TEACHER TRAINING: 
A COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND TURKISH THEORY AND PRACTICE

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

This study is a comparative analysis of systems and policies for teacher training in England, Wales and the Republic of Turkey. The introduction defines the terms of reference and sets up the framework of the recruitment, appointment and career expectations of trainee students in the two countries. The central sections of the study examine in details the structure and content of the teacher training curriculum in England, Wales, England and the Republic of Turkey.

From this examination emerges a picture of two sharply contrasting approaches. The Turkish system is highly centralised with a strong emphasis placed upon students acquiring theories of knowledge. In England and Wales a very decentralised system is gradually becoming more centrally driven by Government and its related agencies. However, the thrust of central documentation and directives does not entirely negate the amount and extent of applied theory which English students acquire in the course of an increasingly school based training.

The study concludes by examining the likely future direction of teacher training in the context of the Republic of Turkey joining the European Common Market. Centrally imposed policies, while providing clarity, will need to be tempered by some of the pragmatic flexibility which is a current feature of the English system. A fusion of the strengths of both systems will be necessary for the successful implementation of teacher training in both countries as the twenty first century draws closer.
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# TEACHER TRAINING: A COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND TURKISH THEORY AND PRACTICE

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INTRODUCTION

At the foundation of the social, economic, industrial and cultural development of a society, is an education system which plays the most important role in all aspects of that society. In this respect countries all over the world give special importance to their education policy and try to establish and organise better educational systems. These affairs are a kind of progress although, as T.S. Eliot noted, the end of the journey may only bring us back to the beginning.

From the democratic point of view, western European countries have different and important features of educational systems from the rest of the world. They have the longest democratic traditions in the world and this has influenced and shaped their education systems. They are democratic countries and each has developed compulsory and free education systems. Every European citizen in western European countries has both the right and duty of education. The principles underpinning democratic education are equality and freedom. These two educational principles have been claimed essential for members of the European communities for all their citizens. However, although they have a democratic, compulsory and free education system, it has still not been able to educate the poorest children in the European community. (1) (DES, 1983). Nevertheless, there is a concerted European attempt to try to educate every child at each stage of education at school in accordance to his or her own abilities. Additionally, the advantages of information technology enable EEC countries to exchange information more quickly than any others in the world. This is a significant factor in enabling their
educational systems to change and develop more quickly than in other parts of the world.

As a European country, the United Kingdom has the most complicated and complex system in Europe. The United Kingdom consists of four countries namely Scotland, England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Amongst them, Scotland and Ireland have quite different education systems from the Welsh and English. On the other hand, the Welsh education system is in many respects the same as the English.

The system means that is the way in which it is arranged so that all its parts fit together or work together for the same aim. From this aspect, an educational system works together with all elements of the system towards common educational aims. Simply, the educational system consists of teachers, students, education materials, school buildings. Each one is a sub-system of the education system. The most important part of the system is the teacher. They play an all important part in determining the quality of education. Even if much educational technology is used, the role of the teacher to teach remains central. Although the teachers' role has been changing rapidly during the twentieth century, it does not mean that the teacher's role has diminished. In short, it has changed but is still the key point in determining and delivering quality of learning experiences.

Thus, while teachers play an important part in achieving quality, teacher training is the focus of critical attention. For this reason, the curricula of teacher training has often been changed and reorganised by the educational authorities, universities and governments to parallel the
changing teacher's role. An emphasis has been placed upon the practical and vocational, and theory has suffered.

This study considers the link between teacher training and teacher performance. Curriculum organisation, the structure and the content of the curricula seems to affect and determine the quality of teacher training during the training of student teachers within institutions of teacher education. While the curriculum is not the only factor affecting the quality of teacher training, certainly within the United Kingdom the preoccupation with delivering a National Curriculum in schools has had a profound effect on securing a teacher training pattern ready to 'service' the school model.

It may be observed that the current situation adds a degree of urgency to the ever present need for professionals to up-date themselves, advance their thinking, widen and deepen their knowledge and experience, reflect of their practice and add to their personal growth. Teacher stress and professional fatigue is one factor hastening an agenda observed in what is termed innovation overload.

Despite these perils, it is important to promote the cause of advancing teacher professionalism. Therein lies the promise of increased commitment and job satisfaction and some measure of educational reform that will enhance teacher effectiveness. There is a growing realisation that if new initiatives are to bear fruit, something must happen with teachers, rather than 'to' teachers. If new curricula or teaching methods are to be introduced, teachers themselves must change as well as the curricula of teacher training in the institutions of teacher education. If their teaching is to incorporate new principles, they must be able to reflect
on the basis of their current practices. If they are to respond constructively to external directives and pressures, they need to be able to engage with them, and to adapt them to mutual advantages.

At the same time, it needs to be recognised that a great deal of teacher development is always taking place. Teachers grow into jobs and new roles, to get adept at handling new situations, refine their techniques, increase their strengths and share their weaknesses, profit from their relationships with each other and with their pupils. Much of this valuable localised activity, however, remains localised for there has been little systematic attempt to document it. On the other hand, there had been an increasing amount of attention paid by others to teacher development. This includes the considerable 'action research' movement. The need, therefore, is to some extent being matched by the trend. In fact, teachers in Great Britain clearly receive a great deal of help from others, from academic researchers, course organisers and groups of schools. But teacher development appears to be particularly notable where their forces combine in common purpose. Thus institutions of higher education, university or LEA make provision for teacher training of certain kinds, the full benefit of which depends on peer and institutional support. There is an observable 'down loading' of responsibilities in these areas to schools and colleges in the UK. In Turkey, central authority still grips the controls thereby ignoring the need for ITT to develop a more regional and institutionally distinctive identity.

Generally, European perspectives on teacher policy in the next century is that they will need, more than ever before, people who are able to develop new creative ideas as they adapt to the pressures of new social processes. Modern technological advances are rapidly changing the distinctive
human contribution to economic development whilst established political systems face new stresses brought by the demands for greater flexibility and responsiveness.

Under these circumstances, Professor H Rigaux (1974) believes that the qualitative reforms of teaching can only succeed by raising the socio-economic status of teachers and by improving in-service programmes as well as initial training programmes for those who will be responsible for implementing important future innovations.

As many studies of teacher preparation programmes show that they emphasise two major components in teacher training: the theoretical academic component and the professional or practical component. Additionally, when the teacher trainee has completed his training he must be also be able to analyse, criticise and evaluate the ideological basis of his work. When we look at the programmes of teacher training today it can be seen that they are arranged in accordance with these components in an institution of teacher education.

As European social contexts change there is increasing pressure to change the role of teachers and to emphasise the importance of new teacher education programmes are well planned and properly financed, then we may expect, with some optimism, that the profession will respond positively to future challenges and perhaps become a creative innovative force. However, in the absence of coherent planning and adequate funding teachers may become helpless victims of the changes sweeping across Europe as well as many other countries. In considering the prospects for a new professionalism, such well-established units in the present system as the school, the class, the subject, the lesson, the teacher
and the textbook must become more flexible. The opening up of these units in response to the needs not only of the school, the subject and the student, but also those of society will produce a new teacher role.

The concept of teacher professionalism will thus be widened to include social and economic considerations in addition to traditional educational concerns. These mean that a more open and responsive model will become to be more useful for education. At the present time, however, teachers are not regarded as true professionals in many countries, and in the UK, A. Blyth traces back an 'elementary' school tradition deriving from Victorian Board Schools. The teaching profession is in a sociological sense a 'semi-profession', but when it is politic to do so all governments prefer to think of teachers as fully professional. A UK White Paper states:

'The goal is no less than building a body of teachers well prepared academically and professionally to sustain confidently the formidable task to which they are called: to guide each generation of children into a full appreciation of our culture, to quicken their social and moral awareness, to enhance their intellectual abilities to the highest standard of which each is capable and to develop their practical and human skills so that each may be able to make his or her own maximum contribution to the health, wealth and harmony of a democratic society.'

Commenting on this, Roger Straughan from the University of Reading, believes that there are basic conditions which determine a country's educational system and names geography as among the more important. On the other hand, the main criterion for success in teacher education he sees as school performance, although political and social criteria may also merit serious consideration. Straughan provides a review of the historical trends which have influenced training procedures for primary and secondary school teachers and clarifies the distinctive roles occupied by universities and training colleges in the scholastic system which is
reminiscent of many other countries. An important part of the programme of teacher preparation has been the formulation of job specific attitudes by procedures which have been integrated with other academic and practical courses.

However, teacher training is not always optimistic. The gaps between political activity, official reports, government recommendation and structural changes on the one hand, and the science of learning and instruction on the other, often seemed to be wider than ever.

In summary, whatever changes in the society, as Dr. D.M. Ruguzzoni (1977) has mentioned, within a new education system, teachers must also strive to become an integral part of the process of production and of the socio-economic life of the community, playing his role of education and socio-cultural animateur. The teacher must become an active member of the community; not an isolate but the stimulator of a new self-awareness and new values.

Teacher education is one of the most important parts of education systems. I shall now examine the structure and the content of initial secondary teacher education in England and Wales and then compare it with Turkish teacher education in this thesis.
CHAPTER 1

'But who must train my child? I have just told you, you should do it yourself. I cannot, you cannot, then find a friend. I see no other course. A tutor! What a noble soul! Indeed for the training of a man one must either be a father or more than a man.'

Jean Jacques Rousseau

THE EXPECTATIONS OF THE CHARACTERISTICS AND THE ROLE OF TEACHERS AS A PROFESSION

This chapter considers the expectations held by a society of what it means to be a teacher. Within this overall context, the roles, qualifications and personal dispositions of teachers are identified and described. A tension between the expectations of society and expectations of schools and educators is explored.

In recent years there has been an increasing emphasis on the development of new curricula in the sciences and social studies and the development of new models and strategies of teaching as well as a technology of instruction. These developments have been stimulated by a growing dissatisfaction with the traditional pre and in-service teacher education models and a belief that they are inadequate for preparing teachers for today's schools.

Generally when we look at the teacher education models from the historical aspect, traditional models of elementary and secondary teacher education systems leading to a teaching certificate are very similar throughout the world
The basic structure of these systems includes three components: academic preparation in the disciplines which the students will teach in the future; theoretical foundations of professional education, such as courses in philosophy and history of education, various courses in psychology and general and discipline-orientated method courses; student teaching or some form of internship.

There are variations in this basic structure. In many countries there have always been differences between the training of elementary and secondary teachers (Stones, 1979). The former were, and still are, trained in 'normal schools' or 'teachers' colleges'. The duration of studies in these institutions is between two and four years (the tendency to prolong this training to three or four years is a recent development throughout the world, aimed at raising the quality of teachers in elementary schools). On the other hand, the preparation of secondary teachers is carried out mainly in universities where graduates of liberal arts or science departments receive training in professional education which qualifies them for a teaching certificate. Specialisation in arts and science in most countries is done in the respective department which teaches the discipline to the general student body, without any particular emphasis on the special needs of the school system and prospective teachers.

Secondly, there are movements in education. Joyce (1975) and Joyce and Showers (1977), identify four major reform movements which had an impact on teacher education: progressive, academic, personalistic and competency. The progressive reform movement in teacher education emanated from the
social-orientated progressive reform movement in education. The leaders of this movement were John Dewey and his disciplines during the latter part of the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth century. Dewey perceived:

'Knowledge as ever-changing and the ideal society as an organisation of people would recognise this and work together to define and attack their most important problems.'

According to Joyce, the progressive movement saw as a creator of his culture and knowledge as emergent. Thus, the teacher was to lead children to identify and solve problems and learn how to create knowledge. In line with this concept the teacher's task was to organise the class as a democratic problem-solving group, a micro-democracy involved in problem solving through scientific methods so the teacher of the progressive reform movement had to be a problem solver whose methods of teaching were flexible.

These views on the role of the teacher were important to the development of teacher education. In particular the 'method courses' which previously:

'...emphasised what to teach and how to teach it ... because less systematic, more orientated toward emergent methodologies of teaching, and less towards the substance of the disciplines.
Science courses began to emphasise problem solving with materials gathered by the teacher and children. 'Recourse' units rather than structured curricula were presented to the young teacher and he was taught how to create units which would meet the particular needs of his students.' (Joyce, 1975).

This student-centred, problem-orientated, hypothesis-generating philosophy of education of the 'progressive' was based on the idea that life in all its forms
changes continuously and that education has to be revised just like the other parts of social life. It was without doubt a present and future-orientated movement which stressed the emergence of democracy (until 1930).

Thirdly, the academic reform movement in education came as a reaction to the progressive reform movement and can be related to the development of the curriculum reform movement which attracted senior scientists and scholars who were trying to reform the school systems from the mid-1950s until the 1960s. New centres for curricular development were established and scientists and professional educators teamed up in order to develop new curricula and materials. New teaching methods were stressed as the main tool for teaching and learning. According to Joyce, the thesis of the academic reform movement is that man is viewed as a scholar. Its approach to teacher education is direct - to re-train the teacher to think like a scholar and to 'practice the disciplines' with children. The movement tried to bring academia through to a level which could make it more understandable and accessible and thus enable more students to achieve academic scholarship. The teacher's task was to help these students reach this goal.

Due to this movement, secondary school teachers trained in universities today continue to study their subject matter in regular departments and thereafter to teach the old curriculum according to traditional methods. However, the curriculum reform movements initially focused on secondary education. In order for this movement to have greater impact, changes must be made in the content and methods of the subject matter taught to prospective teachers in teachers' colleges and universities.
The 'personalistic' reform movement focuses 'on the uniqueness and dignity of the individual' and gives us 'an idiosyncratic conception of teaching and learning'. The result de-emphasises 'any standardisation of learning outcomes and teacher competencies' and stress 'an emphatic, almost personal relationship between equals' (Joyce, 1975). In accordance with this movement, the teacher is not presumed to teach, but to provide an environment from which the learned can choose. The curriculum is not planned and the teacher helps the student to decide and set-up his goals. An extreme example of this concept is Neill's (1960) Summerhill School which avoids imposing on the student and gives primacy to his emotional life.

If the student is unique, what of the teacher? The teacher educator who emphasises the uniqueness of the child and the importance of his emotions must do the same for the teacher. His education, too, has to be a process of freeing his personality and helping to develop himself on his own terms. The act of teaching has to be seen as an interaction between two selves, teacher and learner, neither superior nor inferior, in which the more experienced serves as the gentlest sort of guide (Joyce, 1975).

As Joyce writes in his analysis of the personalistic movement, the best teacher education, then, is an environment conducive to self-actualisation for two reasons which interact with each other. It is the best way to help him learn how to help others so that to train a teacher one must help him develop firstly an adequate self; secondly, reliable ways of perceiving others and their goals; and thirdly, the ability to learn substance when it is needed.
From a psychological point of view, with regard to this movement, what personal qualities of a teacher are expected?

1. the teacher's personality should be pleasantly live and attractive because school children probably suffer more from bores than from brutes.

2. It is essential for a teacher to have a genuine capacity for sympathy. It is closely related to capacity for tolerance.

3. It is also essential for a teacher to be both intellectually and morally honest.

4. A teacher must be quick to adapt himself to any situation.

5. A teacher must be capable of infinite patience for this s/he would have self-discipline and self-training.

6. The teacher should always have the kind of mind which always wants something more to learn.

7. The teacher should be a bit of an actor.

Arriving at these aims depends on the teacher training and how the curriculum of the training is designed and implemented. It can be judged that these teacher qualities are common and they do not change.
It is essential to note, however, that in some cases all three movements discussed above had some impact on a single educational system, be it on a school or teacher education programme. On the other hand, some teacher educators prefer an eclectic approach by which they choose the best elements or at least those which seem feasible to adapt from each of the movements. Thus, it is possible to find today a growing number of teacher education programmes which are based on the traditional model while still embracing features of each of the above-mentioned reform movements and others (Stones, 1979).

In addition, as Gagne and Winne (1975) have suggested:

'The competency performer based teacher education movement (CBTE, PTBE) is teacher training in which the prospective or in-service teacher acquires, to a specified degree, performance tendencies and capabilities that promote student achievement of educational objectives.'

Teacher performance refers to observable behaviours, both verbal (oral and written) and non-verbal. 'Tendencies' refers to what the teacher typically does in the average or normal teaching situation. 'Capabilities' refers to what the teacher is able to do when trying his best. Both tendencies and capabilities are assessed in terms of an explicitly stated level of mastery so that if the teacher does not perform at or above this level, he is considered to be inadequately trained. Both the performance tendencies and capabilities are selected and defined with reference to their effects on student achievement. The student achievement is used here to refer to educational objectives of all kinds - cognitive, social-emotional and psychomotor.
According to Gagne and Winne the CBTE model was based upon the application of behavioural psychology to training in industrial and military environments. The sort of training evolved commenced with a detailed and systematic analysis of the behaviour to be learned. This resulted in the specification of a host of integrally related, less complex behaviours. These were then modelled for the trainee who practised them. Corrective feedback followed the performance of the trainee who then practised again. The cycle was repeated until mastery was achieved. Finally, the component behaviours were integrated. The behaviour was shaped until it approximated the criterion behaviour. They could be applied to professional education in any other field. But CBTE/PBTE are not unique to teacher education. One of the criticisms from Berliner (1975) is that the heart of the performance and competency based approaches to teacher education, teacher evaluation and teacher accountability has to be the empirically established relationship between teacher behaviour as an independent variable and student cognitive and effective outcome as dependent variables. The role of the teacher is being minimised in accounting for educational outcomes.

Nevertheless, the dominant factor in teacher education during the last decade has been CBTE/PBTE (Ryan, 1975) and many educators believe that every student of teacher education must consider this next approach and concur with Gagne and Winne, who state that the gains achieved by the PBTE movement take the form of framing the problems of education in ways which the tools of the behavioural sciences can be more effectively applied.

In contrast, there are also a number of recent changes in the social context that have implications for education in general, and the potential development of
parents as teachers in particular, as well as changes in communication and information systems, knowledge explosion already through many homes.

For example, television viewed at home becomes a competitive rather than a complementary source of culture. Thereafter, there have been one or two recent educational developments that have involved home in a rather systematic way as a learning resource and base. The first example is that of the Open University. Here learning at home is a key idea. The resources of the home, television and radio, are taken into the network of learning experiences and the postal service used as a major means of communication. The learning experiences are to some extent open to other members of the family to share if so desired. For this reason 'flexistudy' enables students to study at home in their own time and at their own pace. The students come to colleges from time-to-time to meet tutors and to use any college resources that they need (Maigham, 1979). On the other hand, schooling as a social institution lies very close to the value core of society. Schools are dominated by the mainstream culture values and the traditional practices for schooling the young. For instance, any great deviation immediately stimulates a negative reaction, frequently a severe one. Thus, most schools are variations on the basic cultural theme and do not stray very far from the centre of the norms. The purpose of teacher education is to provide a personnel for schools. The normative process of schooling within the cultures probably represents the dominant view of man, that is the most comfortably held by most members of society. So both schooling and the process of educating the teacher have been well co-ordinated with respect to the culture (Joyce, 1979). However, it seems that schools and teacher education programmes in the industrial society are most commonly based on an economic conception of
It is worth noting Alvin Toffler's (1970) views here that school, in form, structure and substance as perfectly suited for the requirement of the early industrial society. Mass education was the ingenious machine constructed by industrialism to produce the kind of adults it needed. The problem was inordinately complex. How to pre-adapt children for a new world - a world of repetitive indoor toil, smoke, noise machines, crowded living conditions, collective discipline, a world in which time was to be regulated not by the cycle of sun and moon, but by the factory whistle and the clock. The solution was an educational system that is very structured and simulated this new world. The school child simply learned facts that he could use later on; he lived, as well as learned, a way of life modelled after the one he would lead in the future. Thus, in the industrial society, teacher education was (beautifully) crafted to fit the industrial conception of man (Ryan, 1975). In the first place nearly all teachers were upward, mobile and consequently very much locked into the whole system. Persons who are successfully raising their social position are rarely radical.
CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

The inter-relationship between educational ideas, educational structures and social organisations is a matter of concern to all those working in the field of education. Moreover, the relationship between educational ideas and educational structures needs to be understood.

From an international aspect, societies seem to have closer relationships and become more similar in terms of their socio-economic and educational systems day by day. The importance of social sciences, technology and natural science has provided us with a mechanism whose progressive application promotes coherence. It appears that there is not a single branch of mankind that has not been touched by this mechanism, and which has not become linked to the rest of mankind through the universal nexus (context) of modern consumerism. It is not the mark of provincialism both of cosmopolitanism to recognise that what has emerged in the last few centuries is something like a 'true' global culture. This culture centres around technologically driven economic growth and the capitalist social relations required to produce and sustain it.

Societies which have sought to resist this unification and have fought rearguard actions which have lasted for only a few generations. However, few societies in the world do not now embrace the goal itself. International goals seem to be very similar because of the strong influence of the globalising of social life. In this context, education systems inevitably change with cultural, economical and social changes. In this way schools are often reorganised in terms of reformed social structures.
Politically, all democracies demand common public education because it is an essential feature of democratic behaviour, e.g. voting at elections. To educate people suggests a wide variety of 'aims' or 'goals', but a common factor to them all is the idea of developing desirable qualities in the people concerned. However, there is no general consensus about which desirable qualities it should be the purpose of education to foster. Discussions concerning the aims of education are attempts, primarily, to specify more precisely what qualities it is thought desirable for education to develop. Any list of desirable qualities is not endless. There is some limit what might count as an 'educational' end, since the concept of education also involves the development of knowledge and understanding. It is also implied that this understanding should not be too narrowly specialised (Hirst and Peters, 1970).

In this context, there does not seem to be national formula for dealing with particular situations. Socially, priorities vary between one society and another but also between social classes in a society or social groups, between schools, pupils, even within the same class in a school. Consequently, each educational institution must identify its priorities for itself.

Generally speaking, there are similarities among societies in terms of the functions of education, especially in most developed societies. These functions may usually be attributed to education. They are listed here:

- The political function; this may be looked in two ways: there is firstly the need to provide political leaders at all levels of a democratic society and, secondly, there is the demand that
education should help to preserve the system of government by ensuring loyalty to it.

• The function of social selection; the educational system is central to the processes by which the more able are sorted out of the population as a whole.

• The transmission of the culture of society; here the need is basically the conservative one of passing on the main patterns of society through the schools.

• The provision of innovators; someone must initiate the social change that is necessary for a society to survive under modern conditions. Such change may be, for example, technical, political or artistic.

• The economic function; here the need is that all levels of the labour force should be provided with the quantity and quality of educated manpower required under current technical conditions.

The last item seems to become the most important function of education in any society today. It is the reality that most societies are deeply concerned to achieve economic growth. They believe that everything in a society depends on how much their economics succeed. Therefore, education must play a central part in developing economic growth. From the economic point of view, as Hall and Lowerys (1976) have pointed out, if education is to be regarded as a 'consumer item' it has to be responsive to consumer demand. It seems that decentralised control makes this possible because the education system is run under market conditions. An
An educational market is created. If education is to be seen as a social service, central government may then be expected to provide most of the funds. It can explain its policy in terms of social usefulness and respond to suggestions for improving this usefulness. However, it is worth repeating that many societies and their administrations fail to distinguish between a social service and a consumer item. This justification allows them to administer the service as though it were a consumer item, but with 'experts' to decide what the consumer wants.

As societies become industrialised, the education system becomes inextricably bound up with economics; the economy financing education and education producing the manpower recruits for the economy. On a wider level, if education is seen as a socialising institution responsible for passing on the values and culture of a society to each new generation, then education makes substantial contributions to the maintenance of society itself.

Nevertheless, as societies industrialised, education became a separate institution in its own right with its own values, goals and techniques so that it becomes almost impossible to say that there is one idea of a school in a society. For instance, the position taken here is that the following five assumptions underline most British people's ideas of what a school is:

- a school should be a powerful agent of socialisation;
- a school should have independence and individuality;
- a school should be small enough to have a common purpose; and under one head;
- a school should mould character;
- a school should transmit a definite set of values.
Hence, the implementation of any particular approach will depend largely on the general social and political climate which, in turn, can be influenced by a variety of factors.

Economic stability, prosperity and success will depend on the attitudes and characteristics of those who make political decisions. Influence exerted by organisations such as the universities, teachers and local authorities on those decisions. Wise policy making and rational action require that each group exposes, examines and seeks to understand dispassionately its own distortions and those of other groups. By taking a number of key concepts in education, contrasting definitions and interpretations will be analysed to assess their essential similarities and, at the same time, their crucial points of difference. A similar analysis will then be made of the various approaches to school structure and organisation to see how these are related to the definitions of basic concepts.

Thus, although there is and will continue to be disagreement on the ultimate aims and implementations of an approach for education, it is possible to build up a discourse within which the opposing factions can communicate and discuss without ambiguity.

With regard to teacher education, it is expected that effective teachers are people who are:

1 continually aware of these issues of purpose and are willing to think through;

2 to engage actively in the effort to formulate a definition of purpose;
to encourage the belief that the more attention that is focused on
the problem, the more likely it is that working solutions in the
school can be found;

There are different approaches to teacher education. Often contrasting
implications for the process of teacher education, parallel approaches in
the schools. As far as the process of education is concerned, each approach
contains implicit conceptions in terms of the desirable qualifications of
qualified teacher. These approaches have similarities as well as
differences. They are, in terms of models:

1 apprenticeship;
2 personal;
3 academic;
4 professional;
5 structured functionalist;
6 Marxist;
7 skills;
8 reflective.

Each approach puts one or more factors forward as more important and to
be considered as a priority. Practice as a teacher assumes a core of
specialised knowledge, skills and attitudes and that relatively high levels
of qualification are needed to be a teacher. Who defines this basis of
knowledge and skill is difficult to say. However, in the most
industrialised countries today, power is usually delegated to the colleges
and universities responsible for the initial and further teacher education.
Despite the various approaches, it is possible to identify two distinct and contrasting approaches to teacher education. Obviously this oversimplifies the complexity of educational opinion, but enables analysis to be achieved.

a) Idealist And Progressive Approaches

The first approach is classed 'idealistic', the second 'progressive'. Idealist educationalists think that the purpose is to equip students with essential skills such as reading, spelling, arithmetic and to ensure that student teachers are acquainted with necessary information. They consider that it is important to discipline in certain intellectual achievements to mould their characters to a desirable shape and to instil respect for learning and scholarship. According to this approach, student teachers should be taught the social values and goals. Education is character training detached, self-disciplined rigorous scholar. Such an 'idealistic' concept of education requires that education remains a lynch pin of culture, quality and excellence, scholarship and learning should command the highest respect. Idealists see the main function of education as the passing on to each new generation of the best of the established and growing culture of their fathers. Such an interpretation of the 'educated man' contains implicit assumptions as to the nature of man, society and of the nature of knowledge and its genesis.

The second is the 'progressive approach'. Such a view believes that the main function of education to be the training of the young for the new culture of the future. The meaning of education is 'growth' or the development of individual potentialities. Progressives stress that teaching must be child-centred rather than subject-centred. The curriculum is
based on the needs and interests of children. These should be determined by the importance and significance of what is taught. Student teachers should be trained how to provide and organise the facilities and the learning environment for children to learn through experience. Thus, methods are only educative if they involve learning from experience rather than the students being told things and of the student discovers rather than merely listens.

Briefly, 'education for life', 'child-centred education,' 'the integrated curriculum' are all progressive aims just as 'academic excellence' and the 'maintenance of standards' are idealist aims. Both idealists and progressives think that student teachers should be trained in order to organise their own approaches. In theory, there are so many possible lines of approach to teacher education, it seems meaningless to describe any one set of ideas as progressive or idealist, for this would simply mean that supporters consider themselves better than others is self evident. It remains to decide who make the choices between the alternatives, who is influential in this respect and on that bases decisions are taken.

There are also a number of different explanations of the appeal of different interpretations of teacher education to various sections of the population. In an important sense neither have fully come to terms with the new phenomenon of mass education, either in economic, pedagogical or philosophical terms.

Nevertheless, it is important to hold on to the knowledge-ideal, skills and high standards and to ensure that they are preserved within a system of mass education. Here the role of the teacher revolves around all three goals: the development of the student in ways which are meaningful to
him, the maintenance and the furthering of knowledge-ideal and the transmission of values and the socialisation of the student in terms of the expectations of society.

However, the difficulty of ascribing 'needs', 'values', 'socialisation', 'demands', or 'outcomes' to teacher education has been acknowledged by some researchers and the attempt abandoned. Instead, they suggest the 'outcomes' and 'goals' as perceived by participants as the starting point for analysis. This approach is generally known as social action enables an analysis to be made of motivations of teachers and pupils directed to non-system ends. It is possible to relate the consequences of any action to the ends pursued by different groups rather than to any reified education system. But, the notion of interaction as a sophistication of the simple action model enables a certain amount of reconciliation to be made between action and system approaches. The action approach is often presumed to be a recent trend, though rooted in the work of a classical sociologist such as Weber. According to Weber (1947) in 'The Theory Social and Economic Organisation' the notion of action plays a central part as one of the fundamental concepts of sociology. A defining characteristic of action, for Weber, is its meaningfulness. The sense in which he used the term was primarily to refer any particular behaviour to the purpose or aim of a hypothetical actor. This is the rational type of action and although Weber does not confine himself to this type, he uses it as a starting point so that other types can be understood in terms of their deviation from the rational patterns.

Applying this to comparative education in terms of structure, curriculum, management, policy-making, this approach enables the analysis of the fundamental nature of teacher education. It also enables us to find out
what are the differences and the similarities in implementations of two or more teacher education theories in different countries. There is, of course, a clear difference between what exactly is happening in real situations and what those, engaged in the process, think is happening.

b) Research Perspective

For teacher education there are varying approaches. I have chosen 'competency-based approach' or a 'performance-based' as one means of investigation, using the example as the means to raise collective issues.

In changing times, changing conditions, unchanging educational institutions are anomalous. As W.R. Houston (1972) claims, competence-based education promises the thrust necessary for adaptation to meet the challenge of a changed and changing society. Such change must be planned in systematic terms, dealing simultaneously with all of the elements that comprise the total system-teacher-education institutions, prospective and inservice teachers, the school certification agencies, professional education organisations, community groups and the public. The emphasis in competency-based teacher education on objectives, accountability and personalisation implies specific criteria, careful evaluation, change based on feedback and relevant programmes for the modern era. B. Bernstein (1970) claims in the same context that

'We need to change from concern with learning standard operations tied to specific contexts, to the exploring of principles'.

This implies a change in teacher education as well as a change in the teacher's role from teacher as solution giver to teacher as problem poser,
from teacher training curricula as static structure to curricula as wide, flexible and comprehensive curricula.

Competence ordinarily is defined as 'adequacy for a task' or as a 'possession of required knowledge, skills and abilities'. In this broad sense, it is clear that any mode of instruction aims for competence - for development of well-qualified individuals who possess the required knowledge and skills.

Two characteristics are essential to the concept of competency-based instruction. First, precise learning objectives - defined in behavioural and assessable terms - must be known to learner and teacher alike. This approach begins with identification of the specific competencies that are the objectives of the learner. These objectives are stated in behavioural terms. Means are specified for determining whether the objectives have been met. Both learner and teacher are fully aware of the expectations and of the criteria for completing the learning effort. From a variety of alternative learning activities, those most appropriate to the specific objectives are selected and pursued. The second essential characteristic is accountability. The learner knows that he is expected to demonstrate the specified competencies to the required level and in the agreed-upon manner. He accepts responsibility and expects to be held accountable for meeting the established criteria. One consequence of the approach is that the focus for evaluation or accountability is shifted to the individual's attainment of a set of objectives. Another important consequence is that the emphasis shifts from the teacher and the teaching process to the learner and the learning process. Many learning experiences are included in the traditional curriculum because they fit the expertise or the needs of the instructor. Competency-based programmes, emphasising objectives
and personalisation, focus on the needs and accomplishments of the student.

As in all professions, this preparation involves, on the one hand, the acquisition of knowledge and the ability to apply it, on the other, the development of the needed repertoire of critical behaviour, and skills can be identified, they thus become competency objectives for the teacher education programme. The criteria for performance are derived from these objectives.

Learning objectives commonly are classified to one of the five kinds of criteria that may be applied in assessing performance.

1 Cognitive objectives specify knowledge and intellectual abilities or skills that are to be demonstrated by the learner. In teacher education, such objectives may include the knowledge of subject matter to be taught, the knowledge of professional matter (pedagogical subject matters), ability to analyse curriculum programmes, and so forth.

2 Performance objectives require the demonstrate an ability actually to perform some activity. He must not only know what should be done, but must demonstrate his ability to do it. Prospective teachers may be required to ask higher-order questions, to build and support self-images, to construct evaluation designs or curriculum programmes, or to develop instructional models.

3 Consequences and objectives are expressed in terms of the results of the learner's actions. In teacher education, such objectives usually
are expressed in terms of the accomplishments of the student under direction of the teacher trainee.

4 Affective objectives deal with the realm of attitudes, values, beliefs and relationships.

5 Exploratory objectives (also called experience or expressive objectives) do not fit fully within the category of behavioural objectives because they lack a definition of desired outcomes. These objectives specify activities that hold promise for significant learning, they require the learner to experience the specified activity.

All five of these kinds of objectives are used in competency-based teacher education. Those employed at any time are chosen on the basis of the nature of the competencies required, the available assessment means, and other situational factors (I will give more details on this approach in the next few chapters).

From this approach point of view, the structures of teacher curricula can be divided into four main categories: the knowledge of specific-subject matters, the knowledge of cultural-subject matters, professional (pedagogical) knowledge and teaching practice (school experience).

I now examine British teacher training and the Turkish system so as to compare the differences and similarities in both systems from the theoretical perspective of competency-based teacher education.
CHAPTER 3
THE AIM OF THIS RESEARCH

There are two main aims of this comparative research: first it is to answer the question 'what is the state of teacher education like in both Turkey and Britain. What do we know about each system? Secondly, the aim of collecting information about the teacher education systems of Turkey and Britain may be directed towards problem-solving and policy making. Another important consequence (it is hoped) is that there may be features that are worth borrowing for introduction into one, or another, or both systems. I now address the development and history of teacher education in England and Wales.
CHAPTER 4
THE HISTORY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES

Having in Chapter one examined the inter-relationship between society and schools, this chapter focuses on the History and Development of Teacher Training in England and Wales. The gradual extension of aspirations and ideals for what was expected of a good teacher is placed against the gradual but steady rise in the quality of teacher training.

Teacher training is changing. Because of changes in social economic, political and technological areas, societies have been putting more and more pressures on teacher training systems to change in line with increasing expectations. Whilst these changes bring advantages to teacher education, they also cause structural stress.

Therefore, we need to examine the development of teacher education from its origins to know how much has changed. Change does not mean a development which is totally positive. Nevertheless, the changes of teacher education at each stage historically are useful to take into consideration the education system as a whole. Collingwood points out:

'... history and science and so forth are 'modes' of experience. Experience is modified by arresting it at a certain point and then using the point of arrest as a fixed postulate, or category, constructing an 'education of ideas' in terms of that postulate. However, it is not only coherent in itself, it is a way of representing as a whole one of the experimental ways which can be seen the right things to do by that.' (Collingwood, 1986)
CHAPTER 5

THE BACKGROUND OF INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING IN ENGLAND AND WALES

The systematic training of school teachers did not begin in Britain until the nineteenth century, although gestures towards it were made in the eighteenth, notably by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (SPCK) founded by members of the Church of England in 1669 to combat 'the growth of vice and debauchery, especially among the poorest sort' (Dent, 1977).

The principal means adopted by SPCK was the provision of 'charity' schools designed to help parents 'desirous of having their children taught.' In these schools children learned to read the Bible and memorise the Church of England liturgy. They might also be taught handwriting and the boys a little arithmetic, the girls plain needlework. As the aim of the charity schools was the salvation of souls rather than the nurture of minds, the SPCK did not look so much for scholarship in its teachers, as for religious orthodoxy and moral probity.

Descriptions of the life and work at Battersea are given in most histories of English education. What is most important is to appreciate the aims and ideals of its founder. The key to understanding these is to realise that Shuttleworth (and Tufnell) thought of elementary school teachers primarily as Christian missionaries. Their training had to be rooted in religion.
'no skill can compensate adequately for the absence of a pervading religious influence on the character and conduct of schoolmasters' (Green et al, 1861).

In brief, the society wanted communicant members of the Anglican Church, twenty-five years old or more, 'of sober life and conversation' and 'meek temper and humble behaviour'. Until the end of the eighteenth century it seems to have been a training in content rather than method.

The first formal training college for teachers in the whole of Britain was founded by David Stow in Glasgow in 1837 and the first Chairs in Education in Great Britain were established at the universities of Edinburgh and St. Andrews in 1976 (Lynch, 1979). Scotland has also had a national system of teacher education since 1924 and professional training for graduates has been compulsory for over eighty years. In these, as many other ways, education in Scotland has demonstrated a strongly separate tradition, often more vigorous, professional and efficient than in England and Wales and in the field of teacher education, more unified and prestigious. Thus, the assumption of many English educationalists that education in Scotland has tended to lead the slower tempo by England. From this aspect, legally, the English and Scottish traditions of teacher education are far apart. Scottish educational legislation is separate from England's and her system of teacher education, administered by the Scottish Education Department, established in 1972, has separate statutes and regulations and different commitments and organisational and curricula systems from those dominant in England. The Secretary of State in Scotland has a direct responsibility for the training of teachers.
An interesting point is that In-service training of teachers has been in existence longer than initial training itself. During the first half of the nineteenth century there was often no clear line of demarcation between the two. The training of monitors and teachers of first year pupil teachers was both initial and In-service. Students were shown the best in practice and remained dominant throughout the nineteenth century with every college having its own 'model' school.

Before the 1840s in England and Wales, there were no training colleges in the modern sense. The pioneers, who in the 1840s created the English training college, took over several important features which the training schools had evolved: an academic qualification for entry, a course comprising concurrently general education and professional training of final examination and a period of probationary teaching before the award of the Teacher's Certificate. They also adopted the principle that training colleges should be residential.

Further radical changes followed in the first decade of the twentieth century. The 1902 Education Act sanctioned the provision of training colleges by statutory bodies. By the out-break of the 1914-18 war there were twenty local education authorities (LEAs) and the number of students in training had been doubled (Lynch, 1979).

The college staff worked to make something worthwhile out of such indifferent material. They gave their students inordinately long hours of study in a vast range of subjects. Typically: Religious Knowledge, Church History, English Grammar, English Literature, History, Geography,
Arithmetic, Algebra, Drawing, Music with occasionally some educational theory and invariably much school practice. Inevitably academic study was reduced to information, memorisation and regurgitation. It might be argued that present aspects of the National Curriculum bring back this unpromising methodology.

The system in colleges had been discussed and changed in 1977 (Hewett, 1977). At this time the curriculum of teacher training consisted almost exclusively of academic subjects, among which Psychology, or the principles of learning, found a place in some colleges. Students spent several hours a week observing or teaching in the colleges' demonstration or practising 'model' school, and once a week endured the dreaded ritual of the 'criticism' lesson when they taught classes in front of the children, fellow students and the staff and were publicly criticised by them. There were also annual examinations which were in two parts: professional subjects, academic subjects included Reading and Recitation, School Management and (second year only) teaching a class. Female students were also examined in Needlework and Domestic Economy and any student could do Music. The second one comprised a core of compulsory subjects, i.e. English Language and Literature, English History, Geography and Arithmetic. Amongst the optional were six foreign languages, the physical and biological sciences and political economy. Most students prepared themselves for examination by memorising lecture notes and passages from text books, a method which had one merit only: there were few failures. In 1882 there were none.

It is very interesting that HMI and diocesan inspectors declared that:
'a training college ought to be a home; you ought to have the students all through the twenty four hours in order to form their personal habits.' (Cross Commission, 1887).

The training of teachers for secondary schools did not really get off the ground until the last quarter of the nineteenth century, although dated instances occurred earlier.

In 1887 a conference discussed not whether but how the training of teachers for secondary schools should be conducted. They opted for a consecutive patterns: three years of study leading to a degree, followed by one year of professional training. This became, and has remained, the standard pattern.

