, one should not be surprised that these are not seen as national documents but rather as party manifesto. The instability of the political government which was the architect of the Policies led to non-implementation of the major recommendations of the policies'. (P. 63)

5.2.5 Government Thinking towards Teacher Education (1998-2008)

The present situation of teacher preparation in Pakistan dates from 1998, when the Government of Pakistan launched the present National Education Policy (1998-2010).

According to this policy, there is an imbalance in teacher training programmes among the courses pertaining to academic knowledge of the subject, content of school curriculum, teaching methods, teaching practices and curricular activities. The policy emphasises higher education, education in technology and science and teacher education. The policy gives a comprehensive list of quality inputs, i.e. merit based recruitment of teachers, pre-service and in-service training, provision of career structure, and a system of awards and incentives.

The policy also proposed to increase the educational qualification for primary teachers from Matriculation to Intermediate, revising the curricula of content and methodology, and upgrading the quality of pre-service teacher training programmes by introducing parallel programmes of longer duration at post-secondary and post-degree levels, i.e. introduction of programmes of FA/FSc education and BA/BSc education (MoE, 1998).

The frequency and depth of in-service training courses would be increased by institutionalizing in-service programmes through school clustering and other techniques. It was suggested to use both formal and non-formal means to provide increased opportunities of in-service training to working teachers, preferably at least once every five years. The policy also proposed to create a matching relationship between demand and supply of teachers. It was also recommended that future teacher training would emphasize creativity and productivity, and development of professional competencies through knowledge and skills (MoE, 1998). It is stated in the National Education Policy (1998-2010) that:

The teacher is the backbone of an educational system. The teacher education system has quantitatively expanded to keep a reasonable equilibrium in the demand and supply situation but the qualitative dimension of teacher education programme has received only marginal attention resulting in mass production of teachers with shallow understanding of both the content and methodology of education. (Item, 1.8, p. 47)

The current system of teacher training programmes is as follows in *Table 5.3*.

Table 5.3: Distribution of different classes according to different training programmes.

Training Programme	Qualification For Admission	Duration of Training in Academic Years	Classes to Teach
PTC	Secondary School Certificate (SSC)	01 year	I-V
CT	Higher Secondary school Certificate (HSSC)	01 year	I-VIII
DIE	Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC)	18 months	I-VIII
B.S.Ed (12 +3)	Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC)	03 years	VI-X
BEEd (14+1)	B.A/B.Sc	01 year	VI-X
M.A Education	BEEd	02 years	VI-XII + Student Teachers of PTC/CT and BEEd & supervision.
MEEd	BEEd	01 year	VI-XII + Student Teachers of PTC/CT and BEEd & supervision

Source: National Education Policy 1998, (1998-2010).

Once again, in 2000, the military came to power. The military government did not abandon the policy and took a number of steps to build a consensus on a timetable for implementing some reforms. Further, it reinforced the process by adopting its policy imperatives under “Education Sector Reforms: Strategic Plan 2001-2004” (Isani and Virk, 2005: 63). This Education Sector Reform (ESR) programme seeks to provide national leadership around the *Education for All* agenda as well as address major sectoral issues. The issue of teacher education was considered implicitly within the crosscutting area of quality assurance (Khan, C., 2004). In order to strengthen the quality of teacher education, in 2001 Pakistan implemented a teacher education reform. Under this reform, admission to primary school teachers’ institutions would require 12 years of schooling. Students who had passed Grade XII would be required to study for one and half years (18 months) for the Diploma of Education. The government also focused on curriculum reforms and improvement in teacher education and training. In order to achieve this target, the government has taken initiatives such as upgrading teacher qualification linked to higher pay scales, in-service training of teachers at all

levels of the education system, continuous curriculum reviewing and updating in collaboration with provincial counterparts and through public-private partnerships, and encouraging the multiple textbooks option (MoE, 2001). In order to meet these standards, the Military Government took a crucial step of introducing decentralization in education. On 14th August, 2001, district governments were created across urban and rural areas under the devolution plan for addressing governance and service delivery by introducing decentralized approaches to decision-making. With the coming of the Civilian Government in 2002, the National Education Policy (1998-2010) and the policies of the military government continued to be followed.

Recently, the Draft of new National Education Policy (2008) has been prepared following a lengthy process of consultations¹⁷. The review exercise was conducted in close cooperation with all stakeholders, particularly the Provincial and District governments. The main recommended features of this policy for pre-service teacher education are:

- *The requirement for teaching at elementary level will be B.Ed. PTC and CT will be phased out through encouraging the present set of teachers to improve their qualifications, while new hiring shall be based on the advanced criteria;*
- *Teacher training arrangements, accreditation and certification procedures will be standardised and institutionalised;*
- *Teacher education curriculum will be adjusted to the needs of the school curriculum and scheme of studies. The curriculum will include training for student-centred teaching, cross-curricular competencies, and an on-site component;*
- *A separate cadre of specialised teacher educators will be developed;*
- *All teachers will have opportunities for professional development through a programme;*

¹⁷ A series of 23 green papers were prepared on different topics by National Education Policy Review (NEPR) team and disseminated to stimulate discussions and get feed back. With further consultations, the results were summarised in a pre-policy White Paper and were circulated for comments and debates to finalise the national policy.

- *Training needs will be assessed on the basis of research and training programmes;*
- *Governments will aim to draw upon resources from the private sector through public-private partnerships in the areas of teacher education and professional development programmes. (P.40-41)*

The National Education Policy, 2008 has not yet been finalised at the time of writing¹⁸. Despite the fact that the draft of the policy had been finalised in April, 2008 but no progress has been made since than in this regard.

5.2.6 Critical Review of Educational Policies

It becomes clear from the close analysis of previous education policies that they all say the same thing in different words. The main focus of all policies and reports has been universal primary education (UPE). All policy statements recognised the important role of teachers in bringing about educational reforms, and also acknowledged the need for renovating and updating the teacher education curriculum. However, no significant or positive changes have come about in teacher education. A number of education policy statements remained at the status of seminar recommendations and could never be implemented. There are many reasons for this, but the most important is perhaps that the government has not changed its overall priorities in order to redirect resources from other budgets to education (Shahid, 1985).

The educational system of Pakistan has been the target of experimentation in the form of a number of major reforms and policy packages during the past 61 years. The main causes of failure of these policies were weak and defective implementation mechanisms, financial constraints, absence of public participation, lack of political commitment and absence of incentives. A close perusal of these policies shows that

¹⁸ Due to the absence of education minister since the resignations of PML-N ministers, the draft of the policy could not be presented before the cabinet.

there have been huge gaps between planning and implementation. As regards the improvement of teachers' status and teacher preparation, hardly anything was achieved. To cover up these all problems, there was a need to devise a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation system which could supervise education from the grassroots to the highest level. The majority of 'Government policies and reform efforts have clearly failed to address the economic, social and political dimensions of the problems facing the education system' (ICG Asia Report, 2004: 2). Unfortunately, the Government of Pakistan has not recognised the importance of education for the social and economic development of the country. Aly (2007) mentions that, 'Historically, we have failed to realise that education is both for development and for social justice, and there is no choice between the two objectives' (p.2). As is evident from the above review, not much has been done or even planned in terms of teacher education and teacher professionalism in Pakistan. This is not to say that nothing has been done in the area of teacher development. Almost every education policy asserts the importance of teacher training and the improvement in the courses of teacher training colleges.

A review of Western literature suggests that Pakistan is not the only country where policies were not implemented as they were planned. A report (UNESCO & USAID, 2006) also confirmed that, 'It is common to find well-crafted and coherent policy designs failing to attain desired results in developing countries, therefore, Pakistan is no exception' (p.9). According to McLaughlin (1998), the implementation problem first became apparent in the early 1970s as policy analysis examined the school level consequences of the education reform. He further added that implementation issues in federal public policy were first brought up in the early seventies. Implementers did not always do as they were told. Nor did they always act to maximize policy objectives.

5.3 Summary

These last two chapters have presented information about the nature and development of education and teacher training in England and Pakistan. The review of literature has shed light on current practices and developments in initial teacher education, which attempt to meet the demands of the complex work carried out by the teachers.

The following chapters will present the results obtained by empirical research through interviews and examination of relevant primary documents.

CHAPTER SIX: STATEMENT OF RESULTS AND ANALYSIS --- ENGLAND LOCATION

6.1 Introduction and Setting

In this chapter a parallel structure will be adopted: first, an introduction to the setting of the case-location, then an account of the outcomes of the empirical research, and finally a discussion of selected documentary evidence mostly derived from, or relating to, the location.

The English location comprises two historical cities in neighbouring counties both regional centres of predominantly rural hinterlands. Each has a distinctive industrial history based on the processing of primary resources imported by sea. One city once included the fishing industry primary and secondary, which virtually ceased to function in the mid-1970s and the other case excels in machine engineering. Other traditional imports support primary resource processing and manufacturing such as timber and pharmaceutical products. More modern imports like oil and natural gas support petrochemical and microelectronic secondary industrial development on the estuary between them. A plethora of other more conventional small industrial businesses are located in and around the both cities. There is now a range of manufacturing and service industries clustered in the locations. Although unemployment figures have mostly been above the national average since the mid-1970s, there has been some improvement into the new millennium.

Both patterns of urban structure are fairly typical of British cities, with an industrial east and a more residential north and west. The pattern is sharpened by predominantly westward land transport connections and rivers running north-south which divide the cities with a few bridging points. Together with the disparate

employment structure, this has led to highly localised patterns of urban social segregation, though without significant racial overtones since there are few ethnic minorities associated with primary and secondary occupations (Peach, 1975). Such minorities as do exist are of a professional background, associated with the universities and hospitals.

6.2 Empirical Outcomes

This leads directly to consideration of dimensions as evidenced through the delivery of the research instrument described in detail in chapter 3. In other words, this comprises analysis of the perceptions of the range of stakeholders interviewed in terms of the dimensions that informed the surveys.

The empirical research devices were designed to cover some important issues in initial teacher education in England. These were: administration of ITE; financial resources; curriculum; duration of ITE programme; the recruitment and qualification of teacher educators; selection criteria of student teachers; quality of teacher education; teachers' professionalism; and effectiveness of ITE programme.

6.2.1 Stakeholders' Perceptions

6.2.1.1 Administrative System: Policies & Organizational Structure

The debate on the gains from centralized and decentralized systems of governance with regard to ITT remains unresolved. Some developed countries with robust ITT frameworks remain highly centralized. In England, the central government has exercised its control over all aspects of pre-service teacher training, in part through the

establishment in 1994 of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) which became the TDA in 2005, and in part due to the demise of the LEAs.

To determine the degree to which this is achieved in England, the data on management and administration derived from the documentary research and from the interviews leads to an analysis. To clarify the topic there is a need to elaborate the administrative system into two more parts; policies and structural organization.

a) Policies

Miles & Middleton (1993) provide a view of education policy within the context of the Neo-liberal and New Right ideology in England having had two wings, modernisers and traditionalists. This may have led to a paradox. On the one hand, Conservative schools' policy promoted a body of knowledge (the National Curriculum) rather than active modes of learning, while on the other in ITT the body of knowledge was treated with caution. Learning through practice was strongly supported although following the guidelines of the National Curriculum introduced by the 1988 Education Reform Act.

All decisions about teacher education are, as always, predominantly political in England as elsewhere. In Furlong and Maynard's words (1995), the fourteen major Education Acts passed by Parliament between 1979 and 1995 "sought to 'rein in' the autonomy of the teaching profession" (p: 14). There was a series of government circulars which by 1998 has led among other things to the creation of a national curriculum for ITT and the definition of a series of Standards, the achievement of which was necessary in order to attain Qualified Teacher Status (Mahony and Hextall, 2000). According to the policymakers they are trying to make teacher training more flexible, so as to provide higher quality training to the people.

As one policy maker said to the researcher:

'the policies of teacher education in England are very strong at the moment and most of OFSTED inspections show that it is getting stronger'. 1. M (PM/EP)

He added:

'we have a very strong initial teacher training base because it is so comprehensive as to allow one do every thing necessary to train a teacher'. 1. M (PM/EP)

Another interviewee defined the policy perspective:

'the key element of teacher education is first of all that we produce enough teachers so, the schools are able to recruit and fill their vacancies and secondly, those teachers are high quality they got necessary knowledge and skills because of the qualities to be able to function well in the school where they appointed and enable to be do we trying to shape up policies and aims to be met about'. 2. F (PM/EP)

Interviewees generally described the implementation of policies in their institutions, and the centralisation of those policies, in other words centralised administration. Most of them stated that they are happy with this mode of system and centralised policies. It provides them with a structure and support.

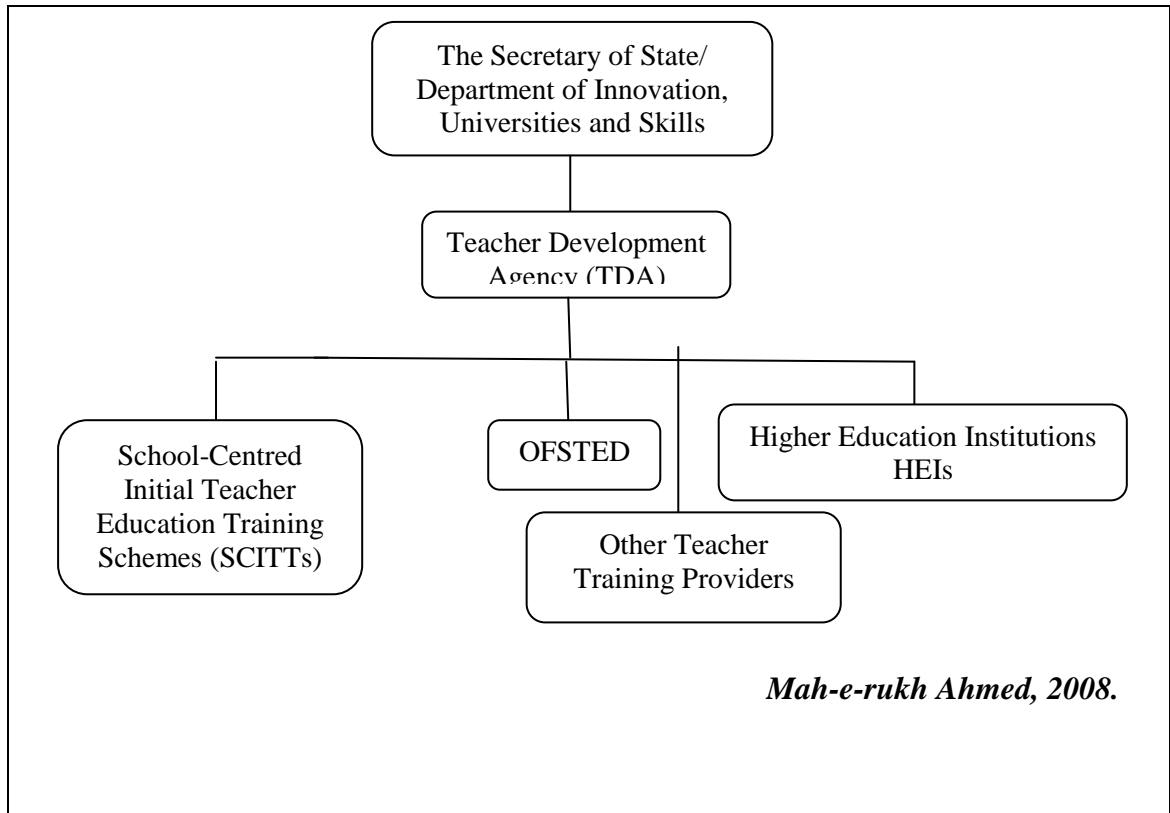
b) Organizational Structure

An organizational structure is an hierarchical concept of subordination of entities that collaborate and contribute to serve one common aim. Most organizations are a combination of clustered entities. The structure of an organization is usually set up in one of a variety of styles, dependant on their objectives and environment.

The current ITE system has been operational since 1994. The responsibilities and duties of the TTA were to include; the diversification of routes into teaching; the recruitment of student teachers; advice about student teachers' selection criteria; the allocation of funding to universities engaged in teacher education; policy development;

and a concern for quality matters. Figure 5 shows the current organizational structure of initial teacher education in England under the Teacher Development Agency (TDA).

Figure 5: The Organizational Structure Chart of ITE in England.



The diagram shows how the initial teacher programme comes under the direct control of the Secretary of State through the TDA. TDA is responsible for the accreditation of courses, their funding, quality assurance and recruitment to initial teacher education providers. Here OFSTED has been a significant player in the process to improve the quality of initial teacher education. There are three options of provider in England: HEIs; schools (SCITT); and other ITE providers.

In England there are a wide range of flexible routes into teaching. However, there is little flexibility within programmes because meeting ‘the Standards’ dominates. With over thirty routes into teaching, the range of structures is complex, for example undergraduate ITT degree programmes vary between two, three and four years

following both the TDA Standards for ITT alongside the QAA (Quality Assurance Agency) academic degree level qualification; post graduate programmes vary in length from school-based, some with only a few days academic input, to one year programmes, all working towards the TDA Standards (Stewart, 2008). PGCE is the most popular route into teaching and this course generally lasts for one year full-time or up to two years part-time (TDA, 2008). With respect to this plethora of routes into teaching an official explained that, ‘different routes are very important to make teacher training as accessible as possible’. Another official stated:

‘the range of routes has enormous benefit because the range of routes means that potential teachers got option-----they can achieve their ambition and that’s good’. 2. F (PM/OS)

However, one interviewee did not agree with this and said that, ‘generally, in the country I am not happy about the different routes into teaching training’

c) Decision-Making

The field research showed that most decisions, such as those concerning ITE, were made at the Central Office of TDA. The following statements came during the interviews. According to a policy maker: ‘I do not think, there is any evidence that our teacher educators would be able to do as good a job as we do in terms of setting the teaching standards’. On the other hand according to a teacher educator:

‘I feel, that we need the profession, teachers as professional, teacher trainers as well and educated academics, need to be much more empowered in this country to say hold on a minute, no, that is not in the best interest of the children, instead of you telling us what to do, why can’t we. We the people as a profession, there is saying we have better knowledge and understanding of what we feel is for what going here’.7. F (TE/DM)

The majority of interviewees did not comment on this issue.

6.2.1.2 Funding for Physical and Educational Resource Material

Before 1993, the HEFCE (Higher Education Funding Council for England) was responsible for ensuring that, provision is made for assessing the quality of education provided in institutions for whose activities they provide, or are considering providing financial support (HEFCE, 1994a). The 1994 Education Act took responsibility for the funding of initial teacher education away from the HEFCE which funds teaching and research in universities, and gave it to the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) now TDA, thus establishing the link between teacher training and schools rather than university education (Stewart, 2008). According to the Education Designation Order (No. 2) (2002):

The Teacher Training Agency may make grants, loans or other payments in respect of expenditure incurred or to be incurred by the designated institutions for the purposes of the provision of teacher training, and the provision of facilities, and the carrying on for other activities, which the institutions consider it necessary or desirable to provide or carry on for the purpose of or in connection with the provision of teacher training. (P.5)

As a government-funded organisation it implements policies set by Education Ministers. The significant reduction in the institutional element of ITE courses in England and the establishment of a training partnership, ITE funds are now transferred to the school from the HEI institution's ITE budget for them to take officially on most of the practical and pastoral aspects of training, as well as the assessment of teaching practice. There has been a reduction in the amount of funding to Higher Education institutions----a survey of Higher Education institutions in the UK established that ITE in England is under-funded by around 20 per cent (DfES, 2004). An official indicated that:

'all budgets and the universities, colleges are looking at cost-base budgeting and the additional costs at teacher training in relation to school partnership---the funding has increased quite substantially over the last five years. We constructed a good funding system to the universities and schools to provide the best quality teacher'. 1. M (PM/FR)

Since 2003 the TDA has invested over £14 million in providing the hardware and software needed to improve the quality of teacher training. Targeted technologies include: laptops, PCs for trainees, interactive boards, subject-specific software, innovative work in ICT, etc. TDA funding has helped shift trainee access to laptops from 30 per cent in 2004/05 to 70 per cent in 2006/07 (TDA, 2008). According to a survey by OfSTED (2004), about £23.5 million is awarded annually by the government to support the postgraduate training of around 25, 000 teachers.

Although there is a very good supply of high quality educational resources and adequate physical facilities in the HEIs and schools in England with regard to teaching space, occasionally, there is sometimes a problem to locate suitable rooms for training in HEIs and in schools. According to a teacher educator, ‘there has been occasion this year when we had a big problem booking the suitable rooms for some of the sessions’. In his view there should be some special rooms set aside and equipped as primary classrooms with boards display and around equipments and resources in the rooms to present the actual situation of primary school classroom.

6.2.1.3 The Curriculum of the Teacher Education Programme

In England there is no prescribed curriculum for teacher education but the courses are driven very much by the government’s requirements for becoming a qualified teacher. They are called the ‘Standards for the QTS’. These Standards are the professional standards that students have to demonstrate not just on PGCE programmes but the standards also apply to an employment-based route. Undergraduate teacher training routes, and any routes into teaching, the students have to meet the standards to become a qualified teacher. It is for the teacher training provider to determine the detailed content of their provision. The key document for these standards was ‘*Qualifying to Teach*,

2002' the latest version of which was revised and finalised in 2007. The revised standards carry the intention to enable ITE providers to have more ownership of their curriculum and to interpret the standards into a curriculum they believe to be appropriate for their trainees and of the profession in general. An official explained that:

'The word curriculum disappeared in 2002 with the introduction of revised standards in 'Qualifying to Teach' and another curriculum which is attached to the new standards which just been implemented which is the 2007 'Qualifying to Teach'. So, you can not called out curriculum of teacher training however, there are standards and trainee has to be designed to ensure the beginning teacher meet with that standards and so, - to that extent you can read out the standards some of the expectation of the coverage of the initial teacher education'. 2. F (PM/CU)

Another official echoed the same sentiments:

'In general we do not define the curriculum, we define our coming standards that achieve the curriculum we do provide a lots of support that they can design their curriculum to make sure that they keep up to date with the latest information from the department of education'. 1. M (PM/CU)

The standards for the award of QTS (2007) are outcome statements that set out what a trainee teacher must know, understand and be able to do to be awarded QTS. The award of QTS is now subject to the successful completion of skills tests in literacy, numeracy and information and communications technology (ICT). The requirements do not specify how training should be organised or run, but allow providers of initial teacher training a degree of autonomy and flexibility in the design and delivery in order to enable them to respond to every individual trainee's needs. The new standards tend to be less specific and more broadly phrased. There is also great emphasis on a DFES publication (2004), "*Every Child Matters*" which now underpins just about all of the standards and places great emphasis on the courses pupils will follow.

The official further explained that:

'We leave a lot of scope to universities to develop the course in new ways and think new ways of teaching and creative ways of delivering and new ideas about modules and lots of things. So, I think, we can have the reassurance of the top level standards we also left the scope what for creativity and imagination and developments and the lot'. 1. M (PM/CU)

Every ITE provider has right to design the ITE programme but this programme is heavily dependant on the prescribed standards. The students meet the standards for QTS that incorporate fully the National Curriculum. However, this programme itself is also inspected. The teacher educator explained the standards and their implementation in their ITE programme:

TDA who set out the standards which all teachers must achieve in order to get QTS. So, those standards are set out and our all programmes, to revolve around those key standards and of course we have an element of discretion in a way we deliver our programmes as long as students meet those standards and the way we design our programme is then examine very closely by the OFSTED, the inspection agency from the government. 6. F (TE/CU)

The same idea was conveyed by an interviewee of a different institution as follows:

There are two documents: 'The Standards and ITT Requirements' both are set by the government, but we believe those constraints could be possible for provide very different source of courses in academic and in the country. There are many different styles of courses and routes into teaching but all of them have to meet the requirements and needs to meet the same standards. 2. M (TE/CU)

Another interviewee agreed with this statement because the National Standards is genuinely comparable across the country. Many teachers do stay in their home region to work but they could go anywhere to work in England and beyond, so they need to embody national recognition of the standards applying to the profession. Consequently, they would not want to argue for local standards, for different areas. According to the interviewee there is strength in having a national policy, albeit with flexibility.

Another teacher educator went on to say in favour of standards that:

'The Standards handed in the National Curriculum are flexible for teachers to interpret and flexible to interpret in a way that it allows us to teach in a way we want to. I do not feel constraint by either the standards or the curriculum in the primary schools and I think a lot of people will disagree with me but I think it depend how much confidence you have when you read the standards and if you read them you can interpret them and you have the confidence, this underpin by your own beliefs and philosophies'.1. M (TE/CU)

In the words of another interviewee:

I think we provide very comprehensive curriculum of teacher training here at the university. We provide training for students in those subjects that are much in the core subjects, English, maths and science but, we certainly cover every thing. 2. M (TE/CU)

An interviewee also talked about the philosophy of education:

We focus very much on student's philosophy of education, we want students to know why they do, what they do. So, what ever the curriculum is we deliver. It needs to be underpinned by the sense of why is important and what motivates us and how we see in learning and I am not quite sure that the actual curriculum content is important to the skills and philosophy behind it. 1. M (TE/CU)

One interviewee commented about the strength of her institutions' curriculum that:

Our curriculum, we designed has to be able to enable the trainees to teach the school curriculum, but that would be our minimum expectations because we would hope to do more and I have hinted some of the things in our Curriculum of Development Professionalism and those skills and working as the part of the team. 1. F (TE/CU)

One ITE provider had been recently inspected by OfSTED, and according to the OfSTED report:

'The modules in professional studies cover well how children learn and alert trainees to key issues in teaching. The strong emphasis on developing trainees' subject knowledge, particularly in English, mathematics and science, ensures that trainees gain a secure grounding in what they need to teach'. (OFS/1)

Some interviewees felt that there is a need to include some more things in the National Curriculum.

In this context it was indicated as follows:

'Its too much focus on the National Curriculum on the way which we need to prepare teachers to deliver the National Curriculum. It is not enough emphasis on the importance of preparing students in terms of the wider school curriculum which would include things to do emotional support and spiritual development, moral, cultural and so on so'. 7. F (TE/CU)

School-Centred Initial Teacher Training groups are accredited by the TDA to run courses of ITT for graduates leading to the award of QTS. Therefore, in this context the interviews of head teachers and mentors have been included in the study. One headteacher also had the same opinion about the curriculum of initial teacher training:

'I think the training programmes are linked to school needs. I think there are things that could be done better, from by the sound of it over the last 3 or 4 years, there's more of an emphasis on the government training packages. Also there's more focus on English and maths teaching but very little focus on the other curriculum subjects such as music, drama and so on. I think there's less focus on the other subjects and in many ways, schools need that'. 1. M (HT/CU)

One mentor said that, 'standards are good guideline to have, especially for beginning teachers, because they do not know what to teach and how they are supposed to teach'. These standards are a constant reflection on how they are doing, so they can replicate it again and be confident of being able to teach for learning not just being able to teach to impart but also being teaching for learners to learn. The majority of interviewees were very appreciative of having a co-ordinated and adopted set of standards to relate to.

a) Centralization of Curriculum

The TDA exercises a powerful control over teacher education and its curriculum (1998) and Standards (2002/2007). In England there are different styles of courses and routes into teaching but all of them have to meet the same requirements, and need to mould all students to meet the standards. There is a part-time flexible route into teaching, institution-based routes into teaching, under-graduate and post-graduate routes into

teaching, and employment-based route into teaching. All are based on the same standards and same requirements but have some flexibility. The majority of interviewees seemed happy with centralisation because otherwise there is inconsistency as to how to achieve QTS. They considered the standards to be a high level and have the assurance that everybody is assessed against the same high level standards. They also mentioned that there is flexibility and freedom to design the programme. Here are some different comments of teacher educators:

'Our programme gave us the professional ability to make professional judgements and decisions about the best way to deliver it'. 6. F (TE/CC)

'No one in high places dictate precisely what our course should look like. We got that freedom and flexibility as long as we meet the requirement and preparing students to meet the standards. We do have a lot of freedom and flexibility within it'. 2. M (TE/CC)

'We have to do what government ask us to do whether we like it or not, whether it works or not, whether there is any evidence to suggest it is good or not you just do it'. 7. F (TE/CC)

The study shows that although the standards are centralised, the institutions have the freedom and flexibility to make their own teaching programmes and make changes to those courses by using genuine feedback and evaluation. Whether it is centralised or not the quality is the most important issue.

b) Subject Matter Knowledge

On subject knowledge all the participants indicated that the student teachers have good command except a minority of trainees who do not possess adequate knowledge about mathematics and English. Different responses include:

'The student trainees come here with sound subject knowledge and experiences'. 1. M (HT/SMK)

'Student teachers come here with good knowledge of theory, but their knowledge of theory is poor in some circumstances'. 1. F (ME/SMK)

'Student teachers come into schools who don't speak properly, they can't spell and they don't understand the rules of English grammar'. 1. F (ME/SMK)

The responses show that trainees have good subject knowledge and experiences but there are some weaknesses in some areas of English, maths and science. It was also observed that older or experienced teachers have a better grasp of English and maths than younger or newly qualified teachers.

c) Practice Teaching

In the Circular 4/98 emphasis was placed on the practicalities of teaching: in the one year Postgraduate Certificate of Education over 66 per cent of the trainees' time was to be spent in school. The amount of time spent training in schools depends on the route into teaching and the phase of teaching. Undergraduate trainees spend 24 weeks during three-year courses, or 32 weeks during four-year courses. On a postgraduate programme, trainees can expect to spend 18 weeks in schools for primary school teaching and 24 weeks for secondary school teaching (TDA, 2008).

In the words of teacher educator:

'It is the basic part of the course as students spend two-thirds of it in schools. The mentors working with the students have a very good idea of their progress, their strengths and their weaknesses. Schools play a valuable role there'. 2. F (TE/PT)

Practice teaching experience could be the first step which helps to smooth the transition from the role of a student to that of a teacher. It is through this practical experience that students might acquire the skills and competencies needed to do the teaching job effectively. It is the empirical field in which student teachers can reflect on their and other's teaching practices. Student teachers commented:

'Actually, it is a very important part of the course and I have enjoyed that part more than the university'. 9. F (ST/PT)

'I do more than I thought I would. I liked it very much'. Yes, it was very helpful.

1. F (ST/PT)

'I have much experience through teaching in schools'. 4. M (ST/PT)

Students have different experiences in different schools. They talked about their experiences, and as one student teacher said that, 'I have three placements first was excellent I enjoyed and learned a lot, second was good and third was very poor'.

d) Theory-Practice Relationship

In England the length of practicum has increased, and the time spent in lecture rooms has correspondingly decreased. Practice teaching in itself is an integrating experience between theory and practice, but the main attention of the student teacher is usually focused on the skill in teaching. It is assumed that the philosophy of reflective practice would create the theory-practice links. In fact, students asserted that there is a link between what they have learnt in the university and the application in schools and they found school practice to be a highly valued learning experience. In the words of a PGCE (primary) student teacher:

'What we are doing in tutorials is relevant to apply in the classrooms. It is a clear scheme of work. I think it is very much relevant. It is really putting things into practice what we have learnt'. 3. F (ST/TPR)

Likewise, another student teacher stated:

'I think the course helps us to see teaching in a wider and clearer view, as we can see how theories are applied. Getting to school is a very useful step because we have a clear idea about what's going on in schools'. 7. F (ST/TPR)

The majority of trainees stated that the course was very good and valuable but some trainees complained about particular placements where their experience was quite poor.

6.2.1.4 The Duration of the Teacher Training Programmes

In England there is plethora of routes for teacher training. Every route has its own duration. This range of routes is of considerable benefit because the range of routes means that potential teachers have options. Most full-time courses last three or four years, but the two year course is for those who have already completed a qualification amounting to part of degree and one year course is for those who already have degree.

In the view of a teacher educator:

'My view is that it depends on the students, three years programme, two years programme and one year programme, it depends on the student. The other issue in my mind is that one year programme often for those students who have already a degree, and two and three/four years programmes who do not have degree they may be straight from the school but they are doing the degree in education'. 6. F (TE/DU)

According to another teacher educator:

'Actually the programme in fact, if someone is doing most and least time, is the three years programme. Its look like the longest programme but it is in fact, the shortest programme because the trainee gets both the degree and the profession and qualification'. 2. M (TE/DU)

A PGCE student teacher commented that:

'I think, we have to learn a lot in this tight time scale, it was very difficult time to do every thing done in a year'. 9. F (ST/DU)

According to a teacher educator that:

'Yes, it is tight time schedule, it is hard work in almost in start, it is intensive but with handful of exceptions everybody is successful'. 2. M (TE/DU)

The research indicated that different routes of training have different time scales. The majority of programmes have appropriate time length but it seemed that the PGCE has a tight time schedule.

6.2.1.5 Recruitment, Career and Qualifications of Teacher Educators

Tutors at teacher education institutions are the key players responsible for the delivery of teacher education programmes and the preparation of future teachers. The role of teacher educator is vital in understanding and promoting effective programmes for the professional development of teachers.

a) Recruitment, Career and Qualifications

The process of recruitment in England is now dependent on demand and supply:

'To secure an effective school workforce that improves children's life chances. We do this through helping to secure the supply of the school workforce, supporting in-service school workforce training and development and supporting wider school workforce modernisation'. (TDA, 2007)

The recruitment process of teacher educators in HEIs is vigorous and competitive. Here are the comments of a TDA official:

'At the moment we are doing a lot of thinking about the right people to be the teacher educators and it is positive the teacher education is delivered by the universities so that a lot of universities are a very big teacher training providers. What they want to do is, to recruit people who are very experienced and high quality teachers who work very much until who work on professional schools as teachers'. 1. M (PM/RTE)

The 2007 OfSTED report mentioned the teacher educators' role in a HEI as follows:

Full-time university trainers are well qualified. Many gain recent and relevant experience through work in schools; they also engage in academic research and publish their work. Many associate part-time tutors bring professional and management experience to their roles. (OFS/2)

There are very precise criteria for the recruitment of teacher educators in the universities by which applicants are assessed. There is a strong base of recruiting people from schools and advisory services. The credentials have changed and now there is a trend to recruit the people who are younger and earlier in their career. It involves their academic

records, good experience of teaching, pedagogical skills, personal qualities to teach and personality in terms of relating to schools and trainees.

b) Involvement in Research

John Furlong wrote in 2003 in reference to policies concerned with both general research funding (the 'big science' model) and initial teacher education (funding of initial teacher education places without great consideration of the research capacity and activities of staff):

Current policies in England are likely to destroy the capacity of experienced researchers to work collaboratively with teachers and others on the exploration, development and testing of knowledge within their own context. . . . Practitioner research needs people who themselves have research experience and skills . . . [and] access to high quality research [and researchers] as a basis on which to develop their own work. . . . Without a capacity across the system as a whole, there will be an ever-decreasing opportunity for that work to be taken up and used in ways that can benefit learners across the educational system. (Furlong 2003: 3)

When asked by the writer about research a teacher educator said that:

'I think something that's really changing and being promoted by the government and by the TDA is what is called Action Research'. 6. F (TE/IR)

Action research is inquiry or research in the context of focused efforts to improve the quality of an organization and its performance. It typically is conducted and designed by practitioners who analyze the data to improve their own practice. It is reflective as well as critical. Action research can be undertaken by individuals or by teams of colleagues.

'I think teacher's involvement in research and action research is very important'. 6. F (TE/IR)

Teacher educators participate in research to varying degrees, and define the purposes of their research involvement in different ways (Murray, 2002, 1998). One interviewee acknowledged this stating:

'Definitely there is no question that research informed practice and is absolutely essential otherwise learning will just stagnated and the experience for the children will not develop'. 1. F (TE/IR)

A teacher educator indicated that:

'Involvement in practitioner research does enhance the understanding and performance of teachers and their opportunities to explore the new ways which very well enhances for students and that certainly give them very valuable skills to do'. 2. F (TE/IR)

The words of another teacher educator:

'A lot of practising teachers in school find it difficult to research if they do the research they might find it very beneficial and I did research in schools when I did my masters and I found it very interested'. 3. F (TE/IR)

Involvement in practitioner research does enhance performance. It is the only thing that enhances the understanding and performance of teachers and their opportunities to explore the new ways of working. It can certainly bring them valuable new skills.

According to a teacher educator:

'Research definitely enhances, and any kind of research, whether small scale of research in classrooms, action research, children as researchers and be like to encourage children to do the research or whether it is major research projects, what ever hugely important and rewarding as well'. 7. F (TE/IR)

A mentor replied that:

'I would say the only research I did was when I was studying for my degree but I have had a lot of training in teaching for English which is similar, especially now we have a new literacy framework which is confusing a lot of teachers so I've been involved with that, which again is still my professional development'. 1. F (ME/IR)

In the words of a headteacher:

'I think I'm relatively intelligent but I've never been academic and I've never loved the research side of things. The main thing is time; there are so many things to do in my role that I've never really got time to do. My training has always been more hands on for example; my headship qualification is more research. I suppose it is research, lots of books about management. So that's what I've done in terms of headship research'. 1. M (HT/IR)

The general idea was that many teacher educators and mentors may not directly involve in research but they keep themselves up to date with published research and they use that research for the training they provide in their institutions.

6.2.1.6 Selection Criteria of Student Teachers

a) Entry Qualification

Among the most important features of teacher education are the criteria and procedures by which candidates are selected for entry to programmes and institutions. Selecting suitably qualified candidates for teacher education is a matter of concern.

In England, entry requirements for all courses of initial teacher education are centrally determined, along with the selection criteria for adoption by all training providers. Government mandated entry requirements to enter teacher training include the requirement that: all entrants have a standard equivalent to a C grade in the GCSE examinations in English, mathematics and a science subject (for primary school teaching); have completed a criminal records check; meet the Secretary of State's requirements for physical and mental fitness to teach; and can read and communicate effectively in Standard English (DfES/TTA, 2002: 15). 'The government has also introduced personal numeracy and literacy tests for student teachers in addition to more formal entrance qualifications' (Furlong, 2002: 24). Moreover, all trainees should possess the personal, intellectual and presentational qualities suitable for teaching and experience of working with children or young people. For example, one teacher educator remarked:

'We get 100s of applicants for approximately 80 places each year and so we closely check application forms and we checked probably 50% of the forms we were saved. We then interviewed the 50% of the people who apply and then we probably only offered places to about 50% to the people who come for the interview. Those who come for the interview we give them a one to one, face to face interview--- we have to give them two group interviews of five candidates with one member of staff one has Maths focused and second has English literacy focused, we have to give them tasks to check their ability to communicate in English. So, it is very thorough selection process and by a large, we do get good quality through'. 2. M (TE/EQ)

These are the basic requirements and individual providers may introduce additional entry and selection criteria as appropriate. Entry requirements vary with individual providers of ITT and the admission decisions are made by them alone. Thus, it is a very thorough selection process and through this process universities select only the good quality applicants.

b) Intake Criteria

In England, the government through its funding and regulatory powers attempts to articulate tightly the number of places in initial teacher education programmes with a projected demand for new teachers. The number of places may be limited because it is centrally planned or determined at institutional level. In this case, the measures involved may be used either to prevent oversupply or to attract for the under suggested areas (Eurydice, 2002) of teaching.

Each year all accredited providers of ITE are invited by the TDA to bid for an allocation places for the forthcoming year. After the Educational Ministry has set intake targets based upon an assessment of the national demand for new teachers, the TDA allocates places among the bids received. In making these allocations, primary consideration is given to each institution's OfSTED inspection results, although other considerations such as an institution's track record in recruiting from under-represented groups, economic cohort size within providers, religious denominational balance, and regional need may also be taken into account (TTA, 2003:3, cited in Young at el., 2007). Funding is then transferred from the TDA to the provider based upon the size of each allocation. The provider then has to pass the majority of that money on to the primary and secondary schools who are to receive the trainee teachers.

6.2.2 The Quality of ITE Programmes

The evidence shows that every year there are minor changes that institutions make to their courses in order to improve the quality of teacher education. One teacher educator expressed his views that:

'Year on years there are changes if you compare this year course with the last year course the changes probably look relatively minor but that is the period of 5 to 6 years because the things are changing slightly achievable probable good because of large difference'. 2. M (TE/QY)

One TDA official commented that the quality of teacher training can be improved in terms of personalisation:

'We spend the money to produce the best teachers we can. What to find the best teachers that we spend a lot of money on recruiting people and trying to make sure that we recruit the right people to teaching but also in terms of the quality of training we offer them. 1. M (PM/QY)

According to one teacher educator:

'We do a pretty good job, and if OFSTED study is to be believed then we have outstanding work, because we awarded grade one again. 7. F (TE/QY)

Another teacher educator added:

'All the time to be improved the teaching methods to make them as powerful as possible. Exploring how much we can support the student more as distant learning as well as face to face learning and, but I think that is really up to each individual programme and the institution as the whole continue to look at not just quality of assurance but the quality of answers have to be improved and the experience of the students and the performance of the professionalism offer training when they become teachers on that'. 2. F (TE/QY)

The Office for Standards in Education (OfSTED) has developed a new inspection framework for initial teacher education. OfSTED's remit is to improve standards of achievement and quality of education through regular independent inspection, public reporting and informed independent advice and responsible for academic quality control. A TDA official commented that OfSTED inspection act as a strong driver for quality

improvement. The inspection reports of OfSTED are considered very authentic in terms of improving the quality of teacher education.

It is mentioned in the OfSTED report of 2007 that:

There are secure mechanisms to assess trainees' achievement against the Standards and external examiners confirm the accuracy of tutors' judgements. Assignments are marked to clear criteria with supporting comments on quality of content as well as trainees' academic skills. Effective moderation processes ensure that judgements about borderline assignments and teaching are secure.
(OFS/3)

Unqualified Classroom Teaching Assistants

In order to establish equality of opportunity and improve the quality of teaching, the Green Paper (DfEE, 1998b), announced an additional route into the profession to act as part-time teaching assistants who would receive school-based training to enable them to gain QTS while being paid as teaching assistants. The HEI involvement in such training is minimal (Bell, 1999). To investigate this topic a teacher educator explained that:

'There is currently a tension in our country with the use of teaching assistants who are not trained as teachers but they are taking all sorts of aspects of the role that had formerly been expected to be a teacher, so, this is very debating issue here at the moment'. 2. F (TE/TA)

Most teaching assistants start their job as untrained support people doing things such as putting up displays, helping children read and photocopying things. However, over the last 10 years, the work of teaching assistants has developed. Now they are up to the point where they are teaching classes in the absence of the teacher. The research showed that in some schools there are very able teaching assistants who do group work with children, one-to-one work. The general idea is that schools now would not run effectively without them. A headteacher said that:

'They do a tremendous job in terms of supporting the teachers. What's very important I think is if they've been on a course to run group work then that's great. If they haven't been on the training and they're not experienced in a certain field then I think that they should be trained'. 1. M (HT/TA)

In the words of a mentor:

*I think just training as a teacher per se would not have helped me as much as being a teaching assistant, because being a teaching assistant you're working far more one-to-one than you are as a teacher.*1. F(ME/TA)

One of the interviewees was a co-ordinator for the B.A Honours Professional Studies in Primary Education with QTS that involves the teacher assistants who are working in schools at the same time studying. That is one year course on the top-up of the two years course.

6.2.3 Teacher Professionalism

My findings showed that there is a close link between teacher education programmes themselves and teacher professionalism and that one reinforced the other. The teachers are empowered to take their professional development to new heights as teacher training reinforced new skills, knowledge and understanding. Professionalism is one of the key issues in teacher training and in England teachers are recognised as professionals through their professional body the GTC, although this is recent. Teachers' professional development has been a recent target of government policy. This policy was encapsulated in *Learning and Teaching: a strategy for professional development* (DfES, 2001). Under New Labour, there have been developments to reinforce and 'concretise' changes in the conceptualisation of teacher professionalism (Whitty, 2006). The general opinion was that the initial teacher education programmes do not only produce experts in the field of education but also reflective teachers who think carefully about what they have to do, and what they have actually done.

Since the 1994 Education Act, areas of professional teacher training in England have been driven by the 'Standards' agenda of the TTA/TDA. They are therefore subject to local and national demands, which place them outside the growing global agendas

(Stewart, 2008). An increasing level of centralisation over the last decade has raised the quality of provision within a common framework of professional expectations.

In the words of an officer:

Under the TDA, the agency changed quite considerably and took on additional responsibilities for CPD. It also took on responsibilities for developing the standard framework which will be applicable to all teachers working in schools. I think that's tremendous progress, and not because this is what the agency set out to do, but I believe it represents that the management of the teacher's education is not, and cannot be amended in itself, in terms of high quality of teacher education. If that model suggests that only the teacher development and initial teacher preparation should go on in schools, and carries on doing the same for the next 10, 20 or 30 years, then that is a very novel and restricted model of professionalism. 2. F (PM/TP)

One teacher educator said that:

We have professional studies course which covers generic cross-curricular aspects of education, such as behaviour management, assessment and planning, special education needs, and working with EAL because English as Additional language and all about many, many more generic non-subject specific aspects of education. 2. M (TE/TP)

Becoming a teacher is for many a lifelong process. Students need to understand various aspects of theory extensively, how children learn effectively and what is effective in terms of pedagogy. They need have to theoretical understanding and they need to also be able to use that theoretical understanding in their practice. They need to apply it when working with children. Of course that theoretical knowledge is very complex in so many areas and in terms of teacher education. In the words of another interviewee:

I hope certainly the teacher education that I am involved here does do that because very much our programme aims include aspects of developing professionalism. During the programme we have to develop their professionalism, their experiences such as working as the part of the team - we set a lot of tasks as the demand to collaborate the work with other trainees to sort of different that opportunity to develop their skills, team work, respect for others, or listening to other people's opinion respectfully and contributing their own in appropriate way, so, yes, it is very important but it can be only work if the programme is design to enable that professionalism to be developed. 1. F (TE/TP)

To maintain teaching as a graduate profession, teachers must be able to consider themselves professionals and carry out in a very professional approach. Teachers' attitude towards their own professional development is a criterion to determine the professionalism, as their positive attitude may stimulate them to do a better job and develop themselves as active human assets or human capital, which in turn would affect all the human resources of the community.

'In the beginning of training, we certainly emphasise to our students about the importance of professionalism. We expect them even during the training to conduct themselves in a very professional manner'. 2. M (TE/TP)

Much of teaching is about how pupils respond to the teacher. The teacher also needs to learn how to deal with parents which is something that s/he is trained to do. If the student teachers and newly qualified teachers act unprofessionally they have not learnt enough. According to another teacher educator:

'I do actually firmly believe that it is very important that trainee teachers or any body who going into education to work with children has understanding of the theory behind the issues which effect the pedagogy, and the approach to children. Otherwise we all just be only mechanist, deliverers or facilitators'. 7. F (TE/TP)

Teachers should keep themselves up-to-date with the latest research and with enlarging pedagogical knowledge about teaching and learning. They should give an image of professionalism. Basically, as professionals they are responsible for developing their own abilities and performance as the main social or human capital, and this could be the basis for developing the whole society as human resources.

6.2.4 Effectiveness of ITE programmes

In England primary school teachers must either hold a first degree and a Postgraduate Certificate of Education awarded by a university or college of higher education, or they must hold a BEd Degree and have a qualified teacher status which can be obtained after

successful completion of an approval course of initial teacher training (ITT). The main types of ITT courses are the one-year Postgraduate Certificate in Education course or the Bachelor of Education (BEd) Course.

Whatever is the balance of theory and practice, the effectiveness and impact of initial teacher education must depend on the interplay of the quality of the teacher education programme and the effective recruitment of the trainee teachers.

Every respondent shared the view that generally ITE programmes are very effective. In the words of a policy maker:

'As a quality of pre-service ITT has gone up, which is a big improvement to quality of teaching in schools, and OFSTED reports of schools has confirm that our teachers are now in the best trained as had been and I think, lot of schools and head teachers would confirmed that the teachers coming into the profession much better equip the classrooms than have been before'. 1. M (PM/EFF)

He further commented that:

'They learn a lot from the pre-service, and there is initiative how have to learn in in-service. I think they do learn a lot but lot of their learning is very focused on the needs of the schools rather than on the needs of the teachers. Our programme is fulfilling the needs of student teachers in real life because our QTS survey shows that new teachers are very satisfying with the quality of training they get'. 1. M (PM/EFF)

Another interviewee describes the effectiveness in her institution:

The training in our institution is very effective on all the programmes we run, and certainly there is evidence to support it in the quality of the feedback from the schools, from the trainees and the trainees we have here now etc. My impression across the country is quiet similar to that on the whole if you take the big picture ITE is pretty effective and one of the reason is that we have variety of ways /programmes to train the people, one year PGCE programme, GTP that is fundamentally school-based programme, flexi route and we also have undergraduate programmes. 1. F (TE/EFF)

Another teacher educator thought that England has some excellent initial teacher education institutions, who are really looking to the nature of learning and are successful in encouraging a lifelong process of continued professional development.

The OFSTED report of 2007 gave a clear indication of the effectiveness of different routes of ITE programmes and awarded grade 1 in management and quality assurance to one of the institutions visited by the writer.

The structure and content of all four training programmes meet the Requirements and enable trainees to meet the Standards. (OFS/4)

The report further declared that:

A wide range of robust quality assurance procedures provides reliable information on the effectiveness of the provision and how well policies are being implemented, including those related to equal opportunities and race relations. (OFS/5)

The study showed that in general the teacher training programmes in England are effective and help to prepare better teachers but, some times this effectiveness does not prevent the trainees from having problems in building the relationship with the class for example, behaviour management problems and also of problems of working with the children with special and individual needs.

6.3 Feedback From New Teachers

When investigating why student teachers choose teaching as a profession, I found that some do really want to be teachers; some like the challenge of teaching and having an influence on children and others just want to find a suitable job. Most of them made statements like:

'I'm interested in teaching. I mean yeah to find a suitable job'. 1. M (NQT/FB)

'I mean teaching is always back in my mind. I thought about it. I've had some other ideas when I was a child, then, when I grew up, I thought of teaching again'. 2. F (NQT/FB)

'For me, I found it very impressive to be in school and have an impact on others'. 1. F (NQT/FB)

There seemed to be no sense of coercion, no societal expectations or pressure from parents. The students had chosen the profession and the institutions in which to acquire QTS.

6.4 Documentary Outcomes

Documentation was gathered at the both national and local levels. Reference will be made at this stage to a selection of each.

6.4.1 National Level Primary Sources

Relevant National sources are to be found in different Acts and Circulars. In 1998 the DfEE issued the first list of Standards for the Award of QTS. The TTA produced its first draft '*Standards for Initial Teacher Education*' in 1997. The key document '*Qualifying to Teach*' in 2002 introduced the Standards and Requirements and the new document replace DfEE Circular 4/98, to have the same legal standing. These were very clear documents comprising the 'Standards' for all routes of ITE. Together they cover: aims and objectives; policies and practice; requirements and general guidance. The documents also explain that the Standards for the award of QTS are outcome statements that set out what a trainee teacher must know, understand and be able to do to be awarded QTS. It is stated that:

'Qualified Teacher Status is the first stage in a continuum of professional development that will continue through the induction period and throughout a teacher's career. Initial teacher training lays the foundation for subsequent professional and career development'. (P. 5)

The very recent revised document of standards '*Qualifying to Teach*' was issued in 2007. Although clearly presented, the number of different issues and circumstances

covered in this document reflects the residual effects of an evolutionary history of teacher education as discussed in chapter 3.