As has already been noted, during the nineteenth century, only elementary school teachers were trained and most of them received only a minimum of training as pupil teachers. A small number were fortunate enough to gain places in training colleges. They were residential and most of which were denominational. Even the training provided by the colleges was considered by many contemporary educationalists to be 'narrow', mechanical and illiberal. On the other hand, secondary school teachers, most of whom were men working in private schools, almost without exception declined to associate themselves with such training.

This state of affairs began to change as a result of the Report of the Cross Commission of 1888, which tentatively suggested that the universities should interest themselves in the training of elementary school teachers. The universities rapidly took advantage of this for it provided them with a regular supply of students paid for out of public funds. Although no grants
were available at the time for those who wished to train as secondary school teachers, the universities trained elementary school teachers.

After the Education Act of 1902 and the issuing in 1908 of a regulation which permitted the allocation of grants for secondary training, the university departments of education, as they were coming to be called, increasingly concentrated on the training of graduates for secondary schools. Although, at the time of the McNair Report of 1944, as many as 60% of those trained in universities were finding work in the senior grades of elementary schools.

When secondary education was recognised as a result of the 1944 Education Act, the university trained teacher mostly found work in secondary schools, especially grammar schools. (Bernbaum et al, 1982). In addition, by 1944, the introduction of the four-year course was ultimately to transform the day training colleges into university departments devoted almost exclusively to training teachers for secondary schools.

From the freedom and responsibility point of view, it is dangerous to generalise about life and work in the training institutions between 1919 and 1939. The variety was great. One trend, however, stands out. Demands from the academic staff for more freedom in the management of their professional affairs were paralleled by moves among students to get rid of authoritarian discipline and secure a responsible share in the organisation and conduct of student activities. Three main issues dominated curricula and teaching methods, especially in the colleges at that time:
1) The debate about the balance between academic and professional studies;
2) this trend stimulated 'practical' subjects in schools;
3) the growing conviction that schooling should be 'child-centred', not 'subject-centred', and that, therefore, child study should be a principle preoccupation of training colleges (Patrick, et al, 1982).

The Second World War, like the First, hit the men's training colleges hard, though not so severely. By 1942-3, the worst year, the number of their students was under one quarter of the 1938-9 figure. Much more material damage was done to college buildings by enemy action than during the First World War.

Planning for post-war reform began as early as 1941. In that year the Board of Education sent to a large number of organisations 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. In 1944, the McNair Report was published concerning the organisation of teacher training. In June 1949 NACTSTC (the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers) published in 1949. It said:

1) prospective teachers need three years' training if they were to be the mature, well educated and highly skilled teachers demanded by the 1944 Education Act;
2) the three years should form a continuous period of training, planned as a whole;
3) the three year course should be introduced everywhere simultaneously;
4) the early years of the 1960s would offer a particularly favourable, and possibly unique, opportunity for its introduction;
5) the colleges in each university's Institute or Department of Education should be formed into a School of Education.

The Committee added three further recommendations calculated to raise the status of the colleges:

1) they should have independent governing bodies;
2) they should be financed by ear-marked grants made through their universities;
3) they should provide three year courses leading to a degree as well as the Certificate. This Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) degree would be awarded by the university with which a college was associated.

In summary, the post-war period saw the development of what has been called the foundation disciplines of education - History, Philosophy, Sociology and Psychology. (Tibble, 1966). A more recent trend has been to reduce the fragmentation by distinguishing the empirical approaches (Psychology and Sociology) from those which are of particular significance in the areas of
judgement (History and Philosophy). In particular, the study of behaviour in school learning situations is neither purely psychological nor purely sociological. It can be studied with all the rigour normally used in the pursuit of academic disciplines but in a professional context. Similarly, the study of History and Philosophy, particularly in relation to the background against which a choice of aims and objectives for a school curriculum is made, has been shown to be highly pertinent. It would appear that two approaches, the empirical and the evaluative, are in some cases replacing the four separate foundation disciplines of Psychology, Sociology, Philosophy and History.

The most significant development from these advances is that education studies are now increasingly regarded as capable of being studies in an orderly and disciplined way. They are now being taught in universities, especially as a subsidiary or joint honours subject, even to students who have no particular ambition to teach.

It could be said that educational studies have begun the march towards academic respectability already trodden by Politics, Economics and, more recently, Sociology. Like them they draw upon prior disciplines; like them they also have something distinctively their own. This addition to the university's curriculum was made possible only because of the work of colleges of education. The university departments of education had as their 'base' the one-year graduate study. Educational Studies, as a subject of study, appear prominently in teacher education and training (James, 1972). It is seen as part of an honours degree course like other Social Sciences (Politics, Religious Studies, Economics etc).
In summing up, after Victorian and Edwardian idealism, the one thing which seems clear to the so-called ‘progressive’ is that things needed changing, even when it was not at all clear why, and even less certain towards what ends change had to move. The same situation inevitably throws up its share of traditionalists who in any case see virtue in preserving much of what seemed to them to have been worthwhile in formerly accepted values; attitudes and institutional forms, and more so when the demand for change stems from no clear and positive alternative ideals - individual or social. The dominant values of English education were characterised by William Taylor in the late 1960s as those of social and literary romanticism. Since Taylor wrote his study of English teacher education, however, those values he identified have been substantially eroded. The romantic infrastructure of teacher education has been increasingly challenged as bureaucratic forms of control have been extended first of all in response to increase in size and then to the imperatives of rapid construction and increasing structural differentiation. In many cases this has involved, for teacher education, amalgamation into institutions where the dissemination of rationality as a highly valued goal in modern industrial societies is now daily endorsed.

After 1972, the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) also began validating B.Ed degrees in June 1973 jointly appointed a study group to draw up guidelines for a new Bachelor of Education degree. The group's report, published in May 1974, said that the degree proposed would differ from existing B.Ed's in that:

'It will be designed ... as a course of higher education in which the initial training of a teacher is integrated, rather than being based on qualification through the certificate in Education course.'
The degree, for which candidates would be accepted on the same basis as for other undergraduate courses, would be validated by both universities and the CNAA.

In 1972 the Open University (OU) also began to train school teachers. If students chose the OU course, they could either spend three years in college, acquiring five of the six 'credits' required for passing the degree, and obtaining the sixth credit by part-time study while teaching or spend four years in college securing the eight credits needed for an honours degree.

In summary, during the last 1960s there arose a widespread demand for a thorough investigation of the education and training of teachers in England and Wales. There were some critics who felt that the entire system was out-of-date, that the ATOs were ineffective, the governors of the colleges were authoritarian, the teaching poor, the curriculum irrelevant to the work of schools and the standard of the teacher certificate low.

It is important to note that at this time in a White Paper entitled Education: A framework for Expansion was published in December 1972 which stated that the government accepted the six objectives from the results of the Committee's enquiry. They found:

1) a large and systematic expansion of in-service training;

2) a planned reinforcement of the process of induction;

3) the progressive achievement of all graduate professions;
4) the improvement of the training of teachers in further education;

5) the whole-hearted acceptance of the colleges of education into the family of higher education institutions;

6) improved arrangements for the control and co-ordination of teacher training and supply, both nationally and regionally.

Thus, on 1st January 1976, after lengthy and vigorous debate, the system of teacher education and training which had endured nearly two centuries ended. Throughout that long period the training college curriculum and the methods employed to apply it, though progressively altered and improved in detail, remained basically the same. The system had many defects, but it was not without its virtues.

In the last decade the issues of teacher education and teacher professionalisation have become of prime concern to policy makers both in and outside of the teaching profession world-wide as well as in England and Wales. The Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education was established in 1983 to monitor the quality of teacher training within colleges of higher education, polytechnics and university departments of education. In addition, English and Welsh teacher training has been changed by the Education Act of 1988 and the National Curriculum which was set up by the central government for primary and secondary schools during this period.
Teacher education has always faced a series of social, political and financial see-saws which have emphasised its ambiguity and accentuated its vulnerability. Poised between university and school, central and local government, and, more recently, between the two sides of a binary system of higher education, a choice of validating bodies and commitment to academic standards and vocational expertise. However, there is now a much greater readiness to conceptualise teacher education as a multi-stage process which takes time for preparing for specialised roles. It is also being recognised that teachers constitute an important client group, not merely for courses and programmes in education as such, but for many other kinds of post-experiences and continuing education.

The government and control of teacher education in the 1980s is very different from a decade ago. Public sector institutions have moved closer to the traditional university pattern in which academic authority is vested in the Academic Board of Senate, to which report the Boards of faculties or other departmental groupings. Such democratisation, if it encourages participation, also exacts a cost in terms of time, delayed decision making, bureaucracy and a sharpening of internal politics.

Therefore, it may by said that teacher training in England and Wales has been changing from a classical, traditional and theoretical system of teacher education towards a scientific, rational and pragmatic system. The pragmatic system is concerned with reflecting on the educational system so that the research and analysis of experiences in student attachment to schools illustrate the complexity of the issues of partnership arising from attempts to improve the practical experiences of student teachers and the quality of their
practical teaching. The programme of attachments was developed within a framework of institutional freedom in professional matters and the value of variety and experiment in the curriculum of teacher education (DES, 1983) well before the advent of Circular 3/84 (26) and the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE), which require close partnerships between schools and teacher education institutions. The recent context and the nature of state intervention in education in England and Wales have been the focus of a number of analyses (Ashier and Flude, 1983; Lowton, 1984; Salter and Tapper, 1981; Taylor, 1984). In itself, tightening central government control of the agencies and institutions responsible for curriculum planning, provision and evaluation amounts to a re-assertion of state powers which were devolved, particularly in the period spanning the middle part of this century. A recent, sudden and rapid surge of intervention in the development of policy for the curriculum of teacher education is, however, exceptional and is reflected in a proliferation of government documents issued since 1980 and in the advent of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) involved in 1984 as a monitoring body for the approval of all teacher education courses. There is a good partnership between the training institutions and education authorities as well as strong links between government authorities (LEAs) and schools and its action in relation to teacher education today.

I now turn to examine government policy for teacher education in England and Wales.
CHAPTER 6

GOVERNMENT POLICY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES

In earlier parts we have reviewed expectations and inter-relationships existing between society, schools and the teacher. This chapter examines how teacher training policy is considered, applied and developed. The vocational, as well as the social and cultural aspects, are described and analysed.

SOME PRELIMINARIES

Education is a personal process. It implies an acquisition of self knowledge and of what is generally called abstract learning. But it is also a social and political process, wherein people organise themselves into groups and endeavour to communicate the skills necessary to their own survival or the survival of the next generation. It is, in fact, a community enterprise when properly conceived and conducted. By a community it means a group which thinks of itself as having shared neighbourhood or regional responsibilities and interests: a county, an educational service unit, a township, a political or educational subdivision. It also means a group tied together by a shared system of usages, the boundaries of which may or may not coincide with a political subdivision: usages such as those of a language, dialect, ethnic tradition, religious tradition, custom, racial, identity, expressive form, or pattern of family and precept for rearing.

From this point of view, it is worth noting that Talcott Parsons has mentioned that one aspect of the teacher's socialisation attachment is to
his family. A second is associated with the central importance of ensuring an acceptable differentiation of the school class along an achievement axis. A third is concerned with the child's internalisation of a level of societal values and norms that is step higher than he would be expected to learn off his own family. A fourth aspect arises from the need for the child to develop a commitment to the performance of specific types of role within the structure of society. A fifth involves teaching him the cognitive or technical skills necessary for assuming adult roles. A sixth implies the development of the capacity to live up to other people's expectations of the interpersonal behaviour appropriate to the child's future roles - role responsibility. Finally there is a clear need, from society's point of view, for a selection and allocation of human resources relative to the adult role system. (Parson, 1959).

Hence, in any society, there are certain broad principles which are supposed to underline the whole structure and it is clearly important, therefore, that those on their way to adult status should develop a commitment to them. This particular aspect of the teacher's role is concerned with the development in the pupil of commitment to broad underlying social values and not with the elements of a code of personal conduct. It is in effect moral training and can be summarised as responsible citizenship in the school community (as a preparation for citizenship in the wider society). Here the teacher's responsibility is one of developing the moral attitudes, thinking patterns, and life goals which make for good citizens living a good life.

In this sense many educators and authorities believe that teacher training programmes should have common threads and structures. In fact, in many countries, including most European countries, central governments
are responsible for teacher training. They believe that future teachers and other educational personnel will perform a broad range of human services generating from community-school centres: they may often be street workers; they may offer a variety of medical and community health services; they may assist in developing intellectual and emotional growth in both children and parents; they will, as school-related personnel, relate to other human service agencies and civil agencies; and they will work to create a healthy professional community within the schools and assist the community around it in organising and developing its resources. Indeed, the range of personnel educated by the reformed programs will probably be as broad as the needs of the communities served. It is likely that the matter of the appropriate responsibilities and relationships among the home and educational and community service groups will have to be explored. What future education personnel will regard as appropriate places for assisting young people to learn, to work, to play and to act, will largely depend on the range of experiences and the content which have been central to their education. If teachers-to-be are to regard education as an enterprise which extends beyond the school door, their own intellectual, vocational and social life at the college or institution of higher education ought to form a single continuum. The critical point is that the education provided should be as open and many-sided as possible and the institution which offers the education should answer to a fairly specific autonomous culture and its authority system.

Despite extensive special pleading, the aims of education cannot be definitely laid down. However, it may be said that children are encouraged to come to have certain desires rather than others. The values include the following in first education years for children:
1. physical pleasures
2. the avoidance of harm to themselves
3. close personal relationships
4. protecting the well being of people universally
5. promoting the well being of people universally
6. the values of activities in which one engages which are pursued at least for their own sake, but perhaps along with extrinsic goals
7. higher-order values arising from the regulation of conflicts between lower-order values. (White, 1990).

In some ways values can conflict, both across categories and within categories. But, even with very young children a start should be made not only on building up dispositions governed by different kinds of value, but also on helping them to cope with conflicts between these values. However, education is centrally to do with the growth and organisation of desires.

During periods of secondary education, the aims in a complex industrialised society should be cultivation of personal autonomy, of a certain sort. Promoting well-being in modern society must involve preparing young people for the autonomous life. In education, it is important not only on what means are most suitable for different goals, but also on which goals are more important to people than others.

In addition, the personal and social education becomes important. The broad contours of their life-world will already be familiar to students. Now they will need to know more details, especially, but not only, in areas covered by their pictures of their possible futures. They will need to know something about: what different careers and other pursuits involve; the
socio-economic structure of their own society, its political arrangements and values; the means of attaining possible goals and the obstacles in their way. At the same time the expansion of their interests, wishes and knowledge on every front must not deracinate them from their life-world.

It is a known fact that the technological, economic and political pressures which have produced the world of large-scale, complex, bureaucracy make such harmony difficult to achieve. Students need to be acquainted with this as well as with the positive role this complex economy plays, or can play, in promoting universal well-being. This entails knowledge of the scientific and technological bases of their economy; this in turn entails a good grounding in mathematics.

On the other hand, confrontations between opposing viewpoints are too easily represented in terms of clashes between principle and self interest, or principle and principle, or interest and interest. However, it can be started with a more generous, altruistically inclined conception of personal well-being. As T.S. Eliot said, the education system is only a part of a whole culture in a society, so that the education system cannot transform society, for society 'moulds' education to conform to the established values and interests of corporate capitalism. Educators can, however, help to overcome 'political illiteracy'. Through developing critical consciousness they can, over time, generate action to transform society for the benefit of its participants. This means that teacher educators should reflect upon the practical consequences of their work. It is difficult to accept 'theory without practice' or thinking without transforming action in the world. So that teacher educators can work effectively towards enlightenment and democratic participation in the determination of social and personal goals.
An appropriate overarching conceptual framework for core studies in teacher education, from these aspects, would call for an interdisciplinary approach.

The drawing together of studies in human development as well as social and political structure and process, would provide for philosophical analysis of concepts such as human autonomy, individualism, community, interests, ideology, democracy and power. It would involve disciplines such as critical social theory, social psychology, communication theory, political theory, philosophy, social history and the humanities. Hence, the aims can only be determined by their assistants in a democratic society.

In this respect, according to Habermas (1970), domination is embedded in society. While the forces of domination historically are subject to change, contemporary society is dominated by technocratic beliefs and values, either as ideology or false consciousness.

Habermas contends that whereas scientific knowledge was viewed as a source of culture until toward the end of the nineteenth century, since that time the rise of positivist philosophy has meant that scientific information is utilised to expand human kind's capacity for technical control. The domination of science and technology as ideology hides the power of technical control; it assumes the function of legitimising political power as manipulation.

He sees the need for permanent communication between the sciences and the public and the consideration of the moral relevance of scientific knowledge and capacity. Habermas argues that proposed technical
solutions to problems should be a liberated citizenry - by citizens who, in view of newly interpreted need as well as technical capacity, judge what development ought to take place. As Habermas states, a national society demands that science and technology be 'mediated with the conduct of life through the minds of its citizens'.

The state, through its intervention in public education, supports a limited form of democracy in a variety of ways; for example, through funding research the state assures that the results are transferred back to corporate enterprise. Subsidising production of technical/administrative knowledge the state emphasis competency-based education, systems, management and career education. The state is partial in providing major funding for curriculum development in mathematics and science and for national testing programs. Technical rationality, which underlies much of higher education, places emphasis on control and conformity. It views knowledge as factual information to be mastered. Thus, knowledge of the social world, derived through observation and believed to be objective, is in the form of social laws. Understanding the system of casual laws and ways in which variables relate to each other leads to the recognition that certain variables may be manipulated to achieve certain goals.

From this point of view, there are many influences on teacher education as well as on the general education system. Moreover, no education institution can be isolated from both the education system and social life in a society. In specific ways, events in the classroom are influenced by a complex mixture of expectations, attitudes, regulation, policies and laws which are shaped by forces at work in the classroom, the school, the local community and society as a whole. The most central of these influences
in the relationship between teacher and pupil. The relationship is itself affected by outside influences.

This overreaching arch can be divided into two main sub-sections: centralisation and decentralisation. Centralisation tends to be associated with an expectation of certainty and permanence. If people think of 'being right', they expect to attain this position by the use of 'truth' and absolutes. It may be noted here that this is the process of growth and centralisation Ivan Illich (1973) developed in his book 'Deschooling Society'.

In the first stage (watershed), there are in institutions a direct positive relationship between resources expanded and services provided. New knowledge is applied to specific problems and desirable effects are produced. Simple habits and tools become widespread. However, as the modern institution grows, it reaches its second watershed and increases in resources expended actually decreases services.

Illich characterises the 'second watershed' as a series of steps towards system maintenance as an end in itself, with a resulting decrease in services:

- bureaucratisation: an emphasis on rational, efficient, hierarchical, impersonal, specialised division of labour and assemble line production. Human values become institutionalised and transformed into technical tasks.
- Survival and growth become primary goals. (The institution becomes an end in itself whose purposes are indefinite
expansion and unlimited creation of new and unrealisable needs).

- The institution develops radical monopoly. (There is a dominance of one type of product rather than one brand. Acceptable alternative decline. For example, private transportation becomes identified with high speed vehicles. Schools monopolise education by legitimating a particular kind of socially acceptable learning medicine becomes the exclusive definer of what constitutes disease and its treatment).

- Self-serving elites take control.

- Services become compulsory.

- Consumers become addicted to institutional products.

- Services become scarce (people pay more and get increasingly less).

- Natural competence is restricted.

- Self-defeating escalation occurs (growing between expectations and actual services).

- Finally the institution becomes a social danger (people need to be protected from them).
These points may be exaggerated by Illich. However, it is difficult to deny some of his critique as to what has been happening in this system so far.

Decentralised patterns in administration or religion, on the other hand, is usually characterised by pluralism and empiricism. Being 'right' seems to depend more upon individual judgement and adaptation to circumstances.

The function and status of teachers are deeply affected by these counterpoised influences. In a centralised system, teachers are more likely to be civil servants, in a hierarchy not only of promotion and status but also of privileged access to truth and the higher flight of education. Words like 'hierarchy' are common in such circumstances, since elitism seems built in.

By contrast, in a decentralised system the teachers are more likely to be employees of a local education authority, to be the servants or partners or parental choice, to be concerned with activities and experiences as much as with 'the mind' in an abstract or bookish sense, and to allow fairly free play to the self expression and creativity of their pupils.

Hence, there seems to be a high correlation between decentralised pluralism and educational resourcefulness or variety. 'Contest mobility' often prevails and seems open to a wide range of subjects as well as to varied pupils from many social backgrounds. But a centralised and hierarchical system logically demands 'sponsored mobility' for officially approved pupils in approved subjects; these are learned and practised in an approved manner for recruitment to a stable hierarchy of social and occupational preferment.
Having set out this theoretical framework, I will now define the general teacher education system in operation in 1992.

The analysis of the stages through which educational systems must pass that the earliest kind of teacher preparation consisted of encouraging the brightest pupils to stay on at school and observe the teachers' 'tricks of the trade'.

This stage is seen in the insituto-magistrade today of following successful students to pass on to higher education by means of academic success.

Despite the increasing enrichment of the curriculum, careful drill, conformity, invigilation still characterise much too much role learning.

It seems appropriate to spell out the structural examination of teachers' roles and status, how much status, esteem and public acceptability of the teacher depends on two levels of school influence - first, the level of the schooling obtained by the teacher during his own professional and pre-professional career; and secondly, the kind of school in which he at present teaches.

In these respects, the quality of teacher education is a deeply important issue because of what we need for our own families, for society at large and for what we hope for in the future. There are the questions which are discussed today concerning how people decide to become teachers, what happens to them during the training process, and how they change as they become more experienced. Programs in different countries produce differing results. Is there some ideal way of educating a teacher, or are there a variety of ways, each suited to different national traditions? What is the relationship between objectives of teacher education, declared and
undeclared? Do the final outcomes of such initial training make any difference, and if so, what are those differences? These appear to be the fundamental questions.

Nevertheless, one of the issues for the future is how to educate people to cope with their changed world in the nature of post-industrial society. Secondly, so many changes is any society must be associated with the shock waves of change in the patterns of values. Schools are affected by these value movements.

From this point of view, European perspectives summarised the aims of teacher education in a government White Paper which states that:

'the goal is no less than building a body of teachers well prepared academically and professionally, to sustain confidently the formidable task to which they are called: to guide each generation of children into a full appreciation of our culture, to quicken their social and moral awareness to enhance their intellectual abilities to the highest standard of which each is capable and to develop their practical and human skills so that each may be able to make his or he maximum contribution to the health, wealth and harmony of a democratic society.' (DES, 1989).

In short, schools have to reckon with teaching for uncertainty. Teachers have to teach pupils to deal with somewhat unstructured patterns of behaviour in an era where conflict is regarded as legitimate and as natural as seeking consensus. The schools have to equip pupils to make free choices. They have to do this at a time when technological culture makes demands for precision and sophisticated knowledge if we are to handle the mechanisms for the production of wealth. So, not for the first time, education will be caught between the demands of pluralism and of rigour and control.
Moving from schools to universities, do both seek the same goals?
Uncertainty and ambiguity are endemic. We ought to be experts on stating
options and in making choices, if only for the sake of clarity, so that
patterns of work are relevant. It is this which makes the role of teacher
education within institution settings more explicable and justified.
Teacher education needs to produce teachers who can help young people
cope with the uncertainties of what Alvin Tofler describes as 'future
shock'.

There are different teacher training systems but each country has a unique
system in accordance to their culture. As R. Straughan points out, there
are basic conditions which determine a country's educational system and
names the geography, climate, natural resources and population density,
and their only social values as amongst the more important. The main
criterion for success in teacher education he sees as school performance,
although political and social criteria may also merit serious consideration.
Straughan provides a review of the historical trends which have
influenced training procedures for primary and secondary school teachers
and clarifies the distinctive roles occupied by universities and training
colleges in the dualistic system which is reminiscent of many other
countries. An important part of the programme of teacher preparation has
been the formation of job-specific attitudes, often referred to as
competency-based learning. In this respect, teacher training is not always
optimistic. The gaps between political activity, official reports,
government recommendations and structural changes on the one hand
and the science of learning and instruction on the other, often seem to be
wider than ever.
Thus, as Dr. D.M. Ruguzzoni asserts, within a new education system, teachers must strive to become an integral part of the process of production and of the socio-economic life of the community, playing the role of educator and socio-cultural animateur (DES, 1983). In this context, the White Paper stated that:

'The six objectives at which the Committee aimed have received universal acclaim. These are: a large and systematic expansion of in-service training; a planned reinforcement of the process of induction in the first year in school; progressive achievement of an all-graduate profession by means of a more flexible, open-ended and challenging pattern of courses without loss of emphasis on the development of professional skills; the improved training of further education teachers; the whole-hearted acceptance of the colleges of education into the family of higher education institutions and improved arrangements for the control and co-ordination of teacher training and supply, both nationally and regionally, to ensure that the many parties in this concerted enterprise can make a full and fair contribution to the achievement of the overall goal.'

All these objectives, continues the White Paper, 'are fully accepted' by the Government.

Britain, and other countries, also expressed official concern with the training and supply of an adequate number of teachers to staff the nation's schools.

The main question here is who is responsible for teacher education policy and training? The answers are, of course, very different for each country. When we look at the Government policy for teacher education in Wales and England, it can be said that it is the most complicated and complex teacher training policy which could be envisaged. Recently the UK Government has been seeking to be the most important authority. Before that, Welsh and English teacher education seemed to operate a
decentralised system with each training institution training the students independently. That is not to say that government policy did not influence teacher education. My view of what is presently happening seems to suggest the rise of a central authority in Britain, a central authority described by A.S. Bishop and embodied in the White Paper 'Better Schools' (DES, 1985a). This sets out the government's conclusions following the review of its policies for school education in England and Wales, incorporating threads of policy for teacher education from earlier documents, especially Teacher Quality and Circular 3/84. It weaves a fabric of policy which covers aspects of the school curriculum, teacher education, teacher appraisal and the government of schools.

For initial teacher education the document restates the essential content of Circular 3/84 as providing the means to achieve 'solid expertise in one or more curriculum areas' by individual teachers, training and practice in classroom skills and the expression of personal qualities. These characteristics of training will enable teachers to meet the complex demands made upon them. Those demands include the use of a repertoire of teaching styles, from the traditional instructional to the informal guidance role which promotes inquiry and involves sharing discoveries with pupils; and encourages participation in the corporate development at schools. The later explicitly includes curriculum development as a professional activity which falls directly within the responsibilities of classroom teachers. The ways in which these characteristics of professionalism are to be developed during initial teacher education, in order that they might inform practice after entry into teaching, generally, are clear from the White Paper. The assumption is that solid subject expertise, professional courses, involvement of teachers in student selection and training, more classroom experience for tutors
and the pre-ordained personal qualities and professional attitudes of students will somehow combine with classroom teaching skills to provide for these wider responsibilities of teachers.

Teacher education was required to develop the means to achieve high standards in academic subject qualification, personal qualities, professional commitment and classroom practice. The means include:

i) The application to classroom practice of relevant theoretical studies for the improvement of professional practice;

ii) participation in school activities by teacher educators, and in teacher education by teacher;

iii) interrelationships in teacher education programmes between academic, professional and practice elements;

iv) effective induction into teaching careers;

v) adequate approaches to career development and in-service education. It is worth noting that the question remains as to the most appropriate conduct and the most effective processes for the practice of these means to ensure high standards of professionalism.

It may be said that in every country an effective education service depends crucially on an adequate supply of high-quality teachers. Whatever a nation's aspirations for the education of its pupils and students, sooner
rather than later they have to be translated by teachers from intent to achievement. Yet, even where the standard of teachers and teaching is high, in an important sense, it is never high enough. A healthy and enterprising nation's aspirations for its children always outstrip what is currently being achieved. Consequently, improving the quality of teaching is a never ending task.

I shall look at the structure and process of teacher education later. However, teacher training agencies in England and Wales spend a considerable proportion of their institution-based course on the methodology specific to their main subject(s) or, in cases of primary or secondary teachers, in conveying the methodology of teaching across the primary or secondary school curriculum. In addition, the close involvement of practising teachers in the training of teachers in England and Wales is increasing and seems to be a welcome feature of the present institution-based system of training.

In England and Wales, employers, trainers and trainee teachers needed to have a clear idea of the framework of the training, its content and standard, implementation and evaluation. All training institutions need strong links between the various providers, so that each is aware of, and responsive to, the work of the others involved. This could engage schools, training establishments and local authority advisory services in a joint teaching and monitoring role.

The conventions of teacher education curricula have been included academic subject studies followed in their own right for the 'personal' development of individual; subject teaching methods; classroom practice and education studies in which the principles of education, based more in
the disciplines of psychology, philosophy, sociology and history have been provided for a wider understanding of pedagogy and curriculum.

For students following a 'consecutive' route of a subject degree, followed by a postgraduate certificate in education, the subject study accommodates three quarters of the preparation time for teaching. The other three parts are squeezed into one academic year. With the 'concurrent' route of a three or four year Bachelor's degree in Education, the proportions of time allocated to the four parts has been varied in different institutions. Usually at least equal emphasis has given to method, practice and education studies combined or as compared to the study of a subject. Both routes assume that the year of induction into full-time teaching is being supported by some systematic form of learning guidance before confirmation of certification. On the contrary, education studies has experienced its own problems of definition and place in the teacher education curriculum. The implementation of the National Curriculum, which is organised by the government for all primary and secondary schools, made teacher training more united across the country (England and Wales).

In this way initial teacher training of all qualified teachers should include studies closely linked with practical experience in school and involve the active participation of experienced practising school teachers. Hence, satisfactory local arrangements to this end would have to be established. The Department of Education and Science commissioned a research project to monitor and evaluate four examples of such arrangements, so as to assist the development of good practice. Teacher training focuses on what has come to be known as 'school-based' teacher training. As mentioned in the White Paper, the vehicle for the research was an
evaluation of four training programmes, all of which were one year PGCE courses. In accordance to political agenda, teacher education in England and Wales must be practical rather than theoretical. As D. Hargreaves (1989) pointed out, teachers should be trained in reflective practition or learning through doing.

On the other hand, it does seem that the development of partnership between training institutions and the teaching profession has increasingly become a central part of government teacher education policy throughout the 1980s. (DES, 1983).

As Bell has mentioned, during the 1950s and late 1970s, teacher training institutions went through three broad phases indicated by their changing nomenclature. Teacher training colleges, colleges of education, institutes of higher education. (Hirst et al, 1988). At each stage and in each type of institution he suggests that the structure, culture, organisation of knowledge and typical modes of social interaction were different. Broadly, he suggests that they corresponded with Weber's (1948) three ideal types of education: charismatic education, education of the cultivated man or woman, specialised expert training. (Bell, 1981).

Up until the 1960s a two year certificate course in a training college was the dominant mode of training. Up until the mid-1970s the focus of the PGCE was at least, in part, on the 'educated man or woman' model.

More recently, the emphasis has shifted towards Bell's final stage. Courses have been redesigned and policy documents issued in order to promote the development of 'specialised expert training'. (Booth et al, 1989).
As a result, a major feature of the changes proposed in the curriculum of school during this period is well known. Developing 'useful skills', acquiring 'relevant' knowledge, acquiring 'appropriate' social attitudes, becoming responsive to economic and social realities - these became important objectives for centrally initiated curriculum reforms in schools during the 1980s. Perhaps most significantly of all from this point of view, Circular 3/84 (DES 1984) formally laid responsibility for initial teacher training on the local education authorities. (At the same time, there is always co-operation, nationally and regionally, within the teacher education centres, is perhaps the most important step to be taken). In addition, training, as mentioned above, has become increasingly school-focused over the past few years; theoretical elements have, in many courses, been far more closely linked with practice by criteria laid down by the DES in 1984 and overseen by the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE).

The criteria stresses that all courses of initial teacher training must be developed and conducted on the basis of full collaboration between training institutions and schools. Teachers are required to be involved in the planning and delivery of courses; they must take part in the selection of students and they must supervise and assess them when on teaching practice. Thus, the criteria makes practical experience in schools a central focus from aspects of DES on teacher training.

Additionally, governors are employers, whether in law or in practice and LEAs have employer responsibilities to and for governors and teachers. Many LEAs have, in the past, appointed teachers to the service of the authority rather than to individual schools, but this is diminishing.
The control of the teaching force is being restructured in two ways:

- power is shifted downward from LEA to school;
- power is shifted away from teachers.

Hence, in both cases, the shift is in favour of headteachers and governing bodies. Teachers must therefore work under the direction of the head for a specified number of hours. Consequently the DES has already taken considerable powers over initial and in-service training of teachers. (Walsh, 1988). The control extended within the school and within the individual classroom. The National Curriculum involves a major move towards centralised control of the work of individual teachers.

For this reason, it is worth noting that the conditions of service laid down in the pay and conditions document specify a good deal of what teachers are now required to do, because there must be a strong connection between teaching in a school and teacher training. They are as follows:

- planning and preparing courses and lessons;
- teaching, including recording and reporting on the development, progress and attainment of pupils;
- promoting the well being of individual pupils;
- providing guidance on education and social matters;
- making records of and reports on the personal and social needs of pupils;
- communicating with parents;
- participating in appraisal;
- participating in training;
- developing courses and teaching materials;
Maintaining order and discipline;
participating in staff meetings;
cover for absence;
examination work;
management and administrative work in school. (DES, 1987).

These conditions seem to specify a great deal about both the content of teachers' work and the way that they go about it. It would be surprising if central government should not be interested in teacher training after the National Curriculum started operating in all schools in England and Wales by the government. The programmes of study laid down for each subject will:

"... set out the overall content, knowledge, skills and processes relevant to today's needs, which pupils should be taught in order to achieve them.' (by the National Curriculum)

Nevertheless, the National Curriculum does suggest some teacher autonomy: (National Curriculum Committee).

'within the programmes of study teachers are free to determine the detail of what should be taught in order to ensure that pupils achieve approaches used is also for schools to determine... There must be some space to accommodate the enterprise of teachers, offering them sufficient flexibility in the choice of content to adopt what they teach to the needs of the individual pupil, to try out and develop new approaches, and to develop in pupils those personal qualities which cannot be written into a programme of study or attainment target.'

As far as these documents are concerned, it can be said that the National Curriculum grants greater power to parents, Headteachers and governors, thereby reducing the teacher's professional autonomy. Professionalism, in the form of occupational control, is monopolistic restraint on the freedom
Moreover, the consultation paper on the National Curriculum does use the word professional, but not to imply any reference to autonomy or self-control. The content of teaching the curriculum and the syllabus are being determined centrally, so that teaching style and method is being influenced strongly by various forms of assessment and testing in schools.

As a result of this, teacher training institutions had to arrange their courses and teaching practice not only in accordance with the Circulars, but also in accordance with the National Curriculum. Thus, as Alec Ross has mentioned, both directly and indirectly, in the field of teacher training, individual courses are being checked against a list of requirements supplied by the Secretary of State. Even if we were to leave to one side the Teachers' Pay Act, 1987, which removed from the profession its negotiating rights in matters concerning remuneration, it is still true to say that the teaching profession in England and Wales is now under the direct control of central government and its nominated bodies. (Graves, 1990).

In England and Wales, as elsewhere, responsibility for granting qualified teacher status to those who complete approved courses of training, rests with the Secretary of State for Education and Science. Academic validation remained the province of the chartered bodies, namely the universities and, for new universities and colleges of education, the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). Without Area Training Organisations (ATOs) to turn to for advice on professional recognition, the Secretary of State for Education and Science established local professional committees.
It was not, however, until 1984 that the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) came into being with a five year remit. In November 1989 the Secretary of State announced that CATE would continue in operation for a further period, with extended terms of reference. I should like to point out here that between the early seventies and eighties, teacher education in England and Wales underwent radical changes in structure, organisation and control. The setting up of CATE has to be seen in the context of these changes.

At the beginning of the 1970s, teacher education was undertaken by some 160 self-standing, single purpose colleges of education, by a number of the 30 polytechnics that had been created in the mid sixties, and by some 20 university departments of education.

By this time membership of CATE was settled and the Council held its first meeting in early Autumn 1984. The original members were all nominated by the Secretary of State after consultation with relevant organisations. Four were serving teachers, two from secondary and two from primary/middle schools. Four came from local education authorities. In retrospect, all the furniture moving can be seen to deliver an important message. In the UK power was being taken back by central government. This is somewhat ironic in the sense that in Turkey, central control has never shifted and has always been effectively in the hands of the government of the day. In this sense the UK is presently copying a model which in Turkey is being questioned.
CHAPTER 7

TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

In adding to the fundamental question, 'who controls teacher training?' this chapter examines the players, partnerships and institutions that constitute the network of interested parties working within the field of initial teacher training. The essential point deduced is the shifting power structure but the conclusions suggest a shift in power towards central government. This shift mirrors in England and Wales the position already in place in Turkey. The question 'who controls teacher training?' is one of the most important questions to ask about any country's education system and in England and Wales it is one of the most difficult to answer. However, there seems to be a considerable number of agents claiming the right to control and dictate the sort of preparation which teachers should receive and the sort of institution in which they should receive this preparation.

The Department of Education and Science, which bears the ultimate responsibility for the formulation of national policy and for financing much of the nation's education from the central exchequer, naturally claims the right to be the dominant voice in teacher education. Local education authorities, although significantly weakened, still employ the majority of teachers and service a large number of schools.

Universities have been charged with establishing and maintaining the standard of the award given in colleges and clearly have the right to speak on the academic policy of these institutions. A similar right can hardly be
denied to the staff of the colleges. As the professionals most closely involved with the task of preparing the teachers of the future, they too may feel the most competent to exercise control over it. (Turner, 1990).

Primary and secondary school teachers are trained in colleges of education. (Lomax, 1973). All the colleges in a given area are grouped in a regional training organisation associated with an institute or school of education of a university. The purpose of these organisations is to standardise training methods at regional level and to approve curricula and examine teaching candidates. The university thus confers the teaching diploma and possibly other degrees. Two-thirds of teacher training colleges are financed by local education authorities, mainly denominational colleges are subsidised by the Ministry of Education.

The vast majority of teachers in schools are trained in some one hundred universities, new universities and LEA maintained voluntary colleges and institutes of higher education in England and Wales. They follow two main types of course, the 'concurrent', in which training and academic study can proceed in parallel through most or all of the course and the 'consecutive' in which training follows the completion of academic study.

Teachers display very different personal qualities, their social and academic backgrounds are by no means uniform, they experience a great variety of different patterns and styles of preparation for teaching, and when they enter the profession, their experiences are again as varied as the schools in which they find themselves. The generalisation which follows must therefore be interpreted in the context of a great complexity of interacting variables. However, what is common to all is that institutions for teacher education (including component organisations) have three
major functions: the training function, the monitoring function and the change or influencing function. (HMI's Report, 1982).

In summary, teachers in all publicly maintained schools must be qualified. They are trained at universities, departments of education, in new universities, institutes of higher education and in a few monotechnic institutions. All qualified teachers taking posts in maintained schools are required to serve a probationary period (normally for one year). In addition, there are a number of institutions which involve and assist teacher education in the institutions of teacher training. It is worth noting some of these institutions which are as follows: Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, the Universities Council for the Education of Teachers, University Grants Committee, Department of Education and Science, Welsh Office, Association of County Councils, Association of Metropolitan Authorities, Society of Education Officers, Assistant Masters and Mistresses Association, Head Masters' Conference, Independent School Association, National Association of Headteachers, National Association of School Masters, Union of Women Teachers, Professional Association of Teachers, Secondary Heads Association, Advisory Centre of Education, Association of Commonwealth Universities, Association of Higher Academic Teachers, British Broadcasting Corporation, Catholic Education Council, Central Policy Review Staff, Church of England Board of Education, Confederation of British Industry, Committee of Directors of new universities, Council for Educational Technology, Council for National Awards, Independent Broadcasting Authority, National Foundation for Education Research, National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education, National Union of Students, Social Science Research Council, Standing Conference of Directors and Principals of Colleges and Institutes of Higher Education, Standing Conference of
Regional Advisory Councils, Trade Union Congress, Welsh Joint Education Committee, the Secretary of State, Minister of Education, political parties, families' associations and so forth. (Committee, 1978).

All these institutions either directly or indirectly affect teacher training policies and their implementation, as well as the education system of Wales and England. It is therefore not possible, because of these complexities, to discover simple common criteria for teacher training in all the institutions. I will examine the teacher training patterns of the institutions in England and Wales in the next section.
CHAPTER 8

THE TEACHER TRAINING PATTERNS OF THE INSTITUTIONS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

Under the criteria and conditions for the approval of initial teacher training courses, a number of agencies are involved in the oversight of teacher education. They include government at the central, regional and local levels; political parties; universities; new universities; voluntary colleges; colleges of education and teacher associations. Patterns of power differ according to which aspect of policy is at issue. The four aspects of policy which would enable public authorities to regulate the supply of teachers and control the costs of training are:

a) the admission of students;
b) the length of their courses;
c) the examination of students; 
d) the issue of certificates to teach in England and Wales.

Teacher training institutions fall into four categories: universities, colleges of education, new universities and voluntary colleges. Courses of initial teacher training (ITT) are available in these institutions. Students train to be teachers through one of two possible courses: the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) or the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE). For the PGCE, students complete their first degree in a particular discipline, or, more rarely, through an interdisciplinary course. Then, to qualify for the PGCE,
they usually move to a different institution for their postgraduate course in England and Wales.

A major difference between the B.Ed and PGCE routes is that concepts, issues and skills concerned with education may be constructively integrated with subject studies in the four year B.Ed, while the first degree course (or further studies) of the PGCE student may have been totally unrelated to such matters. Thus while the B.Ed student has time for concepts to be acquired and skills developed, the PGCE student has 36 weeks in which to grapple with the demanding task. The task is compounded by the need to confront unfamiliar concepts, develop new skills and cope with the physical and emotional demands of school experience, all of which ought, at least in theory, to be competently and effectively handled in the more expansive time-scale of the B.Ed course. Yet, despite these pressures on the one-year course, the PGCE route seemed to be becoming the dominant one in terms of numbers in the 1980s, with roughly equal intake of B.Ed and PGCE numbers by the end of the decade.

Meanwhile, PGCE courses were becoming more widespread in their distribution, being available in institutions of higher education and polytechnics as well as university departments of education. Also, by the 1980s, more students were admitted to PGCE than to B.Ed courses.

Broadly speaking, the content of initial teacher education courses is based on four major elements: one dealing with the process of teaching; a second with what may loosely be called 'educational theory'; the third with
practical experience of teaching in schools, that is 'teaching practice'; and the fourth concerned with 'subject studies'.

For B.Ed students, as for past Certificate of Education students, subject studies are normally based on study of a main and second, or subsidiary subject. The subject-based course tends to be three years for the old Certificate of Education and four years for the B.Ed. PGCE students, on the other hand, normally complete their subject studies during the three year course that leads to the award of their Bachelor or first degree.

The 'process of teaching' part is often called 'method work', but this expression is not particularly helpful since it suggests a very mechanistic approach to the business of teaching children. Much more valuable is the other commonly employed term 'curriculum studies'. This expression helps conjure up the image of courses which are considering the whole notion of curriculum, including aims, objectives, operations, pedagogy, evaluation and assessment rather than the apparently unproblematic and rather simplistic business of 'methods'.

The 'educational theory' element of courses of initial teacher education draws from what used to be called 'the foundation disciplines' - mainly sociology, psychology, philosophy and history, but also with contributions from areas such as comparative education. The teaching practice element is integrated into courses in a variety of ways. I will look at this issue in subsequent sections. I am now going to examine the four institutions, briefly, one by one.
The Universities

The formal involvement of British universities in the training of teachers is over a century old. During this time two different traditions of teacher education have been gradually drawn closer together and the different teacher training institutions embodying them brought into closer association. (Thomas, 1990). Moreover, the formal training of teachers in specialist institutions designated for that purpose assumed on the one hand an 'elementary school' tradition, whereas the universities were anxious to elevate training into education. The older tradition assumed that what was needed, and all that was needed, was for the teacher himself to be sufficiently expert in the knowledge or skill to be acquired by the pupil (Tibble, 1980).

The universities institutes of education, established after the McNair Report, certainly fulfilled some of the hopes of that half of the McNair Committee which favoured closer association and eventual integration of university and college concerns in teacher education. They all have Governing Boards, Council or Academic Boards usually chaired by the Vice-Chancellor and including representatives of the university staff, college principles and other staff representatives, LEA and voluntary body representatives, a number of practising teachers variously nominated or co-opted, co-opted members and assessors from the Department of Education and Science. On the next level of committee organisation is a professional or academic board, a smaller body representing the same range of interests in most cases and responsible for such matters as approval of courses and arrangements for examination of students. Below
this level again are various sub-committees with specific briefs, including the Boards of Studies in the subjects covered by the department courses.

They were able (by earmarked grants in the early years to full-time central teaching and administrative staff), to employ part-time tutors and provide buildings with libraries and other facilities. Here teachers also meet for discussion, conferences, short courses on specific topics or one year full-time or two to three year part-time courses for advanced diplomas. The advanced courses may qualify for admission to higher degree courses in education which may be provided by the university department.

There are also a number of institutions which are involved with and assist in teacher education departments in universities. At the present time, thirty two universities in England and Wales are involved in teacher education. There are as many direct contacts as possible with all university education departments and others. The relationships among universities and allied institutions for teacher training is co-operative, although strains are beginning to emerge with the devolvement of training into schools.

While the early teacher educators were as concerned with academic study and liberal education as with teacher training, in the 1990s the shifting focus on professional competence requires that teacher training in the universities has direct contact with specialist facilities. Initial teacher training is being directed to meet practical issues set in the context of school, with some of the more theoretical aspects left for MA and other courses. In summary, universities provide a stimulus in terms of in-service training courses and the professional development of teachers.
University based PGCE courses were overwhelmingly secondary school orientated. Most of those qualifying in subject areas such as mathematics and science were produced within the university sector. These courses usually include three components: subject courses; school experience and the professional course. For entering initial teacher training courses, candidates must hold a degree of a British University, or the CNAA, or a recognised equivalent qualification.

It is generally recognised that there are two polarised ideologies on a different dimension: the academic and the vocational. Academic education is primarily concerned with learning for its own sake, while vocationalism is concerned with education for a purpose. Academics are the core of education, but vocationalists see their job as training people to do things. Knowing how is more important than knowing what. Where academics are concerned with personal development, they see it in terms of personal autonomy: the ability to think critically and to arrive at logically supported independent ideas and will talk about personal competence or effectiveness: the ability to think critically and to arrive at logically supported independent ideas and beliefs. Vocationalists similarly concerned with personal development will talk about personal competence or effectiveness: the ability to do things and to make things happen.

In this sense, in England and Wales, academic education is seen as high status. Academic learning has historically been associated with higher education, so that it is accepted as the appropriate provision for more able
pupils and the passport to many higher status professions. Because academic learning is of high status, it is central to British educational thinking. It still remains the dominant ideology of education in schools, for all pupils up to the age of at least 14, and for most up to 16 years of age. It dominates the assumptions behind the National Curriculum foundation subjects. On the other hand, vocational training is peripheral.

It is also true that many people do not perceive these two ideologies as clearly distinct from one another: they do not always easily divide into 'academic' and 'vocationalist'. Many see themselves as both.

The combination of these two dimensions may give us the four ideal-types. These are: traditional educators, progressive educators, traditional trainers and progressive trainers. As with all ideal types, these are crude positions drawn up to clarify thinking. They probably do not exist in the pure forms and many thinkers and practitioners do not fit neatly into one position.

In this respect, teachers who can be classified as being within this ideal-type believe in knowledge, which probably is seen as absolute. They believe in their own subject disciplines and in studying the subject for its own sake. They are subject teachers who work in particular in secondary schools. This means that at any level of education, the teacher is 'expert' controlling the pupil. Teaching methods are mainly didactic and relations with pupil are still either authoritarian or paternal. Thus, they value thinking rather than doing. They want to develop autonomy, independent thought and creativity. In other words, they are concerned
with educating the child rather than with extolling the subject. As a result it seems that academic knowledge may be exalted at the expense of the vocational. However, the schools of education started implementing more practical training for preparing student teachers than teaching theoretical subjects after the 1980s.

The Colleges of Education

Teacher training institutions (which have the longer tradition for preparing teachers for both primary and secondary schools) are the colleges of education in England and Wales. Teacher education in the colleges is controlled by central government. However, many colleges have become part of universities and have been known as schools of education since 1976. The rest of them continue to train teachers, apart from universities, under the teacher education policy of the central government. Central government organises teacher training in the colleges overseen by CATE, LEAs and HMIs.

These colleges seem to have become increasingly sensitive to research findings and the intellectual climate of the time. They are considering the roles that a teacher is expected to fulfil in modern society, including the possibility that he will be among the agents of change. It is almost impossible to relate the curriculum to social change without enquiring about the direction of change and the desirability of the alternatives that might be adopted.
The educational background and attainments of those for whom the curriculum is intended are bound to affect the studies offered. In this way, the colleges' curricula have been influenced by change in secondary and primary education. The availability and qualification of tutors (for example; lecturers in education) has affected what has been communicated at different times. (Browne, 1978).

The colleges have to arrange the curricula in accordance with the criteria of ITT. Initial teacher training at the colleges takes four years and all students have to study the principles and practice of education, including school practice. A usual starting point is a course in child development, combined with the use of film and video tape and with observation of children in varying situations and environment, together with early experience in the classroom concentrating on individuals and small groups. Following this, work in one or more of the disciplines commences and is related to educational issues. For instance, studies in the philosophy of education, authority and freedom, both generally and in the school situation, or the sociology of family and social class, is shown to affect learning and culture patterns. The problem is not only to give a student the opportunity to investigate problems that he or she is likely to meet as a teacher, but also to equip the student teacher sufficiently with the tools of a discipline and its methods of investigation so that he or she may think independently and professionally about them throughout the period of training at the college.

The main subjects (such as mathematics, science and physical education) offered are usually, but not always, confined to the normal subjects of the
school curriculum. However, it has also become possible to take interdisciplinary courses such as environmental, European or American studies.

These provide a coherent course for students and also give a valuable background to interdisciplinary study in school, the value being proportional to the genuineness of the interdisciplinary approach. Some colleges include sociology or special aspects of psychology, distinct from those taken in the education course and it is likely that these studies backing up the education course will grow in number. One of the advantages of the range offered in most colleges is that students are able to choose one or two subjects from among humanities, sciences, fine arts and practical subjects - a breadth of choice unusual to find in any other institution. This seems an attribute that colleges should take care not to lose.

Educational technology influences on education are of great importance. These are integrated into ITT in the colleges and provided by central government. The aim is to prepare students for schools of the future, in order that they should become adept at preparing and selecting material for children to use, perhaps through electronic devices, to fulfil whatever objectives the teacher has in mind.

Another set of skills that a teacher has to acquire are those connected with the understanding and management of groups and individuals. Through role play and participation a student is made more aware of how individuals react to one another and how different talents and abilities can
be developed. Again, this relates to not only the subject matter of the curriculum but to the methods by which professional and academic studies are taught in the colleges.

Within colleges at the present time, academic and task-based studies are being brought together for a more professional consideration of the school curriculum in relation to the needs of children, the demands of society and the development of knowledge. Student teachers are being steered not to an 'end point', but to the start of their professional life and in-service education.

In general, the courses consist of four main components: school experience, subject studies, curriculum studies and education and professional studies. There are also optional courses during training. One year PGCE courses are offered for primary and secondary student teachers. The implementation of these courses in colleges varies quite considerably from one to another. While some colleges are implementing four main subject areas throughout the curriculum within four years, others set out subject areas for the first two years and proceed to teach the other two subjects during the last two years. PGCE courses lasting one year, however, offer four different subjects to the student in accordance with a curriculum laid down by the college committee to meet the criteria for ITT.

There are two other models of primary B.Ed courses. These courses also consist of four main subject areas. However, the curricula of the courses are arranged slightly differently. The four study areas are: practice; theory; specialist subject and professional course. Often these are run in parallel
throughout the first three years interspersed with periods of block practice in schools. Another example is the third year which is devoted almost entirely to professional elements, although they do appear elsewhere in the course.

The arrangements of teacher training programmes in colleges implement CATE directed policies. The main reason being the government's responsibility for teacher education colleges in England and Wales. After the criteria for ITT in 1983, they adopted the government teacher education policy as a teacher training policy of colleges. In the meantime, they have become more like other training institutions and have lost a large degree of academic autonomy.

In recent years there has been growing concern over relationships between schools and colleges. Perhaps the area of greatest concern has been the teaching practice element of the three year course. Other areas, such as: the content of the B.Ed, curriculum studies and Postgraduate Certificate courses provided by colleges, the probationary year and the government of colleges of education, have also been the subject of considerable criticism by the teaching profession. The introduction of the B.Ed degree, firstly as an ITT qualification, placed tremendous pressure on both colleges and, in turn, schools. The relationships between schools and colleges, at times, became strained.

As previously noted, the colleges of education, in general, offer a course which comprises of four elements or subjects:
1. subject studies
2. the theory of education
3. curriculum or professional studies
4. teaching practice

During teaching practice the student will visit the school to meet staff and possibly pupils before practice begins. During this time, the school is largely responsible for the student, with the tutor visiting schools on a basis decided jointly by the school and college.

A teacher-tutor supervising the teaching practice of students, either in his own school or in a group of schools has been variously described as:

a) a designated teacher in many colleges of education;
b) a co-ordinating teacher-tutor in the HMA/HCA;
c) a general supervisor;

The second type of teacher-tutor is a subject or class-specialist who takes responsibility for students in his own discipline or class and who, once again, has been described variously as:

a) a subject or class teacher-tutor (NUT)
b) an associated tutor (HMA/HMC and UCET)
c) a subject supervisory
In addition, there is a further category of teacher-tutor who spends a proportion of his time in the schools teaching, and a proportion of his time in the college lecturing. This type of appointment has been described as:

a) a school based-joint tutor;
b) a group teacher-tutor (HMA/HMC);
c) an associate teacher-tutor (UCET)
d) a dual appointment according to the NUT which is also the term adopted by colleges of education which operate the scheme.

It is worth noting that the last four decades have seen a steady increase in the use of audio-visual materials in classwork. Films are used constantly. In the last two decades there has been increasing use of closed-circuit television (CCTV) and video tape recorder (VTR). The availability of the VTR has considerably increased the use of BBC and ITV educational broadcasts.

Most of the above techniques are used both for importing an added 'reality' and 'vividness' into lectures and seminars and for stimulating realistic discussion.

In England and Wales there are colleges of education which are distinguished by the title 'voluntary', in contrast to other colleges 'maintained' by Local Education Authorities. They comprise
approximately one third of the total. The bulk of these voluntary colleges are of specifically Christian foundation, but they are all spoken of as voluntary colleges because the various bodies which brought them into existence did so as a voluntary response to social challenge before a comparable response was made by national and local government from 1902 onwards. Some of the voluntary colleges are Church of England (25), Church of Wales (2), Roman Catholic (16), British and Foreign Society (3), Methodist Free Church, Homerton College, Froebel College, Goldsmiths' College and Department of Arts, Science and Education.

The voluntary colleges as a group have no unitary formal organisation, but consultation between the providing bodies is close and frequent, particularly in discussing those areas of the colleges work where cooperation with the DES is essential. The principals and staff of colleges are closely identified with the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education and much of their professional dialogue finds its focus in the activities of that body.

The two largest groupings (Anglican and Roman Catholic) each have a Council of Principals and the smaller grouping have comparable meetings with their providing bodies.

In trying to present a picture of the distinctive characteristics of voluntary colleges, it is essential to remember that the most significant unifying fact today is direct financing from the DES acknowledges the independence of voluntary colleges from local government finance. This means autonomy in certain decision making and a corresponding variety of solutions.
Conversely, the size, tradition, origin and area of, say, Goldsmiths' College compared with the same factors as they affect a small church college in a relatively rural area, makes the spectrum of diversity among the voluntary colleges appear very broad indeed.

The college's financial arrangements are very complex. As with the case of internal regulations for government, the powers which the DES exercises over university departments are much less direct, being mediated through the University Grants Committee. In the case of colleges, the main sources of finance are central government and the local authority for the public colleges. Voluntary colleges may have some private sources of income but they receive all their running costs and three quarters of their capital costs from central government in the form of direct grants. Thus, central government influences teacher education directly through the exercise of executive action using regulation (by the circulars), degrees or direct financial influence.

As indicated, the statutory power of regional and local governments is heavily correlated with the statutory powers accorded the national government.

In England and Wales, by law, the local authorities oversee the running of teachers' colleges and are responsible for submitting financial estimates to the DES for approval. In contrast, universities are relatively free of local government finance and administrative influence.
As a result of the above, it can be said that the colleges of education operate and train their students under the policy of teacher education of central government. In addition, they adhere strongly to the criteria for ITT for training teachers in colleges.

NEW UNIVERSITIES

Another institution for teacher education in England and Wales is the new university. These institutions were previously called polytechnics, but a change of status to universities took place in 1993. Although new universities have hitherto played only a minor role in the training of teachers, it seems to be that the development of these is, for several reasons, of major importance for the future of teacher education in England and Wales. They were actually formed from existing colleges - mainly regional technical colleges, but also a number of colleges of art, commerce and education.

It is natural to assume that new universities are predominantly technological in their scope and, indeed, some of the new universities' governors and teachers believe this, but in fact most of them are not so and their technological element is rapidly decreasing in importance. When the 1966 White Paper proposed the setting up of polytechnics, a number of technical colleges involved had already developed non-technological studies (particularly in business studies management, public administration, social science and the humanities) to which exceeded their courses in science and technology.
New universities have responded to the pressure from students for places in the social sciences and the humanities so that now, in many of them, non-technological studies are dominant and in some of them, again as a consequence of the pattern of student demand, technological departments are struggling for survival.

Nevertheless, as it is generally supposed, new universities do train people for work in industry by means of narrow technical 'hardware' studies. Large numbers of their students obtain degrees in arts and science. They obtain a liberal education and proceed to work in all branches of employment to graduates in industry, commerce and the public services.

To some extent, new universities are developing in parallel with the universities but are not subordinate to them. There is the collaboration of new universities with the Open University in teacher education. Teacher training in new universities is, or has been until very recently validated by the CNAA. Many new universities have courses based on studies in technology, physical science, biological science, mathematics and social science that incorporate an element of professional education and training for a variety of vocations.

From this point of view, it seems that new universities have developed and encouraged the use of a systems approach to course design. Thus, in planning a course the following is specified:

1. Input: knowledge, skills and attributes of students on entry to the course.
2. Output: what the student should be able to do at the end of the course.
3. Process: the means by which the students achieve the output characteristics of the course.

An elaboration of this approach has guided planning in re-designing teacher education courses at new universities under the criteria for IIT.

From some aspects the basic elements of the model of the teacher as self-critical problem solver are adopted in many colleges. The teacher is an autonomous professional who can:

1. analyse an educational situation
2. devise a programme of action
3. put the programme into operation
4. monitor and evaluate the programme.

First, the intention here is that the teacher should be able to use the theoretical perspectives of philosophy, sociology and psychology to gain a greater personal understanding and awareness of the educational setting of which he is part.

Second, the teacher must demonstrate that he can devise a programme of action. This implies that teaching is an intentional activity which is preceded by analysis and planning. He must decide on a course of action and plan it to achieve the aim - part of this process of planning must be to
justify why he is choosing one course of action rather than another. The teacher must account for what he proposes to do.

Third, this involves not only the carrying out of a devised teaching strategy, but also putting into practice the means of monitoring and evaluating the programme. It assumes a competence in certain skills of classroom management: for example, producing the educational materials or the maintenance of order in the classroom.

Finally, the fourth element implies that the teacher must be concerned with the product or output of his programme. Did a particular programme achieve the objectives? Evaluation implies a final approval of the value of the whole exercise and reflection on its implications for future (next) action.

In this way there are two types of course in initial teacher training in new universities - the B.Ed and PGCE. Throughout these courses, the student teacher acquires a broad and useful knowledge of children and their development, although with regard in particular to education studies, their courses differ significantly. Courses on important aspects of the teacher's role, such as classroom control, behaviour, record keeping and assessment are brief.

Appropriate statements of aims exist for both the B.Ed and PGCE courses. The courses subscribe to the broad aims shared by all new universities' B.Ed and PGCE courses, i.e. to develop students:
i) knowledge, understanding and skills appropriate to their professional specialisms;

ii) sensitivity, concern and enthusiasm for the education of children and young people;

iii) professional competence and versatility appropriate to their initial teaching responsibilities;

iv) critical and creative thought and the capacity for independent judgement;

v) broad view of their professional role in education together with an awareness of the place of education in technological society.

Insights into the context in which education takes place are also provided, together with the relationship between the student, the home, the school, a technological society and an ability to synthesise theory and practice and clarity of communication. Finally, a positive attitude towards their own professional development is encouraged, which will sustain them as committed members of the teaching profession.

B.Ed students specialise in either three to eight year olds (early years course) or seven to eleven year olds (the later years course). Both courses contain three major components; the school experience, subject and education. The second and third of these are sub-divided; the subject component into curriculum studies and subject studies and, in the case of the education component, into core courses and options. Apart from the subject studies element of the education component, students on the two B.Ed courses are taught separately. Whereas education studies run
through the entire course and subject studies through years two to four, curriculum studies are found only in years one and two with the exception of the curriculum aspects of the courses relating to the two main subject studies chosen by the student. Thus, as the course progresses it seems that students lack an opportunity to develop an understanding of the issues involved in a number of key areas relating to curriculum studies.

PGCE students in the new universities all follow a course which focuses upon the education of students in accordance with their age range. Within this course there are four significant components; the curriculum, education studies, special interest and school experience.

The core courses in education studies are particularly important topics, these are: assessment, record-keeping; the role of project work; long-term planning and classroom control and behaviour. Students are allocated to schools for the planning and implementation of their teaching practices. Education tutors provide continuity when they visit the students in their groups on teaching practices. All of the topics, theoretically, are briefly introduced to students in the colleges.

Throughout the courses in language, literacy and mathematics there is a strong emphasis on literacy within a coherent developmental framework. The work on reading and writing is rigorous, well related to research and practice and is supported appropriately by serial experience. In addition, tutors make many valuable, constructive comments on student's essays, although in general too little critical comment is offered.
There is also a compulsory curriculum course in science and technology which introduces students to all main areas of science included in the National Curriculum. It emphasises the development of scientific skills and processes.

Much of the work seen was well presented and the students were introduced to a variety of approaches to teaching. Relating theory to practice was covered and good use was made of the tutors' own experience in schools and of the students' work on teaching practice (according to the HMI's report in 1987).

The teaching methodology is consistent with that which the students are encouraged to use with children. Due attention is paid to developing the students' understanding of the characteristics, methodologies, concepts and skills of the individual subjects. The importance of students understanding the relationship between the subjects and the curriculum areas is stressed and opportunities are found for all students to retain their enthusiasm and reinforce their skill and teaching experience.

In terms of course content, work can be divided into four main categories which are arranged by the college. They are called college-based study and school-based study. Before these studies, school-based preparation and college-based preparation are organised.

The school experience component is a central feature of both the B.Ed and PGCE courses, each of which, through careful planning, incorporates a clear progression in the development practices. The new universities use
many different schools for the practice. B.Ed students spend approximately forty days in school during years one and two, in addition to two block practices. Each of their later block practices in years three and four is preceded by preliminary visits to schools. In total, throughout their course, all students spend time in at least five different schools, apart from those they attend for the various day visits which they make for particular purposes. A good balance between depth and variety of experience seems to be achieved.

It is worth noting that the main elements of 'teaching skills' cover the role of the teacher, preparation for school experience, aspects of organisation, professional involvement and the use and preparation of teaching materials. These themes are introduced and re-visited thorough lectures, seminars and tutorials to link with block practices and school-based exercises. Throughout the four years of the course, the education tutors responsible for the 'teaching skills' courses have responsibility for the professional development of the students, visiting them twice during each block practice. This is in addition to the support given by the advisers/supervisors who make weekly visits to the students in their schools. In this respect the supervising tutors spend a considerable amount of time in the classroom and comment most constructively in the students' files.

On the other hand, all PGCE students spend a week in a school in their home area at the beginning of the course, to orientate themselves to the world of teaching. A carefully designed booklet has been prepared to guide their collection of information during observation of teaching and
involvement in activities with children during this initial experience. It is the intention that the observations and results gained are discussed in the new university-based sessions. New universities have been active in developing partnership approaches to promote programmes based on the following criteria:

1. To increase the number of staff with a working knowledge of implications for the curriculum of commitment resulting from the technological, commercial and industrial dimensions of British culture;

2. to enable subject specialist tutors to appreciate the contribution of subjects to the achievement of TVEI aims within context and subject driven curriculum approaches;

3. to bring staff together, with different skills and backgrounds, to collaborate on experiential learning within TVEI related activities;

4. to lay foundations for the further development of ITT courses to include an enhanced TVEI dimension.

Lastly, there are different aspects to the evaluation of the student during the training such as self evaluation, external evaluation, evaluation using
existing new university procedures for course review and staff
development, inter-institutional evaluation.

Generally, each placement is subject to both formative and summative
approval with reference to the particulars of that placement as it relates to
the objective and anticipated outcomes of the course. It can be said that the
evaluation in new universities generally have formative and summative,
individual and global. To be given the management structure is a certain
form of on-going evaluation as is the process aspects of giving feedback.
The process of evaluation is being conducted by a specially selected group
which includes practising teachers. The programs include monitoring,
internal/external TVEI/ITT programme monitoring and evaluation,
internal and external the School of Education. These are fitted into the
natural cycle of TVEI/ITT programmes. The aims of the evaluation are to:

- monitor the operation of the programme;
- develop the criteria of objects;
- identify any unanticipated outcomes that arise and evaluate
  their consequences;
- help redesign ITT curricula if in need of improvement;
- establish the value of syndicate (syllabus) within staff
development programmes.

Formative and summative evaluations are being conducted by staff in the
new universities.
In accordance with the report of the HMI regarding colleges maintained by the LEA, teachers were, in general, adequately qualified for the courses taught, although many were less well qualified academically in the new universities. It was rare to find teachers engaged in debate on the development and evaluation of courses or on approaches to teaching. Team teaching was uncommon and projects sometimes failed to challenge students. There were also virtually no postgraduate research students and few lecturers from visiting academics or employers.

Apart from these institutions, one of the alternatives for training teachers under the new regulations introduced by the British Government in 1989 was the 'licensed teachers' and 'articled teacher' scheme, which broadened the basis of entry to teaching in England and Wales. Men and women over the age of 26, with an appropriate record of study at the level of higher education, could apply to a local authority (the bodies that employ teachers) for licensed status.

Articled teacher schemes are devised jointly by local authorities and initial teacher training institutions and lead, in certain cases, to the supply of teachers in certain shortage subjects (such entrants are paid a two year bursary that is less than the new teacher's normal salary, but more than the postgraduate student's maintenance grant).

Although now disbanded, the CNAA operated via a visiting quality assurance system. CNAA, like the universities, made available both undergraduate and postgraduate awards; the particular awards of these bodies do not always have the same titles, though they are almost all...
either degrees or diplomas. The undergraduate awards of CNAA were entitled the Diploma of Professional Studies in Education (DPSE) and the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed). The postgraduate awards based on taught courses are the Postgraduate Diploma (Pg Dip) and the Master of Education (M.Ed). Almost all the courses leading to these awards are taught on a part-time basis, mainly in the evening. This model interrelates theory and practice.

Within in-service programmes, there has been a tendency to assess through two principal modes, the written essay and a written report (or project or dissertation) relating the lessons of curriculum (under the responsibilities of the CNAA).

In 1984 CATE was set up to review all existing and emergent courses of initial teacher education in terms of criteria set out in an official Circular (3/1984) and to make recommendations to the Secretary of State regarding the approval of such courses for the purpose of the award of qualified teacher status. The Council's membership reflected the range of institutional interests involved in teaching in universities, polytechnics and colleges; the employers of teachers; professional organisations (trade unions); industry and commerce and ethnic and language groups within English and Welsh communities.

During the first five years of work, CATE reviewed some four hundred programs. Most were eventually recommended for approval, although not in some cases without a great deal of discussion and revision. At the end of 1989 CATE was reconstituted with wider terms of reference,
including responsibility to report to the Secretary of State on the operation
of the criteria, to monitor and disseminate good practice and to undertake
other tasks in respect of ITT as the Secretary of State might from time-to-
time propose.

The new CATE operates to a greater extent that did its predecessor through
local committees. ITT institutions are in membership. These committees
undertake the initial monitoring and review of courses and help to
identify and disseminate good practice. However, colleges, new
universities and universities are not the only institutions. The biggest
difficulty is still determining the criteria for ITT and in-service training.
Over recent decades, schools, teacher’s organisations, civil servants,
politicians, industrialists and representatives of single interest groups in
the community, have shown increasing concern with how men and
women are prepared for their work in the classroom. The number of
interested parties is likely to increase still further as education becomes
even more important than at present as a factor in the success of modern
economics, politics, socialisation and in maintaining quality of life.

The widening of institutional involvement in teacher education has
consequences for the governance and organisation of the content of
courses, staff recruitment and modes of programme delivery. These
consequences are in many countries not yet fully reflected in the work of
the universities and those directly responsible for teacher preparation, nor
in the attitudes and responses of teacher educators.
Therefore in teacher education, both centralisation and decentralisation have been occurring simultaneously. Functional and operational autonomy have been maintained - even in some courses, (e.g. the new universities), enhanced - but accountability to the centre, as representative of wider institutional interests than those of ITT itself, has increased. Generally speaking, it could be said that teacher training in the universities, colleges and new universities is now being more closely integrated into higher education as a whole under the CNAA in England and Wales. Teacher training in those institutions is more likely to be changed during the 1990s than in the past.
CHAPTER 9

THE STRUCTURE OF THE COURSES

This section examines the structure of initial teacher training courses, acknowledging that the speed of change and political direction of a contested area now means that a lot of issues and material discussed is already out of date. However, the substance of the argument is to demonstrate a more vigorous and politically driven intervention in course structure and content.

Before examining the structure of the courses in the institutions, it is important to state what teaching quality is expected by CATE.

Drawing largely on the advice of the Advisory Committee and the supply and education of teachers (ACSET) a set of criteria was drawn up and in Circular 3/84 (Department of Education and Science, 1984) the establishment of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) was announced. The role of CATE would be to advise the Secretary of State for Education on the approval of initial teacher retraining courses in England and Wales. First a review was to be undertaken of existing courses, making use of reports based on visits of Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI). Each institution was required to establish a local committee for teacher education with representation from local education authorities, practising school teachers and individuals from outside the education service, in addition to members of the institution. CATE would then make recommendations about approval or non-approval of courses to the Secretaries of State based on the evidence
from HMIs and submissions made by the institutions. The support of the local committee was to be essential for approval of courses to be given.

A revised and developed set of criteria emerged from consideration of the first round of accreditation in Circular 24/89 in November 1989 (Department of Education and Science, 1989b).

In England and Wales, initial teacher training is provided in one of three kinds of higher education institution, university departments of education, new universities (used to be known as polytechnics) and colleges of higher education. University departments were funded by central government through the University Grants Committee but this was changed in April 1989. Polytechnics had been funded by the LEA but from April 1989 they started receiving their funds through the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC). Most colleges of higher education are also funded by the PCFC. Whatever the institution the majority of students follow either a four year course (the colleges of higher education & new universities) leading to a Bachelor degree with a concurrent educational qualification, or having obtained a Bachelor degree in an academic subject over three years, take a one year professionally-orientated course leading to a PGCE.

In addition to providing initial training, these three higher education institutions have also traditionally been involved in a range of activities for qualified school teachers as INSET. These courses are school-based courses for INSET and provided the LEA (Grant Related Inservice (GRIST). (Mortimore, 1989).
It is interesting to note that the original criteria largely reflected developing practice in initial teacher education.

'Beginning teachers' need to consider what the education system is like and what it ought to be like. They should be required to ask normative questions about what ought to happen and should be helped, through study and observation, to find out what is actually happening. They ought to be encouraged to go on and seek explanations for any discrepancies observed.

In general, the course encourages students to develop knowledge and understanding of:

- theory relevant to the needs of the beginner teacher;
- the education system, its recent development and future trends;
- general characteristics of the curriculum, its constraints and opportunities;
- the aims and educational potential of their subjects or specialism and its relationship with the broader curriculum;
- methods of planning and teaching learning sequences which involve children in the process of learning;
- broad educational problems and issues.

In addition, from a personal quality point of view, the courses set out to foster and encourage certain characteristics of a good teacher. It highlights those
qualities most pertinent to effective teaching and encourages students to shape these in a specifically educational manner by building on relevant skills and understanding. Such qualities include:

- concern for children and for society;
- professional commitment;
- openness and sensitivity to change;
- a disposition towards co-operation with colleagues in a common drive for the enhancement of children's education;
- the ability to respond sensitively and constructively to children and colleagues.

Under these general aims, institutions formulate the structure of the courses. As previously noted, the institutions offer B.Ed and PGCE courses for teacher training. B.Ed courses in the institutions generally consisted of five elements which are termed subject studies, curriculum studies, professional studies and school experience. PGCE courses also contained all these components except subject studies, which the students were deemed to have completed in the undergraduate courses.

In most institutions, subject studies within the B.Ed had two major purposes: they provided students with higher education at a personal level and they contributed to their professional repertoire. For students training for secondary schools there is specialist subject training subject and for intending primary teachers an additional strength in particular areas of the curriculum.
The curriculum studies components both of B.Ed and PGCE courses were designed to have different functions according to phase. In secondary courses this component focused on the methodology of the students' specialist subject(s). In primary courses it attempted to span the whole curriculum, or a substantial part of it, providing the student with some knowledge of each of the areas as well as the methods of teaching them. All institution education studies included aspects of curriculum planning such as aims, objectives, assessment and patterns of curriculum analysis and development.

Educational studies and professional studies often linked in a single strand (for example with teaching studies), aimed to provide a theoretical background to teaching and learning to give students a better understanding of the context in which pupils' learning takes place and to help them draw on this knowledge in developing their teaching skills.

School experiences included all types of student involvement with children in schools. In addition to substantial periods of block practice, most courses also provided a serial experience comprising half-a-day or one day per week over several weeks. In many cases children were brought into the institution to provide students with opportunities for work with individuals or groups of various sizes (especially in the colleges).

Most of the institutions had adopted a concurrent approach with students encountering all these components side by side. In some instances the elements were spread evenly across the whole course; in others the emphasis of particular elements varied at different stages. In one case the third year is
entirely devoted to professional work and school experience, even though both featured at other periods in the course.

The institutions offer both primary and secondary training. The B.Ed degree teaches the students jointly for part of the course. Frequently work in the specialist subject and in education studies is common to both primary and secondary students which curriculum courses are generally separate. In only about a quarter of the B.Ed subject studies courses are primary and secondary students teach together, though this practice continues widely in education studies. In this respect, some institutions one or more years of joint teaching of an academic subject for students on the B.Ed and other degree courses are used as a means of making it possible to transfer between courses at the end of this time.

All B.Ed secondary courses devote a significant proportion of time to specialist subject studies which commonly take up half or more of the total time for the degree: between 600 and 700 hours for the first subject and 300 hours or more for the second subject. Practical subjects often have rather more contact time. Home economics and physical education, for example, sometimes exceed 1000 hours in a four year course. In a few institutions (according to HMI) insufficient time is devoted to a second subject to provide a satisfactory foundation for teaching in the secondary school.

Whatever the overall structure, most B.Ed courses are planned with about 30 teaching weeks in each year. The final is often somewhat shorter to allow for examinations and assessment. A major element of all courses is the time given to school experience, which is normally fifteen to sixteen weeks in a
three year unclassified degree and about twenty weeks in a four year honours degree. Class contact hours varied a great from twelve to twenty hours per week; in the fourth year some courses have less class contact time and place more emphasis on independent study. In addition to attending classes and visiting schools, students are expected to spend considerable time in private study. Most of the institutions claim this to be at least equal to the time spent in class and sometimes double or more. (HMI, 1985).

On the other hand, the PGCE course provides an intensive one year period of training which comprises of curriculum studies, education and professional studies and school experience. Most institutions have moved towards the length of thirty six weeks. The time devoted to block school experience varied between eleven and sixteen weeks, but almost all the courses included other opportunities for students to work in schools. The number of hours of class contact during the college based part of the course is generally between three hundred and three hundred and fifty overall. This barely provides sufficient time to cover all that is required in professional training, particularly for the phase. However, for many students the number of class hours per week is substantially more than in their undergraduate courses. (DES, 1985).

It is important to note here the contrast in PGCE and B.Ed courses. Some studies, for instance education studies, take up a significant proportion of the students' time and, unlike the average in B.Ed is about one hundred hours per year, the range is from sixty hours per year to over one hundred and fifty hours. For a one year PGCE course it is eighty six hours (about a quarter of the course). In approximately one third of B.Ed courses, education is taught quite
separately from other parts of the course. In the remaining two thirds it is most common to find education studies linked in some way with professional studies. But, in PGCE courses, education studies is more often taught separately; where links exist they are usually with the main subject for secondary students.

It was rare to find any undergraduate courses overtly teaching the contributory disciplines of psychology, social psychology, sociology, philosophy, history and curriculum studies. A common pattern was for the course to be described as thematic in years one and two, with an interdisciplinary core leading to options between discrete disciplines in the third year. These led to further discipline-based options in the fourth year. In the fourth year, the courses which were called honours courses, most commonly consisted of either the study of a single option or a core course plus an option.

Postgraduate courses commonly comprised of a series of topics each of which occupied in accordance with the subject areas. Some institutions combined these topics into themes and a number taught a core course to which options could be added.

From the subject point of view, in varying degrees, all the institutions devoted attention to such professional issues as class organisation and control setting, mixed ability teaching, assessment, record keeping and other skills - knowledge essential to a teacher, included substantial options in the education of children with special needs and in ethnic diversity. The majority of courses have also incorporated both these areas within the training courses as a compulsory element for all students.
While all other institutions offer a PGCE, a certificate and diploma in adult education, a diploma in special needs education, M.Ed, M.Phil, M.Sc, in physics education, PhD courses and a considerable commitment to inservice work (HMIs Report, 1988), the general structure is common to all the groups, though the constituent parts of the course differ in emphasis. There appears to have five elements which are technique, curricula knowledge, professional knowledge, personal and inter-personal skills and qualities and constructive evaluation. The aim is to keep these elements in harmony but to shift the weight from one to the other in sequence as the year progresses. In fact, in the most traditional of courses these elements have been seen as largely distinct, representing discrete elements of professional preparation. However, in all of the courses it is possible to discern areas of work that can be characterised as predominantly subject courses, school experience and professional course. (Furlong et al, 1988). It might be noted here that school-based studies and school experience seems to be coming more important. For example, PGCE courses, of thirty six weeks available for intending primary and secondary teachers, school-based studies are provided in all three terms, in the beginning in the autumn term with a two week observation period, a three day period of group visiting, a series of six weekly one day school attachments, followed by three weeks teaching practice. In the spring term, a series of three one day visits precedes the major block practice of seven weeks and the final term of the course contains a number of one day visits followed by a three week block practice.

In relation to this, the aspect from the subject areas, the PGCE is conceived in terms of professional studies, education studies and school-based studies. The
first of these consists of method courses in a main and second teaching subject. Main subjects are English, mathematics, language, biology, chemistry and physics. Second subjects available are English, French, German, Spanish, history, integrated science, mathematics, physical education and computer studies.

Buildings, rooms, libraries, educational materials such as white boards, overhead projectors, screens, recorders, video and sound, film projectors and other hardware are provided by the institutions. Each building has a full-time technician. There are also laboratories for each subject and a computing base. In addition, it is very important that most language students spend at least one year abroad.

As a result of the above, it can be said that the course structure has four main elements: school experience, curriculum studies, the education component (issues in education) and further professional option (FPO).