6.4.2 HE Institutions Primary Sources

The most relevant types of document sought from HEIs were in relation to a) Standards and b) Rules and Regulations, as it appeared from the empirical survey that the two were closely connected.

The HEIs were also willing to provide institutional level documentation of two kinds: a) Reports on the institution by OFSTED, and b) Documentation generated by the institution itself (e.g, prospectus and annual review reports.) The OFSTED Report for one institution (2007) gives a clear indication of the results of high quality and sensible management. The Report states:

‘Sensible management decisions have facilitated the working of tutors across programmes at both campuses. A large cohort of associate tutors, selected for their proven expertise and skills, work with the small number of full-time tutors in delivering the training and supporting the trainees. There are very good systems to induct new tutors through shadow marking, joint observations and guidance on the production of teaching material’. (OFS/6)

6.4.3 School Sources

The primary schools were also willing to provide institutional level documentation of two kinds: a) Reports on the institution by OFSTED, and b) Documentation generated by the institution itself (e.g, prospectus, yearly planning and annual review reports and school development plans).

A very recent OfSTED Report (2008) for one school involved that:

‘The professionalism, commitment and dedication of staff make a strong contribution to the schools success.... The school enjoys a very good reputation in the locality.....The school has made good improvement since the previous inspection, particularly raising the standards reached at the end of Year 6 and the quality of the accommodation and learning environment’. (OFS/7)

Though the school has a very good reputation, the OfSTED Report mentioned nothing about the provision of initial teacher training and the role of mentors in the school.

6.5 Un-anticipated Events

A major calamity occurred in England during the period of data collection (June, 2007 to August, 2007). Heavy rains and floods disturbed the whole life and many primary schools were flooded and closed. This natural disaster shortened the activities, for example schools were shifted to other places and many closed early for summer vacations.

6.6 Summary

This chapter presented the findings obtained by means of interviews and an examination of relevant primary documents. The chapter has presented the analysis of data from these sources under relevant headings. The data from these sources form the basis for ascertaining the objective set out in Chapter One, namely, to focus on themes and in Chapters four and five, namely, to examine contemporary dimensions of ITE in England. The following chapter will present the analysis of data and other information derived from feedback in Pakistan.

CHAPTER SEVEN: STATEMENT OF RESULTS AND ANALYSIS --- PAKISTAN LOCATION

7.1 Introduction and Setting

The Pakistani field location comprises two historical cities of two districts in one province. The province consists of 24 Districts. According to the Census of 1998, the province has an area of 74, 521 km² (28,773 square miles) of Pakistani territory and the total population of the province was approximately 17 million out of whom 52 per cent were males and 48 per cent were females. The region varies in topography from dry rocky areas in the south to forests and green plains in the north. The climate can be extreme with intensely hot summers to freezing cold winters. Despite these climatic extremes in weather, agriculture remains important and viable in the area throughout the year.

The province has perhaps the most impressive Buddhist ruin of all which dates back to the First century BC. The region was in ancient times, a major centre of Buddhism as attested by recent archaeological evidence. The region was visited by such notable historical figures as Darius II¹⁹, Alexander the Great²⁰, Hiuen Tsang²¹, Marco Polo²², Mountstuart Elphinstone²³, and Winston Churchill²⁴.

Although agriculture remains important, some manufacturing and high tech investments in the province have helped improve job prospects for local people. Unemployment has been reduced due to the establishment of industrial zones. The

¹⁹ King of Persian Empire from 423-404 BC.

²⁰ Greek King from 336-323 BC,

²¹ Chinese Buddhist Monk and traveller, (602-664 AD).

²² Trader and explorer from Venice, 1254-1324. He gained fame for his worldwide travels, recorded in the book *Il Milione*.

²³ A Scottish statesman and historian, associated with the British government of India. He became the Governor of Bombay (India) in 1819. (1779-1859).

²⁴ British Prime Minister (1874- 1965). Churchill saw combat with the Malakand Field Force on the North West Frontier Province (Pakistan).

principal industries are the manufacturing and refining of sugar, the canning and preservation of fruits and vegetables, tobacco processing, and the manufacture of small arms and weapons of various types. The Province accounts for at least 78 per cent of the marble production in Pakistan.

7.2 Empirical Outcomes

The empirical research tools were designed to cover some important issues in initial teacher education in Pakistan. These were: administration of ITE; financial resources; curriculum; duration of the ITE programme; the recruitment and qualification of teacher educators; selection criteria of student teachers; quality of teacher education; the professionalism of teachers; and the effectiveness of the ITE programme.

7.2.1 Stakeholders' Perceptions

7.2.1.1 Administrative System: Policies & Organizational Structure

In 2001, the Federal Government promulgated a Local Government Ordinance, which introduced a detailed mechanism to devolve powers from the federal and provincial governments to the newly established district authorities across sectors, including education. Under the plan, the federal government maintains the overall policy formulation role, the responsibility for devising curricula, setting teacher pay scales, defining requirements of teacher credentials and providing the broad vision for ITT and teacher professional development (TDP). The provincial government is actually in charge of ITT activities and ensuring the quality of education, including the

qualification criteria for teachers. Teacher management issues and service delivery has been devolved to the district level (GoP, 'Local Government Ordinance', 2001).

There is a designated department (The Department of Teacher Education) within the Federal Education Commission, which looks after the general policies and micro-planning of teacher training institutions. It plans teacher training programmes as a whole, holds conferences to discuss problems and allocates funds to local authorities. These authorities are, however, responsible for the actual provision of teacher training as well as carrying out the instructions given by the Federal Education Commission. The establishment and termination of teacher training institutions are decided by provincial level governments. In the meantime, the Federal Education Commission needs to be notified of the decision. In Pakistan, usually educational administration has been practised through a centralised system. Provinces have managed to maintain centralised control through a number of channels. All departmental administrative machinery is directed by a senior civil servant of the rank of Secretary and a technical branch of professional educators by the Minister of Education. The Directorate of Curriculum and Teacher Education (DCTE) in every province is responsible for the administration of all Elementary Colleges (GCETs) and Regional Institutes for Teacher Education (RITEs).

a) Policies

The Education Policy of every country has an ideological basis at least for a particular timeframe. This ideological basis provides the social norms expected of society. While in the West, this ideological basis may be liberal, conservative or Marxist of any definition, in the context of Pakistan, this ideological base is essentially and historically provided by Islam as an ideology derived from Islam the religion. Islam is the principal

source of values for our life, and ethical conduct is an essential precondition for social development (Aly, 2007).

The policy documents in Pakistan were the result of extensive research but their implementation left much to be desired, so that not one policy achieved its declared goals nor the targets of time set for realizing these goals. Firstly, there was no genuine widespread ownership of policy goals by the majority of stakeholders and secondly, the strategies and plans developed to achieve the policy goals were unrealistic and did not have the support of identified and committed resources required to achieve these targets. Nor was there any tailoring of goals to maximum resources available. The quality and inadequate implementation of education policies and plans were major drawbacks to the development of the education sector. Unfortunately throughout the history of Pakistan, new policies and plans were often prepared without giving due consideration to the causes of failure of previous policies.

Pakistan has had a plethora of educational policies and reports but there is no overarching policy framework, which addresses teacher education and training. The issues of teacher education are touched on in all education policies, but the main focus of such policies has remained on enhancing access to primary and secondary education. There is still no comprehensive vision or single policy on ITE.

One fundamental dilemma is that most of the provincial education departments do not have copies of the national education policy. This is because the Federal Ministry of Education and Provincial Ministry of Education have failed to adequately disseminate the policy and to devise a mechanism to monitor its implementation. However, when the writer asked an administrator about the effectiveness of educational policies, he replied that:

'As for as the policies of teacher education concerned these are very good policies, it worked up to pre-service training courses and on job training courses to enhance the expertise and professionalism at school level so, the policies are very good and according to our expectations'. 1. M (AD/EP)

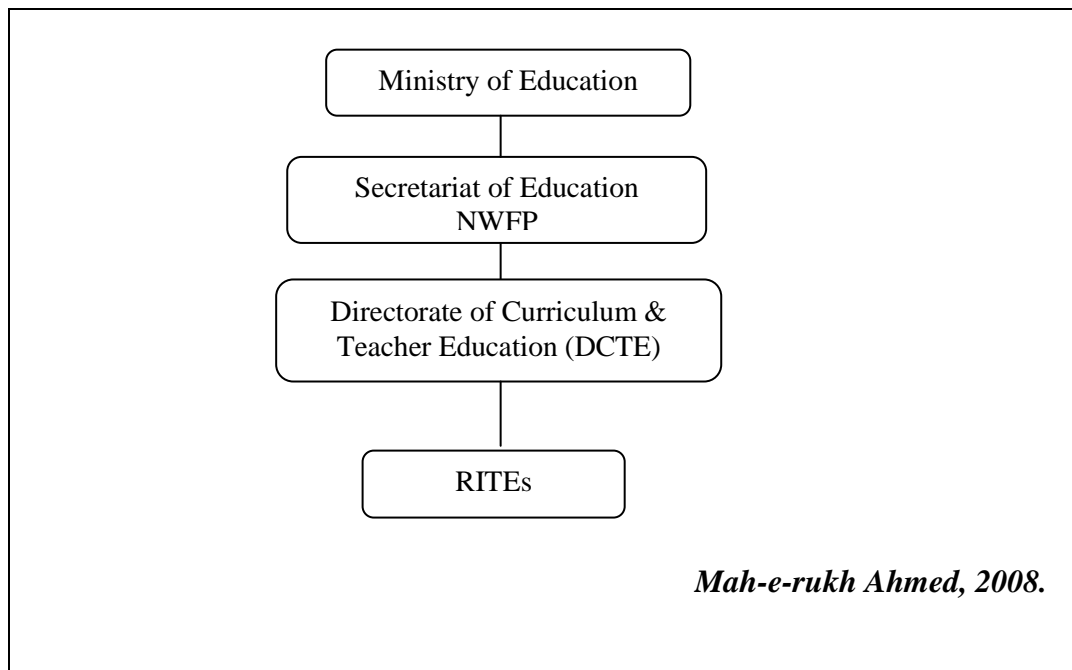
When the interviewees were asked for their perspectives with regard to teacher education policy, most of their answers were repetitions of what was written in the official documents. Their own educational vision was not clear and almost completely lacking. As mentioned above that there is no separate and comprehensive policy for teacher education but at provincial level government takes some steps according to their perceived needs which affect teacher education positively or negatively. There is lack of clarity about teacher educators' roles and about the need for teachers' continued professional development. Therefore there is always a gap between the policy of teacher education and its practice. It was interesting to discover that almost all policy makers and teacher educators who were interviewed shared the views that teachers have absolutely no role in the making of teacher education policy.

b) Organizational Structure

Organizational structure allows the expressed allocation of responsibilities for different functions and processes to different agencies, such as branch, site, department, work groups and single people. Contracting of individuals in an organizational structure normally is under time-bound work contracts or work orders, or under open ended employment contracts or programme orders. The current ITE system of Pakistan has emerged after many changes from 1947 up to 2005.

Figure 6 shows the current organizational structure of ITE in North West Frontier Province (NWFP). The field study was conducted in this province.

Figure 6: The Organizational Structure chart of Initial Teacher Education in NWFP, Pakistan.



The above diagram shows how the initial teacher programme comes under the direct control of the Provincial Government through the DCTE (Directorate for Curriculum and Teacher Education). DCTE is responsible to the Provincial Ministry of Education for the professional as well as administrative aspects of the ITE providers. RITEs (Regional Institutes for Teacher Education) are the main pre-service teacher education institutions.

c) Decision-Making

During the interviews all respondents stated that most decisions, such as those concerning the running of the teacher education institutions, were made at the Central Office of the Ministry of Education. One interviewee commented that:

'We have no autonomy and freedom for any kind of decisions. We can not recruit the suitable people who are professionally strong and sound'. 1. M (AD/DM)

Messages have to be sent by fax, letters or telephone to the officers in the Central Office of the Provincial Ministry of Education because approval is needed for most decisions. According to one principal there are significant delays in receiving approval, and this affects the work at most of the institutions. One official expressed his concern about the lack of autonomy:

'we have funds but believe me that we have no autonomy to utilize the funds and the procedure delays, procedure for approval are so lengthy that even in one and half year we are not in the position to decide the procedure to how to procure the things for these institutions'. 2. M (AD/DM)

Such day-to-day management matters remain very much in the control of the Central Office of the Provincial Education Ministry. An interviewee mentioned that the decision-making power should be given to the people working at the teacher education institutions because they are the actual implementers. They know the difficulties and hardships according to the needs of the teachers and the schools. If they are given the freedom to make the decisions, it will bring positive changes. In the words of one interviewee:

'If the decision-making power may be delegated to the DCTE and then to RITEs, this delegation would greatly help'. 2. M (AD/DM)

The principals cited some other instances where permission had to be sought from the DCTE for matters which might have been effectively handled locally, such as:

- Repairing damage to building,
- All disciplinary matters,
- Appointment of non-academic staff
- Planning for national ceremonies.

These management problems remain very much in the control of the DCTE and Central Office of Education Ministry.

7.2.1.2 Funding for Physical and Educational Resource Material

All teacher training institutes are state run and therefore, financial support is provided by the government. The expenditure for teacher training can be provided by provincial expenditure. Provincial expenditure refers to capital assets such as buildings, staff salaries and benefits, equipment installation, and administrative services. The standards for funding vary from the central government to local and from provinces to municipalities.

Documentary analysis and interviews were conducted to examine the availability of physical facilities and educational resource materials for the professional preparation of teachers at RITEs. Analysis of the data collected shows that the teacher education institutions do not have adequate financial resources. Providing insufficient financial resources is equivalent to cutting back on certain areas of teacher preparation. This has an adverse impact on the quality of professional preparation of teachers. This is not appropriate for the work demands expected of them in the field. In simple terms, it is generally accepted that the 'bottom line' for providing an adequate and enriching preparation of teachers is the allocation of sufficient financial resources. Teacher education institutions should receive sufficient funding to meet the cost of the professional preparation of teachers, and currently they do not.

Despite decentralisation in financial management, Pakistan is still struggling with a lack of resources. The lion's share of funds is provided through federal revenues, which are distributed to the provinces under the National Finance Commission. The share distribution of the provinces should recognize the size of investment needed to be made in the field of education. This means that more should be available for education where implementation is almost entirely in the hands of the provincial governments

(Aly, 2007). Due to severe capacity constraints, the most serious flaw is the under-utilization of such funds as there are. According to an estimate less than 50 per cent of the funds allocated for the non-recurrent expenditure are spent (Aly, 2007). The important reason accredited has been the slow releases from the higher to lower level and delays in the procedures. According to one official:

'as for as the funds are concerned there are, but the problem was their proper utilization'. 1. M (AD/FR)

The other source of funding is donor agencies. These donor agencies have played a vital role in enhancing the ITT in the province. The programmes of these donor agencies are no doubt well intentioned but the key issue of lack of sustainability remains in donor-funded projects. In the words of one interviewee:

'Some of the funds are arranged by the provincial government under their annual public sector development programmes, while some of the programmes are organised and funded by the donor agencies'. 2. M (AD/FR)

Insufficient supply of high quality educational resources and lack of proper physical facilities has prevented the teacher education institutions from providing an adequate and enriching professional preparation of teachers. Through this study the researcher attempted to identify the physical restrictions which affected the quality of teacher education directly in RITEs. All RITEs lack different physical facilities including building, furniture, libraries, science laboratories and computer laboratories. All interviewees said that there is lack of physical facilities in the RITEs and highlighted the shortage of resources. For example:

'we do not have the resources that we need to teach our courses effectively'.
1. F (TE/FR)

'there is shortage of academic resources, we need computers to teach the subject of computer studies. I think information technology is very important and I must admit we are lacking the basic things at the moment'. 2. F (TE/FR)

'all institutions are very short of library resources. We do not have computers and no access to internet. Without these facilities how can we involve in the further research'. 1. M (TE/FR)

One student teacher responded that, 'we do not need the basic theoretical definitions of computers, we need practical programmes'. There are more comments related to the Computer Laboratory:

'I think, the RITEs need to be updated with information technology if there is a need to improve the quality of teacher education'. 1. F (PR/FR)

According to a teacher educator:

'We do not have the facility of computer laboratory in our Institution. If we wish to improve the basic education of this country we should provide the better facilities to our trainees'. 4. F (TE/FR)

A student teacher commented:

'the introduction of computer study is good but we do not have the facility of computer labs in our institutions. We just know the definition of computer'. 2. F (ST/FR)

One officer said that:

'we have made numerous submissions to Ministry of Education for computers and finally the authorities decided to provide us with 40 computers for every teacher education institutions in the province'. 2. M (AD/FR)

A Computer Laboratory is followed by a fully resourced Library in the ranking of fundamental resources in RITEs. According to a Principal:

'I think without proper physical facilities it is very difficult to improve the quality of teacher education, for example in the library the collection is outdated and barely supports the curriculum of teaching. Shelves are filled with irrelevant materials which should be weeded out. Unfortunately we do not have basic reference material such as Encyclopaedia, Dictionaries, Subject Dictionaries, and Yearbooks'. 1. F (PR/FR)

The third most important resource considered for the quality of teacher education was a Science Laboratory.

According to a science teacher educator:

'Our Science Lab needs improvement to make science learning more interesting and carry out experiments effectively'. 2. M (TE/FR)

These all comments reflect on the poor situation at the teacher training institutions in relation to resources.

7.2.1.2 *The Curriculum of the Teacher Education Programme*

The Curriculum Wing in the Federal Ministry of Education is responsible for setting the curriculum of primary, secondary, and teacher education. As far as curriculum is concerned, that for all initial teacher training institutions is generally based on the curriculum of primary and elementary schools. These institutions place emphasis on content courses as well as methods courses. The curriculum of teacher preparation is very complex in that it exists in many forms: printed documents; in the minds of tutors; as delivered by tutors in the classrooms; and as experienced by the student teachers (Stuart, 1999). While a curriculum normally focuses on four areas: aims and objectives; content; methodology and evaluation, Aly (2007) maintains that in Pakistan there is normally not much difference made between curriculum and text books.

The current initial teacher education programme, leading to the Diploma in Education (DIE) introduced across Pakistan by the Technical Panel on Teacher Education. This programme was commenced in NWFP in September, 2005 replacing the Primary Teaching Certificate (PTC) and Certificate of Teaching (CT). The underlying justification for this innovation was that the new diploma would cater for the complex, challenging and increasingly diverse and difficult role of the primary teacher. This programme was designed specifically to raise the academic standards of primary teachers. The Diploma in Education is a new training programme that admits only

students with good grades. It takes 18 months which is double the duration of the PTC or CT.

The curriculum of the DIE programme seems to have two main aims: to raise academic standards and to produce teachers capable of taking on an extended professional role. The curriculum comprises twelve subject areas, designed with 50:50 ratio of content knowledge to professional knowledge and practice in both semesters. It appears that the 'pedagogic content knowledge', or 'methods' aspect, is obviously not integrated with subject studies. The curriculum (textbooks) appears to be overloaded and somewhat traditional in design. It was also found that several contradictions and mismatches exists between the design of the curriculum, the way it was taught, and the perceived needs of the students, a situation which may negatively influence the achievement of the programme aims.

The DIE programme was designed specifically to raise the academic standards of primary teachers. This target was achieved from the first day but there is evidence that some students were finding some subjects of the programme very demanding.

One officer criticised that:

'there are a lot of problems in the curriculum of teacher education specially related to the pre-service because the curriculum of the pre-service is much more theoretical and not practical and it is reported by the different stakeholders that it is not according to the school requirements and school needs'. 2. M (AD/CU)

Most stakeholders were critical of the pre-service training because of the archaic curriculum, which was revised in 1995 after three decades. It was reviewed in 2005 and added some subjects but it soon became overloaded and overlapping. In this context he further noted that:

'The curriculum of the pre-service teacher education just needed to be revised and it should be according to the requirement of the teachers and schools'. 2. M (AD/CU)

Curricula, in particular, should have the flexibility to accommodate local requirements and opportunities so that children are able to develop appropriate and relevant skills. In the views of a Principal:

'I think, current curriculum needs improvement, it should be so sound, it should be according to academic, cultural, and social needs, and as Islamic point of view it should be in correct measures'. 1. F (PR/CU)

The Principal also commented about the decision making in development of curriculum that:

'teacher educators as well as school teachers should be involved in decision making of curriculum development because they know better than any one else about the deficiencies and constraints in curriculum'. 1. F (PR/CU)

Mention was also made by some of the teacher educators and student teachers of considerable overlap between courses, and of the vital need for an urgent review of the curriculum of pre-service programme:

'I think, there is a need to make another review of pre-service programme. It would be better so that we can have a balanced programme'. 2. F (TE/CU)

The research showed that some areas are continuously repeated in almost all subjects, which is unnecessary and counter-productive. Some other areas or topics should be including in the various subjects, but are missing at present.

a) Familiarity

With regard to familiarity with the primary curriculum as a whole, there was an overwhelming view by the stakeholders, including those working directly in education, that they were not familiar with all areas of the primary curriculum and were unable to differentiate between curriculum and syllabus/text books. Copies of the curriculum were not available in ITE institutions and in any school because apparently, none have been supplied.

They noted, for example:

'the teachers at school level are not in a position to differentiate between the text books and curriculum. They think that the text books which they have in schools are the curriculum vide in the case the textbooks are for the development of the learning competencies'. 2. M (AD/FY)

'The teachers and student teachers are only familiar with the textbooks available to teach'. 1. M (PR/FY)

b) Subject Matter Knowledge

On subject knowledge the majority of interviewee stated that student teachers possessed adequate subject matter knowledge while some of them commented on the lack of it.

The responses include:

'They have good command on mathematics and science but their knowledge of English is poor'. 1. F (HT/SMK)

'They are good but they do not have the basic in-depth knowledge in a particular subject'. 3. M (T/SMK)

'Although they are supposed to be generalists they lack thorough knowledge in some subject areas especially maths and social studies etc.'. 2. M (TE/SMK)

c) Practice Teaching

Teacher Educators greatly value the opportunity for practice teaching. On the whole teaching practice is planned and managed in a good spirit. At the school level teacher educators tried to provide professional support. There is a wide agreement among participants on the importance of teaching practice experience in the students' period of preparation as follows:

According to a teacher educator:

'I think, that practice teaching is a basic part in the programme that the student teachers go through the ITE institutions, because it should help them to apply the principles and techniques they took at the methodology part. It is the most practical part that will help them to be teachers in the future'. 1. M (TE/PT)

Another participant said that,

'Teaching practice is a basic part of students' preparation. It is a laboratory experience designed to develop and to test student teachers' competencies and their ability to cope with a highly complex and stressful situation i-e teaching act'. 2. F (TE/PT)

A Principal echoed the same concept:

'I think, to improve the duration and quality of practice teaching every RITE should have laboratory school for the students, where they can do their practice on daily basis'. 1. F (PR/PT)

The term laboratory here is significant. It seems like a scientific analogy is being attempted as a laboratory is normally the place in which scientific experiments are conducted. The term is used in the sense that we use the experimental and practical aspect of it. In teaching practice student teachers are encouraged to be trying many techniques inside the classroom that is the stage of all operations, and trying to pick up and develop the one that works best with each situation. In fact this is not what happens in practise in the Pakistani context.

Providing actual teaching experience in real school situations is one of the most challenging tasks for planners of teacher education. Student teachers design, prepare and present the lessons under the teacher educator's guidance. Usually these lessons would number about two or three per day. After observing the lessons the teacher educators provide the feedback on the selection of those lessons. For the final assessment trainees prepare only one or two lessons. Concerning teaching practice, below are some comments of student teachers:

'I think it is very important as it is the only way we practice to be teachers'. 3. F (ST/PT)

Comments of student teachers about the importance of practice teaching:

'With out teaching practice period which we take in the schools, we could not understand what the situation will be when we become teachers'. 2. M (ST/PT)

'Duration of six weeks for practice teaching is not sufficient, it should be increase for more than six months'. 1. F (ST/PT)

With regard to practice teaching, all staff indicated that the duration of practice teaching should be extended. The following comments reflected this:

'Duration needs to be extended instead of 4 weeks only in schools, they should be given two months or more maybe that they have a good practice'. 1. F (TE/PT)

'The span of time is not enough. It is need to give them more time at placements. I think they will be able to learn more'. 3. M (TE/PT)

'School experience should be taken over a longer period six weeks are not enough for the 18 months course of Diploma in Education'. 4. F (TE/PT)

The student teachers unanimously answered three points as being very useful in their professional preparation: children's responses to their teaching; familiarization visits to the school; and support from other teachers in the schools:

'These visits made me ready for what was to come'. 1. M (ST/PT)

'was an important one whereby we were able to familiarize ourselves to the school'. 4. F (ST/PT)

Some other aspects noted by the beginning teachers as contributing positively to their professional preparation included the assistance and support of their tutors and from other teachers in the school, and the sharing of ideas with their peers. One student teacher said, 'our tutors are indeed very helpful, always guiding us throughout our practice teaching and advising on our weaknesses'.

Perceptions of negative influences during practice teaching ranged widely. Some of the factors negatively rated by the student teachers were the duration of practice teaching, and feedback from college tutors after assessment.