School experiences include: school visits, school-based days in curriculum work and teaching practice. School-based days focus on the curriculum studies work, but also feed into Issues in Education.

i) School experience
During school-based days, curriculum tutors work in schools and colleges with school staff, students and children. Students are engaged in a range of activities which may include, for example, small groups teaching, team teaching, full class work, micro teaching, use of sound and video to record teaching, planning work, observation of classes, evaluation of lessons,
observation and involvement in tutor periods or, from time-to-time, observation of assembly, fieldwork, consideration of whole-school planning and discussion of questions and issues arising out of the experience. Students share in planning, teaching, evaluation and pastoral work with staff, colleagues and tutors. Hence, it can be said that experiences of this nature, based in and concerned with schools and centred on the teaching of the student's main curriculum or age-phase area, is a vital component of initial training whatever the particular requirements of the students' specialist subject. It acknowledges the crucial notion that all subject teachers are involved primarily in educating children in schools and that their subject is a medium for education rather than an end its own right.

For the main teaching practice, the institute set out to develop a system of 'partnership' schools with clear and recognised commitment to teacher education links with the institute. In addition to normal teaching practice supervision, institute tutors would act as link tutors, one for each partnership school and would visit the school at least once a term and develop the relationship between the school and the institute across a range of priorities.

It was felt that the advantages of the partnership system would include:

- students being supportive of each other in work;
- teacher-tutors and subject teachers working as a co-ordinated team
- seminars held on site, involving students, school staff and institute tutors;
students from three or four schools, forming an education group for work on 'issues in education';

- education tutors being involved in school experience since their students are placed in three or four schools;

- teachers tutors and/or subject teachers freed to attend, organise and contribute to institute-based sessions;

- teacher tutors in the schools being able to co-ordinate their ITT work with other aspects of teacher education such as induction of new staff, probationary year support, staff development and inservice work.

ii) Curriculum Studies

The curriculum studies element of the course is concerned with the development of teaching skills relating to a curriculum subject or subjects for secondary students, or to an age-phase for primary. They are also concerned with theories of teaching and learning and with general curriculum issues. It is intended that theory and practice should also be integrated. Students are asked, at secondary and FE level, to consider the nature of their subject: what is has to offer to the education of young people; how that contribution may be planned and constructed into a subject or cross-disciplinary areas; how best to develop pedagogy; how the work may be evaluated and assessed. At primary level students have to make similar considerations across the full range of subjects in the primary curriculum. Some work may also, at secondary level, be based on a single subject; it maybe part of a two-subject course, or it may be
cross-disciplinary. The opportunity for close integration between school-based work and institute-based work is clear. Time is allocated to methods work on teaching practice which is usually on Fridays in term 1.

iii) Further Professional Options

The criteria for the FPOs are that they provide students with a further professional accomplishment that they take with them into their first post. Rather than purely theoretical or practical, FPOs are integrated. They should be amenable to work undertaken by students in their school experience and they should pay attention to the needs of whole-school policies. Examples at secondary level include computer-assisted learning in the humanities and in the sciences; drama and theatre arts; exercise and fitness education; gender and education; race, culture and education; specials educational needs; the teaching of history, RE, English.

iv) Issues in Education

The education component of the Institute PGCE focuses on a critical examination of classroom, school and social issues on relevant theory and practical knowledge. This is an issues-based course which encourages students to explore the range of values and attitudes involved in the issues and to clarify their own position in the light of analysis and discussion. They are, as already suggested, encouraged to analyse normative questions about the nature of the actual conditions and situation. Their studies take them on to consider reasons for certain discrepancies and to suggest possible appropriate actions.
In order to facilitate this work, enquiry approaches are encouraged through the use of group work and resource materials, linked to a basic framework of presentations. Students thus bring shared experience to the group. Groups have the possibility of involving tutors from their schools and a range of perspectives from different subject areas is provided. Primary students remain in their curriculum groups for this component, but links between primary and secondary groups are made both formally and informally.

Each group is allocated an education tutor who is responsible for organising the issues in education work for students in his or her group. This is undertaken in consultation with the group. While each group covers the syllabus, there is considerable flexibility as to how this is achieved. Tutors have access to the teaching-practice schools in which their students are placed, thus providing the opportunity for establishing effective links.

v) **Assessment**

The assessment of students on the course is based on a practical element - their work in teaching practice - and a written element - two or three pieces of coursework between 6,000 and 10,000 words, 4,000 of which may be in the form of a project - for example a curriculum package or a set of media resources. Assignments for the FPO and for issues in education are between 3,000 and 5,000 words each, or a combined study of between 6,000 and 10,000 words. Students and examiners work to a set of assessment criteria, as set out in the figure overleaf:
Experience, reading and reflection

a) does the assessment demonstrate the student's ability to draw together personal experience, reading and reflection as a basis for his or her professional and personal development?

b) Are connections made between various elements of the course (i.e. school experience, FPO, curriculum, education, recognised and used where appropriate?)

Educational argument

a) Does the assessment demonstrate the development of clear and logical argument about education matters?

b) Is the argument well structured?

c) Is the argument grounded in appropriate evidence?

d) Are the students' own views expressed where appropriate?

Theory and practice

a) Are appropriate examples of theory and practice used to illustrate points made?

b) Is the relationship between theory and practice carefully considered with respect to the topic under discussion?
4 Reporting enquiry

Where an enquiry undertaken by the student at first hand is reported, does the report:

a) discuss the practical, ethical and intellectual problems and advantages of the enquiry (e.g. collecting the data, evaluation the data, analysis and reporting)?

b) Show ability to evaluate the status of the conclusions?

These criteria, of course, are not the same in each institution. However, in general, some criteria are implemented from one to another.

Evaluation

It may be said that evaluation has been meticulously carried out since the current course was initiated in 1985. Each element has been evaluated by students and staff. Generally, a process of small group discussion and questionnaire survey has been employed to gather evaluative data. This careful evaluation has helped to develop the course in a variety of ways. For example, there has been direct feedback on the issues in education element and the format, programme and resource bank have been revised each year in response to evaluation. The same applies to other elements of the course. (I shall look at these matters in more detail in the next chapter).

Despite this careful review and development work, there remains certain questions about the course which warrant further consideration.
Work has been undertaken on all these points through the work of the PGCE Review Committee and the Initial Course Board. A continuing series of staff-development workshops is being carried out. These workshops have brought together staff from across institutes and from a range of departments. Topics for workshops have included interviews and admissions of PGCE students; managing school-based days; supervising teaching practice; making links across the course; language, education and the PGCE; multicultural and anti-racist education and the PGCE; the National Curriculum and its implications for the PGCE. Currently, a very important opportunity for the ongoing development of this course is an institute’s involvement as a pilot institution in TVEI in the initial teacher training initiative of the Training Agency. TVEI is the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, sponsored centrally through the Training Agency, which has achieved considerable impact in schools and colleges and has recently been extended to each local education authority. (HMIs Report, 1988). The basic idea of the initiative is to enable institutions of ITT to explore the implications of TVEI and its extension phase for courses of initial teacher education. The focus is to be on staff development and, in the case of the institute’s pilot project, this is taken to imply that course development must follow.

Funding for this project has enabled the PGCE management team to set up some thirteen tutor-led research projects relating to certain key foci of TVEI work, e.g. work place learning, cross-curriculum initiatives, modular course structures, active learning and assessment. In addition, a pilot profiling scheme has been established. This involves six curriculum tutor groups for secondary/FE and the whole of the primary group in developing profiling.
Students build up a portfolio of their work and maintain a diary which may be personal to them if they so wish. The diary is intended to work as a self learning device and a means of critical reflection on the course and its impact. It seems likely, at the time of writing, that the scheme may lead to students going into their first teaching posts equipped with examples of their work and a record of their achievements, together with an indication as to where they most need support during induction and probationary periods.

A further development for the Institute of Education PGCE is involvement in the Articled Teacher Scheme. This is another centrally funded initiative, this time through the DES. The scheme, established in September 1990, was to trial two-year PGCE courses for students to be maintained through a bursary (Naish, 1991). The course is essentially school-based, with students spending four-fifths of their time in school and one-fifth in the teacher education institution. Successful students obtain the PGCE qualification and Qualified Teacher Status at the end of the course.

Now I turn to an examination of the implementation and processes of curriculum development. In particular, I address skills, knowledge and attitudes required by beginning teachers and how these may be developed within Initial Teacher Training.
This section examines the proposition that teacher education has a first duty to develop the student's own learning and reviews how their learning opportunities and outcomes are organised. Central principles of how knowledge, skills and attitudes are acquired from a main theme within a survey of courses and teacher training arrangements and structures. My first point of focus is the knowledge and skills which teachers use - a point bound up with the attitudes he/she has when starting teaching. Hence, what knowledge, attitudes and skills should the professional course in teacher education attempt to teach? The answers are, of course, more complex today than were thought a century ago.

The teacher always has been and must still be a learned person because organised learning is his/her business. Hence the first requirement of a course on initial teacher education is that it should develop the student's own learning. The three year course, therefore, contains an important element of academic study; the one year postgraduate course is available only to those who have satisfactorily completed such academic study.

Secondly, the teacher has to encourage organised learning of certain kinds, which are deemed to be important or useful to children and young people in
the context of formal education. Thus, the course contains a component of teaching practice in schools so that the student teacher may acquire first hand experience of the conditions in which he will practice his profession.

The third component is educational theory. In other words, the student has to relate and adjust his learning to the needs and capabilities of the pupils he has to deal with. To do this he/she has to draw upon several areas of knowledge, most obviously upon those which are usually described as the principles and methods of teaching part of the curriculum, also upon educational psychology. As a professionally educated person the candidate has also to see how his/her particular area of teaching relates to the curriculum in the light of changing needs and attitudes. At this point the student teacher must be able to draw upon historical, philosophical, sociological and psychological knowledge as well as knowledge of recent experiment and thinking in curriculum development. The trainee has also to face the questions with which pupils, parents and society in general will continue to confront them.

Thus, the demands made on formal education are quantitatively greater than they were twenty or thirty years ago. This in turn makes the task of teacher education more complex, especially in relation to the teaching and learning of educational theory. In the survey of Charlton, Stewart and Paffard (1958, 1960), students were overwhelmingly of the opinion that training must be firmly based on theoretical principles. Nevertheless, a glance at books and articles leaves one with the impression that they are somewhat confused and inhibited by being uncertain what, in fact, education theory itself is. They are conscious that the teaching and study of theoretical aspects needs to take a new direction in the context of initial courses of teacher education, but are
undecided what that course should be.

Best says

'Students in teacher training institutions study such topics as educational psychology, educational statistics, the history of education, comparative education, educational hygiene etc and for understandable economy of speech people have thrown a cordon around the lot and called it "education".

Alternatively, there has also been a tendency in recent years to apply the term education theory to the study and teaching associated with the four major areas of educational studies: psychology, history and sociology of education and philosophy (six if economics of education and comparative education are included).

The problem is what the definition of education theory is. It may be said that it is one of scientific theory, like political theory, or, like the theory of engineering, architecture, medicine or dentistry, is mainly prescriptive: it concerns in the formulation of a set of principles concerning what shall or shall not be done in education. In this way, all the subjects of education contribute directly to educational theory. The reminder from philosophers and sociologists of education, in particular, is that the study and teaching of philosophy, psychology, history and sociology of education in initial courses of teacher education should aim not at producing philosophers and sociologists, but at giving the potential teacher a fuller understanding of the educational process and a greater capability as a teacher. This warning needs to be heeded.
In addition, the characteristics revealed by one of the inspection reports (like those identified in the national surveys of primary and secondary education) show that good teaching calls upon those aspects of personality and character which are needed to gain the respect of pupils. Among these are energy, enthusiasm, sensitivity, stamina, reliability, punctuality, a genuine interest in the young, a facility for communication and a readiness to exercise the responsibility of caring for those in one’s charge. Effective teachers help children develop inquiring minds, acquire knowledge and skills; develop personal moral values and appreciate human achievement and aspirations. They are expected to have a sensitive understanding of the society in which their pupils are growing up in, its racial and cultural mix and the pace and effect of technological change. They are able to establish a quiet but purposeful working atmosphere and to organise teaching and learning so that the work matches the different aptitudes and abilities of the pupils and to relate and adapt their methods to the needs and circumstances of the moment. This entails setting high expectations, with pupils extended to their full capacity. To this end, the teacher’s employ class, group and individual teaching to suit the kinds of learning demanded. They also use a variety of techniques to encourage and assess progress, including careful and informed observation, perceptive and constructive comment and a variety of more formal measures. With such teachers the children attain high standards of work and are encouraged to live and work amicably together, to show consideration for others and to have respect for their environment. They use a variety of teaching methods and aim to nurture in pupils the ability to develop and follow a line of argument, come to judgements, make discriminatory choices, develop skills and positive attitudes to learning and exercise leadership. (Hilliar and Allen, 1971).
Secondary teachers especially are concerned with providing high quality care for the pupils as individuals, understanding the close relationship which exists between academic and personal development and to help them to make decisions, for example, with reference to subject choices or possible careers.

In preparing pupils for adult life, they keep in touch with further and higher education, industry and developments in training. In this they are expected to have regard for the help which is available from other teachers, external agencies and parents. They also come to know their pupils through sharing experiences both within and outside school, through extra curricular activities and through knowledge of the local community.

To support and secure curricular changes, teachers are involved in designing and applying more refined and wider ranging assessment practices, encompassing, for example, practical, oral and aural skills and personal qualities. They have to be aware of ways of identifying children with special educational needs and of the processes of identification introduced by the Education Act.

Effective induction, positive support from more experienced colleagues and continuing professional development all have their part to play in turning beginners into competent and experienced teachers able to ensure high standards of learning. (HMIs Report, 1985).

All the above depends on the quality of initial teacher training in the institutions, how students are trained, and what subjects are taught to them.
during their training for developing the knowledge, skills and attitudes to teach.

Hence, the courses in teacher training institutions, in general, are preparing students for the duties and responsibilities of being a class teacher; a member of school staff and a member of the teaching profession. According to the official circular, four generally expressed goals must, among others, be achieved. These are:

1. an understanding of the subject taught and of its place in the school curriculum;

2. an understanding of the learning of the subject by the school pupils;

3. the understanding, skills and personal qualities necessary to teach the subject to the school pupils;

4. the understanding, skills and personal qualities necessary to exercise the forms of classroom discipline and control appropriate for the teaching of the subject. (Hirst et al, 1988).

These goals are associated with subject-based courses in institutions, but equally critical is the legacy of school-based experience, which seems to be increasing under the influence of practising teachers. Because teacher training tends towards greater school-based training, many teacher educators
(such as Duffy, Poehler and Putham, 1987) are supporting this idea, they point out that:

'We want our teachers to be in cognitive control of their instruction, that is we want their instruction to be governed by their thought, so that they can make the substantive curricular and instructional decisions demanded both by the fluid nature of student cognitive processing and by the fluid nature of the mediational aspects of instruction. We do not want to produce rigid and inflexible teachers who deal with the constraints of the instructional environment by following technical scripts in routinised ways.'

For example, with regard to reading instruction, it is assumed that such cognitive control is rooted in reading. How teachers organise their knowledge about how to teach must take priority because (a) knowledge structures get to the heart of the 'thought' in the 'thought-to-practice' focus and (b) the evolving temporal nature of knowledge structures reflects more accurately what we already know about the fluid nature of teacher thought in action.

On the other hand, teaching is a complex activity which cannot be carried through unless some modification takes place. Such activity may also be called 'interactive' in that the situation created by the teacher's original intention acts on that intention to change and modify it. To learn to teach is to learn to deal with theory. Part of what one needs to know to be a teacher is how to revise one's intentions so that what is done is reasonable.

Forming the question in this way indicates the development of what constitutes the practice of teaching. To enter the practice of teaching sets the goals and agendas for teacher education. Putting the issue in this way is
bound to raise certain objections. However, it may be expressed that competent teaching is a compound of three elements: subject matter knowledge (which most PGCE students studied for three years); systematic knowledge of teaching and reflective practical experience. These three elements can be considered as elements of teacher education as A.T. Pearson (1989) has pointed out.

Subject matter knowledge needs to be coherent with the teacher's intention. The possession of this knowledge is essential for teaching in a number of ways. It is necessary in order to define aims and objectives of the teaching situation; one cannot define aims and objectives for students regarding what they learn if one has no understanding of what it is that students should learn. In other words, if the teacher does not have enough knowledge in such cases, clearly valuable teaching opportunities are lost. The necessity of subject matter can also be seen in the experience of a student teacher. The failure to take into account subject matter knowledge can have serious effects on the formulation and revision of intentions in teaching practice.

This account of theory and practice requires that teachers have a high level of subject matter knowledge. This knowledge is needed for one to teach in the optimal or most desirable way. Teachers need to know what they intend their pupils to learn because the intention is dependent on the knowledge sources the teacher brings to the teaching situations. The teacher must first be aware of what it is that is intended for students. Additionally, teachers need to know that which is taught. They also need to know how to perform the skills.
Teaching is a complex activity. Intentions will often need to be revised in the light of interactions the teacher has with students in the teaching situation. The more knowledge the teacher possesses about the subject the more alternatives will be open to them in practice. Deeper knowledge allows the teacher to see more possible ways of getting the ideas and knowledge related to a topic across to the students. They will be able to identify the range and level of knowledge needed by a competent practitioner. This will encompass appropriate knowledge within the subject matter itself and how it fits into the program of studies for students at differing levels of ability and experience. The teachers need to know how to prepare and adjust information for teaching according to the student's level.

This can be called the structure of the subject matter - frameworks to which the facts or items of information can be attached to provide a coherent whole.

An awareness of the philosophy of the subject is also essential, in order to see the relation of this subject matter to others. To put the point more clearly, the teacher should see the place of the subject matter in a larger scheme of things.

In addition, professional knowledge can also be called the systematic knowledge of teaching. This can be said to include two aspects: the first being knowledge regarding the causal events, regularities or relations that may produce learning; the second is knowledge a person needs about teaching - that is of the place of teaching in social and educational concerns. Professional knowledge is part of teacher education. This knowledge has to be learned within teacher education.
The third component of teacher education is reflective practical experience. Practical experience has always been a part of teacher education, usually in the form of student teaching, although it can be provided for in a variety of ways. The outcome of teacher education is intended to be the ability actually to teach, not just knowledge about teaching.

It is noticeable that course structures vary considerably between institutions, both for B.Ed and PGCE. General aims for the training of teachers are often outlined in prospectuses and course submissions, but there is little evidence of detail. The aims and objectives of secondary courses, particularly relating to the B.Ed, are sometimes not clearly distinguished from those of primary courses.

The courses often consider such aspects as the relationship between language and learning; ways in which the teaching of a subject can contribute to the personal and social development of pupils; the contribution of the students' main subject to the secondary school curriculum as a whole; and the use of more recent technological developments.

In the case of both B.Ed and PGCE courses, the training of students for secondary schools emphasises the role of the subject specialism and normally focuses on one or two subjects with the emphasis in PGCE on subject pedagogy. For B.Ed students, the methodology course usually runs alongside the main subject work and the extent to which the two are integrated or related varies between institutions. It is worth noting that mathematics and language are invariably compulsory.
The quality and effectiveness of the preparation of teachers, especially for secondary specialist teachers, are considered in the following section: selection of students for B.Ed and PGCE courses; the degree background of PGCE students, development of teaching skills such as the specialist roles, classroom methods and approaches, teaching methods used by tutors, including the National Curriculum (primary and secondary schools), syllabus design, relationships and classroom management, meeting the individual needs of pupils, special educational needs, ethnic diversity, language and learning, personal and social development of pupils, assessment, other professional issues, coherence within the courses, standards of students (standards of written work). HMIs Survey, 1985).

In addition, teacher training institutions introduce students to the basic skills of using library and information sources. Students are also taught how to use microfilm bibliographies, the library index, teletext/other video facilities, photo-copying, the law of copyright, doing a computer search for relevant references. Thus, there is usually a course of introductory lectures dealing with library and study skills in the first year or term.

Students obviously receive handouts in both the main components of their courses: those to do with education theory and professional training and those followed as 'main' related or 'academic' subjects. As already noted, practices vary but one pattern is discernible: students are much more likely to receive reading lists for each lecture/seminar at the beginning of the course or series of lectures/seminars in education and professional studies than they are in their other subjects.
From the theoretical viewpoint, students are given information for guidance in study skills such as skimming and scanning, summarising a text or article, making notes in lectures/seminars, planning or writing essays or other assignments, referencing (writing biographies, footnotes etc), general layout and presentation of assignments in addition to printed handouts.

As far as the courses are concerned, the aims may be listed as follows:

- giving the student an understanding of how children's learning takes place;

- giving the student an understanding of his/her teaching subject;

- giving the student an understanding of the place of each subject in the curriculum;

- enhancing the student's general interest in education issues;

- inducting the student into the discipline of education (e.g., psychology, sociology, philosophy, administration etc.).

- enabling the student to develop the skills necessary for exercise of classroom discipline and control;

- enabling the student to develop his/her self-confidence.

Concerning the aims of the course for secondary specialist teachers, all students should on completion of the course have:
i) attained a reasonable level of basic competence in professional skills

ii) developed the ability to reflect critically upon educational practice.

The first of these aims is short term and functional. The latter is relatively long term and concerns the development of a personal philosophy of education.

Regarding course structure and content which is college-based, as opposed to school-based, (while not making a detailed analysis of the differences between the two), a major structural distinction can be made between those departments that purport to offer separate specialist theoretical courses and those that offer integrated theoretical courses. When a department offers an integrated course, it does not necessarily mean a great deal of highly developed conceptual reorganisation has informed its construction. (Bernbaum and Reid). The approach, therefore, in an integrated course, is most likely to be through topics, issues and themes. Such methods maximise the opportunity to utilise both staff and student experience.

A further variation between departments is the extent to which whole courses and parts of courses are common to all students. Departments differ greatly in the degree of choice characterising their courses. In some departments little or nothing is common and students have a range of options from which they might choose. In other departments there are common courses, which all students are expected to attend.
In this sense, the courses most commonly named are in psychology, philosophy, with substantial numbers also taking courses in language, learning history of education, management, organisation and administration, examination and assessment and special education. Other topics, such as discipline and adolescence are frequently subsumed in general, integrated courses. The non-method courses are taught in a variety of ways.

As a part of students' theoretical courses, the training involves the writing of essays, papers and dissertations. Thus, the students are twice as likely to have written an essay on the psychology of education as on any other field. Other popular themes, in descending order, are mixed ability teaching and other forms of grouping, discipline, topics in the sociology of education, comprehensive schools, aspects of the philosophy of education, language and learning as well as between aspects of method and theory.

Obviously students undertaking dissertations have a very free choice. It is interesting to note here that the most popular choice of dissertation title reflects the wide range of topics covered - sex roles, education in hospitals, truancy, women in education, the leisure activities of adolescents, financial cutbacks in education, the transition from primary to secondary school.

The implementation and processes of courses in teacher education institutions seem to be more similar in general aspects to teacher training under the criteria for ITT, even though the contents of the courses are implemented differently from one institution to another. In general, these courses are as follows:
i) subject specialist courses

All the institutions recognised the importance of the subject method component as that part of the course where students developed the ability to teach their specialist subject. The best of the courses aimed not only to develop in the students the specific skills and understanding that this role demands, but to set these within a context of wider professional issues.

ii) Classroom methods and approaches

In about three quarters of the PGCE subject method courses, and in about two thirds of those in the B.Ed courses, students are judged to be gaining a good grasp of the approaches and methods appropriate to the successful teaching of the subject. In a substantial number of these (one third of PGCE and half of B.Ed courses) the preparation of students for their role is considered to be particularly commendable.

Discussion of concept development is supported by illustrations and tutors encouraged students to present pupils with stimulating material and to use microcomputers in their teaching. The work includes planning and simulated delivery of exemplar lessons, and students are provided with opportunities to consider the strategies for teaching a given topic, analysing and sequencing the concepts and techniques. Other aspects of topic studies are record keeping, the importance of exploratory talk by pupils and the use of audio-visual and published material.
In this respect PGCE course modern language students are provided with an understanding of the methodology of their subjects through school visits with related assignments, the use of teaching materials prepared by the tutor as working examples (issued to each student for the duration of the course) and evaluation of school language courses and peer group teaching.

Students are also involved in the presentation of lessons and in the leading of seminars. From these opportunities and from the examples of the methods used by tutors, the students gain a good foundation for teaching the subject.

In addition, children are taught by groups of students who have carefully prepared the work, while other students critically match and complete observation schedules. This commendable enterprise has to be carefully prepared by tutors, teachers and students and the observations are constructively used in follow-up discussions.

iii) Teaching methods used by tutors

Evidence from the program of teacher training indicates that in the majority of lecture and seminar sessions in primary and secondary B.Ed courses, students encounter a wide range of teaching strategies which they themselves might use. Also, most of the tutors themselves are actively providing students with good models for their own teaching, such as group talks, demonstrations supported by the use of appropriate visual aids and discussion. Students are encouraged to prepare and make their own contributions and short lectures, including the use of micro-teaching and of
computer-based teaching in accordance with their subjects.

In PGCE subject method courses, the teaching methods employed by tutors are regarded, in almost all cases, as exhibiting good models for the students' own future teaching.

The methodology includes lectures, group discussions, whole class discussion, workshop activities and individual tutorials. A central feature involves students in preparing and teaching lessons and in discussing these with the rest of the group. Illustrative examples of student's work are fed in by means of video tape recording and photocopying.

In addition, it is important that there is good use of the blackboard, excellent documentation and clear presentation of aims and objectives. The teaching methods employed are very effective as a means of presenting the subject, ranging across formal lectures with student participation, practical sessions, seminars, small groups, individual tutorials, individually supervised and project work.

iv) The curriculum studies

The intention of these studies is to enable students to acquire ownership of some of the fundamental ideas observable as currently underpinning curriculum planning in Britain and other countries. As a result of studying this, students are expected to be able to identify, adapt and utilise various curriculum rationales in formulating curriculum policies.
A majority of colleges address the issue of the relationship between individual subjects and the whole curriculum. In general, institutions are dealing with this aspect effectively. For instance, in the PGCE science method course, lectures and seminars cover the 'integrated curriculum' and analyse the wider school curriculum. These involve science 'enquiry' projects involving cross-curricular preparation on topics and students are encouraged to explore the relationship of science with history, geography, economics and other curricular areas. These are covered on the curriculum studies part of the course and deal with topics such as the aim, objectives, methods, implementation and assessment.

v) Syllabus design

While there is sufficient attention to a view of the curriculum as a whole, institutions offer the students guidance on syllabus design in individual subjects. It seemed that units on the planning of items within a syllabus featured in many courses and it is apparent that these worked more successfully when tied to specific topics: the session concentrating on the planning of individual lessons rather than the general designing of a syllabus. These courses encourage team work in the planning of material for teaching. Students working in groups have to design curriculum units for a specified age or ability group. Students are allowed to develop insight into syllabus contraction.
vi) Relationships and classroom management

An important characteristic of teachers is the ability to establish relationships with individual pupils and with classes generally. One vital part of the selection of students for teacher training courses is to assess their ability to form appropriate relationships with people and particularly with the young. Courses need then to build on this ability to develop skills of classroom management and the kinds of working relationships in classrooms where there is mutual respect between teacher and student.

The students observed teaching are at various stages of their teacher training course, but in as many as three quarters of the lessons they have established a good relationship with pupils and are controlling classes well. The students are expected to learn a good deal about group observations, managing equipment and resources, involvement in pupils' practical work and the appropriate use and management of time available.

vii) Meeting the individual needs of pupils

The PGCE and B.Ed subject method courses provide students with an understanding of the varieties of pupils' needs in terms of ability, culture and background, helping students to make the teaching of their subject relevant and interesting to a full range of pupils.

School visits and teaching practice are also potentially valuable opportunities for students to acquire practical experience of mixed ability classes. Students are made aware of the nature of various kinds of needs. Questioning
techniques, mixed ability teaching and group methods, lesson preparation, a study of resources and the grading of pupils' work all formed part of the course. These are discussed, followed by a micro-teaching exercise of the students working with small groups of lower attaining pupils.

Essential reading for courses includes books which provide insights into a varieties of pupils' needs and how they could be met. In nearly all cases, students are given more specific guidance on how to prepare and organise work to match the wide range of individual needs they will encounter in their teaching.

viii) Special education needs

The most common pattern is a short common course followed by options, although there are other patterns in a number of institutions.

Students are introduced to such aspects as identifying pupils with special needs, deciding upon appropriate teaching methods for major curriculum areas, relationships with parents and sources of external support. The assessment of students is carried out through a school-based case study. This course is compulsory for all PGCE students.

Variations of practice are also found in secondary B.Ed courses. In one such course all students have been supplied with a most helpful booklet designed to provide them with a framework for the study of special educational needs within their professional and education study workshops. In college B.Ed courses, all students have a compulsory component of special needs within
their third year education studies course. This seems an admirable inclusion and is concerned with children who experience problems in social as well as cognitive learning. Lectures, seminars and assignments are backed up by packages of teaching materials students could use in the classroom and by booklets written by the tutors. The main aim of this course is to give students an understanding of the nature of specific learning difficulties and equip them to apply this understanding to developing individualised teaching programmes. (DES, 1984). In addition, the students should also be able to see the relevance of special educational needs to their work in various parts of their training in order to arrange the programmes of teacher training.

ix) Ethnic diversity

All initial training courses on both sides of the binary lines are controlled by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, whose stated criteria include the requirement that:

'students should be able to teach the full range of pupils whom they are likely to encounter in an ordinary school, with their diversity of ability, behaviour, social background and ethnic and cultural origins. They will need to learn how to respond flexibly to such diversity and to guard against preconceptions based on the race or sex of pupils.' (DES, 1984).

There have also been significant changes in the public examination system during the last decade, for instance, the GCSE general criteria includes a section entitled 'Recognition of Cultural Diversity' which states:

'in devising syllabuses and setting question papers, examining groups should bear in mind the linguistic and cultural diversity of society. The value to all candidates of incorporating material which reflects this diversity should be recognised.' (ILEA, 1987).
The School Examinations and Assessment Council and examinations boards have the responsibility of ensuring that new GCSE syllabuses and examinations meet this multicultural criterion. It is therefore essential that all teachers are adequately prepared by the institutions for this task. There are, therefore, three major aspects of strategy: firstly, those involved in preparing students to meet the particular needs of minority children; secondly, strategies concerned with the needs of all children in a plural society; and thirdly, those focused upon inter-cultural relations. (Craft, 1989).

As a result of the above, ethnic diversity study is a part of the professional education in a plural society and all institutions have specific courses to introduce students to various cultures and faiths through personal contact. Institutions sometimes organise a conference on multi-ethnic issues for all students, with follow-up classes in individual subjects. At the same time, ethnic minority groups and LEA advisers help institutions to teach students the multi-cultures as well. Students are also given lectures on this subject as part of education of sociology and psychology. (DES, 1987).

x) Language and Learning

Language is an important part of an education system as well as individual subject languages. Pupils must understand and use the language clearly. It is a communication tool between teachers and pupils for both learning and teaching.

In modern language courses, there is an element on 'Language in Education' and video is effectively used to observe children's use of language in the
classroom. This leads to an interesting group discussion on the value of exploratory talk amongst pupils and also uses television. In general, the evidence suggests that PGCE students are being reasonably well equipped to understand the role of language in the learning process.

xi) Personal and social development of pupils

One of the important elements in the training process is the extent to which individual courses point up the contribution which the subjects of the curriculum can make to the personal and social development of pupils. Occasionally a correlation between subject methods and education studies offers good opportunities for some discussion of personal and social development from psychological aspects.

At PGCE level, the choice of content in some subject areas, notably English and history, often lends itself to a discussion of personal and social issues. Thus, literary studies in one English methods course aims to illustrate personal and social aspects, both within the texts chosen and in the approach to them. Similarly, in history courses the contribution of the subject to social and personal development receives attention with emphasis on the need to involve pupils in discussion and encourage their active participation in lessons. In fact, in the majority of institutions, social studies is an area where constant reference to pupils' own experience is advocated as an important resource. In addition, each subject's teaching involves personal and social development of pupils.
Briefly, personal and social development is an area which is actively promoted both by the work and by the example set by the staff themselves.

xii) Moral education and pastoral care

The 1988 Education Reform Bill affirms that a balanced and broadly based curriculum:

'promotes the spiritual and moral development of the pupils at school and of society; and prepares such pupils for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life.' (DES, 1987).

In fact, so far, the majority of teacher training institutions have been including teaching about personal, pastoral and moral subjects within, particularly, the education of psychology and sociology courses, including a part of religious education.

In a complex and multi-cultural society teachers need to assess the kinds of sensitivities and skills which they will need. So, initial teacher training in the majority of institutions is required to promote the following:

1. A sense of the complexity and mystery that surrounds the ideals and accompanying values both of the individual and of the community.

2. A consciousness of, and reflection on, the role of education in shaping the development of the pupils' sense of what it means to be human.

3. An ability to understand and respond to pupils from differing cultural, ethnic, religious, philosophical and social backgrounds.
4. An ability to promote viable interpersonal skills in classrooms and tutor groups.

5. An ability to help pupils grow increasingly conscious of their individual identity and its role in inspiring certain values and attitudes to their community and peers.

6. A consciousness of their place in the continuum, analysing the nature of society as pluralistically liberal or traditionally autocratic, thus ensuring adequate understanding of their personal commitments and perspectives and how they influence their professional work.

Teachers help to form a more integrated, morally just, more human society. However, it seems that student teachers are fulfilling roles as determined by the values and beliefs of the majority in society. Britain has long accepted religious education, with a syllabus approved by government, as being a mandatory element of the school curriculum, so that students take religious education in the institution as a professional subject. Briefly, the main topics in teacher training are related to the physical self, the sexual self, the vocational self, social self and the philosophic self as a moral and pastoral education.

xiii) Assessment

Institutions adopt a diverse range of approaches to assessment of pupils' achievements. PGCE courses also produce varied examples of good practice.
In social studies courses, the theory and purposes of assessment are discussed and linked to practical techniques. A number of different methods of assessment are evaluated against the stated aims and objectives of the relevant course. A particularly impressive feature of this work is coordination with parallel work in education on norm and criterion-referencing. Activity in both areas has been jointly planned and this reinforces the effective guidance the students receive. They are taught different assessment in accordance with subjects. Students are also introduced to different forms of tests and to the GCSE.

A vital element of the assessment of pupils' achievement in secondary schools is the public examination system. The syllabus design in respect of individual subjects is often included in method courses and frequently discussed in the light of requirements of the public examination system in the B.Ed and PGCE courses.

In addition, for example, students are given copies of all syllabuses from the various boards so that are aware of the content of examination courses nationally, as well as regionally. In this case, the staff themselves provide particularly good models by giving broad treatment to the topic without conveying the impression that all teaching is subordinated to the end of the course assessment.

xiv) Other professional issues

The skills of teachers have to extend beyond those closely related to classroom methods and the curriculum, important as these are. An examination is a
necessary way in which institutions help intending secondary teachers to acquire the wider professional skills and understanding which they are likely to need in today's schools. Among these are an understanding of the place of the education system in society and of the relationship between schools, with parents and with the community as a whole. (That is given to the students in a few institutions theoretically from the aspects of education of sociology).

The role of parents is considered in the majority of courses. In one instance the importance of good relations with parents is mentioned explicitly in the college's statement of its philosophy, which refers to the boundaries between home and school as 'becoming more permeable'. However, it seems to be that in the great majority of courses, students receive no instruction about the school's relationship with the community or about the teachers' responsibility regarding the concerns of parents.

It is very important for teachers to understand the impact of technological developments, such as microcomputers, on society. Most institutions provide computer familiarisation courses for all students. The courses generally give students some 'hands on' experience and an opportunity to see various applications of the microcomputer. It is, however, extremely difficult to learn to use these effectively in the courses of short duration.

On the other hand, in the institutions, a great number of optional courses are offered for the students. These aim to produce teachers who in due course would manage, advise upon and further the use of computers and information technology in schools. The quality of the students' understanding of computers is influenced by the extent to which these
machines are used as part of the learning and teaching approaches throughout the institution.

xv) Coherence within the courses

The students' preparation for teaching may be improved further if the various elements within the courses being offered are more effectively linked and made mutually supportive. This would help students to understand the relevance of issues more easily and increase the range and level of their teaching skills.

In the majority of B.Ed and PGCE courses, some constructive links are being effectively drawn between main subject studies and corresponding method courses, but it seems to be that there is little evidence of any planning to enable students to understand how these different aspects of their training inter-relate. PGCE courses particularly are most effective where they have been planned and taught in a unified way and where method tutors included the main educational issues in the course. Hence the links between subject and education studies differ from subject to subject and institution to institution.

xvi) Standards of students' work

This can be divided into two main types which are the standard of written work and the standard of work in schools.
Written work (especially in PGCE courses) produced by students should be competent throughout the course; well presented and showing evidence of ability to conduct small scale investigations, drawing upon background reading and organising material effectively. The standards of written work in the courses appears to vary widely between the individual subject areas and from one year group to another. Also, there is a general level of oral work in both B.Ed and PGCE courses and when given the opportunity for open discussion in seminars, most students are expected to make positive contributions. It can be said that the best sessions are those where interaction between tutors and students is lively and productive. In particular, PGCE students engage actively in such exchanges and are encouraged to question and challenge, but their opportunities to do so vary from tutor to tutor.

Secondly, students are seen teaching at various stages of their course in accordance with their own specific subjects.

Teaching practice files are generally supposed to be recorded carefully day-by-day. Some files contain constructive comments by tutors urging the students to consider further certain aspects of their lessons, or challenging their comments on the evaluation of their own teaching during the teaching experience in schools.

The growth of teaching ability in students is largely dependent upon the extent and depth to which they can assess the learning of pupils, relate it to their own teaching performances and then plan the next activity accordingly.
In addition, written reports on school experiences are received from the student’s teacher, general and personal tutor. General tutors are required to identify in their interim report, any student whom they consider to be 'at risk of failing to complete satisfactorily' their school experience. This is to allow time for remedial measures to be identified and put into operation.

These subjects relate to the subject of initial teacher qualification. In general, PGCE courses are organised as follows:

- the preparation of materials for teaching
- use of school text books
- the use of prepared school materials
- team teaching
- voice projection and diction skills
- project work in schools/colleges
- teaching children of below average ability
- mixed ability teaching
- syllabus planning
- lesson planning
- methods of assessment and evaluation
- the preparation of pupils for 'A' level exams
- the preparation of pupils for 'O' level exams
- the preparation for exams
- the organisation of fieldwork for pupils
- the organisation of laboratory work for pupils
• the skills involved in questioning pupils in class
• varied methods of teaching your subject(s)
• the use of the blackboard
• the use of audio-visual aids
• classroom management and organisation
• control and discipline in the classroom
• micro teaching
• interaction analysis
• the special educational needs of pupils with handicaps
• the government and management of schools
• the law as it relates to teachers
• the use of language across the curriculum
• pastoral care and counselling in schools
• the moral education

Some of the differences from one institution to another are, of course, partly determined by different departmental policy and practice. Topics within the programme can vary from one institution to another. However, programmes of ITT in institutions are operated quite similarly under the framework of the CATE teacher training policy and criteria.

Finally, it is essential that all courses for initial teacher training in Wales and England, be connected to the National Curriculum. The National Curriculum consequently exerts an important influence on teacher training in each institution across the country (Wales and England).
After having examined the teacher training in England and Wales from the theoretical aspects, I shall now examine teaching practice during training in the next section.
CHAPTER 11

TEACHING PRACTICE AS A SKILL WITHIN TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMMES

There has been an age old debate as to whether teaching is a craft or a knowledge based and driven occupation. This reflects the debate as to the theory and practice of teaching, and related issues of the appropriate knowledge base. This chapter reviews the place and purpose of teaching practice within a variety of initial teacher training programmes. The second part of the chapter includes analysis of how students are organised and assessed on differing modes of teaching practice.

A universal feature of teacher education programmes are that they contain four components: general education, specialist knowledge, professional knowledge and practice. In addition, they may be divided into two main groups, which are theory and practice. Schools are not solely concerned with practice - theory plays its part and the reverse is true for universities and other higher education institutions.

However, one may want to say that an integration of what is theoretical and what is practical results in the loss of important bases for distinguishing ideas and activities. It is often very difficult to distinguish between the theoretical and practical and what counts as theoretical in one context may well count as practical in another:

John Dewy, for instance, described long ago the

'primary or initial subject matter. Recognition of the natural course of development... always set out with situations which involve learning by doing. Arts and occupations form the initial stage of the curriculum
In other words, to know something is to be able to do something. The same idea is put forward by Donal A Schö"n (1987) in 'The Theory of Reflection in Action'.

He pointed out that the professional in schools must re-think both the theory of practice and the pedagogical assumptions upon which their curricula are based and must bend their institutions to accommodate the reflective practicum as a key element of professional education. However, as one of the students in the engineering school said:

'We know how to teach people how to build ships, not to figure out what ships to build.'

Another one said:

'We need most to teach students how to make decisions under conditions of uncertainty, but this is just what we don't know how to teach.'

In all these examples, educators express their dissatisfactions with a professional curriculum that cannot prepare students for competence in the indeterminate zones of practice.

Nevertheless, in investigating the relation of theory and practice in teacher education, a first approximation of how the two notions are to be understood is to liken the relation to that found in the practice of medicine. Thus, clearly, theory is found in the interaction between the physician and the patient. It seems obvious that the practice of medicine is guided by the theoretical knowledge of the physician. The education of the physicians endeavours to provide the student with a general knowledge of the field that
can be applied in the every day practice of medicine. Biological sciences have also provided the practice of medicine with much knowledge and many treatments that they can use in the care of individual people. Teaching practice can provide the same kind of interaction between theoretical knowledge and teaching in a real situation.

Thus, teaching practice provides a period of experience in professional practice during which the students test and reconstruct the theory which they have evolved and during which they further develop their own teaching style. It provides an opportunity for the student to assume major responsibility for the full range of teaching duties in a real situation under the guidance of qualified personnel from the institutions and from the cooperating elementary or secondary schools (NCATE, 1970). In teacher training it is crucial that teaching practice provides the point of interaction between training institutions, schools, and the administrative machinery of local education authorities and area training organisations. To this end further experiment along the following lines is indicated:

a) Training institutions working with as few schools as possible, consistent with the need for students to have experience of a variety of schools.

b) Such schools seeking, according to their size and circumstances, to maximise the number of students taken, where possible having in a large school several students in each of several specialist subjects.

c) A training institution working within a limited number of schools jointly planning the courses (for teacher training) not only in general outline but in detailed content and methods.
d) Tutors and teachers collaborating closely on criteria procedures for selecting students for the course.

e) The staff of the training institution and those staff of the schools responsible for the day-to-day work of training, teaching in others' institutions and alongside each other, so as to benefit from each other's knowledge and experience.

f) Members of staff of both institutions taking part in work with students both in schools and in the training institutions.

g) Work on educational theory in the training institutions being directly related to the practical work of students and teachers in schools recorded on videotape.

h) Practical work in school being directly related to work of a theoretical kind undertaken in the training institution. (Stones, 1975; Hirst, 1980).

Hence, teaching performance and many other professional capabilities can only be developed through forms of practice that are available exclusively in schools and nowhere else. (Pearson, 1989). If school experience is to constitute genuinely professional preparation, it must effectively involve theory and practice just as students' work in the training institution needs to integrate these elements and implement them in schools. They need to be systematically used to develop students' understanding skills and personal qualities. For that to happen, informed, critical help is necessary from knowledgeable and experienced teachers and tutors. To this end, teachers and tutors must work collaboratively with students to plan the school experience part of the course and how it is to be related to work done in the training
institution. The precise roles of teachers and tutors in the supervision of school-based work must also be defined. With collaboration on the planning and teaching of the course there should clearly go collaboration on assessment. The award of the certificate is then best seen as working simply and indicating at least minimum competence in the central tasks that will face a young teacher. This can be amplified in an individual report.

For this reason, Clifton and Covert (1977) evaluated the effects of an experimental programme on the motivation and self-concept of a group of student teachers. They concluded that:

'The amount of productive time a student teacher spends in school and integration between that what is observed and practised there and what is taught in educational institutions has a significant effect upon the development of his motivation to become a teacher and his self-concept as a teacher.'

Therefore, although teaching resembles practice in medicine (or any other professional activity), in fact, it is not identical. In other words, teaching is unlike medicine, snooker or tennis - albeit for different reasons. This is paradoxical because teaching is one of the most practical activities. The first reason is that initial training is only a start and teachers need to practice their craft (their theoretical knowledge) to become expert through experience; the second is that both students and teachers need to try out new ideas in a systematic, intelligent, self-conscious way and thereby take more responsibility for their professional development. It should also be added that these aims are a function more of the form than the structure of teaching practice.

After receiving about 200 papers on training, Joyce and Showers concluded that:
Whether we teach ourselves or whether we learn from a training agent, the outcomes of training can be classified into several levels such as awareness, concepts and organised knowledge, principles and skills and application and problem solving. At the awareness level we realise the importance of an area and competence begins with awareness of the nature of inductive teaching, its probable uses, and how it fits into the curriculum. At the level of the concepts and organised knowledge, concepts provide intellectual control over relevant content. Essential to how learners of various levels of cognitive development respond to inductive teaching and knowledge about concept formulation. At the level of the principles and skills, they are tools for action. At this level there is potential for action - we are aware of the area, can think effectively about it and possess the skills to act. At the last level finally we transfer the concepts, principles, and skills to the classroom. We begin to use the teaching have learned, integrate it into our style and combine the strategy with the others in our repertoire.

Nevertheless, both separately and combined, each of these training components contributes to the impact of a training sequence or activity. When used together, each has much greater power than when they are used alone. As a result of this the major components of training in the studies can be listed as follows:

1. Presentation of theory or description of skill or strategy.
2. Modelling or demonstration of skills or models of teaching.
3. Practice in simulated and classroom settings.
4. Structured and open-ended feedback (provision of information about performance).
5. Coaching for application (hands-on, in-classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom).
As far as all the above are concerned, including the aims of the professional practice, it should take account of the student teacher’s need to:

- exercise with responsibility relevant skills, knowledge, abilities, dispositions, capabilities and understanding;

- be able to continuously uncover and create his own theories of action and to use and evaluate these;

- be able to work with people to facilitate their best interests in terms of learning;

- Concomitantly and continuously be able to adapt and refine all these things.

The activities of teaching practice

After the programme of teaching practice for teacher training is implemented, it is expected that the student teacher will possess the skills and ability to use and evaluate his own theories of action in order that in all his work with pupils. He/she is committed to facilitating their learning to their highest potential, at the same time continuing to learn him/herself how better to do so.

Thus, school experience (teaching practice) is organised in such a way that students are in working contact with schools throughout virtually the whole course. As previously noted, in accordance with the criteria for teacher training in DES Circular 3/84, teaching practice seems to be given particular
prominence, so that many institutions have already changed the structure of their courses and others are in the process of doing so.

All courses provide block placements in schools of several weeks each and most offer some form of serial experience, a half day or whole day per week for a period of time. It is worth noting that on most B.Ed courses there are between eighty and one hundred days of school experience, while in PGCE courses there are usually between seventy and ninety days.

Serial experience is aimed to give students the opportunity to focus on a specific topic or some aspect of teaching closely relating to the course and to plan and discuss the experience with their peers as well as with their tutors. It seems to be at its most successful when students are given specific tasks to carry out on regular visits to schools, which are then discussed in a follow-up seminar. Good links with education and professional studies seemed to be achieved in this way, particularly in PGCE courses.

Within B.Ed courses, institutions generally offer students three main practice blocks, with interspersed periods of serial experience. Most courses are also designed to give students substantial experience in schools at an early point in their training. This serves the dual function of giving them a secure introduction to the classroom, helping to identify those who have made an appropriate choice of career. The majority of those B.Ed courses which offer honours to students who successfully complete a four year degree do not include substantial school-experience in the final year. This arrangement seems to have the serious disadvantage of creating a long period between the final school experience and the first appointment as a probationary teacher.
Teacher training, and the curriculum of training teachers, are differently arranged by departments of universities and other institutions such as colleges of education and new universities. Two different types of teaching practice are organised in accordance with the criteria for teacher training. One of these has to take place within a year and is for students who have already obtained a degree. During this period of time student teachers take lectures in specific subjects, general knowledge of some subjects, such as English and Maths. They take subjects (in the training institution) relevant to primary or secondary teacher training programmes, attend seminars and lectures, complete essays and do teaching practice. The second teacher training route takes four years. In each year there is teaching practice which is organised separately by the institution in accordance with the criteria for teacher training. However, in the final year there is substantially less teaching practice than in the previous three.

Nevertheless, as far as the amount of time spent in schools for teaching practice is concerned, in both one year and four year teacher training courses, student teachers spend the same percentage of their total training period on the teaching activities in the school. In general, it is expected that when students are on teaching practice, they are being observed in the act of teaching. It is normally expected that university or college and school staff watch lessons in order to induct, advise and guide young teachers in such matters as class control, level of instruction, use of visual aids, blackboard and the like, and general classroom craft. For this reason teacher/tutors visit student teachers during their teaching practice between one and three times. Again, however, this varies according to both subject and department. In addition to teacher/tutors or trainee teachers, students might also be visited by other teachers. Nevertheless, whatever arrangements schools make,
prime responsibility for teaching practice remains with the university or college staff.

Generally, PGCE student teachers have a two week observation period in a school of their own choice before the autumn term gets underway. This term contains weekly attachments to two different schools: one half-day attachment serves the needs of subject method work, while a separate whole-day attachment forms part of the education studies programme. The major practice occupies twelve weeks of the spring term with students spending the first half of the term at the department for meetings with their tutor. This is a sensibly organised pattern of school experience and commendable care has been taken to maintain a close relationship between the work in school and the theme of the course. During the third term (the summer term), student teachers are in schools for at least five or six weeks during this period on teaching practice. Meanwhile, they prepare their essays, seminars regarding professional or subject study and lectures and meeting with tutors, both individually and in groups. Student teachers spend the equivalent of at least eighteen weeks in schools during their course. There are usually two teaching practices organised, each of six or seven weeks duration. The first is at the end of the autumn and the second near the start of the summer term. At least one day each week is set aside for work in schools during the early part of the autumn term and throughout the spring term. Some students also choose to visit schools for a number of other reasons. There are a number of different schools available for teaching practice, such as (11-14) high schools, upper schools (14-18), secondary schools (11-16 or 11-18), sixth form colleges (16-18) and colleges of further education and primary schools (3-8 or 7-11 age groups). There are also other schools such as lower secondary (9-13), core secondary (11-16) and upper secondary (and tertiary, 11-16) available for planned teaching practice.
Despite the centrality of teaching practice to the students' experience, institutional differences remain significant. In addition to the formal periods of teaching practice, most students also have other opportunities to visit schools or to work in various capacities with teachers and children to gain more experience. They might also undertake teaching practice in more than one type of institution.

There are considerable similarities between courses, although each institution is free to make its own decisions on most of the curriculum. Nevertheless, student teachers are generally required to cover the following during their teaching practice:

- teaching mixed ability classes
- teaching pupils being prepared for 'O' level examinations
- teaching pupils being prepared for CSE examinations
- teaching small groups of pupils (less than ten, not sixth form)
- teaching multi-racial classes
- working with a special unit, e.g. for disruptive/remedial pupils
- teaching projects for which his/her degree, PGCE or special interests have not equipped him/her.

As already mentioned, students' experiences on teaching practice vary according to the type of school in which they are being placed. Those who go to grammar schools, independent schools and sixth form colleges are more likely than other students to have experience of teaching 'O' and 'A' level classes, but less likely to have taught in a special unit. Students doing practice in comprehensive schools, by contrast, are more likely to have taught 'CSE' classes and worked in special units.
It is recognised, of course, that different universities have different organisational structures and that certain areas of work might be included in a method course in one department and be studied separately in another.

Nevertheless, the major aim during the training for any institution, the pedagogical thinking and doing are strategic, imaginative and grounded in the knowledge of self, children and subject matter. In other words, as Highit pointed out:

'Student teachers must think, not what they know, but what children and pupils know; not what student teachers find hard, but what children will find hard; putting themselves inside childrens' minds or in real teaching situations. And then student teachers will be able to acquire what to teach children when they are being appointed.'

From this point of view, each teacher training institution organises the teaching practice for their students to acquire teaching skills in real school situations.

There are three ways in which students reading for a PGCE spend time in schools. Firstly, they may undertake periods of observation in schools, either before the course commences and/or during the period of the course. Secondly, the students undertake conventional teaching practice, but with differing patterns. Thirdly, they may visit schools to undertake activities with pupils which are, in some sense at least, separate from teaching practice and observation. In addition, students may visit schools in order to see a particular educational development or special facility. Such visits are likely to be in groups and not to last for more than one day. During the training period, therefore, the matter of most concern to students and tutors in England and Wales is teaching practice. Over the course of the academic year, students spend more than fifty days on teaching practice. The exact time
spent in school varies according to the subject. Different institutions also incorporate different lengths of time for teaching practice. There are no important differences between the major areas such as science, language, maths or the arts. Students spend fifty per cent of their training time in schools for teaching practice and the rest of the time in colleges or universities.

Therefore, when we take an overall view of teacher education in England and Wales, it is apparent that the content of initial training courses may be seen as concerned with two distinct but interconnected areas of professional competence associated with different aspects of the teacher's role. These are:

1. The development of classroom competence - covering the understanding, judgement, skills and principles relating to the day-to-day practice of classroom teaching.

2. The development of wider professional competence - covering the understanding, judgements, skills and principles relating to the teacher's wider professional role within the schools, community and society at large.

There are classrooms and workshops, including the direct experiential understanding of particular classes, knowledge of other professional's work (e.g. about schemes of work or disciplinary techniques and their consequences) as well as professional knowledge of a more abstract, theoretical kind (e.g. ideas about what ought to be done in 'this type of situation' to motivate children). Professional knowledge, practical skills and principles are, of course, themselves based on fundamental values and educational theories and these too may form part of the teacher's explicit
stock of knowledge; alternatively, such assumptions may be merely implicit.
Courses are consequently being arranged and developed at a variety of
different levels, from the most concrete and practical to the most
fundamental and theoretical.

In this respect, it is very difficult to divide teaching practice which is school-
based, from the whole school training programmes. Four different levels of
training are included, such as direct practice, indirect practice, practical
principles and disciplinary theory. The first level involves the development
of understanding judgement and skills through direct practical experience in
the classroom, school or community context. Students acquire these
essentially by first hand experience, issues of professional principle and
theory are entirely implicit.

At the indirect practice level of training the knowledge and understanding of
concrete practice that students develop is essentially 'second hand'. It is
derived from talks, books, videos, discussions etc. The training in skills they
receive is essentially detached or simulated, taking place in workshops or
micro-teaching situations. Through training of this sort, students are
intended to develop a repertoire of specific skills and ideas to use in their
own teaching. Taken together, first and second levels seem to be used as a
basis for more principled and theoretical form of training at third and fourth
levels. Students also begin to understand that practical principles are
inevitably general, suggesting what ought to be done in certain kinds of
circumstances, incapable of 'prescription' because any given situation may be
unique in crucial respects. Work at this level develops students' ability to be
able to reflect critically on their own and others' practice. This recalls Schön's
reflective practitioner, who sees the practical implications of the principles as
different ways of 'defining' problems, becomes consciously aware of how
definitions open up reflective practice and sees the need for the justification
of the principles that responsible professionalism require. Finally, all three
levels are concerned with professional understanding, judgements, skills and
principles. As such they are themselves based on many implicit value
judgements and theoretical assumptions. Work at level four is of a different
order in that its purpose is to explain and critically examine such value
judgements and theoretical assumptions by reference to the foundation
disciplines (philosophy of education, psychology of education, sociology of
education and history of education. Students are expected to develop and
build up skills, judgement and understanding at all L1 levels, as they progress
from one to another. There are, of course, a wide variety of different links,
especially between direct practical experience and theoretical perspectives.

The key personnel with whom the students engage during their teaching
practice are the following:

School Based Activities
- Observing teachers' teaching
- Teaching
- Seminars
- Tutorials
- Engaging in pastoral work
- Engaging in extra-curricular activities

University or College Based Activities
- Meeting of the personal tutor
- Group (and individual) tutorials
- Meeting of the curriculum
- Plenary sessions
The administrative elements are also discharged such as initiating the student into the various aspects of departmental practice (e.g. the syllabuses used, the location of teaching resources), arranging, on the students' behalf, access to carefully selected classes in order to provide variety.

Therefore, it seems that all courses by their structures, determine students' direct practical training in a number of major respects. Firstly, by the weighting they give to direct classroom experience and practical school activities, courses provide different opportunities for direct understanding of the complexities of practical situations. It may be said that much of this understanding is a matter of tacit appreciation of situations as well as explicit attention to what is occurring. Opportunities to understand both the uniqueness of concrete teaching situations and their common features seems to be central to developing teacher's sensitivity in practical judgement. Also, multiple school experiences seemed to be most important on courses where a substantial amount of time is devoted to practical work. A minimum of
three and often four different schools enabled students to acquire a breadth of understanding thus ensuring a real opportunity for development throughout the training period. In terms of weighting and diversity of direct practical experience, the course structure has an important impact on the emphasis training students receive. Equally important is the pattern of serial and block practices that is established. By its nature, serial experience is intermittent and therefore provides intermittent practical experience. Block practice alone offers the opportunity for regular, sustained and systematic practical training for which there does not seem to be an alternative. Both serial and block experience are being planned with their distinctive characteristics and precise purpose.

In all courses the teachers working with students are, in general, able to help them to understand in detail and with sensitivity what is happening in classroom situations. They are, additionally able to give students specific advice and help on judging what to do in particular circumstances. The role of lecturers is to supervise. They serve a quite different purpose from that of teachers. They are able to assist in assembling student teachers' training materials and to make contact with as many schools as possible. This indicates improved communication between tutors, students and class teachers in order to clarify supervisory aims, achieve parity in assessment procedures and ensure congruent perceptions of supervisory behaviour.

The aims of the tutor during teaching practice may be summarised thus:

- to help the student become a better teacher;
- to enable the student to obtain the maximum benefit from his/her teaching practice experience;
- to offer sufficient support for the student to give his/her best
performance in the circumstances of teaching practice;

- to help the student teach more effectively within his/her talent and for the benefit of the children;
- to support the student in what he/she is doing and to encourage his/her growth and to give him/her advice, so that he/she is able to operate at the most effective level;
- to help the student to become an effective part of the team in a teaching situation;
- to help the students to grow during teaching practice, to develop their thinking about what a teacher does and to help them to cope in the school situation;
- to give the students confidence in developing their own styles of bringing about learning;
- to make the student feel at ease and be aware of school situations and to be concerned for effective learning by the children.

In addition, to assess the student’s suitability to enter the teaching profession, to assess the student’s competence as a teacher, to criticise the students’ teaching in a constructive manner, to assist the student in relating educational theory to educational practice. A further role is as liaison officer between the student, the school and the college and to assist the student in making meaningful observations of teaching and learning behaviours. Finally, tutors (supervisors) assist the student in formulating aims and objectives for his/her teaching, encourage them to develop a questioning, analytical approach to teaching, help them utilise ways of keeping useful records of teaching and evaluate the effectiveness of the student’s own teaching.
Hence, when a school accepts an individual student for teaching practice, or a visit by a group of students, the aim is that the experience is worthwhile. Equally, the school must be in a position to commit itself to the needs of the visitor or students without disruption to its central purpose and its responsibility to its own pupils. However, each institution from which students come has different aims for the particular school experience which it organises for its students. For instance, the students on a one year PGCE course, spending one whole term in school has a totally different aim from a group of first year B.Ed students coming into school together one afternoon each week. It seems difficult to meet these differing needs and there are sometimes arguments for schools and departments within schools limiting the number of institutions from which they take students. This can be in collaboration by developing the links between the institution and school so that a clearer understanding develops, regarding the context into which the particular student visit fits.

Once links with certain institutions have been arranged, it follows that the requests which arrive each year from training colleges and university departments requesting teaching practice places are processed by one teacher in charge of students. As a request usually arrives well before the new academic year, it is again vital that the school is ready to re-assess its commitments for the coming year in the light of staffing changes. Again the closer the school and college link, the easier this is to manage. A clearer understanding of what skills and knowledge students need can be established.

The preliminaries to the main teaching practice are supposed to aim to match what the school has to offer and what the student wishes to undertake. It is quite common for students to visit the school for a day some weeks before
they begin their practice. The school policy is expected to give clear guidance
to all on the significance of the preliminary visit and the pace at which the
practice should develop. From this point of view, teaching practice
commences according to guidance concerning the way a lesson is structured,
demands of practical work, safety considerations etc. whole school teaching
practice experience, such as pastoral care, observation of whole curriculum,
observation of other subjects (there is great value in specific visits to lessons
in other disciplines), observation of special units (such as a site, a group of
schools at a centre), out of school activities (music, drama activities, chess
clubs etc.), duties (students should know what is required in schools), student
pro forma (like timetable), student and INSET (students should attend INSET
meetings in school as part of teaching practice), reports (in most instances the
training institutions ask schools for a written report at the end of the practice,
a copy of which is kept by the department. At the end of the practice, the
institutions record evaluations from students facilitating better arrangements
in succeeding years.

There are also special school for teaching practice which are organised in
order to teach special subjects. Each one has a timetable according to their
specific subjects. They provide information to the students about the
planning department meetings, pastoral care, according to where students
come from, staff meetings and parents' evenings.

The main methods used by staff to inform students of their progress on
teaching practice as follows:

- discussion/tutorial immediately after observation;
- written comments, all types;
- collective discussions;
• weekly discussions/tutorials;
• and all others.

Students are given information about their progress on teaching practice after their lessons are observed and, in many cases, such reporting is followed up by written comments. Other methods being used by tutors including collective discussions and weekly tutorials. The information which is related to similar methods of conveying information are used by other university staff who visit students.

University or college tutors most frequently criticise student's speech or voice; the ways in which students questioned pupils in class; students' classroom management; use of the blackboard. Other frequent criticisms are to do with lesson preparation; teaching practice files/book; attempting to teach too much in too short a time; classroom discipline; and using materials unsuitable for the ability of the pupils.

During the teaching practice it seems that the most common practice is for students to be offered experience of teaching pupils of varying ages in schools located in diverse social and ethnic areas. In this connection, local education authority involvement in the selection if schools is not widespread, although in some areas a committee, which includes LEA officials and advisers, is instrumental in allocating schools to individual institutions. In a small number of authorities close relations have been established between advisers, tutors and schools. Given the need for identification of good practice to provide students with the best possible models, there is a strong case for greater involvement of the LEAs, particularly through their advisory terms, in liaison with schools and teacher training institutions.
The head, or more commonly in secondary schools, a senior teacher, is the member of staff most influential in determining the class and teacher the students would work with, particularly for block practice. There are, of course, good examples of heads carefully placing students with teachers who could support them professionally and whose personality is likely to complement that of the student.

Letters and documents regarding school experiences are a major source of information for all schools and provide a link between schools and universities. Most institutions provide schools with general information and further documentation relating to individual students and the courses they are following. Some of it is very detailed, explaining the range of tasks expected of students, the development of curricular topics and the organisation of work. Also included, though less frequently, is information about the purposes of block practice and about work done in the training institution to prepare for it. Documents vary greatly, both in scope and quality and most schools feel that they are satisfactorily served. The documents tend not to be written especially for the schools; the more common practice is for institutions to send copies of course documents or handbooks prepared for students. In at least one case, however, teaching practice handbooks are prepared jointly for tutors, students and school teachers which ensures that the interests of each are represented - it is also very worthwhile that institutions arrange joint meetings with schools to discuss school experience and these frequently extend beyond the immediate concerns of teaching practice to include a broader range of issues of common interest.

A crucial aspect of relationships between schools and the institutions is the quality of personal contact between the teaching practice tutor and the school
teachers during the planning stages. Where it works well, the tutor, student and class teacher meet to discuss the individual student's programme and the needs of the children he or she would teach. For this reason tutors particularly value long-standing contracts with certain local schools. Such arrangements are sometimes formed as part of the organisation of the course, though the designation of 'associated' schools, for example. With the active support of the LEAs, teachers work for part of the week with students in schools. This approach has established close practical links between college-based and school experience. In general, schools seem to be conscientious about the implementation of teaching practice approach and heads, senior staff and class teachers are consistently prepared to observe lessons and offer verbal or written comment. It is worth noting that there are very good examples of the influence of able practising teachers on the students' work through informal comment, seminars, introduction to wider aspects of the school, and induction into the profession. They are providing a model for the development of this role within schools.

As an average across all the courses, students spend about one fifth or one seventh of their total time in school. The major part of this work is in the form either of block practice or of serial visiting, but there are also school-based assignments of many kinds. For the most part, school experience is well structured for both B.Ed and PGCE students with a balance between serial and block practice. In all institutions the Dip.HE courses include work experience of one kind or another in the first and second years. For those considering teaching, this could take place in schools. On the other hand, secondary specialist students appear to spend almost all their time teaching their main subject.
In addition, school-based assignments in education studies, curriculum studies and assignments are sometimes set requiring work in schools. Some of these assignments prove a very useful way of linking college-based study with school practice. There are also lectures on the importance of encouraging pupils to learn and on the means of providing such encouragement. This is followed by seminars, each relating the theme to a different area of the curriculum. The seminars are in turn followed by visits to schools, where tutors and students together analyse the needs of particular pupils and how these might be met.

The supervision of students by college tutors during periods of both block and serial practice is, without doubt, one of the most important aspects of training in that it provides a major link between school-based and college-based parts of the course. It also gives rise to concern. The reasons for this are complex and include the restrictions of time and resources experienced by tutors as well as, in a few instances, low regard for school visiting within the institutions in which they work. In this sense the procedures of teaching practice supervision are used by method staff to inform students of their progress on teaching practice. Other methods are used by tutors included collective discussion, weekly tutorials and written comments. Teaching practice apart, the tutors build up a network of relationships with staff in local schools. However, the traditional role of teacher tutors has primarily been to organise opportunities for students to observe classes being taught and then to progressively undertake more teaching, giving advice and help to the students as necessary. In addition, teacher tutors organise the courses in schools and provide support for them.

Course design and implementation are, however, seen as the responsibility of the training institution and the school. Centralised control of the curriculum
of schools through increased bureaucratic mechanisms, run counter in many aspects to the philosophy of school based training. However, in the name of accountability, therefore, and in a relatively brief period, there has been political and bureaucratic impetus to establish mechanisms for tighter control and prescription in five areas of education: curriculum content, design, the assessment of pupils' performance, appraisal of teachers' performance, the government of schools and the education of teachers - both initial and in-service.

A curriculum for secondary school based on the clear definition of specific aims and objectives was defined through the newly constituted Secondary Examinations Council and the devising of the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). National criteria have now been set up according to which pupils' grades in each subject are assessed and towards which 'approved' syllabuses are being implemented. The contents of the syllabus content are thus defined in specific ways in relation to what pupils must do to achieve particular grades. That, in turn, ensures that teachers need to perform specific tasks towards tightly prescribed objectives in a curriculum which differentiates pupils' 'efficiency' (according to their performance in tasks) and allows similarly efficient measurement of the outcome of teacher's work.

In this aspect, the HMI discussion paper, The Curriculum from 5 to 16, and the White Paper, provide guidelines for schools on how to co-ordinate the review of policy in relation to the organisation, content and conduct of the school curriculum. Standards of education linked to economic prosperity and achieved through value for money schooling are a manifest concern. The means to achieve better schools is seen to rest within a consensus 'partnership' between central government, LEAs and individual schools.
working from a common policy towards the achievements of national objectives. Objectives are set down in broadly agreed terms:

1. to help to develop lively enquiring minds, the ability to question and argue nationally and apply themselves to tasks and physical skills;
2. to help pupils to acquire understanding, knowledge and skills relevant to adult life and employment in a fast changing world;
3. to help pupils to use language and numbers effectively;
4. to help pupils to develop personal moral values, respect for religious values and tolerance of other races, religions, and ways of life;
5. to help pupils to understand the world in which they live and the independence of individuals, groups and nations;
6. to help pupils to appreciate human achievements and aspirations.

The fundamental principles set out in the design of the curricula require that all pupils should experience a curriculum which is:

**Broad**
language and mathematics closely associated with art, craft, history, geography, music, science physical education and religious education (plus a foreign language at secondary school level).

**Balanced**
each area allotted sufficient time

**Relevant**
to pupils' experience and valuable for adult life.

Those processes, including active rather than passive learning, less teacher direction, more oral discussion, posing and solving of practical problems and
greater responsibility for pupils to pursue their own enquiries and make
decisions, are high on the list of changes required towards the achievement of
better quality education. To this end, 105 LEAs in England and Wales work
with schools individually to reach the aims. In addition, H M Inspectors are
collecting evidence about the extent and effectiveness of practice for teacher
assessment and self-evaluation in schools and to make this evidence more
widely available.

The National Curriculum prescribes three core subjects to be implemented
over the next five years: English, mathematics and science, as well as seven
foundation subjects, to be taught at primary through to secondary school.
The foundation subjects being: art, technology, history, geography, music,
physical education and religious education. One modern language is also
prescribed for 11 to 16 year olds. At the ages of seven, eleven, fourteen and
sixteen, pupils undergo an attainment test in each subject. Tests in history,
geography and technology for seven and eleven year olds were recently
abandoned and the assessment policy of testing seven year olds is currently
under review. Prior to its introduction, schools had been able to decide their
own subjects and teaching methods. Many schools now feel they are not
being provided with the resources necessary to implement the National
Curriculum.

The National Curriculum requirements must be taken into account during
PGCE and B.Ed courses. The first attainment targets and programmes of
study were introduced in 1991. All pupils have been taking examinations for
qualifications which have been subject to the Secretary of State's required
procedures with students being made aware of the background to the new
curriculum changes before they go into schools for teaching practice.
Moreover, there are other subjects outside the National Curriculum such as drama, economics, social studies/humanities, environmental studies, PSE, integrated studies, peace education, classics, current affairs, careers education, information technology, computer studies, business studies and pre-vocational courses (TVEI). At the present time, thousands of students receive training in these subjects.

In terms of National Curriculum requirements, curriculum tutors in teacher education institutions have therefore been faced with recent and relevant work in schools - updating their own skills. This enables them to show students how to plan lessons by devising appropriate objectives, discussing what type of content and teaching methods are most suitable for certain age levels and by considering how best to evaluate the children's work and their own teaching performance in order to meet the requirements of the National Curriculum. Schools and LEAs also assist students during their teaching practice so that there is a direct relationship between teacher training institutions and the curriculum of schools resulting from collaboration between LEAs, institutions and schools.

In addition, the way in which curriculum tutors work closely matches the specifications set out in the Course Document. The tutor has one principal function, which is to develop the student's awareness of the place of their subject within the school curriculum and to inform the teaching of it with a body of relevant principles. To this end tutors make termly visits to students in the tutorial schools. The aims of seminars/discussions are:

- to provide students with the skills and knowledge relevant to the stage reached in their training;
• to transcend the specificity of the experience;
• to challenge existing practice where appropriate.

The personal tutor, as has been previously described, is a central figure in the university or college course, a 'lynch pin' for student and tutor alike and 'a godfather' to the student's place in the particular school. In their capacity as personal tutor, lecturers are being charged with the well-being of the group of students in the tutorial school. They are also in regular contact with the teacher tutor, assessing all students and identifying any who experience particular difficulties.

The institutions are increasingly encouraging serving teachers to contribute to initial training, both through participation in the teaching of courses and through representation on college committees. The most successful participation of teachers in work within the college appears to take place when the contributions of teachers and tutors are complementary. There are many examples of class teachers bringing their detailed knowledge of pupils and their work to bear on such issues as assessment, the matching of work to ability and general classroom management. In some cases, teachers formally designated as teacher-tutors are recognised as such by their local authorities, working with students both in school and in the training institution on a regular basis. In every institution there are committees which involve practising teachers in discussion of course proposals, arrangements for teaching practice and, less frequently, the assessment of students. The role of class teacher, so significant in the whole process, is not only more clearly, but also more effectively supported.

An examination of the subject course materials reveals considerable differences in the different subject area. It is clear, for example, that the
modern language students are more likely than all other groups to undertake the study of the use of school textbooks, less frequently considered by primary and secondary students or by the social science students, who are less likely to undertake tasks relating to the preparation of materials for teaching than are students in other groups. As might be expected from the last decade of development and dissemination of prepared school materials, it is science students, more than any other category, whose work includes the use of such materials. In addition, the study of voice projection and diction skills is one of those activities frequently omitted from courses. The same group also pays more attention to syllabus planning, an area where primary work seems relatively difficult. Where the primary and middle students seem to gain more experience than other groups is on project work and, along with biology, geography and history students, in the organisation of fieldwork. There are, of course, individual differences between departments, including the parts of the course in which various topics appeared.

The fundamental necessities appear to be lesson preparation, questioning skills, preparing materials, use of the blackboard, classroom management and organisation, control and discipline in the classroom and the use of audiovisual aids and the use of language (across the curriculum and project work). The latter skill might be said to be the most important for teaching, being the essential key to teaching children any subject.

Assessment of teaching practice

In general, programme outcomes are explicit descriptions of the knowledge, skills and dispositions that the teacher education graduate should possess. As the attribute of a theoretical knowledge base, outcomes are expectations that the programme department use to evaluate each student throughout the
program. It can be said that program outcomes result from a task analysis of the organising theme. They define the image of the teacher as stated in the tasks. Along with each performance outcome, the faculty describe an evaluation or documentation process that indicates what is expected of pre-service teachers. Outcomes and evaluation processes take many forms from one institution to another. The outcomes and evaluation processes for a program may be designed around the functions of teaching that the institution believe are generic. These functions include, but are not limited to, assessment of content, teaching strategies, evaluation of pupil progress and interpersonal communication. The outcome focuses especially on what it means to graduate from a particular teacher education programme.

Thus the set of programme outcomes and evaluation processes should provide a clear picture of the teacher education graduates who have successfully completed the program for students, professional colleagues and an informed public. This includes what the graduates should be able to do and what particular dispositions they should hold as they assume their professional roles.

It is worth pointing out that outcomes also provide indicators for programme evaluation. The results of the evaluation are being used to improve the quality of the program. Thus, the organising theme put into operation by means of the program outcomes, functions as the foundation for both student assessment and programme evaluation. Thus, the outcomes are not only to be aims of teacher training programs, but also to be general criteria for the assessment of each student's performance. (DES, 1989).

From this practical framework the assessment of students is made at two stages, ongoing and at an end point. The continuous assessment used
throughout teaching practice is included in the course and there are no written examinations. In order to qualify for the award (PGCE, B.Ed) by institutions and Qualified Teacher Status by the DES, students have to:

1. follow the course satisfactorily by attendance, participation and completion of set work;
2. reach pass standard both in written assignments and practical teaching.

As previously noted, written assignments linked to various aspects of the course occur at specified intervals throughout the course. Opportunities are provided for resubmission within a prescribed time limit.

Practical teaching is assessed on the basis of two periods of teaching in consultation with the relevant staff of the school or college where the practice takes place. Opportunities exist for students to undertake additional practice where this is considered to be necessary. (The Course Documentary, 1991).

When we look at the activities of students in a school during practice, again, they are expected to see, as a school experience, other teachers at work: helping them; negotiating school corridors; listening to children in small groups; taking responsibility for part of a class; taking group time; being part of a team to plan new work. These are some of the activities in which students gain positive experience. Being in school includes a great deal of careful watching and listening as well as practising how to teach and reviewing what the pupils have learned. It is most important to get the 'practice' part in perspective. To practice teaching his/her main subject and later his/her second subject, is central to becoming a teacher. However, this is not the only purpose of being in school. Other reasons include
understanding the community of each of the schools he/she works in; what the school does in his/her subject and what it does more generally. The tutors are responsible for arranging the school experience. They do this in negotiation with the school's professional tutors and the teachers who have day-to-day responsibility for students and student's supervising or co-tutor.

During weekly visits, student's teaching skills are not assessed, as in the block periods. These visits are primarily concerned with building up student's awareness and experience generally. Any formally assessed work eventually arises from what students do during these visits. On the block placement, students' co-tutors or supervising teachers are asked not only to give students day-to-day guidance, but also to observe students' teaching and to write a report which is based on criteria provided by the staff. These reports are made ready for the examiners' meeting at the end of the course (year). Examiners visit students to see their teaching on at least two occasions per block (one in the autumn and one in the summer term). The combined assessments are used to confirm a pass as a competent practical teacher. In this sense HMI's recommend that:

'All courses of training should include practical experience and knowledge of class management and control; knowledge of the variety which constitutes the full range of pupils in terms of ability, behaviour, social background and culture; experience and knowledge of the level of performance appropriate.' (DES, 1983).

The criteria for assessment of teaching practice are discussed with the student early in the course, in preparation for the first teaching practice. Students also take an active part in keeping a record of progress and discussing their own success with tutors and co-tutors. The general criteria includes such things as:
• his/her ability to assess what pupils already understand, to discern their present skills and base his/her teaching accordingly;
• his/her planning and preparation of both resources and content;
• his/her skill in relating with pupils individually and in groups;
• his/her ability to generate interest and enthusiasm, to communicate ideas and to control and manage activities in the classroom;
• his/her ability to monitor what the pupils are learning and adjust his/her own teaching in response.

The ability to work with other teachers and to contribute to the work of the school as a whole is also very important. Punctuality and reliability count, as well as the appearance and manner of students. In addition, students are assessed by tutors and the staff with reference to planned topics and individual lessons: attempts to develop practical work and pupils’ activities; good organisation of equipment and materials.

When tutors visit during teaching practice, they discuss what they have seen with students and give them a written report on the visit. Tutors want students to comment on their own progress and to respond to their written comments. A copy of the reports are placed in students’ records of progress file.

The report (The Courses Documents; 1991-92) written on students’ skills during the practice are mainly:

• finding out what pupils understand and can do;
• planning and preparation, getting or making useful resources;
• relating to pupils;
• generating interest and enthusiasm;
• communicating ideas clearly;
• controlling groups and managing activities in the classroom;
• relating to colleagues and others.

Student teachers may also add a brief report on the practice. Finally, the tutor's notes and all the documents regarding the student's teacher training are made available to the panel of examiners for the certificate.

In addition, written reports on school experience are received from both teachers and general tutors and from the student's personal tutor. It is important to note here that students are required to maintain a course file for the duration of the training which usually reflects all aspects of the course and may include lectures, group or individual research and the development of teaching sequences in schools.

The course file is a major means by which students demonstrate the evolution of their ability to reflect critically upon all aspects of training. It is the personal tutor who is assigned responsibility for assessing the curriculum tutor, course director and external examiners also read the files of a cross-section of students.

The student is aware of all these assessment procedures and all receive information regarding the basis on which their work is evaluated. Many institutions have produced lists of headings to be used in assessing students' teaching.
Finally, at the end of the course the decision whether to pass or fail a student is usually made by the training institution with moderation by the external examiner. Schools are asked for comments which may be taken into account, but it is uncommon for schools to share the responsibility for assessment. After the assessment students are informed whether they have passed or failed their teaching practice.

This section highlights the background and selection procedures applied to students wishing to enter an initial teacher training programme.
CHAPTER 12

THE CANDIDATES FOR THE COURSES OF TEACHER TRAINING

This sections highlights the background and selection procedures applied to students wishing to enter an initial teacher training programme.

From a system analysis point of view, student selection procedures for entry into teacher education are very important. They influence teacher training programmes, teacher training quality during training, as well as teacher quality as an outcome at the end of the course. In this sense many educationalists point out that teacher education may be examined from a system aspect. Each system has input, function and output. So it can be said that the system of teacher education consists mainly of three sub-systems. They are students as input; teaching-learning activities and organising the environment of these activities as a function; and aims of the course as an output in the system. Thus, input strongly affects both the function and output and also these three sub-systems interact and affect each other so that as one of the sub-systems of the system, the student selection procedure and entry is important as much as the other two sub-systems for the whole system.