Some comments by student teachers were as follows:

'The time was too short for practice teaching, as we started to enjoy the lessons with the children, we had to come back to the college'. 3. F (ST/PT)

'Time allocated for preparation is not enough. Lesson plans and teaching aids preparation require a lot of time'. 1. F (ST/PT)

Aside from the above factors, lack of resources for teaching and learning, lack of sufficient continuity in practice teaching, lack of proper coordination between academic work and directing teaching, and a uniformly prescribed amount of practice teaching for each student teacher are some of the other factors seen as adversely affecting student teachers' professional preparation.

d) Theory-Practice Relationship

Most of the students said that there is no connection or link between what they have learnt in the classroom and what is actually going on in real teaching situations inside the schools. Student teachers confirmed that they concentrate more on theory and less emphasis is put on the practical side. For example, in the subject of curriculum, student teachers are studying the different designs of the curriculum, whilst in methodology sessions they are studying different methods of teaching such as the Direct method, or the Audio Lingual method, but they do not know or learn how to apply these techniques inside the actual classrooms. A teacher educator said that:

'We fill their minds with theory of language teaching, methods of teaching, history of education, linguistics and so on. And then, when they go to schools there is a gap between what's happening in schools as the real world and what is being taught at the institutions'. 3. M (TE/TPR)

A student teacher summarised that:

'What we have in the college which is considered as theory is completely far from what we face of the actual situation in school life'. 2. F (TE/TPR)

The student teachers were asked to comment on the balance of content of versus methods, and theory versus practice teaching. The trainees want more time on methods as well as on practice teaching. On the contrary, the teacher training programme emphasises content and theory. The two views are directly opposed, which is not helpful.

7.2.1.4 The Duration of the Teacher Training Programmes

The study showed that in Pakistan, teacher training has been adversely affected by the consequences of the short duration/length of the ITE programmes. With reference to the duration of the pre-service teacher education programme, most of the teacher educators indicated the need to extend the programme in order to better prepare student teachers for all aspects of work and responsibility in the field. They considered that the present duration of 18 months for the ITE programme is insufficient:

'The 18 months programme is fine for theoretical preparation but the duration of practice teaching is insufficient, it needs more 6 months for the purpose'.
1. F (TE/DU)

According to another teacher educator:

'We have got a large number of subjects within 18 months so we are not really doing the justice to teach them properly'. 3. F (TE/DU)

According to an official,

'You know in our country the duration of pre-service courses are hardly 18 months and secondly in 18 months we can not develop the subject competencies and as well as the pedagogical expertise of the teachers. So, two years may be given for the subject command of the core subjects which are taught at the schools and secondly 2 and half years may be given for the overall development that are communication skills, presentation skills, and obligation skills'. 2. M (AD/DU)

On the other hand most of the student teachers wanted the duration of the programme to be decreased, while two students wanted it to remain the same. The reason underlying this is that the poor economic situation does not enable them to afford the tuition fees

and other necessities. So here again we have views that are opposed, at least as far as this sample is concerned.

7.2.1.5 Recruitment, Career and Qualifications of Teacher Educators

a) Recruitment, Career and Qualifications

The underlying assumption here is that better qualified staff can help raise the quality of the teaching profession. Teacher education institutions need people who are professionally strong and sound, and who want to be in these institutions.

Unfortunately, there are no special criteria for the recruitment of teacher educators. Teacher educators receive no training regarding their work. The Department of Education has no formal induction programme for new teacher educators. The teacher educators working in RITEs mostly belong to the general cadre of secondary school teachers. They are promoted as instructors/subject specialists on the basis of their length of service (Abbasi, 2000:303). The majority of the positions in these institutions are occupied by people who have inadequate qualifications. Unqualified or under-qualified teacher educators seem to affect the training of student teachers adversely:

'There are no criteria for recruitment of teacher educators and also there is no training for teacher educators. Most of our teacher educators do not have proper training they just are teaching like teachers in secondary schools'. 2. M (AD/RTE)

Teacher educators can be transferred as secondary school teachers, Deputy District Education Officers (DDEO), and District Education Officers (DEO) undertaking the role of administrators or vice versa. The practice of such transfers does not allow teacher educators to develop any expertise in that field. In the words of a respondent:

'People who are punished they are transferred to RITEs and we are having a lot of problems'. 2. M (AD/RTE)

The AED (2006) and UNESCO & USAID (2005) reports also pointed out that usually, school principals or head teachers are appointed to TTIs as a punishment and thus remain negative as far as performing their job is concerned.

The teacher educators who participated in this study come from a variety of backgrounds and experiences. The majority of them are graduates with Master degrees. Most trained as secondary teachers and therefore had little first hand experience of primary teaching. Only a few teacher educators indicated that they are upgrading their qualifications while at RITEs through personally funded extension studies because the Ministry of Education has not made any provision of funding for further studies. According to one teacher educator:

'It is my own initiative to do further study and I passed my MPhil from Allama Iqbal Open University and doing PhD from the Preston University'. 1. M (TE/RTE)

Only a few of the teaching staff have had opportunities to go abroad for professional courses. Furthermore, there are no clear structures or regular programmes for the development of teacher educators. Therefore tutors, with the exception of those who had been trained through regional workshops and foreign training, do not receive relevant training in either the programmes they are supposed to teach, or new theories such as 'reflective practice'. There appears to be no system of staff appraisal and no clear guidelines for promotion. Promotion usually depends on length of service.

b) Involvement in Research

Shami (2005) asserts that:

'All government grants are consumed by recurrent expenditure e.g. salaries of staff, services etc. with no money hardly left for anything particularly for research which is an assigned task of higher education. Funds for research are almost non-existent. At present there is hardly any applied research going on in teacher training institutions'. (P. 89)

Only a few interviewees are involved with educational research. Many teacher educators expressed their lack of engagement in any educational research. They made comments such as:

'I do not have time to do research, either educational or any other type of research'. 3. M (TE/IR)

'I did not engage by any role to do educational research simply because no one ask me to do'. 3. F (TE/IR)

A very few teachers pointed to their individual involvement in research. They do research as part of an Educational Diploma Course at postgraduate level or at Masters' level.

The study found that all staff carried out a variety of work. Not only were they involved in teaching pre-service teachers, but also in the supervision of students during practice teaching, counselling, administration and other activities conducted at the institutions. In the area of practice teaching, instructors are required to visit primary schools to assess trainees' work, prepared reports and work with the class teachers and head teachers of the co-operating schools.

7.2.1.6 Selection Criteria of Student Teachers

a) Entry Qualification

The basic qualifications with which trainees enter the pre-service programme have an impact on their ability to profit from their professional preparation, and subsequently their ability to meet the demands of work in the field (Cairns, 1998; Logan, et al., 1990). Unlike some other professions, teaching often suffers from a shortage of qualified candidates for admission. Therefore, teaching often does not enjoy the privilege of being able to select the best qualified from among a large pool of applicants. The problem for a system is, first, ensuring that there is a large enough pool of qualified

graduates to meet the needs of the professions and second, attracting enough qualified applicants to enter teaching in competition with the other professions.

Candidates seeking to enter the teaching profession should be carefully chosen according to their ethics as well as for those mental and physical characteristics which may enable them to succeed in their future career. With regard to entry qualifications, currently they have been raised with the upgrading of the pre-service training programme from Primary Teaching Certificate (PTC) to Diploma in Education (DIE). The prerequisite qualification for Diploma in Education is Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC). However, this is the basic qualification but most of the institutions recruit students with the higher qualifications of Bachelors and Masters degrees:

'In this programme of DIE the recruitment of student teachers is made at a high level. The academic qualification moved from Secondary School Certificate (10) to Higher Secondary School Certificate (12), and we have some students who hold the Masters' degree'. 1. F (PR/EQ)

We can conclude that there are few reliable criteria for selecting the students who will be teachers and that the main measurement is the students' total mark, not their abilities, attitudes or interests. The admission policies of the teacher training institutions do not consider the subject-wise demands which are effecting the science and mathematics education in schools. According to the interviewee:

'It is a pity that our criteria for selection are in general, which is HSSC in Arts or Humanities but there is no consideration for mathematics or science particularly'. 2. M (TE/EQ)

b) Intake Criteria

The intake of student teachers for Regional Institutes for Teacher Education is mainly the responsibility of DCTE and the Institution itself. Applications are invited and then short-listed for interview and the names of the selected students are displayed on the institutions' notice board. The criteria for admission are generally based on marks

obtained by the students in their academic careers, and criteria of selection based on the merit and suitability. This point was agreed by a teacher educator who said:

'I think the criteria of selecting students or admitting in general and especially in teacher education should be based on the students' tendencies and attitudes not on the academic certificates'. 2. F (TE/IC)

The criteria and mechanism of selection is mainly in the hands of the Directorate of Curriculum and Teacher Education with token participation by the Institutions themselves.

7.2.2 The Quality of the ITE Programme

The quality of teaching is compromised from the very beginning. No progress has been made on policy design to create a separate cadre of teacher trainers (AED, 2006). Currently, teacher educators are senior school teachers and could be posted in schools, teacher training institutions as well as management positions. With regard to quality assessment of teacher education, the principals of teacher training colleges have the primary responsibility to monitor trainers. However, the benchmarks against which they are assessing trainer performance are unclear, given that trainers have no job descriptions or performance indicators to work to. In practice, college principals invest hardly any time in fulfilling this assessment responsibility. A major flaw in the assessment mechanism is that, apart from the annual ACRs which are completed in the traditional manner with no requirement to assess quality concerns, principals are not required to report on the quality of training (AED 2004).

Many of the interviewees showed their dissatisfaction with the quality of initial teacher education. According to them the quality of teacher training programmes has an imbalance as they lack harmony with the school system.

'Teachers' performance in schools and the way they do their work were an indication of the quality of what they have got during their training. What teachers have in their training is different from what they practised in schools'. 1. M (TE/QY)

At the provincial level, departments are responsible for dealing with school-based issues for particular school levels, and have no linkage with TT activities. Active linkages between training bodies and schools where trainees are employed are also missing. Moreover, no mechanism exists in order to facilitate such linkages (Jamil 2004). The majority of teacher educators commented that the quality of teacher education can improve by revising the curriculum according to the needs of changing culture and the demands of the modern world:

'For this I think, the curriculum of teacher education should be revised according to the changes in school curriculum. The school curriculum has changed but the teacher education has the same old textbooks. For example we have no improvement in the course of geometry we still are studying the books published 30 years ago'. 2. F (TE/QY)

'We have the subject of computer science and unfortunately it is theoretical because we do not have computers and laboratory for computers,--- therefore I think, these all things need improvements and when they will improve we can talk about the quality of initial teacher education'. 1. F (TE/QY)

'We can improve the standard and quality to improve the methods of teaching, our own capacity building and to improve and revise the curriculum according to our needs'. 1. M (TE/QY)

In the words of one interviewee:

'You know who join the teaching, those who can not afford the expenses of medical colleges or universities. They are capable but they do not have resources to study further therefore, they prefer to go for this course which has 18 months duration and after 18 months they are graduated and try to go for a job with at least one degree/certificate. I think, if government want to increase the quality of teacher education, it should increase the duration and announce scholarships for the courses, I think it will work and the high quality students will attract'. 1. F (TE/QY)

The UNESCO & USAID (2006) report also confirmed that in the absence of any incentive mechanism to attract high quality students to the teaching profession in

Pakistan, low quality students would continue to constitute the bulk of the teaching cadre of the country.

7.2.3 Teacher Professionalism

Unfortunately, there is no clear vision of teachers' professional development in the teacher education programme. Programmes of Initial Teacher Education need to promote three main aspects of professional development:

- *Professional knowledge and understanding;*
- *Professional skills and abilities;*
- *Professional values and personal commitment.* (QAA, Scotland: 2007)

The study did not find a clear structure or regular programmes for the development of teacher educators. None of the tutors had been specifically trained as teacher educators. Tutors, with the exception of those who have short training/courses from foreign countries do not receive relevant training either in the programmes they are supposed to teach, or new theories such as 'reflective practice'. The Directorate of Curriculum and Teacher Education has no formal induction programme for new or transferred tutors. Most of these tutors do not know how to teach the students who are going to be elementary teachers. The majority of respondents stressed the importance of teachers' development in the pedagogical domain and demanded to design and implement comprehensive and systematic teacher training programme to improve the professional development of teachers. According to a Principal:

'You know, teaching methods are one of the most important aspects for the teacher so that s/he can vary his/her teaching style; when s/he teaches the subjects s/he does it in a variety of ways unlike the traditional methods and rote learning. S/he must be creative in the teaching methods and utilise the teaching aids and support facilities such as laboratories, computers and other aids'. 1. F (PR/TP)

The majority of teacher educators saw a connection between teachers' ambitions to develop their knowledge, sense of collegiality, communication with other teachers, job satisfaction and teaching experience and the development of teaching as a profession. A teacher educator stated that:

'Some teachers have an interest in other cultures, educational systems and technology, they try to keep in touch with all kinds of development in their fields, while others do not know even how to operate the computers, and this is indeed the problem of personal interest'.

2. M (TE/TP)

A principal focused on teachers' motivation and the desire to succeed in their job:

'Teachers can be developed professionally if they take their teaching job seriously, not as the only option they have. If they do that then they will realize the significance of development in knowledge and experience, they will prepare a new generation armed with skills and knowledge, change the community's negative perspective on teaching for the better'. 1. F (PR/TP)

The majority of interviewees indicated that teachers always need more development because they deal with knowledge, and knowledge is very complex. They explained that teaching has become more sophisticated, so it requires more intelligent and better educated people to do the work. However, in reality teachers are low paid, more effort is demanded of them, and they face a new generation with less respect for them. Therefore, many potentially good teachers leave the profession or never join it. According to a teacher educator:

'Unfortunately we always have 5 per cent of excellent teachers. If half of them leave, the quality of education will drop dramatically in terms of teaching-learning outcomes. The other 95 per cent, range between moderate and low quality teachers who negatively affect the performance of the schools in general'. 4. F (TE/TP)

According to most of the respondents this programme enhances the professionalism of teachers a little but not to any significant degree.

7.2.4 Effectiveness of the ITE Programme

The current initial teacher education programme leads to the Diploma in Education (DIE). As far as this programme is concerned it is a sound programme. Its prerequisite qualification is Intermediate (12 Grade). However, this qualification is not enough for the revised curriculum of elementary level (6th, 7th and 8th Grades) because the new curriculum for elementary level is updating. It is mentioned above that the implementation of the DIE programme was initiated in September, 2005. Therefore, it would be too early to assess the effectiveness of the programme however, there are some good aspects of this programme including an improved academic qualification of student teachers also including some new subjects and an improved scale of merit.

According to an official:

'The prerequisite qualification of ITE programme should be enhanced to Bachelor level. We are also of the opinion that Diploma, CT, and PTC and this and that there is no use and it is suggested that may be directly enhanced to the level of Bachelor degree holder as well as the programme. We have proposed we have even submitted the proposal to the Secretary of School and Literacy to enhance this pre-service training programme from DIE to BEd Level'.

2. M (AD/EFF)

When teacher educators were asked for their opinion about the effectiveness of the training they had experienced, nearly all teachers expressed dissatisfaction. The imbalance between theory and practice was the main point they raised. Theory in the sense of academic subjects was the dominant aspect of the programme, and it did not connect with practice. This is because practice was mainly driven by educational theory and it was separated from school reality. One interviewee for example pointed out that:

'Teacher education programmes significantly focus on theory. It is lacking the coherence with reality in schools. The schedule of the curriculum is not balanced the duration of practice teaching is not enough....very difficult to observe the weaknesses in short span of time'. 2. F (TE/EFF)

Another teacher educator indicated how his training affected work:

'When you work in any field here in Pakistan, the first lesson you are expected to get in your newly practical life is that you should forget what you had got in your academic education and start learning from the reality'. 1. M (TE/EFF)

One of the participants pointed out that his training has no particular impact on his work.

He mentioned how he was influenced by real experiences in the educational environment and by practicing education. Another interviewee has a tough opinion:

'The content of the course is vague and it is not the expected course to train the new generation of teachers. The academic part of the course had a significant difference in terms of old fashioned and non-updated curricula; and the distance between the curricula from what teachers do in reality'. 2. M (TE/EFF)

One of the interviewees has nearly the same experience,

'Most of the people just learn on the job, drawing on memories of their own training and using what books they can find'. 2. F (TE/EFF)

According to all teacher educators the breadth of the pre-service programme is colossal but the depth is superficial. The following are some of the comments which highlight this:

'The course of DIE has wide coverage but not too much in depth'. 3. F (TE/EFF)

'Some of the courses are very shallow, we just teach them on the surface, for example computer studies..'. 2. M (TE/EFF)

While one teacher educator commented that this is a useful programme, indeed everything is useful in this programme, they just need to be strengthened. Some teacher educators indicated the need to expose the student teachers to rural schools, in particular, school teaching composite classes:

'The current teacher education programme simply concentrate on straight class teaching, in terms of multi-class or multi-grade teaching the programme did not address'. 2. F (TE/EFF)

Another teacher educator commented that:

'I think there is a need to prepare the students for multi-grade teaching because in most of the primary schools especially in rural primary schools we have composite classes'. 2. M (TE/EFF)

The researcher was informed that few RITEs out of the 20 in the province have qualified teacher educators. In these institutions secondary school teachers are hired and they have to teach the student teachers. One respondent pointed out that the effectiveness of ITE programme is much better in those RITEs which have qualified teacher educators.

The study found that, in spite of the above criticism, the prospected and newly qualified teachers value their programme, and feel it has prepared them well for teaching, although they would have liked more time on teaching practice. They consider the professional studies courses the most useful, especially topics such as lesson planning and record keeping. According to the teacher educators the newly qualified teachers have been found to teach differently from unqualified teachers. Qualified teachers are more confident to handle the job than the unqualified. The study also revealed that the trainees from the colleges have indeed more relevant knowledge and skills and are more effective teachers than those who are untrained.

7.3 Feedback from New Teachers

This section presents an analysis of the data collected by means of an interview questionnaire given to the beginning teachers. The interview provided a list of different aspects, and beginning teachers indicated whether their courses prepared them adequately for all the needs of a teacher.

On the positive side, the beginning teachers perceived that their pre-service programme prepared them adequately to plan their work, develop their personal

confidence and improve their pedagogical practices in some of the subject areas, especially English and Mathematics. They feel confident that they can teach well.

The negative aspects, in which the beginning teachers thought they were inadequately prepared, included multi-class teaching, performing administrative duties, and supporting students with learning difficulties. Another problem the student teachers encountered was lack of skills in classroom management and in dealing with individual pupils' needs, especially in large heterogeneous groups.

The beginning teachers were also asked to reflect on any additional comments on the pre-service programme they completed. When asked why student teachers choose this profession, the researcher found that some students who choose to be teachers are highly motivated. Some like the challenge of influencing others, and some have very positive memories about their previous teachers and how they affected their way of life. One student teacher said:

'I like teaching since I was young as this profession is full of unexpected situations. And this is the thing I do really like'. 2. M (ST/FB)

For female students one of the main reasons is that it is the desire and choice of the students' parents. According to two female students:

'For me as a girl, my father sees that being a teacher is the best job'. 2. F (ST/FB)

'I like to enter in this profession because my father was a teacher and he wants me to be like him'. 4. M (ST/FB)

One trainee recalled her previous teachers with whom she was inspired to join this area. She narrated her childhood how her primary teacher taught them different aspects of life and how she taught them to make the small no cost materials.

The need to review the initial teacher training programme was one of the items most frequently indicated by the beginning teachers in the free response section.

For example:

'The pre-service teachers programme must be appropriate and challenging to meet the current demand. Some of the areas in the programme are outdated and needs to be improved'. 2. F (ST/FB)

'There should be a new programme drawn up which is more challenging and prepares trainees to fit into urban as well as rural schools'. 1. M (ST/FB)

'The programme also has to review its curriculum in order to keep up with the changes'. 3. M (ST/FB)

Furthermore, the respondents perceived that the pre-service programme was more theoretical than practical:

'More emphasis should be placed on practical work'. 2. F (ST/FB)

The respondents also commented about additional courses that:

'The programme has very little knowledge of handling composite class. The situation exists in real life'. 1. M (ST/FB)

The need to reduce the workload, the need for better facilities and resources, and the need to upgrade the programme to Degree level were other problems identified by most student teachers.

7.2.5 Documentary Outcomes

7.4.1 National Level Sources

In the case of Pakistan relevant national sources are to be found in different educational policies and Five Year Plans. The issues of initial teacher education are covered in various educational policies. There is no specific policy framework which addressed initial teacher education as such. The latest national education policy, 1998-2010 was intended as a major step forward to tackle the issues of ITE. The Education Sector

Reform (ESR) 2002-2006 was introduced to devise an implementation mechanism for the National Education Policy 1998-2010s recommendations of ITE. There is a scarcity of literature on pre-service teacher education therefore, few sources could be found in terms of academic books, journals and textbooks.

7.4.2 ITE Institutions Sources

The researcher could not find any institutional resources apart from internal and external examination results registers and audit reports about funding and its utilization. In some cases, it was possible for the researcher to read minutes and programmes of the agenda of higher authorities meetings but not to abstract or quote from them. Unfortunately there is no system of supervision and accountability in ITE institutions. Therefore, the researcher could not find the inspection reports in RITEs.

7.4.3 School Sources

The researcher could not find any written material or scheme of studies in the schools. The only few resources available were, attendance register of students, teachers' salary registers, timetables and some teaching learning materials.

7.5 Un-anticipated National Events

There was considerable political and civil unrest experienced in Pakistan during the period of data collection (Dec.2007 to Feb.2008). This unrest curtailed some of the activities, for example, there was not enough time to observe additional institutions and schools.

7.6 Summary

This chapter has presented the findings obtained by the means of interviews and an examination of relevant documents. All the participants indicated to some extent their dissatisfaction with the professional preparation of teachers at the teacher education institutions. They perceive that pre-service primary teacher education in Pakistan does not provide an adequate and enriching professional preparation for beginning teachers in a diverse range of areas of work and responsibility. Even though no trainee leaves the institution as a full fledged teacher, some of the deficiencies in their professional preparation could have been easily avoided in the opinion of the researcher.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, there is a vital need for a coordinated and cohesive system of teacher education in Pakistan. In addition, a clear philosophy and policy for initial teacher education in Pakistan are needed to enhance initial teacher education.

CHAPTER EIGHT: COMPARISON

The findings of this study, analysed and presented in the previous chapters, have focused on the main components in the programmes and illustrate interchanges between systems and experiences. The administrative systems, available resources, curricula, teacher educators, student teachers, quality of teacher education programme and teacher professionalism were all considered. In the present chapter these aspects will be discussed and compared with a view to relate the phenomenon under study, namely, quality of provision and effectiveness of primary ITE in England and Pakistan, to the context in which a comparative approach is undertaken.

8.1 The Comparative Method and the Dimension Approach

This process is complicated further because both dimensions and countries are being compared; six dimensions and two countries. It will therefore be taken in two stages:

- The dimensions will be analysed not only for primary data, but also for the contribution of information derived from secondary sources presented in Chapters, 1, 4, & 5. Every dimension will be discussed in respect of each of the two countries. At the end of this stage it will be possible to generate one or more hypotheses to be tested in the next stage.
- The analysis will then move on to *simultaneous comparison* by comparing (a) the dimensions with each other in an integrated way across the both countries, (b) and also the themes of adequate preparation and effectiveness by investigating in both countries (Figure, 4). The whole process should enable a better understanding of complex of relationships within each location. From this, outcomes will be identified for final discussion in Chapter 9 which concludes the thesis.

Before commencing the juxtaposition of dimensions it may be useful to review the potential influence of the dimensions in relation to each other. This is summarised in the form of a 'Matrix of Dimensions', *Figure 7*. It can be argued that the categorisations

in a matrix reflect the perspective of the researcher and the theoretical position they adopt (Sayer, 1992). It is based on a combination of documentary and empirical evidences and it is suggested that each of the dimensions has some potential to influence the initial teacher education. For example, education policy has the great impact on ITE as well as all other dimensions. Likewise, the curriculum is the backbone of any ITE programme and resources include the financial decisions and provision of physical and educational facilities. Similarly, teacher educators and student teachers are the key factors of the ITE programme.

There is a basic cross-check of thirty points arising from the potential interaction of each of the six dimensions with each of the five others. These points present fifteen at national level and fifteen at local level and remaining six are the interaction between the national and local level of each of the dimensions. There is a variation at each location in terms of decision-making for example, in England ‘local level’ is considered the institutional level and in Pakistan local level is considered the provincial level. This Matrix has assisted in the formulation of the comparative analysis. The next step to analyse the cases is juxtaposition in the light of data obtained from the both locations.

8.2 Juxtaposition

8.2.1 Administration and Organizational Structure

In Pakistan, the administration of teacher education, is controlled exclusively by the provincial Ministry of Education, while in England the ministry delegates at least some of its power to different education agencies, operating under the control of the Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills (DIUS).

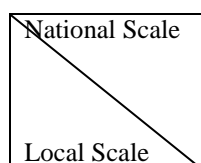
Figure 7: Matrix of Dimensions

	AD	FRs	CU	TE	ST	DU
AD	National Education Policy Local	Central Financial Mechanism	National Decision-Making & Implementation of Curriculum	Policy of Recruitment Criteria, Qualification and Career of TEs	Government Policy for Selection Criteria of Student Teachers	Set the Time Framework of Duration of different Programmes
FR	Adequate utilization of financial resources	National Budget & Aids Local	Hire the expertise & Printing the Curriculum and Textbooks	Funds for the Salaries, promotions of TEs & Scholarships for the Research	Provide Physical Facilities, Educational Resource materials & Scholarships	Provision of adequate funds for the length of every ITE programme
CU	Implementation of prescribed curriculum in the institutions	Increase funding and broaden the range of courses	National Curriculum Local	Provide the best understanding of knowledge & skills, syllabus & trainings	Provide academically sound and best knowledge about teacher education	Time distribution: Division of subjects & practicum
TE	Fully trained TEs to meet the challenges of teacher education	Provide adequate salaries to TEs, arrangements for workshops & further courses	Academically and professionally well trained teacher educators	National Status, Qualification & Career Local	Improve the professional development of ST and provide full feedback	Manage to provide the high quality teaching staff during the programme
ST	Good quality performance of STs during the training & in job after training	Achieved the benefits of resources & make teaching effective	STs should familiar with curriculum, learn the skills & understand the knowledge	Healthy student-teacher relationship during learning process	National Selection Criteria Local	High quality learning and achievements during the time period
DU	Best possible length of the ITE programmes	Availability of financial resources for full duration	Adequate courses for teaching during the time period allocated	Distribute the courses and practicum to reduce the work load	To achieve the appropriate professional requirements, skills & knowledge	National Length of Training Programme Local

Matrix design adopted from Griffin (2001) and developed by **Mah-e-rukh Ahmed, 2008.**

Keys

AD= Administration,
FR= Financial Resources,
CU= Curriculum,
TE= Teacher Educator,
ST= Student Teacher,
DU= Duration of Programme



	Pakistan	England
National	Central Policies & Decisions	Central Policies & Decisions
Local	Provincial	Institutional

England

In England the language surrounding teacher education is decidedly different. It is called Teacher Training not Teacher Education and has been strictly regulated by the Teacher Training Agency which was renamed in 2005 as the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA). The data analysis indicates that the governance of initial teacher education has been transformed through a period of intense, government intervention from a system of university autonomy to one that is highly centralised in terms of government regulation and significantly more schools-based in terms of delivery.

Over the past decade, the system of teacher education in England has become increasingly decentralised in some of its features and increasingly centralized in others. On the one hand, ITE providers had been given autonomy to create their own curriculum according to the standards. On the other hand, ITE is controlled and monitored by OfSTED and as Furlong (2005) argues, in England today teachers' professional identity formation is so powerfully controlled by the government through its regulation of the school curriculum, school practice, and teacher professional development that in this regard initial teacher preparation is largely irrelevant.

As analysis of the data shows the main mechanism to control initial teacher training is established within the universities for the professional preparation of teacher trainees. The universities established the structure of administration, management and quality assurance, decision-making and accountability. The ITE providers have professional and institutional autonomy to devise the curriculum and modes of delivery to meet the requirement of covering the QTS standards developed by the TDA.

As for teacher training facilities, there is a systematic reform plan in place for the existing teacher training institutions. The TDA has the responsibility to provide the funding to training institutions to the quality of the education they provide in terms of physical facilities, technology and educational resource material. Every ITE provider is

fully equipped with computers, overhead projectors and classroom furniture. This necessary support service from the Government, and in particular the TDA, improves the ability to provide an adequate and enriching professional preparation for prospective teachers in most of the areas of work. As a result of this, the preparation of teachers is perceived to have been significantly improved in recent years.

Pakistan

Analysis of the data obtained shows that, under the present administrative structure the work of RITEs is adversely affected by a range of factors. Currently, 20 RITEs are working in the different districts of the province and all RITEs are located many miles/kilometres from the capital city (The Secretariat Office is situated in capital city) and from the office of DCTE (The Directorate is situated in another city), and this distance creates a number of problems. Not only are there difficulties in terms of communication between the RITEs and the Ministerial officers in the Central Office at the capital city, but also the Central Office staff appear to have very little knowledge and understanding about the needs of the RITEs. There are delays in dealing with requests from the RITEs administrators. It appears that the geographical location of the RITEs contributes to what staff perceived as the neglect of RITEs. Here, some RITEs are so remote that there are few staff and small numbers of trainee teachers.

Administration decision-making is made by a remote government bureaucracy, which means that the teacher education institutions have to go through 'proper channels' and the hierarchy to have even simple things done. Because of the elaborate procedures that are required to be followed in having to submit requests to officers in the Secretariat Office for approval, the administration of RITEs has become reluctant to take any pro-active and constructive steps to improve the situation. The danger is that they seem more concerned with the maintenance of norms, such as the set procedures to

be followed, rather than with the quality of the professional preparation of teachers. This is a result of so-called 'red tape' which commonly delays the decision-making processes.

As for teacher training facilities, there is no systematic reform plan in place for the existing teacher training institutions. The government is also increasingly contracting out initial teacher training of government school teachers to NGOs known to have expertise in innovative learning and child-centred teaching methods often as part of donor funded projects.

Without the necessary support services from the Government, and in particular the provincial Ministry of Education, the RITEs are handicapped in their ability to provide an adequate and enriching professional preparation for prospective teachers in most of the areas of work and responsibility they will face. As a result of this, the preparation of teachers is perceived to be substantially and negatively affected.

The principals of the RITEs appear to have little discretion in the running of any aspect of their institutions. What emerges from the analysis of data on management and administrative systems is that the RITEs do not have professional or institutional autonomy. In this context there are two more aspects to discuss, a) educational policies, and b) organizational structure.

a) Policy Analysis

The policy analysis focused on the period from the 1944 (post-war) in England and 1947 (after independence) in Pakistan onwards. It is tried to look at the organisation and governance of ITE in both countries. Baistow (2000: 10) points out that 'homogeneity and uniformity rarely exists within a country's borders', the same can be said for cross-cultural nations. 'Each period or society has its unique casual processes, meaning systems, and social relations, which may lack equivalent elements across the units' (Neuman, 2003: 412).

England

In teacher education in England in the 1990s there was an important policy change towards structural reorganization and increased central control (Gardner & Cunningham, 1998). McBride (1996) argues that:

'despite more than a decade of changes in the various elements of teacher education there remains a sense of great waste. If only given the chance the educational community and higher education in particular, could regenerate the system. There is little evidence that current teacher education policies are encouraging good practice'. (P. 285)

Evidence shows that the English authorities planned and formulated a clear philosophy of initial teacher education informed by an explicit philosophy of teacher education, so there is no gap however small, between the planning and implementation of policies. This quick implementation improves the quality of ITE in England and makes it more effective.

Pakistan

In Pakistan, all policy statements recognised the important role of teachers in bringing about educational reforms, and also acknowledged the need for renovating and updating the teacher education curriculum. In the past 61 years teacher education improved in terms of quantitative development but in terms of qualitative development there is no dynamic improvement to meet the changing demands of raising academic and professional standards and challenges of schooling and education in the country. A review of all the education policies of Pakistan reveals that the main reasons for the poor implementation of the policies were political instability, disorganized implementation strategies, and financial strain. The study also indicates that the problems of initial teacher education in Pakistan have two main causes: first, the Pakistani policy interests have followed international trends without considering the

local implications; and second, the policies have focused on restructuring the system without a distinctive vision and philosophy.

Evidence shows that all educational policies of Pakistan illustrated: a) concern to improve the quality of ITE; b) allocation of funding for the salaries of staff and for physical infrastructure; and c) the deficiencies, problems and constraints in ITE institutions. However, there is a big gap between planning and implementation, and all policy documents indicated a lack of governmental philosophy and understanding concerning the concept of pre-service teacher education. Documentary evidence showed that many hindrances made these policies ineffective. Therefore, improvement in this area will be very slow for Pakistan, failing to cope with the high level of quality, and this low quality makes ITE programmes less effective.

b) Organizational Structure

Every initial teacher preparation programme has to operate within certain organizational and structural parameters. Decisions have to be made about financial resources, duration of the programme, curriculum and criteria for the selection of prospective student teachers. The study revealed that there are three main administrative levels in both countries.

England

In England the Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills (DIUS) is responsible for developing the teacher education policies. The Secretary of State sets and administers the statutory framework for the initial teacher education/training system, establishing teacher education policy at national level, working with other central and local government bodies and providing funds for HEIs and Schools providing teacher education.

The second level of teacher education administration is the TDA. Central government has exercised its control over pre-service teacher training through the establishment of the Teacher Development Agency for Schools (TDA) and the Office of Standards in Education (OfSTED).

The third level of administration consists of three types of institutions: the higher education institutions (HEIs); teacher education colleges; and schools (SCITT). These providers have responsibility for course planning and management and for the recruitment, selection, training and assessment of students. Through their partnership with HEIs, schools are involved in planning ITT courses and recruiting candidates, and in teaching and assessing trainees.

More than half the universities of England have their own School of Education or Centre for Educational Studies. The administration of the department is usually headed by a Dean and both secondary and primary teacher education is headed by a Director and other administrative and teaching staff and employees.

The administrative staff of a teacher education college normally consists of principal, vice-principal, teacher educators, administrative and other employees. The administration of Schools is headed by the headteacher, deputy headteacher, senior teachers, and mentors.

Pakistan

The current structure of pre-service teacher education in Pakistan also has three levels of administration: the first Administration Level is the Central Department (The Ministry of Education), which controls the main office of Secretary of Education which is located in the capital city of each province. The Provincial Ministry of Education, separate from the Federal Government, is solely responsible for running the pre-service teacher training system. Matters relating to teacher education are an entirely provincial

business. The provincial government administration of each province may provide assistance and equipment to teacher education institutions in its jurisdiction of authority, but only as support. Essential matters and changes pertaining to the curriculum and other subjects are dealt with by the Federal Government and as well as Provincial Governments.

The organizational structure of the first administrative level of the teacher education system is the Ministry of Education which is headed by the Minister of Education assisted by the Secretary of Education.

The second level of administration is The Directorate of Curriculum and Teacher Education (DCTE). This department is directly related to the Secretary of Education and its main task is to visit RITEs and follow up the work of administrative, teacher educators and student teachers. This department also generates and controls the budget and funding of RITEs.

The third level of administration is the RITEs. In the teacher education system, the teacher training institution is the smallest but most important administrative unit. Almost the whole teacher education and training process depends upon these institutions. The administration of a RITE is usually headed by the principal assisted by one or two clerks and other administrative and teaching staff and ancillary employees.

Summary

The common factor between the system of England and Pakistan is that both are controlled by the governments or state run organizations and the level of organization is hierarchal. However, it could be argued that the operational model is more centralized in Pakistan and more diversified in England. The difference between the system of Pakistan and England is that in Pakistan there is no equivalent to England's TDA and OfSTED. Pakistan also does not have any professional body for teachers such as the

General Teaching Council. Another main difference is the delivery of ITE courses in different types of institutes, which has already been discussed in chapters 4 and 5.

8.2.2 Funding for Physical and Educational Resource Material

It is clear from the documentary and empirical research conducted that any degree of marketisation of provision of initial teacher education is necessarily strongly influenced by the financial mechanism involved.

England

The 1994 Education Act took responsibility for the funding of initial teacher training away from the HEFCE and gave to the TTA, thus creating a fourth control mechanism. Each year all accredited providers of initial teacher training are invited by the TDA to bid for places for the forthcoming year. After the DIUS has set intake targets based upon an assessment of the national demand for new teachers, the TDA allocates places among the applications received. In making these allocations, primary consideration is given to each institution's OfSTED inspection results, although other considerations such as the institution's track record in recruiting from under-represented groups, economic cohort size within providers, denominational balance, and regional need may also be taken into account (TTA, 2003: 3, cited in Young, et al. 2007). Funding is then transferred from the TDA to the provider based upon the size of each allocation. These universities then transfer resources provided by the TDA to cover the contribution to training of primary and secondary schools. The impact of these changes increased financial pressures (Gilroy, 1998) and caused a marked casualisation²⁵ of the workforce,

²⁵ U.K has reformed working practices so that they are employed on a freelance and occasional basis instead of being offered full-time contracts. This has influences for levels of initial teacher training.

with the introduction of more part-time staffing and also, indirectly, increased pressure on the delivery of courses (Taylor, 2000).

The TDA is responsible for the action to be taken if and when an institution appears to have financial difficulties or where management in an institution appears to be putting the proper use of public funds at risk. Schools involved in ITT also receive financial support for their work. If they employ and train an unqualified teacher or set up as a SCITT they receive funding in their own right as a training provider.

There is a range of options each of which currently pays a bursary to each trainee teacher. Although all undergraduate students in England have been required to pay fees of around £3000 since the start of the 2006/07 academic year, some undergraduate courses of initial teacher training may be entitled to a means-tested grant of up to around £2800 each year. This eligibility of undergraduate funding is assessed by individual higher education institutions. Those students on postgraduate courses of ITT may be entitled to non means-tested grant of around £1,200, and to apply for a means-tested grant of up to around £1,500 in addition. Eligible postgraduate primary trainee teachers are also entitled to a tax-free bursary of £6,000. From September, 2008, this bursary has been reduced to £4,000. There are also loans from the 'Hardship Fund' now called 'Golden Hellos Grants' which are payable to those trained in a 'priority subject'. There are also supplementary grants such as 'Disabled Students Allowance' for students with disabilities such as dyslexia.

The study found that existing physical facilities in ITE providers are adequate, and respondents felt only that the teaching space was sometimes inadequate.

Pakistan

Analysis of the data collected shows that the RITEs do not have adequate resources, neither financial resources nor physical facilities and educational resource materials.

These inadequacies cannot meet the requirements of a dynamic system of quality teacher education. The budget allocated to RITEs has been insufficient or underutilized due to a lengthy process, and this has constrained the roles and functions of the RITEs. Allocation of funds signifies support. The funds allocated for the purchase of resource materials have always been insufficient, and it has therefore been impossible to provide the necessary facilities to institutions. Providing insufficient financial resources is equivalent to cutting back on certain areas of teacher preparation. This has had an adverse impact on the quality of the professional preparation of teachers, which is not currently appropriate for the work demands expected of them in the field.

It is generally accepted that the 'bottom line' for providing an adequate and enriching preparation of teachers is the allocation of sufficient financial resources. A very important thing is that the principal stakeholder, the Ministry of Education is familiar with the constraints faced by the RITEs, especially in terms of physical facilities and material resources. Unfortunately, officers in the Central Office have failed to listen to the people they are expected to serve, and consequently have not responded to requests promptly.

Existing physical facilities are inadequate and some are clearly in substandard condition. For example, the respondents reported that the science laboratories of RITEs are poorly equipped, and although they are supposed to be used solely for conducting experiments, they have actually been used as multi-purpose lecture rooms, and even for cultural programmes as well. Even though teaching science lessons at the primary level does not require sophisticated equipment, this does not mean that RITEs should not strive to extend the knowledge and skills of trainees in this area. Furthermore, science is an important subject in the primary curriculum and so all teachers need to be well prepared to handle its teaching. A laboratory of poor standard does not facilitate the practical teaching of science.

We have entered the 21st century and to keep pace with trends in modern education, RITEs will have to be equipped with all kinds of technological gadgets and resources. The use of such technological equipment could bring enormous benefits to teacher trainees and also schoolchildren. For this to happen, first and foremost trainee teachers need to be trained to use computers, Power point and overhead projectors during their pre-service programmes. Only then they will be able to make optimal use of technological equipment in their professional work. However, the basic items, particularly computers, needed for the pre-service programme were not available at the RITEs.

The physical facilities in RITEs, such as the number of classrooms, are inadequate, and improvement is urgently needed. The data collected indicated that the libraries in RITEs are also not well enough resourced to provide appropriate services to the teaching staff and the student teachers enrolled. Relevant resource materials are limited in all the subject areas and libraries have severe shortages of reference books, dictionaries and other specialised reading materials.

RITEs should receive sufficient funding to meet the cost of the professional preparation of teachers. This is a critical area because the preparation of quality teachers is essential if they are to meet the demands of work in the field, and in turn generate the well educated community necessary for national development. Insufficient supply of high quality educational resources and lack of proper physical facilities has prevented the RITEs from providing an adequate and enriching professional preparation for prospective teachers. The analysis also indicates that the key stakeholder, the Government, does not realise the importance of facilities in RITEs. The procedure of funding is so lengthy.

An adequate and enriching professional preparation of teachers must be facilitated by the provision of appropriate utilities, such as physical facilities and the

supply of relevant educational resource materials—these are essential for the preparation for teaching (Ainley, 1987). On the whole feedback from the teacher educators and student teachers indicates that all agree that the most of the RITEs are handicapped by shortages of teaching materials, classrooms furniture, computer and science laboratories, equipment and funds. The situation at the RITEs regarding resources may have negatively affected teaching staff, despite their best efforts in providing quality education and training to student teachers.

Summary

During the data analysis about resources it seems very clearly that there is a significant difference between the availability of resources in England and Pakistan. In England all type of available resources are adequate but on the other hand in Pakistan these resources are neither available nor adequate. This difference also affects the adequate preparation of beginning teachers in Pakistan. This difference also shows the political will of the governments towards improving pre-service teacher education.

8.2.3 The Curriculum of ITE

The curriculum of teacher education is varied, and contested, is widely criticised, and in many countries is in a state of flux. In different countries emphasis has recently been placed on the importance of education to help countries compete in global markets, on social transformation, on technology, as well as on developing individual capacity.

Perraton (2001) argues that:

'In different places we have got economics, social transformation, personal development, religion, technology, ethics, and a shift in the teacher's role, all among the aims of teacher education'. (P: 2)

England

According to the documentary analysis, in England there is no curriculum as such for teacher training. Standards and Requirements for initial teacher training (ITT) programmes identify and exemplify the standards that must be demonstrated by a trainee teacher in order to attain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). As well as setting national standards for trainee teachers, the TDA also sets out how teacher training providers should organise their training programmes. It is for the teacher training provider to determine the content of their provision. In particular they require universities and higher education institutions to work in partnership with schools. The data obtained shows that the system of university and school partnership is working well in many parts of the country. The responsibility of providers includes course planning and management, recruitment of applicants, training and assessment of students. While there are, of course, many commonalities in provision offered, the principle of tailoring provision to take account of individual training needs is an important one (QCA, 2008).

Analysis of the data on classroom and school-related work shows that all trainee teachers interviewed were satisfied with their pre-service teacher training programme at their institutes. They thought that these programmes adequately prepared them for the real world of teaching. In this context every trainee is required to compile a portfolio and manage the workbooks and they were well equipped in this area. To achieve QTS the trainees must have proficiency in numeracy and ICT. The ITT programme has in their view, improved their competence to undertake the challenges ahead in the teaching profession.

The analysis also reveals that trainee teachers remarked that they received adequate preparation in the pedagogical aspects of the primary school subjects. On the

other hand, one mentor indicated that some trainees are very good in using appropriate pedagogy but some are not.

All trainee students have command of the use of computers and other technological facilities. The results show that trainees perceived that they also have good command of subject matter knowledge. However, according to some mentors some trainees did not possess adequate subject knowledge in maths and English.

The analysis shows that the beginning teachers are prepared adequately in the methodological aspects and to teach pupils from different backgrounds (ethnic) and different needs (special needs). It also indicates that the ITE providers convey the real sense of professional development of teachers. The pre-service trainees are frequently prepared to deal with the parents, colleagues and the members of the community.

The study indicates that trainee teachers have sufficient opportunity to reflect on their practices during the time they spent in schools. The majority of trainees developed their ability to reflect on their work during practical sessions, and considered that they were supervised effectively. Teacher educators are supposed to visit the schools and mentors are supposed to supervise them regularly.

English initial teacher education provides training in the practical skills of teaching. There is emphasis on independent learning, creative thought and critical analysis. The English student teachers spend most of the course time in schools. The teaching training programme concentrates more on the practical elements and on providing student teachers with the professional skills needed for being a teacher. They spend two-thirds of the time allocated for the course practicing teaching in more than one school.

Furthermore, the teacher training programmes are inspected by OfSTED every three years and it is OfSTED that awards grades to the institutions. Accountability is a high priority and compliance is another key issue. Courses which were found not to

comply when inspected by OfSTED are re-inspected and, if still found wanting, are closed down. The new accountability culture aims at ever more effective administrative control of institutional and professional life (O'Neill, 2002).

Pakistan

Analysis of the data on classroom and school-related work revealed that a majority of the beginning teachers thought that the pre-service programme at their institutes prepared them adequately to plan their work and build their personal confidence. As part of this goal, the trainees are required to prepare registers/workbooks and schemes of work. These are the requirements of their study. It is encouraging to note that student trainees consider that they are well equipped in these areas. With regard to personal confidence, it can be concluded that the pre-service programme has improved their competence to undertake the challenges of the teaching profession.

The analysis shows that a large proportion of student trainees perceive that they have received adequate preparation in the pedagogical aspects of the subject taught at primary school level. However, the feedback from head teachers indicates that the student trainees are not always using appropriate pedagogy.

The results also show that students appreciate the courses in computer studies and educational technology, but they felt inadequately prepared to deliver these subjects because of lack of computers and other technological facilities. These subjects are very important to compete internationally but sufficient importance is not afforded to them. The responses of head teachers also indicated that student teachers possessed inadequate subject matter knowledge, and were not well versed in the primary curriculum. In fact student teachers should prepare appropriately for the methods used for different subjects. The uses of appropriate teaching strategies are essential to ensure that teaching and learning are meaningful and interesting to the children (Brock, 1999; Delors, 1996).

Subject matter is not regularly updated to keep pace with recent subject advances. There is no attempt to integrate subject knowledge with pedagogical skills. Not enough emphasis is given to learning practical teaching skills; instead the emphasis remains on theory (UNESCO & USAID, 2006)

Most of the teaching at the institutions is transmission-oriented, and there is little emphasis on independent learning, critical analysis, creative thought or learning to exercise professional judgement. The dilemma is that while Pakistan is expanding rapidly in its higher education programme its record in the area of initial teacher education is extremely poor. The current curricula being taught does not focus on fostering a creative and learning environment involving questioning and problem solving (UNESCO & USAID, 2006). Essentially, knowledge transformation should be the main aim of a teachers' preparation rather than knowledge transmission and these must be addressed both in terms of research and practice.

The analysis shows that beginning teachers are not adequately prepared in the methodological aspects, student-centred teaching, multi-grade classes and children with special needs. With this context the teacher training programme neither prepared the teachers theoretically nor provided them with practical experience. The problems of multi-grade teaching situations in Pakistan are further compounded by the fixed curriculum for each class level. This makes the teaching situation more complicated and difficult especially for those who are not well prepared for multi-grade teaching. Unfortunately, the pre-service teacher education programme does not cater for the needs of teachers in this situation.

The other aspect that student trainees reported having very little preparation for was performing administrative duties. Unlike England²⁶ there is no separate cadre or any special qualification or training for primary headteachers in Pakistan therefore,

²⁶ National Standards for Head teachers in England (DfEE 2000; DfES 2004). This is the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) pre-service certification process.

trainees are supposed to learn about administrative duties. It would be worthwhile for them to possess relevant knowledge and skills related to administration. This could help them contribute to the effective running of schools.

Analysis of the data indicates that the RITEs do not provide the real sense of professional development of teachers. The notion here is consistent with those reported in a broader context by Kelly (1993):

'While pre-service teacher education courses prepare students for their prospective relationships with children...such courses too frequently neglect the interrelationships with colleagues, parents and members of the community that are integral to their work as teachers'.(P.118)

The literature confirms that action without reflection is unlikely to lead to any significant improvement in the professional practice of a teacher (Calderhead and Gates, 1995; Schratz, 1993; Schon, 1983). This study indicates that beginning teachers did not get sufficient opportunity to reflect on their efforts during practice teaching sessions due to their short duration which is only four weeks in schools. It also implies that the teacher educator may have been unable to provide time for reflection or may not be aware of the importance of 'reflective practice' themselves. The pre-service programme should develop trainees' ability to reflect on their work during practical sessions, that is, enable them to become effective reflective practitioners. Reflecting on one's work is not only useful for teacher trainees, but for teachers college lecturers as well (Calderhead and Gates, 1995).

As indicated above student trainees perceive they were not given enough time to prepare for practical sessions. Primary teachers are expected to be generalists hence they have to cover a very broad curriculum that demands a heavy commitment of time. Student teachers have little time in schools to prepare for lessons. All preparations for the lessons, such as lesson plans, lesson notes and teaching aids, need to be prepared well in advance. It seems that prior to the commencement of the practical sessions, very little time is allocated to prepare for the work required in the field. One of the inhibiting

factors may be the availability of resources. Unless sufficient time is allocated for teaching practice and to prepare and provide for relevant resource materials, it is impossible to attain optimum benefit from the practical sessions. All these factors impacted negatively on the student teachers in their professional preparation.

It was also noted that in most of the training institutions there are no adequate facilities for practice teaching. In many of them even minimum facilities are not available due to the peculiar location of training institutions away from neighbouring schools. Therefore, there is an urgent need to have a demonstration school on the RITEs which would serve as a laboratory school.

Moreover, the finding shows that both the teacher educators and student teachers consider that the practice teaching experience alone is insufficient. As a result, the student teachers did not get enough time to experience all aspects of the teachers' world of work. On the basis of the amount of time for practice teaching experience (6 weeks), it can be concluded that practicing teachers and schools play a minor role in the professional preparation of teachers. Therefore, in recent years the emphasis has been on partnership in pre-service teacher preparation, with schools taking joint responsibility for training (Hackett, 2000; Lieberman, 2000; Ramsey, 2000). To enable trainees to obtain optimum exposure to all domains of a teacher's work, it would be desirable to extend practice teaching experience.

Furthermore, the analysis indicates that the male student teachers consider that they were not effectively supervised but their female counterparts²⁷ consider that they were supervised properly. On the basis of these problems associated with teaching practice it can be concluded that there is no clear or strong link between the teaching practice period and the rest of the training programme. Clearly the short duration of

²⁷ In Pakistan, all pre-service teacher education institutions for primary teachers are working separately for male and female. While in England all institutions are mixed.

practice teaching does not provide sufficient relevant practical experience for the professional preparation of teachers in Pakistan.