In this respect, William Taylor wrote:

"To predict what teacher education in England and Wales will look like in the 1990s is a hazardous business. In respect of one of the key factors shaping its future, we do at least know how many students will be starting primary and secondary schools up to 1995, for they are already born. Future birth rates to determine the overall size of the school population are harder to forecast. Even more so are the political, economic, social and educational developments that will shape the..."
organisation, content and control of education. Whatever will happen, he continues, is that demand for teacher is one important consideration. Supply is another. A third important consideration is the academic quality of those who train for teaching. In the way, he said, that one of the components of initial preparation would, to the fullest extent that market conditions permit, be from among the abler members of their cohorts, comparable in ability and motivation to those planning to enter the traditional high status occupations. In addition, a proportion of places would be available for older candidates, already successful in other occupations and able (for the most part) to satisfy normal entry requirements, who wished to prepare for a second career in teaching. Modes of student support and the salary reward structure of teaching would need to be succeeded to encourage they achievement of these desiderata.’ (W. Taylor, Future Teacher Education, pp251-252).

When the criteria for student selection are examined regarding procedure and entry requirements, it is found that they have been defined centrally by CATE. According to CATE criteria, institutions should ensure that candidates possess suitable personal, physical and mental characteristics to teach; all candidates must be given equal opportunities, regardless of race, nationality or gender and must be admitted by a personal or group interview. Moreover, all entrants have to have an 'O' level in mathematics and English or achieve a grade C or above in the GCSE. While candidates may apply without these qualifications, they cannot begin the course until they have them. Special exemption from the requirement of GCSE mathematics and English is available for candidates possessing the requisite qualification. Entrants to PGCE courses must hold a degree of a British University of the CNAA, or a recognised equivalent qualification. In addition, experience of work with children or adolescents in a school, youth club or otherwise, as well as previous employment or self-employment, normally counts in a candidate's favour.

All application forms are processed by the Graduate Teacher Training Registry (GTTR). Unsuccessful applications, according to criteria, are
automatically passed on to other institutions of the student's choice. The GTTR also supplies up-to-date information on the courses offered by the various departments and colleges and on the vacancies existing in each. Departments and colleges generally start to consider candidates' application forms from 1st October.

Secondary applications are expected to indicate both their intended first and second subject group and they have to declare the subjects in which they have a degree as a specific subject. On the other hand, primary applications should indicate the intended age range (3 to 8 or 7 to 11) or whether they wish to be considered for the Educational Psychology group. It is worth noting that the LEA in whose area the student is ordinarily resident is responsible for the award of the PGCE and B.Ed grants, and applications have to be made direct to 'home' authorities. Candidates from Scotland and Northern Ireland apply to their respective departments of education.

Many institutions accept 'mature students' if they have taken all the courses which are especially designed in the first few years to encourage people to start coming into the profession and getting extra training. Finally, all the candidates have to pass a health examination and an interview before entering.

In this way, applications for the course are thus sent prospectuses. The institution does not usually have an admissions tutor and when the completed forms are returned they are passed directly to the tutors responsible for primary phase and the secondary subject courses. They decide who shall be interviewed and accepted. This takes place over a specified two days or more. In this way applicants can be shown round the department
together, view videos and meet other applicants and staff not immediately concerned with their selection.

Interviewing practice varies, but generally takes the form of group interviews followed by individual ones. The department produces guidelines for tutors on academic criteria, which lay down guidelines on academic qualification, experience, and personal qualities. It is important to note that the interview helps in the effective selection of students in addition to paper qualifications. Teacher educators are also advised to seek guidance from local officials about the legal aspects of particular selection criteria. Consequently, almost every institution recruits their students from a wide area and among graduates of a wide variety of institutions: universities, new universities and colleges in accordance with the terms of the criteria (which have been determined by CATE).
CHAPTER 13

TEACHER APPOINTMENT PROCEDURES AND EDUCATION
STATISTICS

One of the most important decisions to be made by any school is the selection of a particular candidate to fill a vacant teaching post. In order to meet the implications of the 1988 Education Reform Act and local management of schools, the selection and appointment of staff is undertaken by the governing body together with the Headteacher. However, all staff in county, voluntary controlled and special agreement schools are formally employees of the LEA and it is currently the LEA that issues candidates with a contract of employment. The LEA no longer has the power to determine the staff levels for a school. This is now a matter for local decision by governors, although LEA curriculum policies may exercise an important influence on actual staff members. In addition, teacher's pay and conditions are controlled by Acts of Parliament and LEAs and governing bodies are bound by national agreements. Thus, candidates need to learn how to present themselves in the best light when completing application forms, writing letters, being interviewed and so on.

Methods of training in these skills already exist in England and Wales (eg Grummit, 1980, Plumbley and Williams, 1987). The Open University provides written instructional materials in the MA course in Education Management for those involved in making appointments in schools and some other institutions of teacher education. The Association for Science
Education and British Gas have jointly produced packs which provide guidance for Heads of science departments in selecting staff. University careers centres sometimes arrange for students to have practice interviews. All the information, including the initial teaching vacancies, is provided by LEAs, schools and other employers of teachers. There is a selection panel which is responsible for interviewing candidates in each school. These panels include Governors, Headteachers and Heads of departments.

In general, there are three procedures, by which teachers are recruited for teaching, namely 'pool' applications, 'general' applications and specific vacancies. These are explained below: (Central Service Unit, 1992).

**Pool Applications**

Under this system the LEA estimates the overall number of vacancies it expects to have in the following September and plans to recruit an equal number of teachers. There is usually a closing date which may be rigidly applied and is often as early as the end of January - some even earlier.

Interviews are usually held at the Education Offices during the Spring term or Easter vacation, at which point candidates should express any preferences they may have for a particular type of school or location. The appointments are made initially 'to the service of the authority' and allocation to specific schools is only made at a subsequent date, often as late as June or July.
The number of 'pool' appointments may drop necessitating further advertising in areas of teacher shortage. LEAs have thus been asked by schools to continue to act in a co-ordinating role, advertising vacancies, gathering in applications and interviewing and selecting applicants. In some cases contracts will then be offered immediately by the LEA, in others teachers recruited via a 'pool' will be required to attend a second interview with the individual school before being offered a contract.

b) General Applications

Under this procedure the LEAs accept speculative applications and hold them for consideration against suitable vacancies as and when they arise. An interview is usually held at the school in which the vacancy occurs.

Specific Vacancies

These are vacancies for specific posts which are generally advertised in initial teaching vacancies boards, national press, and/or notified to universities/colleges/new universities' careers services. Applications should then be made direct to school, according to the instructions in the advertisement.

Most LEAs advertise their 'pool' arrangements in December/January with 'general' applications made early in the spring term. Specific vacancies can occur at any time but advertisements tend to start around January/February. The main build-up in numbers, however, does not come until April and May
(the final date by which current teachers have to resign if they are changing their jobs in the summer is at the end of May), so students need not necessarily be concerned earlier in the year if only a few jobs are advertised. Any major reorganisation and redeployment within an authority may make all these procedures run even later.

Many LEAs using the 'pool' or general application systems send supplies of their application forms to teacher training institutions. Students may like to check whether these are held in their careers centre or Department of Education before writing to the LEAs themselves.

The written application is the first step in a self-marketing process and will determine whether or not students are offered an interview. It goes without saying that students should complete the form accurately, neatly, thoroughly and enthusiastically. LEA application forms vary. Some have special first appointment forms while others use the same form for both new and experienced teachers.

The student's interests are important as they provide interviewers with a basis for discussion when trying to assess a candidate as a 'person' as much as a potential teacher. It is particularly important to mention any interests relevant to teaching, eg participation in games, youth clubs or church work, using computers and skills that might be useful, eg craftwork, musical ability, first aid and life saving certificates.
There are no absolute rules as to what should be included but the following are possibilities:

- factual information to expand on or explain points already mentioned, eg relevant work experience, interests, situations encountered on teaching practice.
- Students can also give more details on special features of his/her course work which they have done or are doing such as his/her school curriculum project.
- Why he/she wants to the job.
- What he/she feels he/she has to offer.
- Any links with, or knowledge of, the LEA or the area in which the school is located.

Students are normally asked to give the names and addresses of two referees. The first one is from their present course, probably their tutor. This referee combines reports sent in by their lecturers, tutors and teaching practice schools. The second referee could be the Headteacher of a school where students have done some teaching practice, or the teacher in charge of students in the school. Alternatively it may be someone with whom students have previously worked closely, or, in the case of PGCE students, a tutor from their degree course. Vacation work references may also be appropriate.
Students have to produce a curriculum vitae (CV) when applying for teaching jobs. Briefly, students have to provide or prepare and send:

- curriculum vitae
- employer's application form (EAF)
- standard application form from most careers services (SAF)
- stamped addressed envelope (SAE)
- main professional grade

In addition, the disclosure of the criminal backgrounds of candidates is considered in accordance with the Rehabilitation of Offenders Act.

In this context there are two main routes to qualified teacher status in England and Wales; either as a result of an undergraduate course of initial teacher training, held at new universities, colleges and university departments of education (UDEs) or on successful completion of a postgraduate certificate. At undergraduate level, the duration of a course leading to the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) degree with honours is four years. These courses usually have the same entry requirements as other higher education courses, but they also require mathematics and English language at the equivalent of GCSE/O level, grade C. In addition to the four year B.Ed, there are some two year B.Ed courses in certain secondary shortage subjects
for non-graduate mature entrants who already have some relevant experience and suitable technical qualifications. Qualifications which may be accepted for entry to these courses include Business and Technical Education Council (BTEC) higher national awards (or HND, City and Guilds advanced certificates and others of an equivalent standard). Alternatively, those who hold a first degree or the equivalent, may undertake a one-year course leading to the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE). These courses also require mathematics and English language at the equivalent of GCSE/O level grade C. There are now some two-year conversion PGCE courses in mathematics, physics and craft design and technology (CDT). These are designed for graduates in other subjects whose degree did, nonetheless, include about a year of study in mathematics, physics or CDT.

In addition, qualified teacher status can be achieved via the licensed teacher route. Local Education Authorities and some school governing bodies can, as the employer, offer a position as a licensed teacher to an applicant who meets certain minimal academic criteria. Briefly, the regulations governing the employment of teachers in primary and secondary schools in England and Wales require teachers to hold one of the qualifications mentioned above.

Three main types of teacher are traditionally entrants into the profession. Those in their twenties completing B.Ed’s or PGCE’s, mature entrants coming into teaching from other careers and former teachers returning to the profession. The DES has identified mature and re-entrants as the groups which make the most contribution towards a solution to a supply problem. Recruitment of mature entrants (defined as people over 24) and of re-entrants
to the profession has been a feature in the teaching profession in recent years, and continues to be so.

In accordance with the application procedure, the student completes the application form, writes a letter of application etc and returns it by the closing date. After this the students are given an appointment by the school. The detailed arrangements for the whole day are planned in advance with the Heads of subject departments. Next, short-listing begins for the selection panels and consultant observers. After that, invited observers with the different panels work in separate rooms to select a short-list from the applications. Then, they join together to compare their short-lists and discuss them. Next there is an interview of the candidates by the selection panels, followed by informal feedback and discussion. During the interviews, students are asked questions on his/her application, subject and teaching experience. Finally, the selection panels evaluate and select the candidate who would best fill the vacant teaching post in their school. It sometimes happens, however, that a decision is made not to select any candidate from those interviewed, but to wait until a more suitable candidate applies.

When all interviews are over, it is normal procedure for the panel to consider their decision immediately and for one of the candidates to be offered the post. When the candidate is accepted as a teacher, a written confirmation of the offer is sent to the candidate within a few days, to which the candidate should then respond formally to.
Unsuccessful candidates continue to apply for posts. Other schools may be interested in his/her application.

Educational statistics

The main findings for 1988-9 were as follows:

Over three million pupils were taught by half a million teachers; the average pupil/teacher ratio for all schools was 17.7 compared to 22.0 in 1970-77.

The number of pupils under five years old receiving education represented 49% of the three and four year old population.

Amongst home students, some 5.6 million were engaged in post-compulsory education; 0.5 million in schools, 4.2 million in further education and almost 7 million in higher education - 73% studied part-time.

Some 57% of 16-18 year olds participated in education, compared with 52% in 1980-81. Participation at ages 19-20 and 21-24 is 29% and 19% respectively, which in each case is 1% higher than in 1980-81.

23% of young people aged 17 on 31st August, 1988 passed at least one post-GCSE academic qualification (A level or SCEH grade).

112,000 students achieved a higher education qualification; in addition there were some 38,000 successful completions of nursing and paramedical courses at DHSS Establishments.

There were 43,000 full-time teaching staff in schools and public funded institutions of whom 52% had graduate status. (In England and Wales pre-1970 graduates were accepted as teachers in primary schools, and pre-1974 graduates in secondary schools, without having to complete a course of professional training). (Government Statistical Unit, 1991.)

Net expenditure by public authorities on education was over £22 billion, representing 4.6% of the Gross Domestic Product.
More than 698,000 students received awards covering maintenance and/or fees for further and higher education courses.

In the United Kingdom in 1988-89 there were just under 35,000 schools of which 26,000 were primary or nursery and nearly 5,000 of which were secondary. In this respect, there are five stages of education: nursery, primary, secondary, further and higher. Primary and secondary education is compulsory for all children between the ages of five and sixteen years and the transition is normally at age 11. However, some local education authorities in England operate a system of middle schools which cater for pupils on either side of this age, and these are deemed primary or secondary according to the age-range of the pupils. Post-compulsory secondary education usually lasts for two years. No fees are payable at any primary or secondary school wholly maintained by the local education authorities, but it is open to parents, if they choose, to pay for their children to attend other schools.

The non-compulsory fourth stage, further education, covers non-advanced education which can be taken at both further (including tertiary) and higher education colleges. It can also include courses usually taken in secondary schools. The fifth stage, higher education, covers advanced level study including teacher training. (Government Statistical Unit, 1991).

Moreover, the structure of secondary education may vary between one local education authority and another. Most authority areas have comprehensive schools which cater for all children irrespective of ability and in England and Wales over 90% of secondary school pupils attend such schools. Other
secondary schools (modern, grammar and technical) usually have selective entry.

A significant proportion of children now stay on at school beyond the compulsory school age, many of them working towards the examination qualifications necessary for entry into higher education. After the age of fifteen or sixteen there seems to be increased subject specialisation, but the extent varies from school to school.

After reaching the minimum school leaving age, pupils have a variety of options. They may leave school and discontinue their formal education, they may continue at school or they may continue full-time, part-time or evening study at other institutions - usually some kind of college of further education. Those with suitable ability who stay on in schools may in due course seek admission to higher education at universities, new universities, colleges of education or colleges of further and higher education. The choice depends, amongst other things, on what examination results have been achieved.

Having described the education system of the United Kingdom, it is worth noting that in the period 1980-89 full-time student numbers in polytechnics and colleges grew by 36% compared with an increase over the same period of 8% for universities. In addition, the inclusion of nursing and paramedical students increases the level of female enrolment in 1988 to 48%. (GSU, 1991).

The United Kingdom's educational establishments are administered and financed in one of three ways:
by local education authorities which form part of the structure of local government;

by governing bodies which have a substantial degree of autonomy from public authorities but which receive grants from central government sources;

by the private sector, including individuals, companies and charitable institutions.

In general, the education services of the United Kingdom are not subject to detailed central control. Within this framework, detailed control is exercised by local education authorities or by various forms of independent governing bodies in association with teaching staff. In all sectors, such matters as engaging teachers, teaching methods and selection of textbooks are part of these detailed local responsibilities.

In 1988-89 there were 643,000 full-time teaching staff in schools and publicly funded colleges and universities. Vacancies in secondary schools were just under 2,500 in 1989, or 1.2% of the relevant teaching force. In addition, at that time, 28% of tuition in secondary schools was undertaken by teachers without a post 'A' level qualification in the subject being taught. (DES 1984)

In summary, the current problem appears to be mainly one of shortages in certain regions and in certain subjects rather than one of overall supply of teachers. Vacancy rates seem to be relatively high in computer studies, drama, music, but many schools have difficulty providing properly qualified
teachers in Mathematics, Physics, Design and Technology and Modern Languages, Religious Education, Early Years Education and Business Studies. There seem two main reasons for the problem of shortages: one is a rising population and the second is the implementation of the National Curriculum.

On the other hand, the DES believes that there should not be significant difficulty in recruiting the required number of teachers and that there will be 'an overall balance between demand and supply for primary and secondary teachers'. However, the Education, Science and Arts Committee suggests that major efforts will be required by all parties - the Government, local authorities and the teaching profession - to make sure that teaching is a sufficiently attractive career prospect to persuade the right people into the profession in the right numbers.

Having examined the administrative and course structures in England and Wales over a given time span (1988-1990), I now focus attention on the same period in Turkey. I shall endeavour to focus on aspects of political and administrative policies and structures directly comparable to those reviewed as operating in England, thereby providing a relevant comparison.
CHAPTER 14

THE STRUCTURE AND THE CONTENT OF INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN TURKEY

INTRODUCTION

Every country has teacher training as one of the most important subsystems of education. Perhaps, it is the most important factor in the education system. For this reason, educational authorities, central authorities and others have been paying more and more attention to teacher training. This is evident in the background of teacher education in any country, and in the ways in which the system has often been changed so far as training institutions, training programmes, subjects and the policies of teacher education are concerned. This change deals not only with the quantity, but also the quality of teacher training.

When central government in Turkey realised the political importance of teachers and teacher training, politicians attempted to exert tight control of it. Political parties often assert that education is the key of everything for their own country as well as for the future of a country. They state education to be a top priority. While this is generally correct, what is more questionable is the organisation of policy according to political manifesto.

This situation is also true in Turkey. Turkish education and teacher training were under the control of central government from 1848 until
During the last three decades, teacher education has been controlled by whichever political party is in power at the time. Teacher-learning occurs by instruction through social and physical realities. This means that it is subject to the influence of elements within and external to the education system, so that education is influenced by social institutions. In this respect, each country's education system is established according to the social systems in operation.

Over the last 200 years Turkey has been growing towards a westernised culture. This was accelerated by the Ottoman empire collapse in 1923 (Kazamias, 1966). In order to establish her own education system, Turkey embraced almost all the educational ideas and policies of France, which was considered one of the more 'civilised countries'. It is true to say that in the period between 1908 and 1926, a teacher was not appointed if he had no knowledge of the French language (Koger, 1984). By 1924, under the policy of the single Republic People's Party policy of Ataturk, education was united as state education and thus governed by central government for the next fifty years. In other words, the teacher education system was centralised in Turkey until 1981. During this time programmes, status and training periods were often the subject of change by political parties (Kaya, 1984). In particular, there have been conflicting tendencies in teacher education. On one hand, there has been an inclination to maintain and reproduce the pattern of traditional ways of valuing, thinking and organising and on the other, there has been a tendency to promote innovation and reform. Thus, the aims of teacher education have been problematic, insofar as they reflect contradictory tendencies in Turkey.
(Ciciogly, 1985). However, while the schools, under conditions of local control, were slowly adapting themselves to meet the needs of an industrial society, in many developed countries, teacher training institutions were being reorganised to meet the needs of schools. We have seen an example of the point made by Lynch and Plunkett (1979) that:

'Teacher education not only functions to produce teachers but, as a set of processes and organisations, reflects (and helps reproduce) a mass of cultural and structural features both of the educational system to which it is most immediately linked and of the wider society and economy to which it owes its existence.'

Furthermore, for decades, educators have drawn heavily from inaccurate assumptions that all learners, have similar personal needs or goals which can be met by a narrow range of methods or instructional strategies. This has been, especially the case in teacher training in Turkey up to now.
CHAPTER 15

THE HISTORY OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education as a fundamental factor, is one of the solutions of the problem of our education system. Teachers continue to play powerful parts in education. Changes and developments in science and technology cannot replace the teacher's role in the education system. On the contrary, these add to the teacher's role more responsibilities and functions according to the new circumstances.

In the past, there have been rapid changes in societies. In parallel, the aims, principles and techniques of teachers' roles have needed to change. For instance, it is necessary for teachers to have up-to-date subject, general, cultural and pedagogical knowledge and skills.

In fact, in the educational area, the qualities expected of a teacher depend on how specific teacher training programmes are made or designed; because there is a positive connection between the designated programmes of teacher training and how rational, practical and scientific programmes in the framework of education are prepared and implemented. (Narus, 1983). From this aspect, the preparation of programmes and the implementation of teacher training are constantly developed and evaluated in order to meet the conditions of the present time.

The plans made for education can be of different character depending upon the aims which they are designed to meet. School systems or the schools' development of programmes within, also influence educational
planning. At this level, central or local educational authorities have the responsibility of making such a development programme. However, the development of subject or units, or more specific education programmes must involve teaching staff who are responsible for taking action.

It is impossible for programmes of every single subject and unit to be designed by a central authority for use in different education institutions, due to the different conditions of each institution in a country which may have very varied social, cultural, economic and geological characteristics. It is commonly known that all such differences influence teaching and learning acts. Thus, educators and educational authorities should consider these characteristics when they implement a or plan or design of a teaching-learning programme. (Narus, 1971). Otherwise this programme may not produce the quality of outcome. There are generally three important factors in the education system: aims, teaching-learning situations and organisation and evaluation (Erturk, 1983). Each factor influences others in the system.

From this point of view, the programme needs flexibility in order to be able to respond to new changes, innovation and improvements as necessary. In this way, education and educational development seem to be an open system, with all elements working together to achieve educational aims which are designed to interact with each other.

As previously noted, Turkish teacher education was under the control of central government until 1982. At this time, there were higher education institutions and teacher colleges. The higher education institutions
trained student teachers for secondary schools for three years after the students had completed upper secondary schools (Ciaingyu, 1984). The second type of institution, teacher colleges, contained two different types of student. One type completed primary school, then entered teaching courses for six years, provided they passed the exam for entrance, and then became a primary school teacher. The second group had completed low secondary school, passed the exam, and then attended the teacher college for four years, in order to become qualified teachers for primary schools. This style of teacher institution changed becoming higher education institutions in 1974, providing two years training after the students had completed upper secondary school. The same procedures continued from 1982 until 1991 as a part of a university. Then the teacher education period in these institutions was expanded from two to four years and took place within a faculty of education as a part of the university or as a department of the faculty of education in a university. On the other hand, the institutions of secondary teacher training became responsibility of other faculties of universities in Turkey. From 1982, teacher education has continued under the control of universities in Turkey.

Until 1982, each teacher education institution worked autonomously. Serious problems, such as shortage of teaching staff, educational materials and other facilities, increased the politicisation of the institution. In terms of educational quality, they seemed to have been changed in negative rather than positive ways. They were also easily influenced by party policy (Kaya, 1984) rather than by the rational and scientific policies of teacher education. Therefore, when their background is considered, it may be said
that institutions were political unions rather than educational institutions.

In the context of these negative developments, by 20th July, 1982, there were: twenty teacher training colleges; sixteen teacher education institutions; seven higher institutions of religious education; forty seven vocational and technical higher institutions and seventeen foreign language teaching institutions involved in teacher training. Subsequently, their role in teacher training have become within the departments of the faculties of education under the umbrella of the universities (Osyyem, 1987). They are now run by the university's regulations, in the same way as other university departments.

In addition, before 1982, each university in Turkey had autonomy. By 1982 they also were pulled together under The Council for Higher Education, in other words, The Council is responsible for all the universities in Turkey. The main role of the Council is to arrange meetings for all universities to join together and discuss the problems of higher education every year and to take seriously the opinions and problems each university has. The Council makes decisions as to which are the best of various alternatives to solve the problems for each university. The Council does not force its decision on each university (YOK, 1982). However, the Council arranges very wide programmes for each department of the universities, which has very flexible characteristics. Universities have the right to organise their own programmes such as management, administration, departmental programmes which are made by sub-committees with the University's Council. Educational institutions
which were previously run by the government and the policy of the Education Ministry, i.e. higher institutions of education are now part of the university body.

This change in teacher education is one of the most important from the development of teacher education perspective. At the time when teacher training was changed to be the responsibility of universities, universities restructured their administration and programmes due to certain other problems they faced in Turkey. Due to these changes, both old and new universities faced structural, institutional problems as well as shortages of academic staff. The universities looked for easy solutions. It is not surprising that they faced problems, given their changes in the structures of administration and programmes.

On the other hand, only changing the structures of teacher training will not solve such problems because difficulties do not only come from the training, the institutions and the programmes, but also from the complicated nature of a teacher’s job and from the unique qualities of the school system. Thus, to solve the problems of teacher training, scientific and rational research needs to be carried out in this area.
CHAPTER 16

TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING

Efforts to improve both the quality and quantity of teacher training can be identified in the history of teacher education. However, the beginning of the Turkish Republic in 1923 increased the population and the number of schools across the country, thus encouraging teacher quantity in order to solve the shortage of the number of teachers in the country. By the 1980s, Turkish teacher shortages had almost been solved in terms of quantity (Varis, 1983). However, the quality of teachers was considered to be very low so it was time to develop teacher quality and Turkey started paying intensive attention to increase the quality of teacher training.

In fact, during the last forty years, the foundations, principles and characters of teachers and teacher training have been determined by the National Educational Councils which were established by co-operation between the Ministry of Education and universities. General aspects of teacher education and problems of teacher training were discussed by the 4th National Council Meetings, and then all the resulting recommendations regarding strategies of teacher education and further details were also discussed during the 11th National Education Council Meeting. This determined essentials, such as the content of training programmes and what had to be considered the principles and teaching subjects. The Council agreed what should be the aims and functions of the programmes and which subjects to teach student teachers already in the programmes. The Council also agreed on the model of teacher education.
which would be suitable for initial teacher training for both primary and secondary schools (MES, 1981-82).

The Councils determined general aims and went on to identify what specific subjects student teachers should be taught, pathways from one programme to another, the content of the programmes' categories such as professional performance, subject knowledge and general cultural knowledge, and the proportionate amount of teaching of each subject, that is to say how much time student teachers should be taught for each element. In addition, they considered what methodological aspects should be considered be taught and what educational atmosphere should be created for training; in other words, how to establish the best environment for teacher training. Also, the Council pointed out that the changing roles of teachers must be regularly reviewed and changed according to innovations.

For this reason, the Council recommended that the teacher's job should be analysed according to the knowledge, skills and effective (sentimental) values which are the qualities needed for teaching. The Council also suggested the methods for carrying out this systematic analysis aspect in a unique, original ways.

According to the principles of present education, a teacher who teaches in a school is not only giving the knowledge of his subject, examining students, or giving marks, but also observing, supervising, managing the environment, being a leader of each study group and so on. Relevant to this, many educationalists give the definition of a teacher as one who
improves values, searches for sources, identifies and overcomes difficulties, makes connections among disciplines, makes contact with good relationships between human beings and real life, investigates students’ environment, a leader of students and responsible for the social environment where they work. More importantly, teachers should be experts on teaching and learning. All such qualities are expected of teaching today. Teachers are also defined as organisers for teaching-learning environments.

It is worth noting that all university faculties of education select candidates and their qualifications carefully for professional teacher training programmes. This is in accordance with the results of the Council’s decisions and of research which has been done by the faculties. After students have completed the teacher training courses, student teachers are selected and appointed to teach in specified areas by the Ministry of Education.

If a graduate who has completed a university degree wants to be a teacher, he/she must take a teacher training course in one of the faculties of education in order to obtain a teaching certificate. In addition, all teachers should have access to university inservice training. In Turkey only some universities provide such courses for primary and secondary teachers. Also, not all teachers have the opportunity to attend this limited inservice training because it is only undertaken by limited universities specified by the Council for Higher Education. In other words, the Council decides which institutions can re-train teachers.
As previously noted, all teacher education operates under university level educational acts which must be run under the regulations of the university. The regulations are prepared and published by the University Council. Under these regulations there are not only the faculties of education which train student teachers, but also Technical Education Faculties and Vocational Education Faculties.

From the method point of view, we find two systematic aspects: humanistic scientific aspect and positive scientific aspect. The former has more clinical, institutional and artistic elements in implementation tending towards the humanities. The second aspect is closer to positive science and emphasises experimental, analytical and objectivity methods. Moreover, from the perspective of giving more attention to developing the characteristics of individuals, there is an eclectic system which is the third aspect. This programme means choosing what seems to be best or most useful from several different sets of programs, ideas or beliefs, rather than following one complete set of programmes. In general, all these programme aspects are divided into two main groups by educationalists: modern and conventional teacher training programmes. The former has to pay more attention to the background of teacher education in order to develop it. The latter is a much more flexible and open programme and can be easily changed according to innovations and new conditions.

The aspects of arranging, implementing the programmes and connections and interactions among the students and their professional experiences, the patterns of teacher training can be divided into three main groups: purist pattern, mixed patterns and eclectic patterns and the
implementation of them. These three patterns can be seen in the Turkish teacher training system. In purist teacher training programmes, student teachers are trained in a specific subject as undergraduates which takes four years and then they can take a teaching certificate course. In mixed teacher training, the programmes are arranged together, that is all subjects are combined in one programme which includes pedagogical lessons and cultural subjects. Courses in specific subjects (which student teachers will teach), and teaching practice are completed within four years. These subjects are supposed to be taken together and to be balanced among them in the programme. Finally the eclectic patterns is a teacher training system which has parallel elements of the whole programme according to what seems to be the best or most useful in terms of innovation and the needs of teacher education.

It is worthwhile noting that performance, institution, status, functions and degree categories seem to shape the process of teacher training programmes from one university to another. Moreover, from the performance point of view, there are four main elements which are established in the programmes for ITT at the faculties of education. These are general cultural subjects, specific subjects, pedagogical subjects and selective (optional) subjects (YOK, 1983). On the other hand, from the institution point of view, the university is responsible for teacher training. Moreover, from the aspect of status, there seems to be a hierarchical structural of expert areas, using these situations in teacher training: functional, educational, administrative, inspectorial, expert and other supporting education services. Each one of them can also be divided into
different sub-functional factors which are produced by the training programmes under the name of teacher education.

Generally, there is a distinction between initial teacher training and inservice teacher training. The first includes the training of student teachers in the faculty. The second includes a teacher who already works in a school and who is re-trained from time-to-time for renewing himself professionally.
CHAPTER 17

TEACHER TRAINING POLICY IN TURKEY

It is wrong to think teacher training policy is isolated from general education policy, social-economic policy and the political system in a society. In particular, there is a strong connection between teacher training policy and education policy. Moreover, teacher education is organised according to the education system. That is to say that student teachers in teacher training institutions are prepared and retrained according to the needs of the school system. Furthermore, decisions about teacher training and its provision should be consistent with the more general aims of education. The general aims, in other words, are the backbone of education. If they are not taken into account, educational programmes could not be expected to have productive outcomes.

The aims can be divided into three groups: long term, general and specific (short-term) aims of education (Bloom, 1979). The first reflects educational policy, the more general aims of the state and the broad philosophy of education. The second related to the aims of both the Ministry of Education and education institutions. Specific aims consist of units of each subject which are taught to students at every level in the education system.

They should be determined and established by educationalists, psychologists, sociologists, philosophers of education as well as by experts of each subject. An up-to-date view should also be taken of the needs of individuals, society and specific subjects (which are taught to students). The qualities of these aims consist of cognitive, affective and physio-motor skills which students are generally expected to have at the end of
As previously established, the aims of Turkish education were determined by the Education Councils and they made the rules of Turkish education, endorsed by Turkish parliament. Therefore, Turkish primary, secondary and other vocational and technical secondary schools are run under these circumstances (METK, 1983). It is true to say that the aims one of the most important parts of Turkish education. They may be, very briefly, mentioned as follows:

- the aims and functions of national education have to be founded on the principals and aims of the education policy of state.

- All children have to be taught basic (general) common culture and the should also be aware of personal and social problems and be able to contribute to economical, social and cultural activities and the productivity of the country so that they will help society to develop economically, socially and culturally.

- Students have to be taught to adapt to social life, business and higher education, which should give them equal opportunities to develop and improve their own abilities and different education programmes and schools which are already established in accordance with their needs, abilities, potential as well as the needs of social-economic life. Both
the needs of society and the needs of individuals have to be balanced.

However, it is evident that the facilities necessary to realise these aims are not present in Turkish schools. The quality of teachers is clearly very important. These aims can be said to give meaning to the system as to how teachers who will work in schools are trained by the faculties. In addition, there are interrelationships between the aims of universities and the aims of primary and secondary education.

It is worthwhile pointing out that there are faculties, higher schools and institutions in the body of universities which have their own aims and programmes. More specifically, each department has the aims of its own syllabus for each subject and the units of subjects. All these are established in hierarchical orders from general to specific aims in accordance with the features of departments. Thus, they are ordered from the abstract aims towards the concrete aims of department which go to specific areas from general areas in the university system (YOK, 1981).

In this way, specific goals are expected to make the aims of departments real, and then the aims of institutions are expected to help realise the long term objectives of curriculum development. There is also a strong relationship among the aims step-by-step. However, there are no specific aims for teacher training in the universities in Turkey. The aims of universities are described generally and they are also accepted as the aims of teacher training. Although there are no particular aims for teacher training, from traditional teacher training aspects, there are cultural, specific and pedagogical subjects which are taught to student teachers in the curricula of teacher training within 4 years. Student
teachers must also undertake teaching practice for at least a month at
the end of their last year in the faculty.

However, teacher training is implemented in a slightly different way
from one faculty to another across the country. Nevertheless, this
depends on local interpretation of decisions which have been
determined and established by the Supreme University Council Co­
ordinations Teacher Training Council (1989) which is the Council
between universities and the Ministry of Education.

By 1982, the Supreme University Council approved the subjects
relevant to the main four areas: general subject knowledge, pedagogical
knowledge, specific subject knowledge and optional subject knowledge
for ITT, as a framework for the curriculum of teacher training.

Moreover, these approved subjects for ITT in Turkey have a lot of
flexibility. They can be arranged for each faculty or university by the
university and the Council of each faculty according to their own
facilities and local needs. Each department of education faculty is free
to decide what subject to teach or put in their curricula provided it is
considered to be within the framework of teacher training policy which
has been made by the Supreme University Council. To some extent
the faculties of education are given responsibility for implementing
their own curricula in their teaching courses. They seriously consider
the results of national and international research and their experiences
of teacher training and of successful training programmes at regional,
national and international levels, especially since the university has
taken over the responsibility of teacher education in Turkey and started
training student teachers in the faculties.
It is worth noting here that central government or political parties do not interfere in teacher education any more. The Ministry of Education provides finances for teacher education. The Ministry can also make recommendations which universities should consider on the quality of teachers.

Nevertheless, the main policy-making authority for ITT is the Higher University Council. In fact, universities under the Higher University Council determine, decide and implement by themselves as a cooperative. Presently it is ruled that they can organise and change some percentage of each subject to implement the programme yearly, as they think suitable.
CHAPTER 18

THE TEACHER TRAINING PATTERNS OF THE INSTITUTIONS IN TURKEY

Teacher training is a system which is one of the subsystems of the whole of education. The form and the shape of this system can be changed in accordance with the subjects, institutions and schools which student teachers are trained for. Perhaps there are very different patterns from one society to another, and there can be more than one training pattern in a country. However, their main principals and features exhibit very close similarities.

Before looking at the patterns of teacher training, it is necessary to explain the Turkish education system briefly. The Turkish education system consists of three main subsystems: primary, secondary and higher education. Firstly, primary education is divided into two subsystems: infant and primary education. Infant education has not been spread across the country. It is a very small per cent of the total number of children who are able to get infant education. Primary education which takes five years is compulsory. In addition, primary and lower secondary schools, in some parts of Turkey are run together. This takes eight years. However, most primary schools are run separately from the lower secondary education. Each child has the right and a duty to be educated and this education is compulsory the same is in most countries.

Secondary education is divided mainly into two levels - lower and upper secondary. Secondary takes three years after the completion of primary school. After completing lower secondary, students can opt to continue
their education by attending upper secondary school for three years. Upper secondary schools mainly prepare students for higher education. Within secondary education there are vocational and technical schools and colleges which prepare students for the professions (Cirioglu, 1985). Their main aim is to enable students to obtain professional skills and qualify in a specific vocation. The duration of these studies varies between three and four years, depending on the qualification requirements of the chosen profession of the student. The student who has completed vocational or technical secondary education can attend higher school if they achieve a high enough standard in the university examinations.

Thus, all secondary school students who have completed upper secondary education or the equivalent, such as different vocational or technical secondary schools, can take a general university entrance examination consisting of two stages. If students pass the examinations they can apply for higher education according to the grades obtained. Briefly, from the beginning of primary education until the end of upper secondary education, there are different stages of primary and secondary education. The Ministry of Education is responsible for all these levels. They operate under the regulations of the education policy of central government, more specifically, under the control of the Ministry. There are also private primary and secondary schools across the country.

For all these different schools, teachers are trained through higher education. In other words the universities are responsible for teacher training for each level of schools in Turkey.

Namely there are two main types of teacher training: primary and secondary. While secondary teacher training has been under the control and regulation of universities since 1981 and takes four years, primary
teacher training took two years until 1991. Since 1991, the period of
primary teacher training has been expanded from two years to four years.
Now these four year courses for primary teacher training are implemented
in all the primary teacher training institutions under the control of the
university system as a part of a faculty of a university. In this area there
are seventeen faculties excluding higher primary education institutions
which are responsible directly for teacher training. Moreover, most
faculties are also responsible for managing and implementing the
programmes for primary teacher training in higher education institutions
which are the part of faculties.

Apart from the faculties of education across the country, there are also
universities which have almost all the departments for every subject.
These departments of universities train students in specific disciplines.
Throughout the duration of these courses, students can take some
pedagogical subject courses and do teaching experience. Students who
have graduated can apply for the teaching profession. It is important to
note that most graduates can be teachers for low or upper secondary
schools. Departments of other faculties also offer the teaching certificate to
students.

In addition, many students who have completed higher education, apart
from universities but equivalent to degrees, can then take a year to get a
teaching certificate. They can also qualify as school teachers.

The twenty two faculties of education as part of universities across the
country train their own student teachers for secondary schools. Each one
has a slightly different training programme from the other. However, the
structures of their training courses have common subject courses which
are implemented by each faculty. These common subject courses for the
faculties are determined yearly by the Higher University Council. They are the framework of general teacher training programmes. The faculty can design its own programme according to the needs, facilities and local geographical conditions. Thus, we find differences in facilities from one faculty to the other in terms of academic staff, libraries, educational materials etc.

On the other hand, there are technical and vocational faculties which have quite different programmes, but still have the same pedagogic subject courses as other institutions. Nevertheless, both vocational and technical education faculties have much more work experience for their own specific vocational and technical subjects to prepare their students for their future profession. Their future profession may not be the teaching profession, and most graduates would prepare to work in industrial or commercial areas (Alkan, 1983). Their courses and their implementations are operated in a very individual way. They put more emphasis on work experience rather than theoretical knowledge or theoretical teaching as in other institutions. The students have to take theoretical pedagogy courses and undergo teaching experience to qualify as a teacher when they have graduated. They do teaching practice at the end of their last education year, for at least two weeks, apart from their specific course experience.

The vocational and technical faculties’ programmes of teacher training is are considered by the Supreme University Council as for other faculties. The Council’s programme ensures that all teacher training programmes are similar to each other. The Supreme University Council not only provides programmes for ITT, but also to describes a general framework for other departments of universities. This helps universities to exchange views on what to teach and how to organise their curricula. This provides
close connections among universities in terms of programmes, implementations and innovations of university education in Turkey.

In general, university students who have graduated from universities and have taken pedagogical courses including teaching experience, can apply for the teaching profession (Alkan, 1984). Graduates are not authorised qualified teachers without having a teaching certificate. During education, students are given pedagogical lessons by academic staff who are experts on the subject. However, there are differences in the implementations. All institutions train their own students in four main subject groups: specific subjects such as physics, mathematics, language, history etc; general cultural subjects; educational subjects and teaching experience. All these subject groups are compulsory for students. By the end of their university education, each successful student will have a diploma in a specific subject as well as a teaching certificate. A graduate is also expected to have expert knowledge on his specific subject and acquire the skills of the teaching profession. Briefly, they must know the four main subject areas, which have been mentioned above, before they become teachers.
CHAPTER 19

TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMMES AND POLICY

Turkey is currently experiencing the effects of moving away from complete centralisation to total decentralisation in teacher training.