Summary

There are very clear and obvious differences in the delivery of ITT curriculum in England and Pakistan. In England the curriculum consists of two guideline documents, standards and requirements for ITE, and there is more emphasis on practical aspects of curriculum. ITE providers are very free to develop their own curriculum and focus on the most essential and important questions. On the other hand, in Pakistan the curriculum is more theoretical and very little emphasis on practice teaching. ITE providers are forced to teach the prescribed textbooks and do not have any freedom to develop their own curriculum. The textbooks are recognised as ‘the curriculum’ by teachers and students alike. The majority of teacher educators are also not familiar with the prescribed curriculum. In England teacher education curriculum has adjusted to the needs of the school curriculum but in Pakistan still there is a need to adjust teacher education curriculum to the needs of the school curriculum.

8.2.4 Duration of the ITE Programme

The duration of the ITE programme is that amount of time which is devoted to pre-service education and training for primary teachers. During this period of time, prospective teachers have to meet the requirements of their future profession. There was a difference as between the respondents in both countries.

England

The data analysis indicates satisfaction of teacher educators about the length of ITT programmes. The majority of respondents thought that the duration of programmes could help to cover all the courses in time. However, a few respondents indicated that the duration of the PGCE should be increased. There is a heavy workload during that one year and students always felt time constraints. The majority of student teachers in England were satisfied with the length of their training programme.

Pakistan

The study reveals that majority of teacher educators were not satisfied with the duration of ITE course. They thought especially that the length of teaching practice is not sufficient to prepare the beginning teachers adequately. On the other hand there was a difference between the statements of student teachers. Half of the existing student teachers wanted the length of training to be increased, some wanted it to remain the same and a very few thought it should be shortened.

Summary

The main difference is the number of routes and their duration. In England there are many routes to enter into teaching and all these routes have different lengths of time. By contrast, in Pakistan there are only two routes to enter into teaching and the length of these routes is insufficient to prepare the teachers professionally. Pakistan needs to increase the length of ITE programmes.

8.2.5 Career, Qualifications and Role of Teacher Educators

The oldest question of Political Science is *quis custodiet ipsos custodes* (a Latin phrase from the Roman poet Juvenal) – translated as ‘who should watch the watchers themselves’? (Wikipedia Article, 2008). So, one of the oldest questions here is – ‘who should teach the teachers’? Philosophically and conceptually the answer, as Plato and Aristotle would have put it, is straight forward – men and women of virtue should teach the teachers for only then might they become virtuous themselves (Cited in John, 1999). The quality of any teacher education programme is at least partially dependant on the quality of its tutors who develop, implement and evaluate courses of teacher education and training.

England

The analysis indicates that teacher educators in England normally have Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) and considerable teaching experience in primary or secondary schools. More recently non-managerial career development opportunities such as Advance Skills Teachers, and the relatively poor remuneration levels in HE, have made a move to teacher education from a senior leadership position in a primary school financially unattractive (McNamara, et al, 2008). All the respondents began their career in primary or secondary schools. They had extensive experience in schools prior to their appointment in higher education although, the transition from teacher to teacher educator involves ‘boundary-crossing’ between two very different cultures and activity systems (Boyd et al. 2006). Individuals can take two or three years to establish their ‘new’ professional identities (Murray and Male, 2005). The majority of them spent 10 or more years in school before entering university. It shows that most of the teacher educators have adequate amount of school teaching experience and the knowledge and

skills gained at schools as teachers provide a rich background and a valuable knowledge source for teacher educators. All teacher educators still felt their school-based practical knowledge was of considerable importance because it gave them higher levels of practical professional knowledge including pedagogical content knowledge. Although as their careers progressed within ITE they developed new forms of knowledge, much of their work was still built upon conventional wisdom, practicality and personal style.

The study found that the majority of teacher educators spend an average of 38 to 48 hours per week working with student teachers. It also reveals that the majority of teacher educators spending from four to twelve hours in the classroom. In addition to a heavy teaching load, teacher educators also spend considerable time helping and advising student teachers outside the classrooms. It is apparent that many tutors devote significantly more than 40 hours per week to their professional work. The majority of student teachers perceive their tutors to be experienced, able to offer practical help, co-operative and be professional. They also state that many teacher educators are up-to-date with new research and knowledge about teaching.

In England there is emphasis on the school-based elements of initial teacher education and the implementation of an induction programme for Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs). The role of the mentor has become increasingly important and complex. The study finds that there are significant changes in the mentoring needs and NQTs, particularly in terms of the roles their mentors fulfil, and identifies personal and contextual factors that affect the success of the mentoring at different stages in a student teacher's professional development. Current provision of mentoring support, in particular the provision for student teachers and NQTs is found wanting. The study concludes that the mentor has a vital role to play in supporting the student teacher's professional development.

There is a strong relationship between tutors and mentors. The evolution of partnerships has increased the demarcation of roles and responsibilities. It is now vital that a clear rationale is established for all roles within the training framework. It is also important that interaction training and dialogue continue for the benefit of both tutors and mentors are involved in the active construction, evaluation, sharing and extension of knowledge and expertise (John, 1999). In some cases however, the university tutor's contribution and support was rated higher than that of school-based staff.

All of the teacher educators discussed their position in relation to research and scholarship. The tutors' belief in commitment to their students learning and welfare was clearly visible. Most of the Universities and Schools of Education are now strengthened by the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), which demands research of high academic quality, based on particular theoretical positions. The ever increasing demand from the School of Education and the university hierarchy for greater research output placed extra pressure on the tutors (John, 1999). This demand for research is problematic in that many tutors have very little time to engage in it. However, some tutors have kept up and even developed a research profile despite continuing pressure from Government and partner schools to deliver high quality courses.

This research indicates that the majority of teacher educators have a strong interest and commitment to teaching. Some of them prefer teaching rather than doing research. The majority of tutors reported that the major source of internal and external pressures was the demand that they fulfil the requirements of standards of QTS and reach growing accountability targets in terms of student achievement.

The study indicates that only one third of teacher educators have authored, co-authored or edited a book. Some have published articles during the last few years. Many of them had worked with different projects. These projects would involve research of various types which all aimed on improving practices and were based on a close

association with the teacher educators' subject and professional constituency. This shows that most teacher educators are interested in teaching and devote most of their time and energy to that part of the process.

The research also indicates that the majority of teacher educators held an appropriate degree in education and appeared to be well prepared in terms of their subject matter, especially, maths and science. The teacher educators try to improve their professional skills and knowledge related to the professional preparation of trainee teachers. McNamara et al. (2008) mention that only 25 per cent of staff has PhDs in education, compared to an average of 60 per cent in psychology and other social sciences.

It was clear from the data that all the tutors gained tremendous satisfaction from their work with students and all were highly committed to their job.

Pakistan

The study reveals that there is no separate cadre for teacher educators in RITEs. Currently, trainers are senior school teachers and could be posted in schools or training institutes as well as against management positions within a bureaucratic hierarchy (USAID & UNESCO, 2006). Although these teacher educators have a good teaching experience at high school level very few have previous primary teaching experience. For primary pre-service teacher training the teacher educators should have a great deal of experience at primary level along with a postgraduate degree with a focus on primary education. This is not normally the case.

Analysis of the data related to the staff of RITEs indicates that many of them are not academically well qualified for RITEs work, and they also lack opportunities for on-going professional development. It came to light that none of the staff had had any chance to attend international conferences, seminars or workshops. However, a few

have had courses abroad and attended seminars and workshops at national and regional level, but the number is too small to have any significant impact.

The study shows that there is a need for further professional development of the teaching staff. Professional development is essential in order to improve the professional skills, and knowledge of staff related to the professional preparation of teachers, such as designing, writing and reviewing courses, teaching methods and assessment strategies. Most of them are not aware of how to improve their own knowledge and skills or to bring themselves up to date with modern advances in teacher training (USAID & UNESCO, 2006). Buchberger et al. (2000) found that:

'most teacher educators have never received education and training in methodologies of teaching, co-operation and learning appropriate for adult learners (trainees). A number of problems of teacher education could arise from the fact that the whole issue of education of teacher educators has been rather neglected'. (P.56)

It was also found that all teaching staff hold general Bachelor and Master degrees with the essential qualification of BEd (Bachelor of Education) for teaching and some have also MEd (Master of Education) degrees. Unfortunately, the principals and senior instructors (equivalent to vice principal) have no qualifications in Educational Administration in order to professionally manage the functions of their institutions. Even for teaching staff at the RITEs these degrees alone are not sufficient, and for them professional qualification and advance courses are highly desirable. Also, in view of the far-reaching changes and increase in complexity of teacher education programmes, as well as the significant new trends and issues in education in general, instructors should have high qualifications in education. There should be also some criteria to involve in some kind of research and a Post Graduate Certificate or Diploma in Teaching would be an appropriate qualification. This would not only advance their skills and knowledge about teaching at this level, but also enable them to professionally reflect on their

practice, improve the teacher education curricula and provide the best possible teacher education to student teachers.

To ensure that the RITEs provide better training to their student teachers, the instructors' professional qualifications, experience and involvement in research could be upgraded periodically. Upgrading the instructors, either through non-award or award experiences, would enable them to refresh and update their professional competence (Hatton, 1994). They would then become better prepared and equipped to discharge their duties to provide adequate and enriching professional preparation for teachers. Well educated and professionally prepared instructors should be well versed in recent changes and developments in teacher education. Ongoing changes and developments taking place suggest a heightened need for regular targeted professional development (Cairns, 1998).

The study also revealed that there have been only very limited opportunities available for the teaching staff at the RITEs to upgrade their qualifications and to be involved in educational research. This may have adversely affected the preparation of teachers for the work they are expected to perform. An essential ingredient in raising the standard of pre-service teacher education, and for the formation of well-trained teachers, is to take account of the advantages to be accrued by upgrading the qualifications of all the teaching staff to at least a Master Degree in Education or any curriculum subject. This in turn, could help to improve the central functioning of the RITEs, and ultimately produce better trained and more able teachers who would be able to work more effectively in the field.

The majority of student teachers perceive their tutors to be experienced, able to offer practical help, co-operative, professional and have update knowledge about teaching. However, the saddest finding of this study is that students' perceptions of some tutors are quite negative. The evidence here suggests that these teacher educators

are poor role models, and could not support their students through a difficult and demanding curriculum. Such values and practices as punctuality, responsibility and professional ethics of those few tutors leave much to be desired. It was also found that teacher educators have different kinds of external and internal pressures according to different circumstances such as financial, political and sometimes departmental.

Summary

The fact is that the teacher educators in both countries are very hard working but there are fundamental differences as between the systems of ITE. In addition, there is a difference between the research cultures. The reason is that in Pakistan there is no incentive to promote research into ITE generally and especially from the side of government. Consequently, teacher educators and teachers have no interest in undertaking research, and thereby fewer research skills.

8.2.6 Selection Criteria of Student Teachers

Policies related to recruitment have a bearing on the quality of the trainees selected for professional preparation, and subsequently have an impact on the teachers' ability to respond to the demands of work in the field (Cairns, 1998; Delors, 1996). Entry level into teacher preparation varies with the country's level of economic development but in fact student teachers are often relatively less well-qualified than entrants to other professions even in developed countries. Selection criteria and the number of places available may be established centrally (at national or regional/provincial levels), or locally by individual training institutions.

England

a) Selection Criteria

The data analysis shows that access to all initial teacher training courses is restricted and subject to a preliminary selection process, including an interview, to determine the applicant's suitability for teaching as a career. Trainees are required not only to provide documentation to confirm their ICT capabilities but had to take national literacy and numeracy tests. At the end of the course they have to complete a Career Entry Profile which ensured that their strengths are built on, and their weaknesses alleviated, in their first job.

One very important feature is in the selection process that before being accepted, each prospective student was interviewed either individually or in a group situation. The interview provides an opportunity to explore aspects of the applicants' potential that are not obvious from their written application, such as personal qualities and their potential to reach QTS. Particular attention is paid to their command of spoken Standard English. Candidates are also be assessed on their ability to read effectively and their attainment in Standard Mathematics and Science. Admission is also subject to physical and mental fitness to teach. Since 1989 it has been a requirement that experienced practising teachers are involved in the selection process. Institutions must also check that applicants do not have a criminal record which might prevent employment as a teacher with children or young people.

b) Entry Qualification

The research reveals that all prospective trainees must be able to demonstrate that they have attained the standard required to achieve a Grade C in the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) (or equivalent) examination in English language, mathematics and, for primary courses, science. Applicants for the BEd programme must

satisfy the criteria for university entrance. Applicants for PGCE must hold a recognised university degree or the equivalent. Applicants for employment-based routes through the Graduate and Registered Teacher Programmes must have successfully completed either a first degree or at least two years of relevant higher education.

Applications for entry to the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) courses are made through the Graduate Teacher Training Registry (GTTR). The GTTR is a central admissions service which acts on behalf of universities, colleges of higher education and certain groups of schools in England to process applications for entry to PGCE courses. Applications for undergraduate teacher training programme are made through the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service for the UK (UCAS).

Pakistan

a) Selection Criteria

Analysis of the data on selection criteria shows that the intake at RITEs was generally based on prior academic achievement. It has been suggested that admitting students for teacher training exclusively on the basis of academic qualification is insufficient (Darling-Hammond & Berry, 1988). Students may be academically well qualified but not attitudinally fit for the teaching profession. Teachers must not only portray excellence in academic but moral ideals as well. Similarly, some writers (for example, Brock, 1999; Lovat, 1998; Oser, Dick & Patry, 1992) have also emphasised the ethical and moral dimensions of teaching. The selection process includes the interview not to determine the suitability of candidates but just for the introduction.

Character references, positive attitudes, maturity and a sense of commitment to duty are other vital aspects that need to be considered. Thus apart from academic achievement, emphasis should also be placed on other important factors, such as the

personal qualities and character of applicants, to ensure they demonstrate the programme basics and are ready to develop as teachers.

One of the reasons for the poor academic preparation of candidates entering the field is that there is more demand than supply of qualified teachers. In order to attract more teachers into the field, the quality of the programmes have decreased, and the criteria used to select candidates into the profession are minimal.

b) Entry Qualification

The basic qualifications with which trainees enter the pre-service programme have an impact on their ability to profit from their professional preparation, and subsequently their ability to meet the demands of work in the field (Cairns, 1998; Logan, et al., 1990).

This research shows that not only the basic entry qualification of student teachers has increased but there has been marked improvement in the academic qualifications of the student teachers enrolled at RITEs. Most of the students are graduates and some were postgraduates. However, the minimum qualification for entry in DIE programme is Intermediate (12th grade) in RITEs. In order to improve primary education, first and foremost well-qualified applicants must be enlisted for teacher education. Whatever other criteria are used, they must possess the basic educational ability needed to cope with the pre-service programme and then provide a teaching service at the required level of competence. What is evident is that during the last few years there has been a reasonable improvement in the entry levels of the RITEs intake.

Summary

The finding reveals that the selection of entrants should not be based solely on academic results and an interview rating as in Pakistan. Character references, aptitude tests,

practical skills tests or even records of practical experience in primary teaching could also be incorporated. There is no requirement for ICT capabilities. This could help maintain the very high standard of ethical behaviour within the teaching profession that is expected.

8.3 Hypothesis

Give to any hypothesis which is worth your while to consider just that degree of credence which the evidence warrants. And if the hypothesis is sufficiently important there is an additional duty of seeking further evidence.
(Russell, citing James, 1967:770)

At this point we should be in a position to put forward a hypothesis that will be tested through the process of simultaneous comparison as per stages of *Figure 4 (chapter 3; p. 108)* on the basis of evidence generated thus far, the following hypothesis is put forward, that:

- Initial teacher education is perceived by the profession and other stakeholders to provide adequate, relevant and enriching professional preparation for the teachers' work. This professional preparation is differentially affected by the range of dimensions and stakeholders and that understanding of this is enhanced by cross-national comparison, especially at the local level.

It was clear from that each dimension had a potential influence and some degree of relationship with every other, but now, as indicated in the hypothesis we are seeking to differentiate between the dimensions both within themselves and in terms of their effects in the two case-countries and locations.

8.4 Simultaneous Comparison

The next stage of the process of analysis is the comparison between every one of the dimension outcomes with each other, which provides the themes of the investigation

(See Figure 4). The strategy for the simultaneous comparison of the six dimensions has been focused further into three categories of initial teacher education: quality, effectiveness and teacher professionalism. Given the simultaneous comparison, both countries and case locations will be incorporated in an integrated discussion within each of the three categories.

8.4.1. Provision and Quality of the ITE Programme

When schools fail the cause is often seen to lie in the quality of the teaching which they provide. This in turn, is seen to reflect the quality of the training that the teachers receive and, finally, the quality of those who provide the training (Poppleton, 1999). The commonly held belief is that teacher education is too complex a phenomenon to be successfully analysed. The quality of ITE can be defined in different ways. There are many factors included in teacher education in every country such as: administration, funding bodies, curriculum, teacher educators and student teachers. Therefore, assessment of the quality of teacher education has to take account of the priorities in this context. The quality of ITT provision is a key contributor to the overall standard of teaching and learning.

Different nations have adopted different preferred paths of educational development and they have their own goals, specific aims and objectives. Therefore, the Pakistani and English centrally-set frameworks for initial teacher education courses differ in the key areas of educational and professional studies, subject studies and experiences in the schools. There is significant structural difference in curricula, in the culture of teacher education and in differences between the ITE programmes of England and Pakistan. The provision of ITE is also different in the sense that in England initial teacher education for primary teachers takes place in universities, a few teacher education colleges and partnership primary schools. On the other hand in Pakistan it

takes place in Elementary Colleges or Regional Institutes of Teacher Education. Moreover, in England there is plethora of routes into primary teaching, whereas in Pakistan there are only one or two routes for primary teaching.

The study reveals that the provision of ITT effectively meets the current and likely future needs of schools differently in both countries. It is worth mentioning that the learning environment offered in the English context is more positive than in the Pakistani context. However, in both countries the student teachers are given opportunities to reflect on their own actions, express their points of view, and share their ideas among themselves as well as with the tutors. The student teachers acquire self-confidence through frequently presenting materials and lessons in different languages.

In *England*, the initial teacher training and education has changed dramatically during the last 30 years as radical reforms have taken place. These educational reforms were triggered by the Educational Reform Act of 1988. Two successive governments, Conservative (1979-1997) and Labour (1997-to the present) have progressively increased their control through the introduction and assessment of standards and content curriculum. Both governments also regulate the courses and set out the minimum legal requirements. In England these changes improve the primary ITE in practical and ideological ways with the help of the rigorous inspections of OfSTED and the quality of pre-service training is evaluated by OfSTED as well as through self evaluation practices. These fundamental and comprehensive changes improve the standards in ITE and increase the quality of preparation of beginning teachers. This improvement attracts a wide range of people into the profession, but not necessarily as well qualified as those seeking other professions.

In England schools are encouraged to be centrally involved in all aspects of training and both schools and universities are encouraged to be flexible. The national

standards set out what a trainee teacher must know, understand and be able to do in order to qualify and gain QTS, which works as safeguard to protect the quality of those entering the profession. In England there is a strong partnership between the course providers and the training schools. Teacher educators and mentors have regular meetings both in schools and in the university. Both aim at establishing a strong partnership that makes the course a successful one (Hyland, 2000; Harrison, 1995). Schoolteachers are involved in the course through participating in planning, admitting the students to the course and sometimes they give lectures in the university on topics related to their professional practices. This system improves the quality all the time because not only teacher educators but class teachers and mentors are also involved to train the teachers. During the interviews the majority of student teachers valued the guidance and advice they receive from experienced teachers.

In *Pakistan* unfortunately pre-service teacher education programmes have been caught up in a vicious circle for the last sixty years. The study reveals the deficiencies and weaknesses in the current teacher education programme in the Pakistani ITE institutes covered, which adversely affects the quality of the prospective teachers. Chief among these are: lack of resources; outdated traditional curriculum; no proper supervision; no admission criteria; no sense of partnership between ITE institutes and the training schools; and lack of effective tools for assessment.

To improve the quality of general education the need is to improve the quality of teacher training, although the government is trying to increase the number of qualified teachers to meet the need of an expanding system of primary education it is not sufficiently concerned with the quality of it. There is a wide range of ideological and socio-economic factors which are responsible for shaping the poor quality of teacher education in the country. Obviously, if teacher education programmes are not carried out with full care, the quality aspects will be compromised as in the past. To improve

the quality of teacher education requires an overall improvement in curriculum, the best utilization of the funds, to increase the length of programmes, the separation of the cadre of teacher educators and improve their qualification, and the setting of high selection criteria of student teachers. For this it requires a separate policy and action that focus particularly on pre-service teacher education through new ideas and innovations informed by global perspectives, and to change the system of initial teacher education and training accordingly.

This research also indicates that defective management and lack of supervision and accountability practices are some of the major issues that need to be appropriately addressed in the teacher education programmes. Furthermore there are no institutionalized arrangements for providing proper training or guidelines to teacher educators.

With regard to quality assessment of teacher education, the principals of teacher training institutes have the primary responsibility to monitor trainers. In practice, the principals hardly devote any time to fulfilling their assessment responsibilities. A major flaw in the assessment mechanism is that apart from the ACRs (Annual Confidential Reports), which are filled in the traditional manner with no requirement to assess quality concerns, principals are not required to report on the quality of training (AED, 2004). In addition, the controllers of teacher training institutions are responsible for this task but they never engage in such assessments. Their visits to institutes are strictly for administrative purposes (AED, 2004).

8.4.2 Teacher Professionalism

Initial teacher training is not an end in itself, but the start of a long-term process of professional development, and effective teaching depends on working well with

everyone else who has a stake in the education of children (DIUS, 2007). It is obvious that teaching as a profession has the responsibility to enter the realm of national interest as valuable human capital, affecting not only the school organization, but the whole educational system.

Over the last two decades or more teacher professionalism has received an ever-increasing attention by scholars in England. As a result of this attention, many forms and characteristics of teacher professionalism have been generated. Professional development is a continuous process of individual and collective examination and improvement of practice. It should empower individual educators and communities of educators to make complex decisions; to identify and solve problems; and to connect theory with practice and student outcomes. The teaching-learning process, which is based on teachers, pupils and curriculum, cannot achieve its objectives without qualified professional and effective teachers. In turn the teachers' qualification in terms of holding a teaching certificate has never been regarded as the only criterion for successful learning; teachers' professionalism is affected by personal motivation and job satisfaction, collaboration with the school professional staff and administration, the reward system and local authority and community support. Ashdown (2002) has a similar message that professional development occurs at the intersection of organizational and individual identities. One way to help teachers arrive at the intersection is to begin the reform agenda by building relationships and partnerships with the teachers and the other members of the school community.

To achieve the best outcomes of teachers' professionalism, teachers need not only moral and material support, but also recognition, authority, independence and interaction with other professionals in the field. Teachers are the main component of the school culture and the educational authorities have to realize that without autonomy and clear authority over children's discipline and a stimulating reward system, no teacher

can work creatively and effectively and remain motivated. 'It can be argued that teachers need professional development programmes that are more relevant to the teachers', the children's and the school's needs' (Rizvi, 2004: 286).

In *England* the policy document *Teachers: meeting the challenge of change* (DfEE 1998b) set out New Labour's intentions to 'modernise' the teaching profession and have it embrace a 'new professionalism'. This new professionalism required recognition that 'the time has long gone when isolated unaccountable professionals made curriculum and pedagogical decisions alone without reference to the outside world' (DfEE, 1998b: 14). The structural development of teacher professionalism was centralised and carried forward under the New Labour Government. In September 2000 the General Teaching Council (GTC) was formally established and given a specific remit to promote teachers' professional development. In March 2001 the government's strategy for continuous professional development (CPD) was introduced (DfEE, 2001a). In 2005 the TDA assumed the responsibility from the DfES for the national coordination of CPD for all school staff. The CPD became a main unit of TDA and the CPD Partnership Project started working under the ownership of TDA. The conception of teacher professionalism in England is shaped by agendas and associated with the drive to raise standards and 'commercialized professionalism' (Webb et al., 2004). The teachers were keenly aware of different types of CPD and their different outcomes in terms of practical effects which were immediately transferable to classroom situations.

The social status of teachers in England is not equal to the status of other professions such as, medicine, law and engineering. The Teacher Status Project (2007) gives evidence of the teaching profession as one that conceptualised its status in terms of trust, reward and professional autonomy. To a large extent, it is a profession that feels itself to be untrusted, undervalued and over-regulated by its government. To compare the teaching as a profession with other occupational groups teaching was

perceived as a middle ranking profession in England (Hargreaves, et al., 2007) and the status afforded primary teachers is lower than that for secondary teachers (Hoyle, 2001). However, the financial status of teachers in England is significantly better than Pakistani teachers in both absolute and relative terms.

One of the crucial problems in the education system of *Pakistan* is the low status of the teachers in all educational stages, together with the poor salaries paid to them. This low status of the teaching profession is discouraging competent people from entering teaching and that some entrants are not seriously committed to becoming teachers. As a result, many teachers are absent, trying to earn their living elsewhere as a result of the limited monthly income. Heans and Garrett (2001)) identified the relationship between the teachers' salaries and their motivation. They assert that apart from other factors, salary is at the front of all, and would reinforce teachers' motivation to grow and perform professionally. The better salary is intended to encourage a greater number and higher calibre of graduates to enter teaching. The other important point is that teaching as a profession does not have a public respect of other professions. Teachers suffer from low social status due to social, historical and economical conditions through which this job passed. However, in the Pakistani learning culture the teacher is considered the key feature in the classroom. The teacher takes control of classroom interaction so as to transmit personal knowledge and that of the text book to the pupils. Therefore, the culture of learning is characterised as a teacher-centred model with the text book and teacher as its key resources. Therefore, the need to improve the status of teaching and to provide other incentives for joining the profession is important.

This research has taken the important steps to stimulate, support and sustain teacher learning in Pakistan with a view to enhancing teacher professionalism in teacher education institutions. In order to enhance the teacher professionalism and to improve the quality of teacher education, a new and separate policy paradigm for the teachers in

teacher training institutes is required. The study reveals that the teacher educators, teachers and student teachers in teacher training institutions and schools in Pakistan definitely require a continuous professional programme to develop their professional capabilities. The continuing professional programme of teachers has become increasingly associated with educational change particularly in terms of school reform efforts and improving student achievement (Ashdown, 2002; Elmore & Burney, 1999). It is argued here that teachers need professional development programmes in teacher training institutes that are more relevant to the need of teachers, pupils, families and communities.

The evidence shows that there is a need to provide professional support and feedback with a view to helping embed the learning of teacher educators from the training courses, workshops and seminars. King and Newmann (2000) argue that workshops, courses or conferences must make provisions for follow-up and long-term feedback throughout the career of a teacher.

8.4.3 Effectiveness of the ITE Programmes

Teachers are the 'lifeblood' of an education system in every country, and their ability to cope with the demands of work in the classroom, school and community domains depends in many respects on how well they have been prepared during their pre-service programme. Beginning teachers need to be fully aware of the professional demands of their future work context. The literature review raised critical issues regarding the importance of having a relevant and effective pre-service teacher education and training programme, one which enhances the initial professional preparation of teachers for the diversity of their commitments. The effectiveness and impact of ITE must depend on the relationship of the quality of the teacher education programme and the calibre of

each trainee teacher (Challen, et al., 2005). The evaluation of effectiveness in teacher education and training aimed to reveal how well objectives have been achieved, and to identify some of the main barriers to achieving results. To measure the effectiveness of teacher training programmes is always difficult, and the findings of this study were no exception. Moreover, the finding also recognised that the effectiveness of teacher education is multifaceted. In relationship to the effectiveness of teacher education, Zuoyu (2002) noted that, ‘No research data show the graduates from teacher education programmes are over the longer term stronger in teaching than those who graduate from other programmes’ (p.214).

In *England*, for example, incredibly in these days of financial accountability, no single organization is responsible for publishing and collating such data in order that policy decisions can be informed and cost effectiveness evaluated (McNamara, et al., 2008).

The results of the study shows that initial teacher training in England has been successful in many respects, but there are also critical points which require revisions. The important finding is that institutional and professional cultures in teacher training institutions and schools have a strong influence on the effectiveness of teacher education. However, this study is unable to discuss many points about the effectiveness of teacher education programme in England – points such as content of course and instructional methods best suited for particular aspects of teacher preparation; the relative contributions of centre-based learning; assignments and teaching experience to trainees’ progress; the importance of their particular school experience contexts on the outcome of their practice; and the importance of consistency between school and centre-based training (McNamara, et al., 2008). However, the evaluation of training sessions and OfSTED inspections concerning the ITE programme shows how well the ITE programmes are performing. The relative ‘effectiveness’, ‘impact’ and ‘value for money’ of the various training routes in the UK is unproven, and in some cases

unresearched (ibid, 2008). However, this study indicates that the English student teachers spend most of the course time in schools. Teaching training programmes concentrate more on the practical element and on providing student teachers with the professional skills needed for being a teacher. Students spend more than half of the time allocated for the course practicing teaching in more than one school. This research also shows that the trainees were not satisfied with some of their placements for various reasons. Some student teachers were more positive about relationships with their HEI staff than with mentors in the schools.

There is evidence that the theory students learn in the university can be applied in different situations in the classrooms. However, there is variation in preparation of trainees as between the different routes to QTS in England. The students specially, SCITT trainees, were clearest about the links between theory and practical elements of their courses and thought the balance to be about right by a significant margin (McNamara, et al., 2008).

In *Pakistan* during the time of this study, the DIE teacher training programme had produced the graduates of its first cohort and the majority of them did not get jobs. Therefore, it would be too early to assess the effectiveness of the programme. The findings of this study, however, show that there are disjunctures between beginning teachers' professional preparation and the demands of their work, as well as an absence of both broad academic support and essential policies and programmes for pre-service teacher education in Pakistan. These have impeded the provision of an effective, adequate and enriching professional preparation for beginning teachers. Consequently, teacher training programmes provide little opportunity for teachers to develop the kind of skills that can make them more successful in their practice and build their confidence and motivation in teaching.

The study reveals that the pre-service programme at teacher training institutes is moderately successful in terms of providing professional preparation to teachers, but preparing beginning teachers to adequate levels only in certain areas of their work. As well as the gaps identified, there is little exposure to emerging international trends and developments, and current policies and practices do not measure up to global trends. Consequently, there are number of gaps and inadequacies that can be observed in the professional preparation of teachers at teacher education institutes in Pakistan. The pre-service teacher programmes have added little value to teachers and directly reflect on the poor level of instruction and curriculum of the pre-service programmes. No province has managed to successfully implement any indicator-based system to evaluate the quality of teacher education. Approximately 75 per cent of teachers are provided with outdated and irrelevant training through the PTC or CT (Khan, 2004). Moreover, the Diploma in Education (DIE) Programme has not been evaluated due to lack of proactive planning and resource constraints (UNESCO & USAID, 2005).

This study uncovered a number of weaknesses, as well as a few strengths, in the professional preparation of beginning teachers in Pakistan. Although we should not expect beginning teachers to graduate as finished products, certain weaknesses in their preparation could have been avoided, so as to make them better informed and equipped for the work required of them in the field. These weaknesses are largely the result of deficiencies in the policies and programmes of pre-service teacher education. In some cases the stakeholders, especially the Ministry of Education, have ignored certain policies which it formulated itself, such as financial support and improvements to the selection criteria. This together with an outdated curriculum of pre-service programme and the lack of appropriate resources and facilities, have inhabited the provision of an adequate and enriching professional preparation for teachers.

Since there are aspects of the policies and the pre-service primary teacher education programme that need urgent attention, it would be timely for appropriate measures to be taken to address the situation. This is vital in order to ensure that trainees are offered a high quality professional preparation to help them meet their professional responsibilities in the field. Failure to rectify the situation would mean that more and more trainee teachers will emerge from RITEs having been inadequately prepared for the demands of future work in schools.

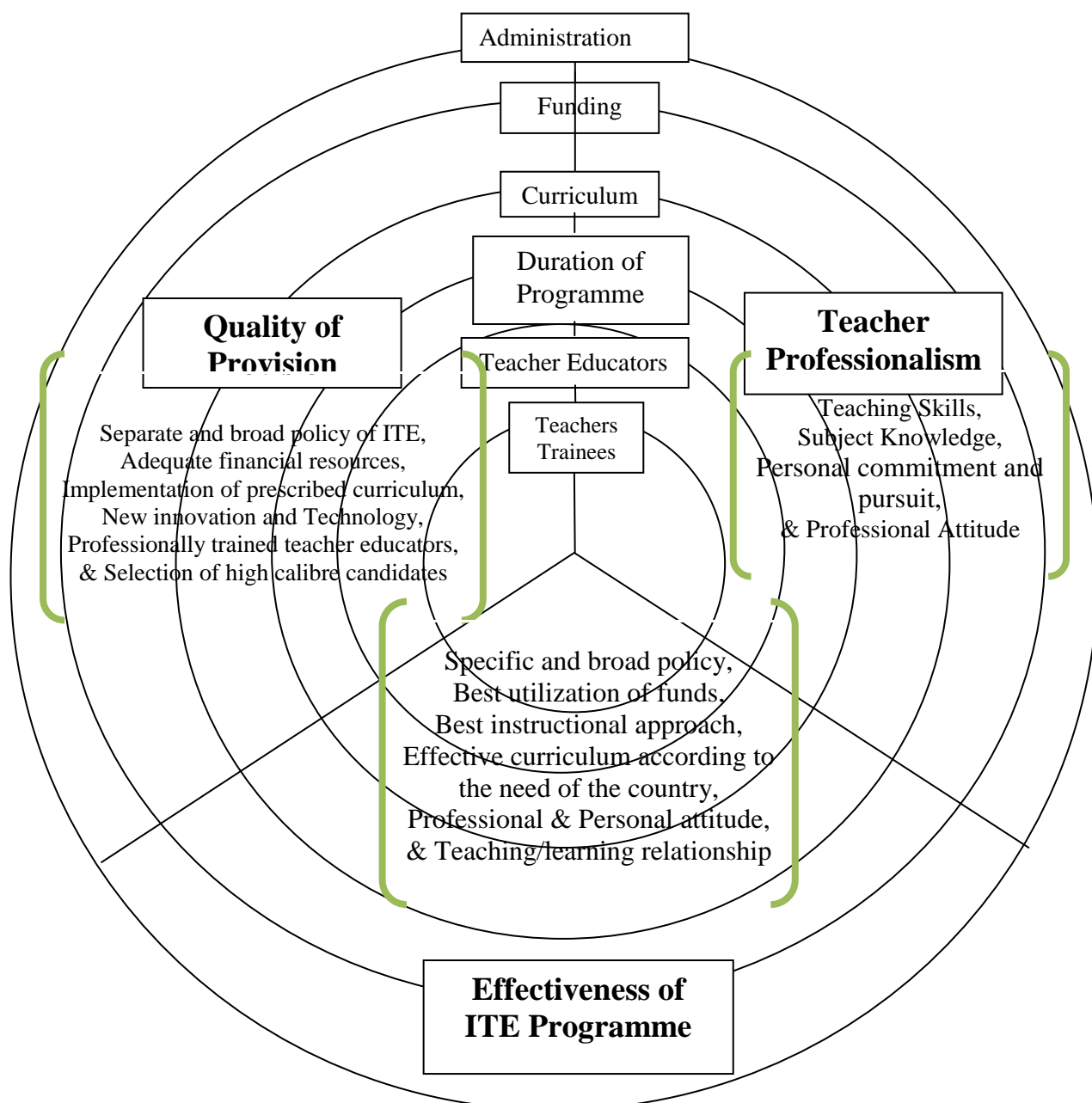
Summary

The six dimensions of initial teacher education programme and the three integral aspects of adequacy in the form of a model of adequate preparation of beginning teachers are summarised in *Figure 8* (below) where there are interaction between each of the three integral aspects. The high quality of ITE programme integrates and enhances the professional development of teachers and these both generate the most effective system of initial teacher education. Collectively, the three play a leading role in ‘the adequacy of professional preparation for the teachers’ work’ within the framework of each location.

On the basis of simultaneous comparison a model of adequate preparation of beginning teachers (*Figure 8, below*) has been developed, taking into account the significant factors identified in the study and juxtaposed, and the three integral aspects of adequacy such as: quality, professional development of teachers and effectiveness.

Figure 8: A Model of Adequate Preparation of Beginning Teachers:

Six Core Areas of Provision & Three Integral Aspects of Adequacy



Design adopted from Khan (2004), and developed by *Mah-e-rukh Ahmed, 2008.*

8.5 Testing the Hypothesis

At the end of the second stage of the comparative analysis a hypothesis was generated, and in respect of the outcome of simultaneous comparison that followed, drawing also on information presented in Chapters 6 and 7, it would appear that the hypothesis could be upheld.

On the basis of primary evidence derived from both empirical and documentary sources, secondary evidence from the review of both contextual and research literature, and cross-national comparative analysis it may be confidently asserted that:

a) All dimensions identified in Chapter 1 did make a contribution to provide an adequate preparation for all the needs of beginning teachers in both cases: England and Pakistan. This study shows that there is very strong interaction between the policies of governments, financial mechanism and ITE programmes. Curriculum, duration of ITE programme, appropriate qualification of teacher educators and the high criteria for selection of student teachers are the main and important characteristics of any ITE programme in each country. It is also very clear that there is very strong link between the quality dimensions and effectiveness of ITE programme.

b) The ITE dimensions operated differentially in different countries according to:

1. different educational culture;
2. different political will and interest of parallel stakeholders; and
3. different historical, geographical and economical conditions.

The study reveals that teacher education and training operates very differently in different educational cultures of every country. These two countries have different national and historical contexts and different geographical locations. Each country has

its own different degree of political will to provide the best optimum supply of these dimensions to improve the quality of ITE programme. Despite differences in their histories, cultures, and economies, both countries face the challenge of how to ensure the supply of high-quality teachers sufficient to meet demand. Every country presents different policy contexts for education and teaching and the national policy-makers attempt to meet the challenges in different ways. In particular, where the state provides financial support (at national or local level) to institutions and individuals for the preparation of beginning teachers, funding can come from multiple sources and instruments. In some cases, especially in Pakistan the key stakeholder, the Ministry of Education, has ignored certain policies which it formulated itself, such as improvements to the curricula and selection of trainee teachers. Even the factors affecting ITE programme in both countries are very different.

c) The identification and assessment of the dimensions and of stakeholders was enhanced by engaging in cross-national and cross-cultural comparison. Toncore and Cudmore (2000) argue that cross-cultural research and experiences are considered as a valuable contribution to the curricula in many fields of study. This cross-national and cross-cultural collaboration to address the issues, including cultural awareness, sharing good practices, discussing cross-national differences and confronting weaknesses.

8.5 Summary

This research has revealed how complex and perilous it is to state definitely what the similarities and differences really are between two initial teacher education systems. Nevertheless, this study did identify some important differences in the two initial teacher education systems. The differences, which included: government regulations and institutional provision; theoretical underpinning; the curriculum policy and delivery

of initial teacher education; and cultural differences affecting elementary teacher's attitudes and values.

The results of this research indicates that Pakistan and England have very different primary school pre-service teacher education systems in terms of the curriculum, the selection of student teachers, university-based studies, school-based studies, and relationship between university faculties and teaching practice schools. The development of standards, inspection and accountability has been part of government and bureaucracy in England to improve the educational and professional performance and outcomes of teacher education system. On the contrary, in Pakistan the appropriate and powerful system of inspection and accountability has not been introduced. The findings also revealed that pre-service teacher education is not up-to-date in Pakistan. There is a huge difference in research culture of both countries. However, the empirical data suggests that English initial teacher training also has some drawbacks. Nonetheless, the findings of this empirical study reveal that majority of student teachers in England and Pakistan are satisfied with the preparation for their teaching careers.

It remains now to come to the identification for the most important themes emerging from the research, the main conclusions to be drawn from it and recommendations that might be made for future research in this area.

CHAPTER NINE: CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

Initial teacher education and training are not developed just by theory and practice. There are many factors affecting the adequate preparation of prospective teachers. Among those selected for discussion in this study, are: policies and plans, financial resources, curriculum, duration of ITE programmes, role of teacher educators and criteria for selection of student teachers. In other words this study involves the examination of the interplay between historical legacy, culture and initial teacher education/training policy and practice.

The descriptive and explorative nature of this study makes it possible to observe the life of the Pakistani ITE providers and schools and English ITE providers and schools in their unique contexts. Exploring the former allowed the researcher to confirm the problems raised by other researchers. Exploring the process in the latter, she was able to identify some practical alternatives in order to move things forward for the ITE providers in Pakistan. In addition, in the Pakistani context she played the role of insider, knowing and experiencing the defects and weaknesses of the ITE in Institutions and hoping to improve it through the experiences she acquired through doing her MEd Degree in England. In the English context, she played the role of an outsider, seeking to pick up valuable ideas and practical solutions to the problems inherent in the current ITE programme in her home country. In this final chapter, three objectives remain:

- Completion of the comparison within the identification of key issues that encapsulate the outcome;
- Revisiting the research questions to conclude whether or not they have been adequately addressed;
- An evaluation of the research, its potential achievements and limitations, with recommendations for further study.

9.2 Interpretation of Key Issues

In the previous chapter, dimensions were first analysed in sequence, and then in order to engage in simultaneous comparison and test the hypothesis these dimensions were pitched next to each other. As a result, there were three integral aspects of adequacy, quality of ITE programmes, teacher professionalism in ITE providers, and effectiveness of the ITE programmes. These were used to synthesise the outcomes. The aspects of adequacy were recognised as key components of the initial teacher education and training. Collectively, and in mutual interaction, they have been described as ‘adequate preparation of beginning teachers’ (*see Figure 8*). It is clear from the contextual, literary, documentary and empirical research that these three elements are perceived to be at the core of the professional preparation of beginning elementary teachers. It is argued, through the claim of ‘hypothesis proven’ at the conclusion of Chapter 8, that the range of dimensions and stakeholders identified did in fact play a crucial role in providing an adequate and enriching preparation for prospective teachers. This was true with both countries and locations. The synopsis that is encapsulated in *Figure 8* is necessarily integrative and summarised. It does not reveal, for instance, the different way in which the preparation of prospective teachers was found to be operating in both cases. However, it does not mean that any identified dimension is absent in the other country, simply that it appears to be less influential.

9.2.1 Relationship between Administration and the ITE Programme

There is a very important link between administration and ITE programmes. For example, the respective governments planned and implemented initial teacher education policy reforms to improve teacher education and regulations to organise the structure of

ITE programme. Young (2004) argues that, for most of the last century....the legal authority for teacher certification, and for programmes designed to prepare teachers for certification, has resided with either provincial or national governments to different degrees in different countries. He further argues that the policy and practice of initial teacher education continues to be a prominent feature on policy-makers' agendas across the world.

The administrative structure and system is basically centralised in both countries and explicitly hierarchical. In England, the contemporary realities of teaching have for two decades been dominated by successive and persisting government policy reforms. For example, the two terms of 'New Labour' government have already seen eight separate Education Acts and Scores of separate initiatives (Chitty, 2004; Walford, 2005). The result of these initiatives and changing conditions has been an increased workload pressure upon teachers. In England, initial teacher training is provided either by universities or schools, or by schools which employ unqualified graduates and train them while they teach, accredited by the TDA. All ITE providers are regularly inspected by the OfSTED which is quasi-autonomous non-governmental organization (QUANGO), using standards produced by the TDA as a benchmark. These organisations have had a massive influence on the types of courses offered.

In Pakistan the Ministry of Education continues to direct, control and regulate pre-service teacher education from its distant central offices located in the capital cities of provinces. There is some semblance of administrative decentralisation at the Divisional and District levels and in schools but the pre-service teacher training institutions continue to be controlled by the central Ministry of Education through the DCTE. Such a bureaucratic style leads to delays in decision-making and these were clearly evident in the study. The obstacles placed on management are exacerbated by a variety of heavy demands created by the Ministry of Education on behalf of the

Government. As is evident, Pakistan has had a plethora of educational policy pronouncements through National and Provincial policies and plans. There is no standardised and agreed format for policy-making that would allow protection from eclectic designs, without restrictions and enterprise (Aly, 2007). Pakistan has no comprehensive vision and overarching policy framework which exclusively addresses initial teacher education. However, its issues are covered in general education policies. In order to improve the quality of teacher education and to help teachers understand more deeply and motivate children to learn, a new policy paradigm of initial teacher education and professional development for teachers in Pakistan is required.

9.2.2 Relationship between Financial Resources and the ITE Programme

The influence of the financial dimension is very strong on the governance of teacher education programmes because in almost every country the central government is the major source of education funding. Nonetheless, in the history of many countries failure to educate and train the workforce adequately has contributed to failure to reach its economic potential. Teachers are a key factor and evidence shows that no ITE programme can run without adequate financial support of government. Governments collect and allocate the funds to provide physical facilities and educational resources to teacher education institutions for the adequate preparation of beginning teachers. In England a move towards central control of ITT and more uniform programmes took hold in the 1980s and has led to the current system of common standards and procedures, linking the funding of training institutions to the quality of the service they provide. The government allocates the funds to ITE providers through the TDA. HEIs and schools involved in ITT receive financial support for their work. If schools work with a university, their university partners transfer resources provided by the TDA to

cover the contribution of in-school training which is now the bulk of the experience. If schools employ and train an unqualified teacher or set up as a SCITT they receive funding in their own right as a training provider.

This research shows that insufficient financial resources in Pakistan have had an adverse impact on the quality of ITE programmes. Recently, provinces have begun to put teacher training as a separate budget-line item. In line with the budgetary design, the teacher education budget is divided between the development and non-development or recurring budget. A considerable share of the development budget is met through funding by international development partners. The remainder is a mix of the federal government funds under Education Funding Reform (ESR) and other interventions. The recurring budget consists of the salary and non-salary components where the salary takes up the major share. Due to severe capacity constraints, the most serious flaw is the under-utilization of funds for pre-service teacher education programmes and slow release of funds from the higher to lower tiers thereby weakening the potential quality of training (Aly, 2007).

9.2.3 Relationship between Curriculum and the ITE Programme

This dimension leads directly what to teach in pre-service training and how to teach it. This is a key question since the answer defines the content and basic academic organisation of the professional training for future teachers. Wideen et al., (1998) concluded that ‘the processes in teacher education may be more important than the knowledge that is provided to student teachers’ (p.167). In England, as well as setting national Standards for trainee teachers, the TDA also sets out how teacher training providers should organise their training programmes. England is distinctive in requiring its trainee teachers to pass skills tests in literacy, numeracy and ICT.

In England the trainee teachers are assessed against the standards for teaching qualifications and this qualification to teach is known as Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). The trainee teachers follow a course to teach at primary or secondary level, but their QTS allows them to be employed in either sector. In addition, there is divergence in the number of routes into teaching on offer in England such as the full-time university route (BEd and PGCE), school-centred (SCITT) route, employment-based route (GTP, RTP) and flexible postgraduate teacher training route. The fact is that unlike England Pakistan does not offer any employment-based routes to QTS, or School-Centred ITE courses for the adequate preparation of trainee teachers. Of the two groups of student-teachers interviewed, the English student teachers were generally more positive about their course rather than Pakistani student teachers. Although there are slight variations in what they perceived to be sources of improvement in their process of learning to teach and in the time spent on both sites, they appear to have derived as much benefit from the university-based component as from the school-based component of their course. There is a clear alignment with the National Curriculum for schools (5-16). These qualitative findings are in line with those reported by Furlong *et al* (2000), across a much larger PGCE student population in England.

In Pakistan, the Curriculum Wing of the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the provincial curriculum bureaux are responsible for developing the framework for teacher training. The majority of teachers and students are unable to differentiate between curriculum and textbooks because the copies of curriculum have not been supplied to ITE providers or schools. The textbooks used for teaching in teacher training programmes are considered to be the curriculum and the majority of these books are out of date. The curriculum of ITE programmes in Pakistan fails to develop in teachers the required pedagogical skills, subject knowledge, classroom delivery and questioning skills that would make these courses/programmes worthwhile

(UNESCO/USAID, 2006). Subject matter is not regularly updated to keep pace with recent subject advances and it is not alignment to the school curriculum. There is no attempt to integrate subject knowledge with pedagogical skills, instead a tendency to overemphasize theoretical aspects. Familiarity with the use of modern information and communication technologies is also not given due importance. Curriculum development is a specialised task and apparently there are very few specialists in this field in the ITE institutions. Furthermore, there is no mechanism for feedback once the ‘curriculum’ is implemented and, in any case, the government lacks the requisite evaluation capacity.

9.2.4 Relationship between Teacher Educators and the ITE Programme

Teacher educators not only have the role of supporting student teachers’ learning about teaching, but in so doing, through their own teaching provide a good role model of the teacher. Teacher educators, conversely, whether intentionally or not, contribute to the knowledge base of students as well as teach them about teaching (Korthagen, et al., 2005). There has to be a good balance between the academic and professional (training) dimensions of ITE. Teacher Education is dependent on the teacher educators providing the necessary tools and techniques so the beginning teacher can do the right thing.

The nature of the ITE curriculum, and the requirements and inspection frameworks in England, has made it virtually essential that teacher educators have QTS (McNamara, at el. 2008). Therefore, the majority of teacher educators enter higher education later after a mid-career switch. In terms of research activity, at 42.5 per cent staff entered in the 2001 RAE, compared to an average of 64 per cent in the social sciences and it had the lowest proportion (ibid, 2008). This reflects the fact that teacher educators are very committed to their students learning and achievements and undertake less published research than most other academics.

The study found that there is no separate cadre for teacher educators in Pakistan they could be posted in secondary schools, teacher training institutes as well as management positions within the bureaucratic hierarchy. Promotions are based on seniority and not performance. No progress has been made on the policy design to institute a separate cadre of teacher trainers (AED, 2006). There is little opportunity for career advancement in the teaching profession in Pakistan. The various levels of teacher educators themselves are caught in the same cycle of poor teacher quality and delivery. The majority of trainers fail to cultivate any creative thinking, inquiry and problem solving among their trainees. Most of them are not aware of how to improve their own knowledge and skills or bring themselves up to date with new researches in pre-service teacher training. The vicious cycle of these ritualistic and poor teaching methods thus engulfs the teacher education system in Pakistan and keeps it at a low level as compared with England.

9.2.5 Relationship between Selection Criteria for Student Teachers and the ITE Programme.

Among the most important features of teacher education are the criteria and procedures by which candidates are selected for entry to pre-service teacher education programmes and institutions (Grant, et al., 1999). The admission processes for these programmes are expected to select applicants who will succeed in the preparatory programmes and become good teachers (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2001, Turner-Bisset, 2001). Despite variability, the worldwide trend seems to be to require a minimum of a bachelor's degree for entry into teaching-preparation programmes (Cobb, 1999). Most teacher education programmes use students' grade point average as a criterion for admission (Mikotovics and Crehan, 2002). Some programmes combine grades with letters of

reference (Caskey, et al., 2001) or with ratings of applicants' performance in an interview (Denner, et al., 2001).