Today the world is undergoing rapid change. The development of communications and the appearance of new information technologies are radically changing the quality, quantity and character of relations between individuals and groups, the character of relations among the schools, social life, economic system. It is also inevitable that there are radical changes in teacher education. In most cases, the decision-makers seek a compromise and take into account the interests of those other than themselves who are likely to be affected by the decisions to be made. A reasonable individual also takes public opinion and relevant traditions into account.

From this point of view, what is taught? What ought to be taught? Taylor and Richard's in their Introduction to Curriculum Studies (1985) identify these two questions as the fundamental concerns of curriculum studies. The curriculum, they say:

'... is at the heart of the educational enterprise. It is the means through which education is transcended. Without a curriculum, education has no vehicle, nothing through which to transmit its message, to convey its meanings, to exemplify its values. It is because of the crucial role which the curriculum plays in educational activities that it is worthy of study.'

It is clear that the curriculum has become a much more complex and extensive field of study than it used to be, but it is not clear how far it has developed into a coherent 'discipline' based on unifying theory. Indeed,
Schmad (1969) declared that the theoretical endeavour was fruitless and called for the rigorous analysis of practice as a basis for future development. The debate about the nature of curriculum theory, the nature of practice or constituent disciplines, has been going on ever since. Perhaps for this reason, it is not easy or even useful to attempt to define the term 'curriculum', since the definitions that are given tend to reflect the particular perspectives and emphases of those who construct them: they encapsulate a particular approach.

There is the much more traditional and familiar concept of the syllabus which typically consists of unadorned lists of headings. Some of these have subheadings and there is also an implicit order in the list. The headings and subheadings are to be 'covered'. There may be some indication of how long should be spent on each and some reference to how they will be examined. Some headings refer to topics or subjects; others may give some indications about options and alternatives, or about special requirements for practical or field work.

It is easy to caricature this kind of document, which often looks as if it has been worked out on the back of an envelope, and no doubt often is. It is important to remember that teachers and lecturers do not simply read a syllabus, they interpret it, drawing on complex knowledge about the context they are working in and sometimes showing considerable subtlety in attending to oblique signals and cues about their environment. Nevertheless, the modern concept of the curriculum goes beyond that of the syllabus in a number of ways.

First, the curriculum is concerned with aims or outcomes, as well as content. Second, the curriculum is concerned with process-content distinction, not merely with the course on paper, but the course in action.
Moreover, the curriculum-in-action also points towards the institutional and social frame of the syllabus: the rooms, the relationships, the timetables, the regulations, the ethos or milieu of the course.

The definition of what a teacher-education programme ought to be is not a matter for one authority to decide but for all the authorities in a community. For programmes of teacher training in the final analysis, the question must be: does it produce better teachers? One of the most serious problems to be solved in organising such a programme is the matter of faculty responsibilities.

As previously noted, in Turkey primary and secondary education are, in general, under the education policy of Central Government and the Education Ministry which is responsible for establishing the curriculum. However, the Government finances higher education according to need. There has been no intervention in teacher training since 1989. Nevertheless, there is a special Higher Education Council which helps to make good connections between teacher education in the universities and Central Government. The Council was established in 1989 and consists of scientists and members of universities. The Council’s function is to organise the partnership between The Supreme University Council and The Ministry of Education for ITT. They meet and discuss issues of general education, from primary to higher education, but specifically concentrate on teacher training problems such as the needs of secondary schools in relation to the number of teachers they need as well as what skills and knowledge they should have. The Supreme University Council considers all ideas and suggestions and then make decisions and recommendations to the faculties of education as well as teacher training faculties of universities. As a result, each faculty has to
organise their programmes of teacher training within the regulations of the Supreme University Council. They can however, make changes to their programmes in accordance with their needs providing these are within the Council’s framework of regulations.

The Government not only supports Higher Education, including teacher training, but, together with the Education Ministry, employs the teachers. In addition, teachers teach under Ministry regulations, so that teacher education has to be tailored to the needs of primary and secondary schools. Thus, the education policy of Central Government influences teacher training in Universities. The objectives of programmes of teacher training cannot be isolated from the aims of higher education. In fact, they are seen as part of them. Teaching at university level focuses on psychology, sociology and pedagogy as well as on other subjects, all of which are theoretical in nature and therefore geared to the intellect. In practice, teachers and lecturers in Turkey seem to have been largely oblivious of the theoretical debate, and there has always been a wide spread assumption that education should develop general knowledge and students should be taught to think. This means that the objectives of teacher training are based on the academic aspects. As a result, it can be said that there are some conflicts between what qualities teachers need for schools, and the objectives of teacher education in the universities in Turkey.

There are discussions going on between Central Government and the universities. Government is not only supporting the faculties of education economically, but is also supporting higher education departments and employing most university graduates. Critics say that teacher training is too academic and theoretical and should be more practical. Before 1989, the government had total responsibility for teacher
education, and thus politicised teaching training. This is considered to be one of the biggest mistakes in the history of Turkish teacher training.

There are over 32 universities across the country which have not adapted well. This is due to the lack of essential facilities such as scientific research centres, finance for research, libraries, laboratories and also a shortage of academic staff. Improvements in all these areas are dependent upon the economical development of the country. It is commonly known that teaching quality depends on organising the environment of education.

In developed countries, governments usually provide better education for citizens and invest a great deal of money in education. Their schools have advanced educational materials and facilities. This naturally affects the level of education quality.

As a developing country, Turkey cannot yet provide all these facilities for her education system. Every level of education in Turkey is badly in need of financial input. Because of the economic situation in Turkey, educational materials are often old and outdated. In these circumstances there is a gap between what universities are using for teaching and what they want to use for teaching for their own students. Therefore students are usually taught using theoretical methods and techniques rather than expensive practical methods and techniques.

There is still controversy over the control of teacher training: even whether universities determine the policy and programmes of teacher education or The Supreme University Council is totally responsible. Under university regulations, approved courses are divided into four main groups as has been mentioned before. Each faculty can make changes to the programmes in terms of which courses, what lessons to put
into their own programmes and to operate. The programmes are not permanent. They can be changed year after year according to changes in each subject and innovations.

These work study areas are composed of specific subject studies, cultural subject studies, pedagogical (professional) subject studies and teaching experience, and each one consists of components or sub-subjects. All subjects and their contents are decided by the faculties' councils with departments' committees. They decide together what to teach and how to teach each course to their own students. Moreover, a subject lecturer who teaches students is responsible for determining the content and syllabuses of his subject in his department. However, he will consider the decisions of The Council and The Committees on his subject. It is important to point out here that the decisions are only recommendations for a lecturer as to how to teach his subject in a department of a university. But all these educational actions have to be followed for programmes or courses to be approved by The Supreme University Council.

From the approved courses point of view, pedagogical subject studies consist of Educational Statistics, Psychology and Sociology of Education, Administration and Management of Education, Introduction to Education and Educational Technology; which all faculties of Education teach to their student teachers in the training courses. These are also sub-subjects of each pedagogical subject course such as child development, methods and techniques of teaching-learning, the development of curriculum, economy of education. These are compulsory subjects in the faculties according to the regulations of The Supreme University Council. Lecturers have the right to design their own specific teaching programmes for their subjects and to implement them. They are not only free to teach their own special subjects but also to suggest what the students should
read. In this way, the ultimate authority is the member of academic staff who is responsible for teaching that subject.

In addition to the compulsory subjects which are decided by The Council there are cultural subjects within the teacher training curriculum:

Turkish Language, Foreign Language, Physical Education, Turkish History and Arts.

The faculties of education have several departments in order to organise subjects and what student teachers will teach at a primary or secondary school. These departments include, Mathematics' Department, Physics Department, Chemistry Department, Foreign Languages' Department, History Department, Geography Department, Education Department and so on. Each department has the responsibility of teaching its own students its specific subject. They have their own academic staff who teach sub­
subjects of a main specific subject, and other academic staff who teach pedagogical or cultural subjects.

An academic who teaches on a pedagogical subject must be an expert in his subject. However, pedagogical subject lecturers come from the departments of Education and teach the students of other departments of faculties. They are responsible for teaching professional subjects and for giving teaching certificates to students who have completed this course successfully.

It is interesting to consider student teachers' views on their subjects. That is, the students seem not to take the cultural or pedagogical subjects seriously. They usually concentrate on the specific subject that they specialise in. In addition to this, student teachers from more than one
department take pedagogical and cultural subjects in a conference room or
classroom together. In this way, there are approximately between 80 to 100
students in a classroom who take the above subjects as though it was a
conference. These ways of teaching are naturally not as effective as they
should be because of how crowded the classroom is.

The curriculum of each department of the faculties of education is very
flexible and can be changed by the faculty under the framework of The
Supreme University Council's decisions or regulations. The department
can put in an extra subject or change a subject in its curriculum from time
to time. However, they have to inform The Council about these changes
via their university.

Finally, whilst the primary and secondary schools' systems is a centralised
system which is operated under Central Government policy, the decisions
and policy-maker for ITT is The Supreme University Council. However,
teacher training in Turkey is influenced by The Government policy
indirectly as in any other country, because there is no social institution in
a society which is not influenced by policy. The problem is how higher
education institutions can avoid being politicised when they need to get
support financially from Governments in any country. For this reason,
there is a lot of disagreement between Central Government and
Universities in Turkey. In addition, they do not have, in particular, good
relationships over ITT. Thus, there is a big gap between the faculties of
education and schools with regard to teaching practice because the schools
are under the control of Central Government. There are also some
difficulties in establishing programmes of ITT in accordance with the
needs of the school system in Turkey. Moreover, both teacher training
and the universities have serious financial problems. It can be said that
the teacher training system has not settled down enough to be able to implement their own programmes properly.

The influence which Government has over teacher training is examined in the next few sections. This particularly concerns the exams set by the Government, which student teachers must pass before they are allowed to teach. The Ministry then appoint the teachers who pass. I shall now look at the teaching training programmes of institutions in Turkey.

It is very important to look at the developments of teacher training in Turkey during the last two decades to understand the present programmes of institutions.

Since 1973 there have been both qualitative and quantitative developments in initial teacher training and these developments or changes have helped to improve steadily teacher education. All these experiences in the past history of teacher education gave opportunities to arrange and rebuild teacher education to achieve higher standards than before. Two most important events were the 1973 National Fundamental Education Law and the 1981 Higher Education Law, which provided two fundamental principles in the education system in Turkey.

Firstly, with the 1973 National Fundamental Education Law, the education strategies were designed for the National Education System. Before that, the Turkish Education System seemed to contain very idealistic ideas which were mainly trying to spread out Ataturk’s re-evaluations and principles across the country in the New Republic of Turkey after the collapse of the Ottoman Empire. It can be said that Turkish education served to support the social system and to sustain the new social system from the beginning of 1923 until 1973. Moreover, one of the main
functions of that education system still continues in Turkish society today. The principles and re-evaluations of Ataturk have been an essential part of the education policy of the Turkish Ministry of Education since 1923. That is to say that every education act must be considered and established according to the principles and re-evaluation of Ataturk. From that point of view, teacher training had the main function of training student teachers to teach their students in order to spread these principles across the country, rather than train the students in their subjects or in specific subjects and then teach in a primary or secondary level. During this time, the central government's policy for ITT and their expectations of the role of the teacher supported the official policy of teaching the new social system in schools.

From 1923 until 1973, Turkey had very heavy social-economic and political problems and there were constant, rapid changes in social life, but teacher training policy and programmes were not changed, and teacher training was carried out in secondary level teacher education institutions. On the other hand, the Turkish education authorities and government wanted to improve teacher quality and the educational system towards a European education. However, economic and political reasons were real obstacles to these developments of teacher education.

It seems that education institutions were under the strong political pressures from the political parties and government, and they trained student teachers to defend the new Turkish social system rather than pay more emphasis to the teaching profession. This created many serious problems in teacher education as well as in the education system across the country. The education of teachers and institutions became politicised under the government's policies. These negative results still influence all educational institutions in Turkey. Moreover, the population has been
increasing so that there has been a shortage in the number of school teachers and in educational materials. All these factors created financial problems and led to very low quality education at every level.

The most serious problems, such as the number of teachers, school buildings, poor education and programme organisation were solved after 1976. Educationalists, education authorities and scientists realised the importance of putting teacher education under the University's authority, and they decided this responsibility should be given to universities in 1981. In fact, there are some European countries which have a centralised system in education and teacher training such as France and Italy. They seem to have been much more successful in this respect. However, this could be due to the fact that they have not experienced any social re-evaluation recently and most of them have long had democratic systems which influence education systems positively in a society. Nevertheless, in general, western European countries try to keep teacher organisations away from political influences.

Thus, The National Fundamental Education Law in 1973, stated that teacher training would be run by higher education. From this decision was expected that teacher training should be run in a scientific and rational way and should develop teacher quality according to modern needs. The implementation of this started in 1982. Before this, there were eighteen teacher training institutions across the country. All were transferred to university education from college of education or upper secondary level institutions.

Secondly, because of the Higher Education Law of 1982, all higher education institutions were united under the university's umbrella. That is, teacher education institutions become departments of universities.
Through these changes, teacher training moved towards a more academic quality rather than towards professional training of teachers in Turkey. In addition, there are neither special arrangements for teacher training policy nor for the aims for ITT, apart from the arrangements of university education policy and the general aims.

Nevertheless, universities, and particularly the faculties of education, have been rebuilt from the structures of the past. It is very important for teacher training in Turkey that student teachers have been trained in the university's atmosphere since 1982, and they are now aware of newly developing information in each subject and are more up to date.

Though there are different faculties which train student teachers under the regulations of universities, there is not much difference in the teaching curricula and the training of students between the faculties of education, science and arts. Even though there are three teacher training programmes: in Education Faculties, which include Technical and Vocational Education Faculties; and the Arts and Science faculties, each of which prepares their own students for the teaching profession, they have no substantial differences in the implementation of their training programmes.

In particular, it may be noted here that the Arts and Science faculties have the same curricula as the faculties of education. Additionally, apart from a few departments in both faculties, they have the same subject departments such as Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics, History, Geography, Foreign Languages and so on. The graduates who have completed their education from one of the above mentioned the faculties can apply for a secondary teaching profession. However, Technical and Vocational
Education Faculties have much more practical curricula in order to prepare their own students for professional job prospects. Moreover, it is also compulsory to take pedagogical lessons and cultural lessons as well as teaching practice mainly in secondary technical or vocational schools. They have to consider and shape their training according to the regulations of The Supreme University Council. Technical and vocational education faculties seem to have a better relationship with industrial areas, and their students must undergo working experience in the industrial areas in accordance to their specific subject, in addition to teaching experience.

Hence, the three different higher education institutions have the same programmes from the teacher training point of view. All three types of faculties train their students for secondary teaching professions. They mostly provide teaching staff for pedagogical lessons to teach their students from The Education and Science Departments of The Faculties of Education. However, The Arts and Science Faculties provide the staff from the department of Psychology, Sociology and Philosophy to teach the students pedagogical lessons. They have no specific staff for pedagogical subjects.

It seems that whilst pedagogical and specific subjects have been taught from very academic and theoretical aspects, the aim of cultural subjects is to give the students general knowledge. As a result, criticisms have been made that student teachers can not use real school situations through what they learn from teacher education faculties.

As previously noted, there are the institutions of higher teacher education which prepare student teachers for the primary teaching profession. They are either part of the faculties of education or connected with one of the
universities directly. Their programmes are completely different from the programme of the faculties for secondary teacher training. The components of their programmes correspond to the subjects of primary school. Primary student teachers are trained in cultural subject courses, pedagogical subject courses, the basic sciences and social science subject courses. They must also do teaching practice in one primary school. Generally speaking, the syllabuses of the subjects are planned and taught with much more basic fundamental knowledge, according to the primary school levels. So their curricula are more professional than academic.

All teacher training in Turkey takes at least, four years, including primary teacher training. The faculties of education and primary teacher training institutions have their own curricula. The curricula include subject studies, cultural subject studies and pedagogical subject studies which are taught within a four year period. Though teaching practice is in the curriculum, it is not done during the first three years of the course.

On the other hand, The Arts and Science Faculties and Vocational and Technical Education Faculties teach their own students pedagogical and cultural knowledge subjects only during the first two or last two years. However, specific subjects are taught during the four year period. It is a considerably larger percentage of their curricula, compared with the programmes of the others.

All institutions organise teaching practice for the student teachers at the beginning of the last term of their fourth year. This is arranged by the faculties, the ministry of education and schools.

In the last six years, the faculties of education also started organising teaching certificate courses that last for a year. This course is only for
student teachers who have already completed their first degree from a university or equivalent higher education institution. During the course, there are only pedagogical courses, and teaching experiences at the end of the academic year which student teachers must take, just as undergraduate student teachers have to take pedagogical courses during the period of four academic years. When they have completed the course successfully, they can apply for the teaching profession according to what courses they did at university during their first degree. The faculties decide what courses student teachers should apply for, according to the students' background.

The four year courses consist of eight terms and each term's programme is organised according to the credit system. From this point of view, there are approximately 196 credits in the total four-year programme. One credit lesson takes 55 minutes. Teaching experience is not included in this credit system.

It is interesting that students who are in different departments take either cultural lessons or pedagogical lessons together. However, specific subject lessons are not taught to students with different subjects in the same classroom. The number of students in a specific subject is roughly 30 to 35 in a classroom, and they have classrooms for their own specific subject. On the other hand, more than eighty students from different departments come together and are taught pedagogical or cultural lessons in a classroom. Under these circumstances the latter courses do not seem to be positive experiences for the students because of the excessive number of students in the classroom. Generally speaking, the same arrangement is found from one faculty to another.

The programmes consist of four main subject areas. Firstly, there are the pedagogical subjects in which students are trained during the eight
academic terms in the faculties of education. They are referred to as the Psychology of Education, the Sociology of Education, Curriculum Development, Special Education, Education Statistics, Education Technology, Management and Administration of Education, Principles of Techniques and Methods of Education, General Teaching Methods and Introduction of Education and a Guide for Education. In each term, one of the pedagogical subjects is put in the programme which has two credits per week. These subjects might vary from one faculty to another.

Second is general-cultural subjects which are: Atatürk’s Principles and Revaluation History, Turkish Language, Foreign Language. These subjects are compulsory for the students. On the other hand, for Physical Education, or Art or Music, students choose to take one as a subsidiary subject. Whilst the main aim of teaching cultural subjects is to give students the general knowledge or skills relevant to different cultural aspects, the main aim of pedagogical subject teaching is for students to obtain professional knowledge and skills which they will use in their teaching.

Nevertheless, the training programmes give more time to are covered much more by sub-subjects of the specific subjects such as Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Geography, Languages and Literature and so on.

When we look at the percentage of each main subject are in the training programme, it can be seen follows:

**Under the main subject areas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Credits</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>specialised subject</td>
<td>between 120 - 140</td>
<td>55 - 65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

240
cultural subject between 50 - 65 18 - 30
pedagogical subject between 7 - 16 4 - 9
subsidiary subject between 12 - 18 5 - 10

As can be seen above, specialised subject courses are much more prominent in the programmes for ITT.

The exact time given to each area is slightly different from one department to another and also from faculty to faculty. However, the balance among the subject courses in a faculty or department is determined by the general framework for ITT as offered by "Supreme University Council". Furthermore, they teach less-different pedagogical subjects in the first two academic years or last two academic years, and to teach one pedagogical subject for each term.

Generally speaking, there are mostly four subjects taught under the heading of pedagogy in these faculties. They are mainly referred to as Introduction to Education, The History of Education, Psychology and Sociology of Education. The rest of their teaching mostly belongs to the specific subject studies, and some also belong to cultural subject studies. The pedagogic courses seem to be highly academic. Moreover, most academic staff are critical, saying that it is difficult to prove whether teaching pedagogical subjects does make any difference to the quality of teachers. Also they believe that each student who has graduated in a department of the faculty can teach his subject easily at a school without taking any pedagogical courses. They maintain that the most important thing is whether a student is trained in his subject and is knowledgeable about his own subject. This idea seems to be very similar to traditional teacher training in the past. In fact, in the past teacher training was not as well organised or as consistent as the present programmes. The components of all the programmes are made coherent by the regulations.
of the Supreme University Council. This includes the Vocational and Technical Faculties of Education, which have the same structures as the other faculties, but offer their own specific subject training programmes in accordance with the features of their professions. In addition, working, for instance, in an industrial area is likely to be given more emphasis than pedagogical performance.

On the other hand, primary training has quite different programmes from secondary teacher training. The main aim of the programmes of initial primary teacher training is to prepare and train the students for primary schools and the training takes four years. As earlier mentioned, from 1987 to 1992 primary teacher training was carried out under university control and it lasted 2 years, but since 1992 it has been extended to 4 years.

There is no specific training on any particular subject in primary teacher training in Turkey. The student teachers are trained in order to organise the subjects of primary schools which means that the programmes consist of the primary national school curriculum and their teaching, and they have mainly theory based programmes. Four-year initial primary teacher training consists of the following components, in order to meet the regulations and circulars of the Supreme University Council.

**General subject study courses:**
- Turkish Language, Turkish Literature and Turkish Culture
- History (I,II,III)
- Science Studies (Basic Physics, Basic Chemistry and Biology)
- Atatürk’s Principles and Turkish Revaluation History
- Citizenship
- Foreign Language (English or German or French)
- Subsidiary (Handicraft or Music)
• Child Literature
• Physical Education and Play
• Religion and Ethics

Total: 800 hours within 4 years

Subject studies for teaching skills in primary schools:
• Teaching of Mathematics (for primary schools)
• Teaching of Turkish Language
• Teaching of Reading and Writing
• Teaching of Science and Nature for primary schools
• Teaching of Social Sciences for primary schools
• Teaching and Using of Computer (not every institutions)
• Teaching of Music
• Teaching of Physical Education and Play

Total: 600 hours within 4 years

Education subject studies (pedagogical subjects):
• Introduction to Education
• Introduction to Psychology
• Introduction to Sociology
• Introduction to Philosophy
• The Philosophy of, Sociology of, Psychology of Education
• Psychology of Development
• Psychology of Learning-Teaching
• Educational Statistics
• Research Methods
• Hygiene and First Aid
• Education Systems Adult Education
• Educational Technology
• Guidance and Psychological Health
• Primary School Curriculum and Development
• School Administration and Supervision
• Introduction to Special Education

Total: 700 hours within 4 years

School based experience:
• Seminar about Teaching Practice
• Observation at Schools
• Teaching Practice (I, II)

Total: 200 hours within 4 years

As can be seen above, initial primary teacher training programmes consist of subject studies, education studies, subject studies for teaching skills and school based studies. However, these subjects studies are strongly biased towards theoretical knowledge.

Of the total hours in initial primary teacher training, 39.1 percent are given to subject studies, 56.5 percent to education subject studies and 8.6 percent to school-based studies and experience. Subject studies cover various subjects, which are included in the National Curriculum for primary education, rather than specialising in one subject. Education subject studies are taught from the theoretical perspectives of knowledge. Most importantly, practical teaching studies are given very little attention in the programmes.

Hence it can be said that initial primary teacher training contains much
theoretical knowledge. In addition to this, the syllabuses of the subjects’
courses are determined from theoretical perspectives rather than from
practical applications.

Although there is a big difference between secondary teacher training and
primary teacher training in the contents of their training programmes,
which might suggest that the programmes of primary teacher training are
more professionally based, they are, in fact, much more theoretical.
Similarly, the programmes of secondary teacher training are academic
and theoretical rather than professional and practical.

It should be noted here that it is difficult to clearly divide practical and
theoretical activities in the curriculum, that is for identifying what course
is purely practical and what course is theoretical. Each course contains
both practical teaching and learning and theoretical teaching and
learning.

Although there clearly are differences between the programmes of
faculties, the evidence available does not make it possible to generalise
about different classes, departments and faculties now offering different
degree programmes. Indeed, it would be misleading to do so. There is
considerable variability between faculties, and their programmes,
depending upon a range of factors such as their traditions, leadership,
"culture", reputation etc and each is to some degree idiosyncratic. The
differences between faculties are not adequately explained by the fact that
they are diversified faculties. However, the programmes of teacher
training must focus upon the facilitation of learning in the young, using
the word "learning" to include the full range of cognitive, practical and
affective skills which characterise the curriculum today. There must be
balance among the subject courses and teaching experience in the
faculties.

In addition, the aim for all faculties, be they the faculties of Vocational and Technical Education or the faculties of Education or of Arts and Science, is to ensure that student teachers must be exposed to an orderly and coherent sequence of experience. The academic and professional should illuminate each other. There is no reason to believe that this cannot be achieved in any of the faculty types described but in some it remains to be planned and implemented properly.
CHAPTER 20

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS AND THE OTHER INSTITUTIONS IN TURKEY.

The enormous expansion of primary and secondary education as well as of higher education in many countries, especially in developed countries and the increasing importance of science and technology over the last 30 years, have propelled higher education more than ever into the limelight. State, industry and society have increased their expectations, have levelled criticism, and have tried to influence the course of higher education. The traditional notion of study and research in an ivory tower on the fringes of society no longer seems appropriate. Rather it may be replaced by the image of a "crystal palace", the location of which has moved from the periphery to the centre. Higher education has grown. Its inner life has become more visible to outsiders, thus making it more vulnerable. Hence, Western industrial societies are both democratic and capitalist. From this point of view, teacher education, in particular, attempts to keep in balance the contradictions of a society which is both democratic and capitalist. In this way, each country attempts to create a workable relationship between the teacher training institutions and the other social institutions, under the regulation/or law which encourages both sides to work in co-operation. It may be said that during the 1980s, teacher education, in Turkey and elsewhere, was framed more by the needs of capitalism then by the principles of democracy, to the detriment of the latter. This has been continuously reinforced by economic liberalism since 1980; for instance, the number of public schools has been increasing
sharply across these countries. Market economy promotes strong, competitive individualism. So the sub-disciplines of education become fragmented into easily marketable modules, attempts to cater for three aspects of culture in education; democracy; competitive individualism and capital accumulation; and technological progress.
CHAPTER 21

COMPARISON BETWEEN ENGLISH AND TURKISH TEACHER EDUCATION

A General Description of both Turkish and British Education Systems

This section considers the general features of the Turkish and British Education systems from an organisational and administrative perspective. Having set out the descriptive points, the section compares and contrasts methodology and course content within the two countries. Features which emerge are the academic and centralised nature of training programmes within the Turkish system as compared with more diffuse arrangements operating within the United Kingdom. This is best exemplified by the mono course structure operating in Turkey as compared with the many differing models identified and described in Britain.

It is commonly known that teachers were the key to the world-wide education reforms of the 1980s, for it is they who had to understand the aims and objectives of such reforms and mediate them intelligently and competently. It is in this sense that the ways in which teachers perceive themselves, their work, their schools and their pupils' impact upon teaching quality. In this respect teacher training institutions, the organisation, the curriculum and the implementation have the main role to play training their student teachers during the time of courses which is fundamental to the quality of teachers.
We may see institutions and the functions which exist in one culture but not in another. Even if the same institutions exist they may have different combinations or varying degrees of strength and have a different function from one to another (Kohn (1987) points out that without cross-national comparisons, one cannot be certain that what is from single-nation studies as social-structural regularities is not merely the produce of some limited set of historical, cultural or political circumstances within any of those countries. It is possible to view one's own system with greater clarity when it is reflected against a different system. National differences can help point-up features in one system that might otherwise be taken for granted.

Many aspects of one country's education can be illuminated by systematic comparison with education in other countries. Thus, cross-national research may be a rich source for both universal cross-cultures and particulars within each culture. Moreover, it is an important question why comparative research is undertaken.

'what is the situation like elsewhere and what do we know about it?' Simply the need to know what is happening in the educational systems of other countries was the earliest and remains one of the strongest supports.' (Passau et al, 1976, P12).

The aim of collecting information about other countries may be directed towards a problem-solving or policy-making one's own country. Here it is hoped that by examining foreign educational systems and practices

'there may be discovered features that are worth borrowing for introduction into our own system or conversely, some that we perceive must be avoided at all costs.' (Hall, 1977, P.82).

To understand others and to understand ourselves is to have in hand the ingredients of comparison. Comparative 'readiness', a broader and at the
same time more meticulous frame of mind, can only come from persistent practice in dealing with two or more cultures at the same time. It is being attuned to the importance of comparability that permits comparative educators to serve two practical goals: first, to deduce from the achievements and the mistakes of school systems, other than their own, lessons for their own schools (or to warn policy makers that such lessons cannot be light-heartedly sought where valid comparison is impossible); second, to appraise educational issues from a global rather than an ethnocentric perspective or in other words, to always be aware of other nations' points of view.

In my comparative study of Turkish and English education systems, it is immediately apparent that the two countries varied along a number of important dimensions; size, demography, political ideology and religion, economic development, social life, style and culture, geography, though the both can be described as having modern democratic, industrial enterprises and capitalistic economies. In particular, both countries have very different backgrounds in terms of education, social, political and economic developments. However, it may be said that to some extent the both were once two of the greatest empires in the world. The difference is that Great Britain still is, in some aspects, and she has inherited from her past and much more importantly Britain is proud of her history and getting benefits from that. On the other hand, Turkey is not at all like that. First, Turkey started entering in the 20th Century to deny her own history, culture and inheritance. She wanted to get rid of her past and to build a new social system and to create the values for the people. (Kazamias, 1966).
Before comparing the two systems of teacher education in England and Turkey, it would be better to look here at both countries and the school systems from the general aspects.

**Turkey**

Turkey has a unique geographic situation at the intersection between Europe, the Eastern Block, the Arab world and the Mediterranean Sea contributes to the political as well as the growing economic importance of the country. In an area of 774815 sq. km. that combined lives a population of approximately 57 million (1990) still increasing at an annual growth rate of about 2.0%.

Governance and administration of the country are firmly centralised. The country is sub-divided into 87 provinces, which in turn are sub-divided into administrative districts. Governors of the provinces and the districts are appointed by the central government and the regional departments correspond the ministries in Ankara (which is the capital city). The manipulators within their elected mayors exercise considerable powers.

The opening to the west, which the Republic pursued from the twenties onwards, and Ataturk and his fellows' radical social and political reforms are still determinants for Turkey today. Another element of crucial importance for the texture of Turkish society and public life is the dominant religion of Islam. Nearly 99% of the Turkish population are Moslems and the language is Turkish.

Ataturk made Turkey a secular republic. The separation of state and religion, the replacement of Islamic laws by a civil and a penal law
according to European models, the introduction of the Western alphabet, the establishment of civil rights corresponding to Western democracies, the introduction of equal rights for women - by those and other far-reaching reforms Ataturk created the conditions for the modernisation of Turkey.

Among the government, the military leadership, the centre of the spectrum and the overwhelming majority of public administrators, there is a consensus to stick formally to the basic principles of the Republic, including secular character and to push forward economic and social modernisation. It is perhaps not surprising that the only liberal democracy in the Muslim world is Turkey, which was the only country to have stuck with an explicit rejection of its Islamic heritage in favour of a secularist society early in the twentieth century. (Fukayama, 1992).

From the educational point of view, according to the constitution governing the Republic, no-one shall be deprived of the right of learning and education (Charter 47). Moreover, primary education is compulsory and free in state schools. The Education Bill (1973) details the constitutional principles underpinning a basic education system which rests on the following stated assumptions:

a) universality and equality;
b) fulfilment of individual and social needs;
c) freedom of choice;
d) rights to Education;
e) equality of opportunity;
f) education for all throughout life;
g) adherence to Ataturk's reform principles,
including secularism;
h) building of democracy;
i) scientific approach;
j) co-education;
k) school-parent co-operation.

These are the principles of the Turkish education system (in the theoretical sense).

In the Turkish education system the curriculum subject matter lead, syllabi, textbooks and teachers' guide for all the schools are subject to national regulations prescribed in minute detail from the central government. The Inspectorate ascertains that set norms are followed by individual schools or teachers, so that the system progresses in the same mode and at the same rate in every corner of the country. In each school it is the Headmaster's prime duty to supervise the teachers' work by giving his or her daily approval to concrete teaching plans submitted in detail before classes begin.

The rule in Educational Management has been for a long time that 'central government knows best.' School principals regard themselves primarily as executors of regulations and norms issued from above. Provincial directors of education are intermediate links in the chain of command with limited innovative powers. In Turkey, the administrative structure of Turkish education is centred in the National Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. The Minister makes all final decisions affecting the administration of all the schools in the country. His signature must appear on all orders, even in the case of relatively minor matters such as appointment and transfer of teachers and textbooks used
in schools. All the educational activities for each school operate within a framework of regulations set up by the central ministry. It appoints, assigns, disciplines and removes teachers; it appropriates monies for the construction and operation of all schools; and, through a corps of school inspectors, it sees that the directives and regulations of the ministry are carried through. Therefore, Turkish education is a highly centralised where policy-making and administration of schools are conducted and regulated at ministerial level. This is even more apparent in the case of secondary Education. The tight bureaucratic control over schools is further typified in the duties and powers of the local school director of principals. Hence, it must be pointed out that it is difficult to imagine a system in which less opportunity is given from individual schools and teachers to exercise initiative and in which all changes and adjustments must come from a place as remote from the real school situation.

As mentioned, beyond the five year primary stage there is a network of three schools, consisting of the middle school, the normal school, the commercial middle schools, boys' and girls' trade schools. Of those middle schools, boys' and girls' trade schools and a school for the training of religious schools. Of those middle stage schools, the middle school has occupied and continues to occupy, a private position in the general education system of the country. The present function of the middle school is threefold:

a) to give general education beyond the primary school, with a modicum of practical knowledge;
b) to prepare for the academic and other types of upper secondary schools;
c) to prepare for higher-trade and professional schools.

Parallel to the middle schools there are various categories of vocational, technical and professional schools - each of which provides both a terminal education and preparation for higher schools of the same type. Above the secondary higher circle there is a network of institutions of higher learning ranging from the universities.

It appears that the Turkish government is eager to expand technical and vocational education more and more in order to meet the needs of its industrial, commercial; and agricultural enterprises at all levels.

We must also draw attention to the independence from the Minister's jurisdiction enjoyed by YOK (The Council of Higher Education). There are other implications concerning, for instance, the upper secondary curriculum and the national examinations for university entrance.

As already noted, some of the contemporary objectives of the Education system in Turkey continue to correspond to those developed during the Ataturk era. Naturally, the emphases have changed: for instance, there is a new stress on technical and vocational training.

State planning Offices also play a major role since new state initiatives must be seen to conform with overall economic and social priorities, as prescribed in the five-year Development Plans. It is the National Minister of Education Youth and Sports, an ex-officio member of Cabinet and Chairman of a joint inter-ministerial board concerned with education and training matters. He/she can interpret through his/her complete control
over senior appointments in the Ministry, ensure that his instruction are
obeyed. It is also he/she who determines the extent to which the Ministry
consults and collaborates with other ministries and outside bodies. In this
sense, the national parliament is the ultimate source of authority. But the
Ministry has absolute control over the curriculum, the selection and
placement of teachers, textbooks and supply of equipment, most school
construction.

Nevertheless, in basic education, teachers are still the single most
important resource for improving quality, school effectiveness and
generating a classroom environment which can turn formal education
into a creative and exciting adventure.

The aims of national education policy provided the bed-rock upon which
Ataturk and the new Turks constructed the revolutionary ideology. The
theories continue to underline educational development during the
republican period. This central organisation and the Turkish education
system can be shown in the next two charts. All the teachers of these
schools at all levels are trained by the universities.

Great Britain

Great Britain is an island that lies off the north-west coast of Europe. The
nearest country is France, which is twenty miles away and from which
Great Britain is separated by the English Channel. The island is
surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean to the west and the North Sea to the
east. It comprises the mainland of England, Wales and Scotland, that is,
three countries. Scotland is in the north, while Wales is in the west.
Ireland, which is also an island, lies off the west coast of Great Britain. It
consists of Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic. Great Britain, together with Northern Ireland, constitutes the United Kingdom. Thus, the United Kingdom is composed of four countries. The largest of these is England. The capital city is London, which lies in south-east England.

The United Kingdom has a total area of about 244,100 sq km. In mid 1988 the estimated population was approximately 57 million. The predominant religion is Britain is Christianity.

Great Britain is a member of the European Economic Community, as well as she is one of the most advances industrialised seven countries in the world. She plays a very important part in world policy as well as in world economy today. Underlying this, it can be said, the British education system has been playing the most important role.

In this sense, the foundations for and the core of any modern education system, consists in the provision of formal schooling for children, adolescents and also for adults. The growth of such provision and educational development in the widest sense, do not take place in a vacuum; they occur within, are part of, the whole context of the parent society. Thus, the nature of an education system carries according to time and place. The aims, extent, organisation, curricula and methodology of education reflect and will reflect the existing institutions and the dominant attitudes, values and forces which characterise a particular society. The development of any education system and its schools cannot properly be understood unless it is seen in societal perspective and related to the overall context of the time. However, it is not the subject here to examine the history of the English education system. We are interested in
English teacher education, which is the part of the system. This is why it may be worthy to describe briefly the school system in England.

As pointed out in the previous chapters, English education system seems to be the most complicated and unique system. We have seen that more complex theories of learning and teaching have been developed in England than elsewhere which have important implications for schools. There is the autonomy of teachers at all levels of education in England and Wales. England's system of educational administration has been seen as a unique partnership between its various elements.

It has been shown that educational structures, school and classroom life, the curriculum and matters of principle, such as power and control and equality, are more confused in England than anywhere else. They remind me the idea is that English mode of operating and expressions of the central tenants of English liberalism, whose socio-economic and political evolution represents a quite unique English achievement (such as freedom of choice and individual differences).

In sum, the educational system in England and Wales is distinguished from arrangements operating in many other countries by a number of characteristic features:

i) the distribution of power and responsibility within the State system. The development and continuance of a continuance of a complicated mechanism of checks and balances means that the system of education in England and Wales depends upon the co-operative and complementary efforts of the central government, the local authorities, the teaching
profession, the churches and other voluntary bodies. Despite the encroachments of post-war centralisation, especially in more recent years, education remains a national service which is locally provided and administered.

ii) The marked degree of professional freedom enjoyed by teachers in the schools. After 1902, the central and local education authorities were increasingly content to leave such matters as the teaching methods, internal organisation and discipline in schools to the professional judgement of teachers. The teachers exercise much influence upon the conduct of external examinations and boasted of professional freedom that is the envy of their fellows in most other countries. Although the centrally orchestrated demand to accountability over the past decade had questioned their position, teachers have retained a decisive influence upon what goes on in schools. After the National Curriculum, for the first to sixteen school curriculum, it leaves headteachers and their staff with room for manoeuvre the very broad guide-lines laid down.

iii) The major contribution of voluntary organisations to the statutory system of education. The dual arrangements (established in 1870) continue to operate in modified form; over one-fifth of primary and secondary pupils at present attend church schools, and the religious organisations still hold an important place in teacher training and have recently secured a foothold in the wider field of higher education. To some extent, various voluntary bodies also contribute to the
total provision made by the LEAs for special and further education.

iv) The existence of the private sector alongside the state system. Centred upon the prestigious and expensive public boarding schools this sector has maintained the real substance of its independence from state control and continues to have an importance out of all proportion to the number of fee-paying pupils it serves.

Thus, this system allows for the exercise of considerable local discretion and support a surprising diversity educational provision; the wider variations in pattern and practice between individual LEAs continues to give particularly sharp expression to this.

The political and economic changes already considered have had a major and largely untoward impact upon the administrative context in which post-war state educational provision has developed. Traditionally the framework for the administration of state education has been one geared to partnership, consultation and co-operation between the central authority, the LEAs, teachers and the parents. However, the recently established National Curriculum, usually resultant of the government's determination to increase its own power, and the educational system seemed to be centralised gradually.