In England, the admission procedure consists of academic achievements and performance in interviews. The interview is very important and members of educational faculties interview all of the candidates to decide whom they will select or reject. For at least 20 years all interviews conducted by teacher training institutions have had to include a practicing school teacher in the same subject area as the applicant. The minimum requirements to commence an ITT course is grade C or above in GCSE English, mathematics and science (which is lower than the requirements in other subjects), plus a relevant degree from a recognised university. Admission is also subject to physical and mental fitness to teach and experience of working with children. Moreover, every trainee needs to have a CRB (Criminal Records Bureau) check before admission is ratified.

In Pakistan, little attention has been given to the problem of recruitment and selection of prospective teachers by the government, with the result that at present, there are hundreds of teachers who should not be in the teaching profession. Unlike some other professions, teaching often suffers from a shortage of qualified candidates for admission. This is partly due to the large number of teachers needed as compared to other professionals. Therefore, teaching often does not enjoy the privilege of being able to select the best qualified from among a large pool of applicants. They are often those who have not been able to secure admission to other professions and choose teaching as a last resort (AED, 2006). Factors influencing recruitment include the status of the teaching profession; the supply of, and demand for, teachers; and financial resources of the system. The minimum qualification for entry in primary teacher education programme is Secondary School Certificate (SSC) and Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC) respectively.

9.2.6 The Relationship between the ITE Programme and its Duration

In general, the ITE programmes are concerned with matching the structure of the course in relation to its duration, and the level of qualification obtained on its completion. The duration of teacher education and training programmes varies across systems from one year or less to four or even five years. That range exists in quite a variety of countries and seems not always to depend on the economic development level of the countries concerned. Evidence shows that during 1970 to 2000, most of the countries have extended the duration of their ITE programmes (Eurydice, 2002).

Reforms altering both the length of training and the level of qualification obtained on its completion have occurred in England. The long process of change to an all-graduate profession between the 1970s and mid 1980s was a response to the fragmentation of teacher training provision. There is considerable variation in length of ITE programmes in England. In Pakistan the process to increase the length of the ITE Programme is taking place and in each province the provincial governments are making reforms to increase the duration of ITE programmes according to the need, but the process is slow.

9.3 Emergent Issues and Relations

The key factors or influences, on the ITE programmes across the multiple cross-national cases, though differently weighed in each are:

- Vision, Culture and Tradition
- Political Interaction
- Financial Mechanism
- Institutional Forces
- Global Trends
- New Technology & Innovation

All these influences can be seen both from the literature and from the case-location fieldwork to influence the implementation of teacher education policies. This is a clear outcome of the application of the sequencing of the stages of Bereday's comparative methodology to the issue of adequate and enriched ITE programmes.

9.3.1 The Interplay between tradition, culture, structure and change with vision, policies and strategies of ITE programme

The researcher discussed above the implications of major findings about the vision, policies and practices of initial teacher education, in terms of interplay between the perceptions of the main stakeholders and key actors and perceptions of implementers of change. She will locate this discussion within a view of change as a complex process which requires collective and collaborative efforts if it is to succeed; tradition (*see Figure 1, chapter 1*) in every country plays an important role in the construction of visions and in the planning of policies; and culture determines what will be implemented and how.

‘Vision as an abstract philosophical driver and purpose as the intention of a nation, determine the outlook of any public policy. Vision, being a universal catalyst for individual and collective accomplishment of progress, is extremely important’ (Aly, 2007: 4). Vision as interpreted by various concerned bodies determines initial teacher education and training policies. In turn, how the policies are interpreted and played into action plans may affect the practices of initial primary teacher education and professional development. Since the vision, policies and practices in ‘top-down’ systems mark a linear chain of stages, inconsistencies become inevitable and the gap between the vision holders and the implementers of the policies of initial teacher education is wide. The literature and documentary proof discussed above shows that there was a solid vision in the policies of England. ‘While in Pakistan, a solid vision has

not been lacking in the past policies, it has always been lacking the governance, management, delivery and implementation that have fallen short' (Aly, 2007: 4). However, this study found mere vagueness and ambiguity on the part of relevant vision, and lack of consistency in education policies, as stated in the Draft of National Education Policy (2008) that:

'The education sector has been without a comprehensive vision for far too long. Indeed, there have been policies, plans, reforms, goals, objectives, initiatives, and countless vision statement, but there has been no vision; no widely owned understanding of where all of our efforts are taking us; no well informed conception of what a high-quality, high efficiency education system looks like and how it must function in order to be that way'. (P.56)

Culture includes interpretive framework, facts, norms and experiences. These are all socially constructed. We do not have knowledge without tradition, and we also participate continuously in reproducing and transforming traditions. Habermas, (1987) argues that;

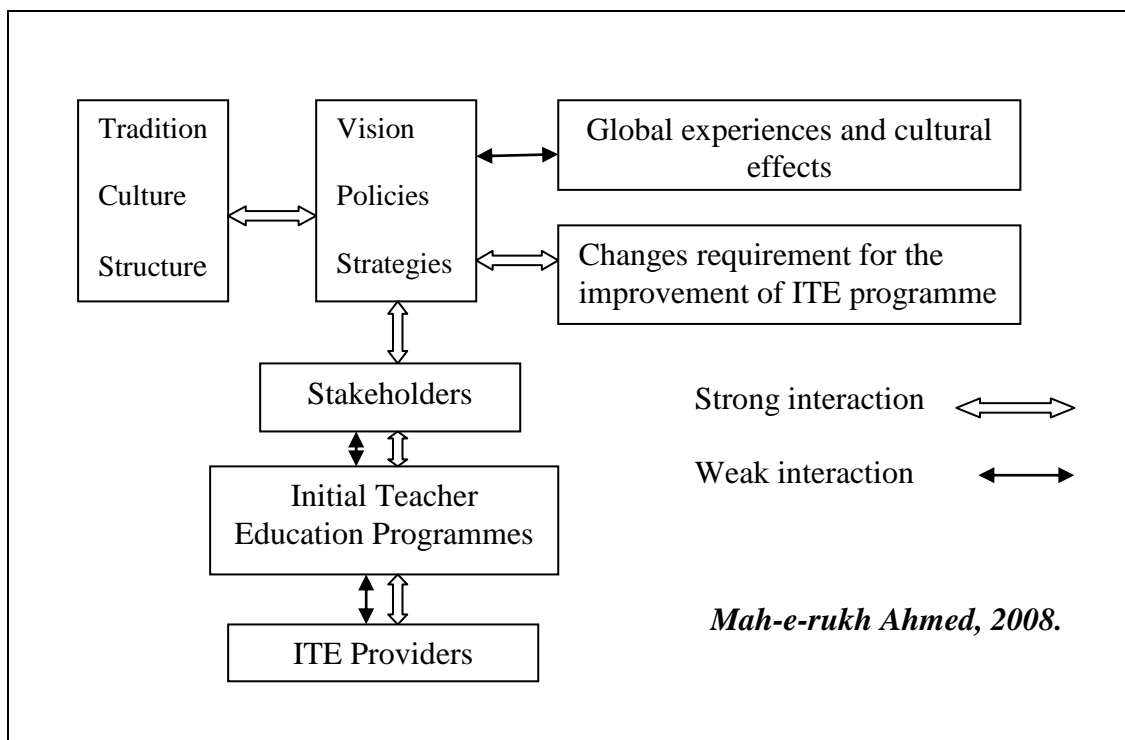
'the term culture for the stock of language from which participants in communication supply themselves with interpretations as they come to an understanding about something in the world'. (P.138)

Tradition, culture and structure (societal, political) seem to influence the nature of the vision and shape of the policies of initial teacher education. In addition the philosophies and ideologies of teaching/learning, teacher educators, and trainees themselves have an important influence. As a result, they influence the pace and directions of the strategies of initial teacher education and training and its accommodation of change.

Culture can divide into three parts: national culture, regional culture and institutional culture. Cultural perspectives around the world vary from country to country. Culture influences all aspects of life, of which education is just one. Education and culture in general, and teacher education in particular, are closely intertwined. Education is considered a key element in the transmission of culture. Teachers and the education they receive are at the heart of the process of cultural transmission (Thomas, 2000). Teacher education is necessarily both a manifestation and a reflection of culture.

It has been formed in the cultural reproduction process of both England and Pakistan and is also part of this process. Teacher education has no absolute objectives and contents; these are always culturally and socially constructed according to certain religious, social, economic, political and scientific situations. Every ITE programme is an integral part of its contextual cultures and traditions in both countries, and they reproduce them through their own acts. This study found many cultural differences between the values, faith, practices and structures of the two countries and the culture of ITE providers is also necessarily different. The research deals with two types of culture in England and Pakistan: the first is national culture and the second is institutional culture. The following figure (*Figure 9*) presents the interplay between these issues:

Figure 9: The model of influence of culture and tradition on vision, policies and strategies in ITE.



The figure illustrates the strong influence of tradition, culture and structure on vision, policies and strategies and weak influence of global trends and cultures.

9.3.2 Political Regimes and Interaction

A country's political environment can at times be the single most important influence in shaping-up the education system and its policy. This in turn shapes the actions and experiences of all people working within the educational field. This is evident in both countries 'as new opportunities are perceived by some and concerns by others' (Griffin, 2001: 385). All decisions about education are political at one level or another and a shared feature of recent years in both England and Pakistan is the increasing role politicians have played in teacher education. This can be clearly illustrated above in chapters 4 and 5.

In England it is clearly evident that the government has taken strong control of ITE, its structure, funding, modes of curriculum, criteria for selecting student teachers, and inspection of training centres. The control of ITT in England has been transformed from that of university autonomy to one that is highly centralised in terms of government regulation, significantly more school-based in terms of delivery and diversified in terms of its clientele (Young, et al. 2007).

In Pakistan also, the teacher education sector is controlled by provincial government and political interference, but it has had the most pernicious impact on this sector. The majority of the stakeholders are of the view that funding, curriculum, recruitment, transfers and postings of teacher educators are heavily influenced by political intervention – the degree varying in various parts of the country. In fact, it appears that the malaise has been similar under successive regimes over the last three decades (Aly, 2007). Unfortunately, all policies, plans, programmes, and schemes with the sole exception of the Second Five-Year Plan (1960-65), failed to achieve their objectives (Mitchell, et al. 2005). In this context, Shami (2005) criticizes the influence

of different regimes, prioritised their own will and party manifesto shaping the educational policies of Pakistan that:

'Pakistan since her inception has seen various regimes both democratic and military which has consequently influenced the educational plans and policies as per their thinking and priorities. Culture of absolute power by and large has proved prohibited for the growth of political institutions and further more this resulted in discontinuous policies and plans and lack of pasteurization of the work of government by the incoming government has left its mark on the enlightenment and social development of the masses'. (P: 82)

9.3.3 Financial Mechanisms and their Impact

The financial status of any country could be very influential in shaping the quality of the education system provided. Financial pressure could affect teacher education programmes and the whole higher education (Furlong et al., 2000). It could also affect the investment process in education and student's enrolment in courses even the nature and quality of those courses (Tisber, 1995). Each case operates some kind of per capita formula funding but the detailed mechanism involved certainly in provision for the adequate preparation of trainee teachers is different. For example, in England full formula funding through to ITE providers (HEIs and school) enhances their ability to compete in the market if they so choose (Griffin, 2001). Traditionally the funding of university-based ITE has derived primarily from a combination of government grants and tuition fees—with the former usually accounting for the lion's share of the costs (OECD, 2004).

On the other hand, in Pakistan ITE providers do not have control over the bulk of their budget and therefore this is a less influential dimension though not insignificant. The recurring budget consists of the salary and non-salary component where the salary takes up the major share (about 90 %) of the total recurrent budget. The development budget is almost entirely financed through foreign aid. The funding is generated mostly through donor determined priorities and since the whole sector is uncoordinated there

are issues of overlap and excessive emphasis that distorts priorities for the education sector. Overall the bulk of revenue is collected at the federal level which is distributed to the provinces through the National Finance Commission. At the domestic level, resources are generated through revenues raised at various levels (MoE, 2006). Due to severe capacity constraints, the most serious flaw is the under-utilization of funds (Aly, 2007). This is certainly in stark contrast to England.

9.3.4 Institutional Forces

The analytical framework used here relies on institutional theory as the education of teachers mostly occurs within institutions---before, during, and after formal preparation for teaching. Influences on teachers come in great part from institutions that may operate at the local level or globally via international lending, policy and research (Tatto, 2006). The institutions or organisations have their own structures, regulations and control mechanisms. There are different elements that shape each learning institution and this, in turn, has its impact on conceptualizing of education and teacher education in particular. These elements could be the system's administration and style, course structure, philosophy and content, learning environment provided by the institution, communication and collaboration among its members, the overall culture within the institution, resources, facilities and the teaching techniques and strategies employed in such an institution. This study also reveals that institutional culture in ITE institutions has a strong influence on the effectiveness of teacher education.

In England universities held a dominant role in the governance of initial teacher education for over a hundred years. Elaborating on this, Bridges (1996) argues that the university Faculty of Education has three essential components: a) it is a centre of expertise or relevant knowledge underpinned by a theoretical perspective; b) it is a

centre of research and scholarship where systematic enquiry provides the basis for improved professional practise; c) and it is a centre for the maintenance of a critical tradition (p.51). Institutional forces for ITE preparation imply that the main mechanisms for control are located within the university and its established structures of decision-making and accountability.

In Pakistan the government teacher training institutions at the provincial levels (DCTEs and RITEs) have unclear mandates. An overlap between their roles and responsibilities also exists. There is no overarching body to regulate and guide these institutions, particularly in terms of academic leadership, within provincial departments of education. A dysfunctional institutional and organizational set-up has resulted in poor quality teacher training. What emerges from analysis of the data on management and administrative systems is that: a) the ITE providers do not have professional and institutional autonomy, and b) these institutions are also not successful in developing the professional attitude of prospective primary school teachers. In this perspective these institutions should make painstaking efforts to equip the prospective teachers not only with teaching skills but also try to promote the positive professional attitude in them.

9.3.5 Global Trends

The 21st century will make severe demands on learning in schools. The world will be full of contradictory trends and tensions, such as globalisation, regionalisation, value conflicts, social inequities and environmental pressures. These changes will affect teacher education and teacher professionalism. Globalisation involves learning to understand and appreciate 'our neighbours with different cultural backgrounds from ours; to see the world through the eyes of others; and to realise that people of the world

need and want much the same thing' (Tye, 1999: 17 cited in Holden and Hicks, 2007: 12). In the present era of competition, survival has become an increasingly daunting challenge. Current trends towards teacher education are strongly influenced by economic globalisation forces as nations attempt to become competitive in the global market place and try to shape their education systems to provide skills needed in the growing economy (Tatto, 2006).

In recent years however, education authorities have tended to increase the regulation of ITT as part of tertiary-level educational provision and reform. The reason for this trend may well be the desire for more uniform patterns of training, so that it corresponds to national and international quality standards (Eurydice, 2002). Within this, the Ministries of Education in England are driving higher education and teacher education to become more international. More recently in England educational interest in a global perspective has been quickened by the emergence of citizenship, race equality and sustainability as key areas of concern in the English national curriculum (Holden and Hicks, 2007). Citizenship, for example, requires that pupils learn about 'the world as a global community, and the political, economic, environmental and social implications of this' (DfEE, 1999: 14). ITE in England has very specific parameters, as the training that student teachers receive is tightly controlled by the TDA and there is no non-governmental organization in England which is providing teacher education.

Globalisation is manifesting itself in economic, educational and cultural forms in Pakistan also. It has affected employment levels, skill standards and innovations. There is a need to accommodate new skills, innovations and up to date educational experiences of other countries to inform local requirements in the teacher education curriculum in Pakistan. Currently, various non-governmental organizations in Pakistan are providing teacher education. If not in a state of disrepair they are commencing their structured mandates. With minimal coordination and supervision, they follow their own

agendas and objectives. This has created non-standardised, and mostly deficient, teaching programmes. These institutions fail to provide acceptable levels of teacher education, and have refrained from any direct collaborations and linkages in academic areas and teaching methods for most of their existence. There is no single ruling authority to properly provide guidance and direction to these institutions to maximize their efficiency, outputs and to monitor their product quality (UNESCO & USAID, 2006).

9.3.6 New Technologies and Innovation

The speed of change in information technology and communications is much greater today than during earlier periods, and could reasonably be expected to accelerate. The revolution in communications over the last half a century has changed the way of life on this planet. Information technology has become a part of the modern world and in turn, a part of our lives, and determines our success in this information age and the global economy. The influx of these and other related technologies has meant changes in our ways of thinking and learning of new ideas for teacher training. This is crucial in primary teacher training because young children pick up the modern technology very quickly.

We cannot escape from advanced information technologies. The education system as a whole, including in particular teacher education, needs to cater for this development at the pre-service level. This will enable prospective teachers to acquire relevant knowledge and skills, and be better informed about new and developing information technologies for the 21st Century learning environments (Newman and Moss, 1997; Barton, 1996). Teachers need to have at least basic personal skills in this field which they have to learn to apply directly in the classroom. For example, courses

on the use of ICT may provide trainee teachers with the computer skills required to write reports or prepare lessons also, the internet and computers provide access to knowledge that changes the role of teachers. No longer are they the only, or even the prime source of information.

In England already these technologies are available in schools and HEIs, and they are increasingly exposed to children and trainee teachers daily. Skills tests have been introduced in 2002 (Qualifying to Teach) for trainee teachers, which must be passed in order to achieve Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). The tests, including one for ICT, are designed to ensure that teachers have acquired the skills and knowledge needed in their wider professional role in schools, rather than only the subject knowledge required for teaching. Information technology is incorporated into the teacher education curriculum, therefore teachers and teacher educators have advance knowledge about these and about the new research in teacher education and training.

By contrast, the present education system in Pakistan offers only minimal curricular resources for students. Some of these technologies are available to children in schools but not to student teachers in ITE providers. In fact, the current national education and Information Technology policies do not promote full integration of ICT in the education system. Therefore, teacher educators and teachers have limited knowledge about information technology and innovations and may lag far behind their students. The government took the initiative to make information technology a compulsory subject in the teacher education curriculum but failed to give computers and projectors to ITE providers. Therefore, the subject of information technology is taught only theoretically.

9.4 Revisiting the Research Questions

It is clear from the formulation and application of the conceptual framework of this study that it has been appropriate to adopt an approach concerned with dimensions, stakeholders and the institutions where the preparation of beginning teachers take place. The first comment is that the investigation indicated that both the dimensions and stakeholders identified do affect the effectiveness of ITE programme and the adequacy of the preparation of beginning teachers in teacher education institutions.

This study has been concerned with issues relating to initial teacher education, its effectiveness and its adequacy to prepare the beginning teachers and has been aiming to provide an analysis, the researcher will seek to set it against Sanders' (2000) typology for illustrating, 'alternative approaches in comparative methodology' (p. 201) which he has constructed as a framework for considering both affirmative and critical approaches.

This is essentially a comparative study and therefore, it is valid to set it against Sanders' checklist, which is illustrated here in *Table 9.1*. He posits five criteria to be met and these will now be discussed in the light of this research.

According to Sander, the critical approach will examine 'education and educational policies as particular but universal forms of mediation and social control- and of generating opposition to mechanisms of control'. This requires viewing education from a natural point of view, affected by a wide range of interrelated dimensions which is what this research has attempted to do. Therefore, the comparative approach is helpful for particular factors in different situations. Sander's first critical approach is appropriate in that it highlights the central role of teacher education and training systems in development, survival and operations of nations.

Table 9.1: Alternative Approaches in Comparative Methodology

	Affirmative Approaches	Critical Approaches
Definition of the subject to the studied	Education systems as reflecting the diversity of cultures (and education policy as having the task to maintain it).	Education and education policy as particular but universal forms of mediation and social control- and of generating opposition to mechanisms of control.
Selection of sources of information on the subject	Preference given to the normative legal basis and the normative administrative and political definitions of the tasks and functions of education systems and education policy by governments	Emphasis on the complex and contradictory reality of social and political processes in the field of education and education policy.
Methodological options in producing research results	Reading and quoting from texts (simple text reproduction and summary, not even hermeneutical interpretation).	Analysing social processes, including all stakeholders, their actions, attitudes and ideologies, their specific interests, strategies and power relations.
Strategies of interpreting research results	Tendency of producing self-fulfilling prophecies confirming the myths of 'diversity' and 'difference'	Focus on understanding fundamental problems in the historical development of social systems through analysing the education sector and education policies.
Basic objectives/functions of research.	Production of affirmative ideology (Cold war ideology, European dimension ideology, Nationalist ideology, etc.)	Radical critique of social systems (the history and impact of class system in education and education policy).

Source: Sander, T., (2000) 'The Politics of Comparing Teacher Education Systems and Teacher Education Policy'. In: Alexander, R., Osborn, M., and Phillips, D. (Eds.) (2000), *Learning From Comparing: New Directions in Comparative Educational Research. Vol. 2. Policy, Professionals and Development*. Wallingford, Oxford: Symposium Books (p. 201).

Secondly, Sander emphasised a wide selection of sources of information on the subject. According to him a critical approach required ‘emphasis on the complex and contradictory reality of social and political processes in the field of education and educational policy’. This is related to the researcher’s work on teacher educational policies (*Chapters 4 and 5*).

The third of Sander’s criteria is that the selection of methodological options in producing research results. Here the critical approach requires ‘analysing social processes, including all stakeholders, their actions, attitudes and ideologies, their specific interests, strategies and power relations’. The researcher observed in both case locations the distinct differences in social, political and cultural influences.

Sander defined the fourth criteria as strategies adopted for the interpreting of research results. This focuses on understanding fundamental problems in the historical development of teacher education systems and teacher education policies.

Finally, Sander states that the basic objectives/functions of research must be in clear words. The researcher tried to include a radical critique of teacher education system, not just a descriptive analysis or documentary survey.

9.5 Concluding Remarks: Achievements and Limitations of the Thesis

Traditionally the analysis of ITE in a comparative perspective is strictly focused on aspects of the legal norms, the administrative structure, the organisational framework, the curricular prescriptions, financial support and length of ITE programmes. These are aspects evidently linked to the interest of the state in political and administrative control of the system of ITE. The researcher feels that the first two research questions have been satisfied in the previous section --- the third will be addressed below --- and that by undertaking a genuinely original study, the researcher has contributed to the

literature in this field in a way that previous work have called for. An attempt has been made to meet a substantial challenge and to reach an ambitious goal. It is possible that more might have been achieved in respect of detail with fewer countries and case locations, but the researcher considers the wider range to have been beneficial.

The research has also shown that in general, the two case-locations, which proved to be comparable, exhibited the broad educational traits and values of their respective countries. Both cases also yielded distinctive variations based on their particular educational histories, educational culture and current circumstances. So, in that cross-national multiple case study research is rare, the comparative methodology adopted here – an adaptation of Bereday’s method, strengthened by the continuous comparative method for detailed analysis – has the potential to contribute the theory in this field. That was the third main question and objective. In respect of limitations, constraints arising from different unanticipated events in both countries inevitably led to some frustrating of the ideal project in mind at the beginning.

Finally, the researcher is satisfied that she has tried to satisfy research questions and remained clear about her conceptual framework and that it has yielded an outcome of some worth to the area of comparative educational study within which it inhabits.

9.6 Future Research

Ongoing investigations into the policies and programmes of pre-service primary teacher education, as well as other areas related to teacher education, can continuously inform and extend our knowledge in this important area. This continued commitment is essential because of the impact that the dynamics of the school, community and changing national needs have on the schooling process. It is for this reason that a perfect equivalence between initial professional preparation and teacher’s work is difficult to

achieve. Also, the teachers' world of work is context specific, and it may not be possible to fully provide for this in the pre-service programme. Hence beginning teachers need further professional development during their teaching career, and the main stakeholders should continue to support teachers through in-service and other professional development programmes. Nevertheless, with quality initial professional preparation, future teachers should be able to better adapt to, and cope with, the initial demands of work and related responsibilities in the field. At the same time it would help to prevent beginning teachers experiencing 'shock' when faced with various dimensions of their new work context.

Future research would be useful if it probed other specific areas of pre-service teacher education allied to this study especially in Pakistan. This could include, for example, investigating ways to make practice teaching more effective and the preparation of teachers in different subject areas. Similarly, future research could evaluate the preparation for teachers to meet the different demands of work and responsibilities in multi-grade classroom teaching in urban and rural educational contexts, assessment and use of ICT in pre-service teacher education. The findings obtained from these studies could be utilized to further improve the quality of the preparation of teachers. It would be expected that the findings of such investigations would also help the ITE providers update their policies and programmes, by infusing better ideas on how to adequately prepare teachers for the demands of real work.

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Appendix 1

Details of Interviewees

England

	TDA	Institution 1	Institution 2	School 1	School 2	Total
Policy Makers	2					2
Principals		1				1
Teacher Educators		4	4			8
Student Teachers		3	3			6
Head teachers				1	1	2
Mentors				1	1	2
Newly Qualified Teachers				1	1	2
Total	2	8	7	3	3	23

Pakistan

	Provincial Offices	Institution 1	Institution 2	School 1	School 2	DEO Office	Total
Policy Makers	2						2
Principals		1	1				2
Teacher Educators		4	4				8
Student Teachers		3	3				6
Head teachers				1	1		2
Mentors						1	1
Newly Qualified Teachers				1	1		2
Total	2	8	8	2	2	1	23

Map of England



Map of Pakistan