The period of compulsory schooling begins at the age of five, with entry into the primary or first stage of education. But the maintained system includes nursery schools and nursery classes (three to four years) attached to infant schools or department. At five years most children enter infant
(five to seven years) or primary (five to eleven) schools, although a minority joining ‘first’ schools which generally cover the five to eight or five to nine years age groups. The five to seven infant schools transfer their pupils to seven to eleven junior schools and many five to eleven primary schools are sub-divided into infant and junior departments. Most ‘first’ schools link up with eight to twelve or nine to thirteen middle schools.

The organisation of secondary education proceeded very largely on the basis of the four main comprehensive schools, the two-tier system with complete transfer from a junior to a senior comprehensive at thirteen, the eleven to sixteen comprehensive plus sixth form (or tertiary) college arrangements and the middle school pattern involving transfer at twelve or thirteen to senior comprehensive. The secondary education organised grammar, technical and modern lines.

The vast majority of children in England and Wales attend state maintained schools which provide compulsory education from the age of 5 to 16 years. Above all, these can be classified according to the age range of pupils and the type of education provided. Basically, there are two types of school: primary and secondary, although in some areas there are middle schools. Primary schools cater for children aged five to eleven and secondary schools for ages eleven to thirteen (in some areas up to eighteen years). In a number of areas, pupils may be grouped according to their ability and selected by means of an examination at the age of eleven. In those areas, grammar schools cater for those with academic ability and secondary modern schools for those with less academic ability.
When pupils reach the age of sixteen, there may be three choices open to them. First, they may leave schools. Second, they may transfer to a sixth form or tertiary college. Third, they may stay on at school for two more years if it has a sixth form.

Apart from these schools, there are independent schools, country and voluntary schools or co-educational and single-sex schools. All nursery and infant schools are co-educational, and single-sex schools are now few and far between at the junior and secondary levels. In addition, given the recent sharp growth of youth unemployment, many early schools leavers now enter the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) designed to provide sixteen to seventeen year olds with the sort of training and work experience which may better equip them to take a job if any when available.

The school system seemed an adequate and satisfactory provision of primary and secondary schooling suited to pupils' different ages, abilities and aptitudes.

Moreover, the National Curriculum was established by the central government for all schools (ages five to sixteen) in England and Wales. The National Curriculum has three core subjects and seven foundation subjects. The core subjects are English, mathematics, sciences; the foundation ones are history, geography, technology, music, art, physical education and (at secondary level) a foreign language. (Welsh is a core subject in Welsh-speaking schools and a foundation subject in other schools in Wales). Religious education is included for all pupils. Section 2 states that the curriculum is specified relations to each of the core and foundation subjects:
a) The knowledge, skills and understanding that pupils of different abilities and maturities are expected to have by the end of each key stage (attainment target).

b) The matters, skills and processes that are required to be taught to pupils of different abilities and maturities during each key stage (programmes of study).

c) The arrangements of assessing pupils or near the end of each stage for the purpose of ascertaining what they have achieved in relation to the attainment targets for that stage (assessment arrangements).

The end of each key stage is by the ages of seven, eleven, fourteen and sixteen.

In the management and government of schools in England and Wales, there was equal representation from four groups: LEAs; school staff; parents (and pupils); and the local community; on how responsibility for the curriculum, finance, staff appointments, admissions, suspensions and expulsions and school premises which were to be divided between the governors and the LEA. However, the 1988 Education Act changed the basic power structure within the education service. It increased central government's control of the system by spelling out the powers of the Secretary of State. It took powers away from the LEAs and gave these powers to the schools and colleges, mainly through increasing the authority of governing bodies. It removed the polytechnics and colleges of higher education from local authority control, so that the universities, colleges and new universities in England and Wales train their student teachers for teaching in all these schools.
We now turn to the comparison of initial teacher training in Turkey and England and Wales.
CHAPTER 22

COMPARISONS BETWEEN TURKISH AND ENGLISH-WELSH INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING

Having described the Turkish and English-Welsh educational systems, we now turn to the comparison between both countries' teacher education.

The Background of Teacher Training

Turkish teacher training institutions had been under the control of government until 1982. During this period, the Ministry of Education had absolute political power over institutions of teacher education, in the same way as it now has power over Turkish schools.

Teacher education was often the subject of radical change with successive governments directly contradicting their predecessor's policies. The government conducted and regulated teacher education at ministerial level. Teacher education, curriculum, aims, objectives, assessment and student teachers' progress seems to have been established centrally through 'armchair discussions'. It is interesting to point out here that no research has been carried out on teacher training for sixty years. It also did not inherit a viable system from the past. The old system was inconsistent with the new aims and modern needs of its pupils. The central government attempted to legislate necessary changes through direction from the centre. The democratisation of education has always been the dominant feature of reforms in teacher education in Turkey. However, the government acted
drastically, largely by copying and adopting, without the experiences of other nations. Especially French and American profiles of teacher educational patterns have been in some respects copied by Turkish governments.

Turkish Teacher education was an offspring of these models, and the government placed control in centralised Minister of Education, with power over the curricula, building programmes and training, appointment and promotion of teachers. Since the needs of the schools were more urgent they were tempted to use more direct methods to solve their problems. Hence, Turkey attempted to enforce reforms by centralisation. The outcome of this was teacher training reforms tended to disappoint the original high expectations of its proponents. The organisation, control, and curriculum of teacher education in Turkey not only paralleled in the West, but drew directly from Western (French and, more recently, American) models and patterns. Other subjects introduced in the institutions or studies elsewhere more important vehicles of cultural and ideological transmissions. Most of these policies have been derived from ideologies, hopes, expectations and adopted from the current universal models of teacher education. They would be from facts and observations. Because can be discussed how much they were related functionally to the needs and aspirations of Turkish pupils in teacher education.

As a result of the implementations of central government policies over sixty years, Turkish initial teacher education became increasingly politicised in terms of the policy of central governments. In addition to this, the necessity of supplying large numbers of teachers to cope with the growing school population dominated. The need for maintaining and improving the status
of teachers, and hence standards of training, to keep up with the increasing professional standing of other occupations in Turkey, was of secondary importance. Consequently, the quality of teacher training declined.

Teacher training in Turkey provided general pedagogical knowledge to be the acquisition of knowledge rather than technical skill; knowledge aimed at the cultivation of non-utilitarian and altruistic sentiments which did not seek ulterior sentiments. It is interesting to note here that the Kemalist Revolution and the principles and the nationalistic aspect are not still clearly defined, although these ideas are supposed to be underlining education, but they were expressed and interpreted by central government which became the government of Turkey each time.

Therefore, there was a void between theoretical formulation and practical applications for teacher education. The period of teacher training under the central government policy saw the development of what has been called the foundation disciplines of education - history, psychology, sociology, philosophy.

As a result of these problems in teacher education, the centralisation made the following provision for initial teacher education in 1981 (Article 131):

'The Higher Education Council shall be established to plan, organise, administer and supervise the education provided by institutions of higher education, to orientate the activities of teaching, education and scientific research, to ensure the establishment and development of these institutions in conformity with the objectives and principles set forth by law, to ensure the effective use of the resources allocated to the universities and to plan the training of the teaching staff.'
After this, universities were represented on the Higher Education Board (YOK). The era of the teacher education under the policies of central governments were over. All primary and secondary teacher education institutions were taken over by universities in 1982. Since that time they have been under the control and sponsorship of the Council of Higher Education (YOK). This body is responsible for designing the general principles of all higher education programmes, for the promotions and appointments of lecturers and for accreditation in order to provide consistency. However, to some extent the past policy of teacher training still influences education. However, teacher training has been developing as a part of higher education in Turkey since 1982, which seems to be decentralised.

Britain, on the other hand, has one of the longest democratic traditions. Britain has been progressing towards a more democratic society in all senses. Unlike Turkey, this stable democratic social system has not been subject to interruption.

From a British educational point of view, English education has a very rich inheritance from the past and all efforts have been made to make the progress towards to have more democratic educational system the parallel to the social system as well as improving the quality of teacher education as a part of English education system.

During the last century, teacher training in England was sponsored by religious and voluntary bodies. Three factors combined to change this: the establishment of day training colleges attached to universities as
recommended by the Cross Commission (1888); the growth of board schools after 1870 created a demand for teachers which could not be satisfied by the existing colleges; recognition of the need to train teachers for secondary schools. The setting up of the first day training colleges in 1890 was a response to these needs. In 1908 the Board introduced regulations encouraging day training colleges to undertake this task. They established a national system of secondary education and the 1902 act highlighted the need for trained graduates for these schools. During the inter-war period, the Board ensured that training colleges and university training departments were kept apart, forbidding attempts to unify the two systems. The McNair Report (1944) led to the setting up of Area Training Organisations (ATOs) which went some way towards making co-operation easier.

Post-war, the Ministry of Education dealt with the demographic explosion by means of a number of makeshift expediences. Tight control, however, was kept on target numbers and the balance of training.

Robbins (1963) suggested that training colleges should become part of higher Education, but the Ministry bowed to pressure from LEAs to maintain the status quo. However, the three-year course for colleges and the introduction of the B.Ed degree helped to raise the status of these institutions. Teacher training was decentralised in the early 1970s with the DES taking a more interventionist approach to both colleges and university departments of education. A large-scale programme of contraction of colleges and amalgamation with other institutions has taken place monotechnics have disappeared. All institutions offering initial teacher training received visits from HMIs in order to gain accreditation by the Secretary of State (Gordon,
Alternative routes into teaching were promoted by the DES in the late 1980s. Most colleges and polytechnics became part of the higher education system. The criteria for initial teacher training were established by CATE. Finally, all teacher training institutions have been training their students according to the criteria for ITT since 1986.

England, France and Germany are major countries of western Europe, deploying industrial revenues to ensure high quality teacher training systems which are copied by other European and European-influenced countries.

What is the essence of good teacher preparation, what is to be the central aim of teacher education in an increasingly industrial society? These are the questions to which England has always been seeking new answers. To quote Karl Bigeow, (1966) English Teacher training seemed to have been facing:

> The lengthening period of teacher preparation; the mounting problems of maintaining an adequate supply of qualified teachers; the growing emphasis on child study as a key element in professional training; increasing awareness of the necessity that teachers be prepared to adjust educational practice to changing social circumstances; the struggle with the problems what are the best proportions of general and professional education in the preparation of teachers and of how these components may best be related to one another; the more vivid awareness of the importance of providing continuous opportunities for teachers in-service to increase their understanding and competence.'

Two contradictory tendencies have dominated post-war reform policies in teacher education: the necessity of supplying large numbers of teachers and improving the quality of teacher education. English teacher training policy has been developing and in doing so has kept a balance between the growing school population, the supply of teachers and the need for maintaining and improving the quality and status of teachers. These two major trends exemplify particularly well the existence of these attitudes: an endeavour to
provide university or equivalent status for all teachers and inclusion of some liberal arts courses in teacher training programmes.

In terms of teacher training policy-making, it is unique that teacher training in England has been developing in a decentralised system.

In the post-war period, much development has been made in the foundation disciplines (history, philosophy, sociology, psychology). A more recent trend has been to reduce the fragmentation by distinguishing empirical approaches. A further step has been taken by those who espouse the theory and practice of curriculum development. The phases of curriculum theory, moving aims and objectives, learning experiences and the ordering of content and resources to evaluation, involve all the foundation disciplines and, in addition, require a grasp of the structure of the subject material.

Therefore, it could be said that teacher training in England and Wales has been developing from a classical, traditional and theoretical base towards a scientific, rational and pragmatic system.

The research and the analysis of experiences in student attachment to schools illustrates the complexity of issues of partnership arising from attempts to improve the practical experiences of student teachers and the quality of their practical teaching. The programme of attachments was developed within a framework of "institutional freedom" in professional matters and the value of variety and experiment in teacher training in English teacher education. There has also existed good links between government action in direct
relation to local education authorities and schools, and its action in relation to teacher education.

The development of teacher education in Turkey and England have followed very different paths. While Turkey has been copying and adopting the patterns of other nations, England has been developing, making progress and preparing actual proposals of reform at an almost leisurely pace by way of much public discussion, soul searching and experimentation for English teacher education. In relation to this, English teacher education has gradually developed from the school-based pupil-apprenticeship scheme to one whereby students were indicted into the profession of teaching through a structured combination of training and education in England and Wales. On the other hand, according to the background of Turkish teacher education, it has not changed much in terms of curriculum, methods and content.

In 1980 the main routes into the teaching profession in England and Wales were the B.Ed/BA and the PGCE. Moreover, by September 1989 there were the 'Licensed Teacher' and the 'Articled Teacher' schemes; providing two further routes into the profession. The schools themselves 'determine' their training requirements and a two year programme of school-based induction.

Until 1987 there were two main routes into the teaching profession in Turkey. One was the colleges of teacher education at secondary education level for primary teacher training, another the institutions of higher teacher education for secondary teacher training in which the students were trained. All the institutions of teacher education were transferred in higher education. All the courses were the Diploma since 1982. It can be concluded that the
history of teacher education has not produced fruitful experiences for Turkish teacher education in the past. This seems that it is still confronted with as great a challenge as the teacher education was in Turkey. The main reasons seemed that the central governments have been rushing to embrace western ways, western models were very highly qualified in terms of their own needs of the economy, technology of science for their teaching professions. Turkey could not adopt them for their own needs in terms of Turkish economical, social and political circumstances. So that they were not much related to what the Turkish educational system needed. In the meantime, the crises have appeared at all levels from the methods, the courses and the content and the quality of teacher education which have lost the links to all their talent to the problems, down to traditional experiences initial teacher education, when Turkish models have been pushed aside by copying the strong European and American patterns.

Comparisons on Teacher Education Systems in Turkey and England/Wales

It is hard to compare the system of one of the most developed countries, Great Britain, with one of the least developed, Turkey. However, comparisons may be drawn on some points.

Both country's teacher training programmes have recently become part of higher education. However, universities in both countries are also used in teacher training. There were other institutions which trained student teachers for the teaching profession. Most of these institutions, such as colleges of education, polytechnics and voluntary colleges in England and Wales are now part of higher education, but all institutions are part of higher
education in Turkey. In other words, teacher training institutions have university status.

In the past, in England and Wales, every institution was autonomous and trained its own students for the teaching profession. Hence, it could be said that teacher education was a completely decentralised system, which in turn gave rise to differing quality of teacher training in institutions. The criteria for ITT was set up by CATE. CATE was established in 1984 to review all existing and emergent courses of initial teacher education in terms of criteria and to make recommendations to the Secretary of State for the purposes of the award of qualified teacher status. The Council reflected the range of institutional interests; involved in teaching universities; the employers of teachers; professional organisations (trade unions); industry and commerce; ethic and language groups with England and Wales. CATE operates to a greater extent than did its predecessors through local communities, all ITT institutions are in membership. These committees undertake the initial monitoring and review of course and help to identify and disseminate good practice. The widening of institutional involvement has consequences for the governance and organisation of teacher education, for content of courses, for staff recruitment and for modes of programme delivery.

Therefore, in English/Welsh teacher training, both centralisation and decentralisation have been occurring simultaneously. Functional and operational autonomy have been maintained - in some cases, e.g. the new universities, enhanced - but accountability to the centre, as representative of wider institutional interests than those of ITT itself, has increased. However,
English central government appears to have increased its control over teacher training appears. In fact, it has become more centralised in the 1990s.

Contrary to English/Welsh teacher education, in Turkey all the teacher training institutions were operated by the Ministry of Education. There was a common curriculum set up by the Ministry to ensure all institutions trained students for ITT in a similar way. Teacher education was a highly centralised system. This caused politicisation of teacher education in Turkey because of the current government's designed courses for ITT in terms of their own political ideology. Due to this, all institutions were transferred to the university system so becoming part of university education. In the meantime, the Council of Higher Education (YOK) was set up in 1982. All primary and secondary teacher educational institutions have been under the control and sponsorship of YOK since its establishment.

YOK is responsible for designing the general principles of all higher education curricula, for approving the appointment of lecturers, and accrediting institutions administratively in order to ensure equality and comparity and the quality of teacher training country-wide. The Higher Education and Cooperation Commission provides the connection between YOK and the Ministry of Education with regard to policy-making in Turkey. YOK has contact with the faculties of education in universities to discuss and review all existing and emergent courses of initial teacher Education.

Turkish teacher education, under the control of the Council for Higher Education, is still a centralised system but much less so than previously.
Moreover, each institution has the right to change twenty per cent of the common curriculum for ITT to accommodate their needs and facilities.

The Council is the obvious link between universities and the Ministry, so there is only an indirect relationship between the Ministry, the schools (through the Ministry) and the faculties of Education in Turkey.

There is only one route into both primary and secondary teacher training in Turkey. On the other hand, in England and Wales, there are four routes into the teaching profession. These are: the B.Ed/B.A. (four years), the PGCE (one year), the Licensed Teacher Scheme and the Articled Teacher Scheme (two years).

Comparing the Courses of ITT in Turkey with the Courses of ITT in England and Wales.

As previously noted, initial teacher training in England and Wales is provided in three kinds of higher Education institutions: university departments of education; colleges of higher education and new universities. Whatever the institution, the majority of students follow either a four year course (the colleges of higher Education - new universities) leading to a Bachelor degree with a concurrent educational qualification or, having obtained a bachelor in an academic subject over three years, take a one year professionally orientated course leading to a PGCE, these three kinds of higher education institutions traditionally have also involved in a range of activities for qualified school teachers. There are also two further routes into the profession: the Licensed Teacher Scheme and the Articled Teacher.
Scheme. The schools determine their training requirements under the Circular of the Ministry of Education. All the courses of teacher training are school-based.

Students can train to be teachers through the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed, four years) or the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE, one year). PGCE students complete their first degree in a particular discipline or, more rarely, through an interdisciplinary courses, and qualify for the PGCE by entering into a further year’s study, usually at a different institution.

A major difference between the B.Ed and the PGCE routes is that concepts, issues and skills concerned with education may be constructively integrated with subject studies in the four year B.Ed, while the first degree course of the PGCE student may have been totally unrelated to such matters. Thus, whilst the B.Ed students have time for concepts to be acquired and skills developed, PGCE students have thirty six weeks in which to learn demanding tasks. The difficulties are compounded by the need to confront unfamiliar concepts, develop new skills and cope with the physical and emotional demands of school experience.

On the other hand, initial teacher training in Turkey is provided in the faculties of education and the higher institutions of education of universities. Whatever the institution, all students follow four year courses leading to a diploma degree for qualified school teachers. In the diploma courses, students are dealing with concepts, issues, and theoretical knowledge of subjects pertaining to education.
In the broadest terms, the content of initial teacher education course in England and Wales is based on four major elements: the process of teaching (methods work - curriculum study); education theory (the foundation disciplines: sociology, philosophy, psychology, history and comparative education); practical experience of teaching in schools (teaching practice); subject studies (which are normally based on the study of a main and a second or subsidiary subject). PGCE students complete their subject studies during the three year course that leads to the award of their first degree. Moreover, in recent years, the PGCE courses have moved towards the promotion of 'specialised expert training' in line with other initial teacher training courses and with the requirements of centralised policy through CATE. The PGCE course provides an intensive period of training which comprises curriculum studies, education and professional studies and school experience, all complete in one year. The case study illustrates certain trends in ITT that are common across many courses and reflect both the conventional wisdom as well as the requirements of CATE criteria.

The institutions offer both primary and secondary teacher training. The B.Ed degree and the PGCE teach students jointly for part of their course. Frequently, work in specialist subject and education studies is common to both primary and secondary student teachers. Whatever the overall structure, the B.Ed courses are planned with about thirty teaching weeks in each year. The B.Ed students spend at least sixty per cent of thirty weeks in school in each year. PGCE students spend sixty per cent of thirty six weeks in schools and the rest of the time in the teacher education institutions. However, by Circular 9/92 and 35/92 this criteria was changed slightly. According to the new criteria for ITT:
• schools are given to play a much larger part in ITT, with students spending more time in schools during their courses;
• HMI and schools are forming partnerships to ensure an effective school-basis for training;
• courses are facing on developing in students the professional complexities expected of newly qualified teacher;
• the secretary of state has a major power over ITT which is given the recommendation by CATE. CATE is mainly responsible for ITT.

In accordance with the new criteria, the minimum time students are to spend in schools should be twenty four weeks. For part-time courses eighteen weeks is prescribed and in four, two and three year undergraduate courses, thirty two weeks.

The government expected all relevant courses to be adapted to meet these criteria as soon as possible, not later than 1 September, 1994. HMIs are responsible for organising the partnerships with schools, planning and management of courses and the selection, training and assessment of students. This illustrates how central government has taken control of teacher training in England and Wales.

From the development of courses, one of the dominant trends in the movement towards more pragmatic approaches is the 'specialised expert training' approach. Thus, courses have incorporated more school-based work
and developed the notion of effective involvement of practising teachers through partnership schemes and school-based initiatives.

A second significant current trend to be noted is how academic and school staff are becoming inspectors of student teachers. In addition, teacher training courses have always included an element of profiling in the practical assessment, based on a number of criteria to form profiles and records of achievement. This work is now being explored more carefully and with promising results.

Under CATE criteria, in the academic year 1990/91, there were ninety one higher education institutions offering ITT (thirty six colleges, twenty five polytechnics and thirty universities) (DES, 1990a).

Turkish initial teacher education courses are also based on four elements: professional studies (sociology, psychology, history, technology, statistics, introduction to education, curriculum development and methods and consultation); cultural (general) knowledge (Ataturk re-evaluation, Turkish language, foreign languages, arts, subsidiary subject); subject study (a specialised subject for secondary teacher training, general subject studies for primary teacher training, based on the subjects of primary school curriculum); practical experience of teaching in schools. All the faculties of secondary teacher training have common courses in terms of requirements and general principles of YOK's framework. The primary teacher training institutions also have common courses separate from secondary teacher training courses. Both courses are designed by YOK. Both institutions train their own students separately and offer the diploma degree under the umbrella of YOK's.
framework. The diploma courses are planned with about thirty four teaching weeks in each year. Both diploma courses take four years, consisting of eight terms. Student teachers spend between two to four weeks in schools in their final year for teaching practice, they spend the rest of their time in the faculties or institutions during the period of a four year course. Moreover, the students study on their specialised subject (only for secondary school teachers) or, on their general subject studies, over seventy per cent of course time, less than twenty per cent of course time and they spend less than nine per cent of course time in schools for teaching practice which is usually in the March of their final year.

Schools are only given a part to play in ITT for two weeks (during teaching practice). Whilst English/Welsh teacher training has been developing more and more as a unique partnership between its various organisations and institutions, Turkey has no partnership with any institution for ITT. The courses of Turkish teacher education are based on the faculty or the institution-based study for primary and secondary school teacher training which are theoretical. Cultural factors are strong in teacher education, which seems to have been over-ridden by the culture of obligation and social support. The institutions rely very heavily on a didactic style of presentation in terms of teaching the content of subjects in Turkey.

YOK is mainly responsible for planning and management of courses and the selection, training and assessment of students.

From the course context, the course is commonly divided into four main categories which are called: college based study, school based study, before
these studies, school based preparation and college based preparation in English teacher training. On the other hand, it can be said that there is only faculty based study in Turkish teacher education. Whilst the contents of courses have been determined and taught from practical points of view in teacher training in England and Wales, the content of the courses in Turkish teacher education seem to have been determined and taught the theoretical knowledge of subjects from theoretical points of view. One of the major differences between English and Turkish teacher training courses is that Turkish course for ITT have been organised according to the primary and secondary education of children, the courses for ITT in England and Wales have been designed in accordance with the age groups, their needs, abilities and the educational stages of children.

In addition, in terms of teaching facilities and environment. Generally speaking, teacher training institutions in England and Wales have much better teaching facilities and better organised teaching environments for ITT than the institutions in Turkey.

Finally, as a result of all the above, I am of the opinion that course framework in England and Wales is theoretical aspects of the subject, while in Turkey we find a very serious lack of the practical side of the knowledge.
Comparison of teaching practice in ITT in England, Wales and Turkey

The courses of English teacher training seem to have a very practical and pragmatic approach, which have been implemented in teacher training. In other words, it is concerned with aspects of a real situation and with events that actually happen in schools rather than just dealing with ideas and theories about situations. Moreover, it seems to deal with the situation in schools in a practical rather than a theoretical way in colleges. The courses of Turkish teacher education deal with aspects of the theoretical situation in the faculties and the institutions. So that Turkish teacher training is almost as opposed to English teacher training in this sense.

As far as the aims of teaching are concerned, broadly speaking, it should take account of the student teachers' need to:

- exercise with responsibility relevant skills, knowledge, abilities, dispositions, capacities and understanding;
- be able to continuously uncover and create his/her own theories of action and to use and evaluate these;
- be able to work with pupils in order to facilitate their best interests in terms of learning;
- to be able, concomitantly and continuously, to adapt and refine all these things.

I think that the student teachers may become to be qualified teacher that they will possess the skills, ability, disposition, understanding and capacity
continuously to create, discover use and evaluate his/her own theories of action in order that in all his/her work with his/her pupils. He/she is committed to facilitating their learning to their highest potential and concomitantly to learning himself/herself how better to do so. Of course, central to the students' experience of training to teach in teaching practice.

Thus, school experience (teaching practice) is organised in such a way that students in the B.Ed and the PGCE courses are in working contact with schools virtually throughout the courses in England and Wales. According to both the criteria for ITT in DES Circular 3/84 and the Circular 9/92-35/92, the teaching practice in English teacher training seems to be key figures. In the B.Ed courses there were between eighty and a hundred days in each year, in the PGCE courses were between seventy and ninety days of teaching practice within a one year course in schools, i.e. in both courses, students spend sixty per cent of course time in schools for teaching practice and four per cent on the college-based studies in England and Wales. This is increasing in order to determine the new criteria for ITT, as mentioned in the previous section.

So that schools play a much larger part in ITT, with spending more time in schools during their courses (two thirds of their course in schools) and involves trainees spending sixty per cent of their time in school and forty per cent on curriculum and professional studies, a portion to be taught by lecturers from higher education in England and Wales.

On the other hand, Turkish teacher education devotes the biggest (sixty five to eighty per cent of course time during the four years) proportion of course time to subject studies and it is strongly theory-based rather than school-
based. Students spend almost all their time (ninety two per cent of course time) on the faculty-based studies in the faculty of education in the four year diploma courses. So that the teaching practice is organised in such as way that students are in working contact with schools only two or four weeks in their final academic year of the courses, i.e. in the Diploma course there are only between fifteen and twenty eight days if teaching school experience in March of student's final academic year of course time. This means that students spend only less than eight percent of course time in schools and over ninety per cent of the faculty-based or theoretical-based studies in the faculty of education which is not comparable with the teaching practice of English teacher training. In this aspect, even it is hard to determine what subject is in the cultural-subject studies in Turkish system, in broad terms, the proportion of the cultural-subject studies is between fifteen and twenty per cent of course time. In Turkish system the proportion of the cultural subject studies is between fifteen and twenty percent of course time. Therefore, the smallest proportion of course time is devoted to school based experience and teaching practice, whilst the biggest proportion of the course in English/Welsh B.Ed and PGCE courses is devoted to school-based experiences and teaching practice.

The main two different teaching practice is organised in accordance with CATE criteria for initial teacher training. First one has to be done throughout within a year (for PGCE). This takes one academic year and consist of three terms. Second one (B.Ed courses) three terms so that teaching practice has to be done as far as the amount of spending time ion schools for teaching practice is concerned, in both teacher training (PGCE, B.Ed) students spend the
same per cent of their course time and to do similar teaching activities in the schools during their teaching practice. These teaching activities are:

- visiting schools;
- observing teachers’ teaching;
- teaching mixed ability classes, small groups of pupils (less than ten not sixth form) and multi racial pupils being prepared for ‘O’ level, ‘A’ level and ‘CSE examinations;
- teaching projects which his degree, PGCE or special interests have not equipped him;
- working in a special unit, e.g. for disruptive/remedial pupils;
- seminars;
- tutorials;
- engaging in pastoral work and in extra-curricular activities.

In the meantime, student teachers prepare their essays, seminars and meetings with individuals and group tutors. In all courses teachers are generally able to help students understand what is happening in classroom situations. They are equally able to give students specific advice on what to do in particular circumstances. Lecturers also guide student teachers in how to establish training materials according to weighting and links of practical training in the course structure and to contact with schools as many as they can. That indicates improving communications between tutors, students and class teachers in order to clarify supervisory aims, achieve parity in assessment procedures and ensure congruent perceptions of supervisory behaviour.
The institutions provide schools with general information and further documentation relating to individual students and the courses they are following. The documents tend not to be written specially for schools; the more common practice is for institutions to send copies of course documents or handbooks prepared for students. Teaching practice handbooks are prepared jointly for tutors, students and school teachers. The institutions arrange joint meetings with schools to extend beyond the immediate concerns of teaching practice to include a broader range of issues of common interest. In this sense, schools, institutions and local education authorities mainly work together for teaching experience as a partnership.

The most important aspects of teaching practice in England and Wales are lesson preparation, questioning skills, preparing materials, use of blackboard, classroom management and organisation, control and discipline, the use of audio-visual aids and using language across the curriculum and project work.

By contrast, teaching practice takes between two and four weeks and there is not any systematic approach for teaching practice in Turkish teacher education. There are usually three staff who are responsible for the student's teaching practice in school: one academic staff member from the university; one school teacher and the principal of the school. However, it is not clear what responsibility each one has during teaching practice. The academic and school staff know that teaching practice has to be completed in two or four weeks. Students have to go to schools which are chosen for teaching practice. They spend their first week visiting the school and
observing teachers in the classroom. They undertake to teach the class during the second week's teaching practice and to do administrative work for the rest of the time. It is hard to imagine what students could be expected to learn from their teaching practice in school in such a short time. Academic staff and the school teacher observe student's teaching once or twice and then write a report on the assessment of teaching practice on students.

In England and Wales there are a number of different schools available for teaching practice such as high schools (10 or 11 to 14), upper schools (14 to 18), secondary schools 11 to 16 or 11 to 18), sixth form colleges (16 to 18), colleges of further education and primary schools (3 to 8 or 7 to 11 age groups). Although English student teachers have opportunities to visit or work in more than one type of school, Turkish student teachers do not get the same opportunities and can only do their teaching practice in the school chosen by the Director of National Education.

Even though such a short time of teaching practice is arranged, schools in Turkey complain that student teachers disrupt education. The absence of school staff engaged in 'mentoring' the Ministry of Education to give permission this period of time that the universities can only organise the teaching practice for their own student teachers where there is no good links teacher training institutions and the Ministry of Education for ITT in Turkey. As previously noted, the Ministry has absolute power over primary and secondary education in Turkey. This makes teaching practice difficult to organise in schools by the universities in Turkey. In addition to this, lack of proper funding and very poor facilities and the
environment of the faculties of education are making the teaching practice much more difficult in the schools as much as training in the institutions for initial teacher education in Turkey.

Briefly, either the contents or the structures of the courses in English-Welsh teacher training by contrast, is not only more practical orientated and concepts which makes students think about the ideas and concepts and applying the concepts helps them to understand such concepts; this conceptual understanding leaves a permanent impression on their minds and to make the connection with a real situation, but also the students do practice this conceptual understanding in real school situation throughout their course time. On the other hand, Turkish teacher training is not only heavily theoretically based, which does not seem to transfer well into practical situations, but also school-based with teaching practice the heart of initial teacher training. There is almost no any proper teaching practice and the approach. The time is given dramatically between fifteen to twenty eight days (less than eight per cent of course time) for teaching practice within four years.

As this study illustrates, Turkish teacher training, in both theoretical and practical senses, can be described from the aspects of English teacher training, that the faculties and the institutions have been giving a lot of theoretical knowledge to their student teachers in their own ivory towers to keep themselves away from practical matters of the problems and needs of Turkish primary and secondary education happening in the schools. In addition, Turkish teacher education institutions still do not seem to work at integrating theory with practice.
Differences Between the Evaluation of Student Teachers in English ITT and Turkish ITT

Evaluation is centrally concerned with the making of judgements. Evaluation underpins (and precedes) the teacher's development of curriculum activities making that judgement part of the process of evaluation.

The implications for teacher trainers of carrying out evaluation and assessment of training at four levels seems formidable. However, there are at least three very sound reasons why teacher trainers should make the effort:

- Reliable and specific informational feedback will help the teacher trainers to improve the design, organisation and implementation of current and future training programmes.
- By being able to demonstrate the effectiveness of training, the teacher trainers should find it easier to negotiate and bargain for resources in the political arena.
- The credibility of the training function will be enhanced over time, if as a result of evaluation its training can be made even more worthwhile for the school education, and this in turn would create more positive attitudes in the teacher training institutions towards learning, training, education and development.

More importantly, the set of programme outcomes and evaluation processes should provide a clear picture of the capabilities of the teacher
education graduates. This includes what competencies the graduate may have as well as what particular strengths they hold.

More specifically, there are two bases of assessment for student teachers in initial teacher training. First, the assessment of their work in teaching practice, which is assessed both during and at the end of practice. Second, the assessment of student teachers on the course is also based on one or two pieces of coursework which are between 6,000 and 10,000 words, 4,000 of which may be in the form of a project. Students and examiners work to a set of assessment criteria. In order to establish these criteria, students are assessed in terms of the standards of teaching practice and written work in English teacher training. Finally, at the end of course the decision whether to pass or fail a student is usually made by the training institution, with moderation by the external examiner. Schools are also asked for their comments which may be taken into account, but it is not common for schools to share the responsibility for assessment. After the assessments, students are informed of their result.

In addition, there are general principles to qualify for the award of the courses (PGCE, B.Ed) (DES, 1989) by institution and Qualified Teacher Status by the DES. According to the principles students have to:

i) Follow the course satisfactorily by attendance, participation and completion of set work and

ii) reach pass standard both in written assignments and practical teaching.
There appears to be variation in interpretation and implementation of these principles across Schools of Education.

Apart from all the above, tutors want students to comment on their own progress which they respond to. A copy of the reports are placed in student's record of progress file. The course file is a major means by which students demonstrate the evaluation of their ability to reflect critically and constructively upon all aspects of the training. While, in principle, only the personal tutor is assigned responsibility for assessing it, the curriculum tutor, course director and external examiners read the files of a cross-section of students.

All these assessment procedures are made clear to the student and all received at least some information about assessment. This seems to play a constructive part in teacher training. Institutions have produced lists of headings to be used in assessing students' teaching performance and some have gone beyond to give detailed bases for assessment in English-Welsh teacher education.

In comparison, the assessment of English-Welsh student teachers in their courses it is quite different from the English assessment approaches. First, the assessment of student teachers on teaching practice within two weeks seems to play an unimportant role in the main assessment procedure of Turkish teacher training courses. Second, the assessment of Turkish student teachers is a term-based assessment. As stated, the Diploma courses consist of eight terms. In each term there are at least two written examinations and one written examination for each subject the student
has been taught. The first two term's examinations carries forty per cent of the pass mark, the written examination at the end of the term is worth sixty per cent. The pass mark is fixed at fifty per cent. The assessment depends heavily on a theoretical knowledge-base concerning the contents of each subject. However, there are some subjects on which student teachers can be assessed by different methods. These subjects may be physical education, arts and laboratory work in positive sciences.

Assessment is the common examination procedure for higher education. In Turkish teacher training, lecturers have to assess their student teachers and follow the assessment procedure designed by YOK. Only the subject lecturers are responsible for assessing students on subjects. They decide whether the student has passed or failed according to the score obtained in the end of each term's examinations. Student teachers do not have any essays, assignments or projects to record their progress. Assessment is based solely on these examination. Turkish assessment procedure consists of a very formal written test to be based on the knowledge of a given subject.

Comparison of Procedures of the Entrance for ITT Courses and Teacher Appointment

The entrance for ITT courses
For the courses of English-Welsh teacher training, the criteria selection procedure and entry requirements have been defined by CATE. According to CATE criteria, institutions should ensure that candidates possess suitable personal, physical and mental characteristics to teach. Students
have not been admitted to teacher training courses unless they have three particular qualifications:

- a minimum of two satisfactory passes in 'A' level examination, usually in relevant or acceptably academic subjects;
- a minimum of Grade C in GCSE English language and mathematics;
- the appropriate qualities of personality, character and experience required for teaching children; this requirement is always assessed by a detailed reference from the applicant's school, by a comprehensive curriculum vitae and by an individual interview in which the candidate's ability, expression, commitment to the mission of education and potential are assessed.

For PGCE courses, candidates have to hold a degree of a British university or accredited qualification by CNAA which is appropriate to the PGCE courses. In addition, mature applicants (i.e. those over 24) have been given certain academic concessions since the 1990s as long as they appear suitable for teaching and have the potential to complete their training successfully.

In Turkey, the entrance for Turkish initial teacher education follows a completely different procedure from England. As noted in previous chapters, teacher education is part of university education in Turkey. Teacher education institutions, in common with other departments, admit their students through university entrance examinations. The
central examination for higher education consists of two parts. The first is a selective test of general knowledge and abilities (Turkish and foreign languages multiple test); the second concerns placement and is thus related to the study area. Both apply the multiple-choice method. The questions are closely pitched at a very demanding level. On the other hand, teaching in the upper secondary schools (General Lycee) is highly focused on meeting the requirements of the entrance examination and this leads to over-emphasis on memorisation in classroom introduction and reinforces the repetitive character of the teaching and learning process. There is also no particular criteria or requirement to enter initial teacher education in Turkey. Candidates for the courses of teacher education can be accepted by universities on the basis of the scores which have been gained in the university entrance examination.

The institutions of teacher education are responsible for course developments, such as defining objectives, preparing teaching-learning resources, organising teaching-learning activities. But the outline of the teaching programme, which contains the title of courses, allocated time, credits and content are also defined by YOK. YOK asks for feedback on the implementation of courses designed by themselves in order to develop courses through the co-ordination and sharing of experiences. Thus, institutions are not given any responsibility to select their own students.
Teacher Appointments in Turkey and England/Wales

In terms of appointing teachers for schools in Turkey and England, the procedures are completely opposite. English teacher appointments are made in a decentralised way, whilst Turkish teacher appointments are made centrally by the Ministry of Education.

In England-Wales, a person is eligible for a teaching appointment as soon as QTS and DES registration is awarded. Schools have responsibility for employing teachers for subject teaching.

Students have to apply for appointments from the beginning of the following academic year during their (last) year of training in accordance with their training level. They write to the authority advertising a vacancy for an application form. There is an interview which includes the Head, a senior member of staff and at least one Governor. Candidates are given equality of treatment in terms of time, questions asked and opportunities to pose questions. At the end of the interview, the school decides which candidate will be employed. The teacher with a contract of employment, usually probationary in cases of first appointment, is being held to accept conditions of service.

On the other hand, in Turkey, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports is the centre for policy and decision making for the education system. Primary, middle and lycee level schools correspond through educational offices and teacher assignments for the nation as a whole are
made from the Ministry. There is a state written examination for teacher appointments, which is administered centrally by the Ministry.

Candidates who have successfully completed a course of study, must apply to the Ministry for the State examination. The questions are closely related to general, pedagogic and subject knowledge (specialised subject for secondary school teachers, basic subject knowledge for primary school teachers). If successful, teachers are appointed to teach in schools under the regulations of the Ministry according to the vacancies that exist.

In relation to this, the statutory pupil: teacher is 1:27 in practice it may be 1:35 or more in the schools in Turkey. This ratio changes from place to place across the country. But, in England and Wales the statutory pupil: teacher ratio is 1:17, in practice this may be changed in between 1:15 and 1:30 from place to place in England and Wales (DES, 1991). So that there is also a big difference between Turkish schools' teaching and English schools' teaching in terms of the ratio of pupil: teacher (Annual Education Statistics, 1992).

As a result of all the above, Turkish teacher education seems to be completely different from English-Welsh teacher training in most aspects.
CHAPTER 23
RECOMMENDATIONS

Every society must ensure that the 'next generation' is given ample opportunity to develop the knowledge, skills, patterns of behaviour, attitudes and ideals required in order that it may function effectively and continuously develop. To a far greater extent than societies in the past, contemporary industrial societies endeavour to achieve these objectives by means of formalised public systems of education and training. These have become a vital supplement to other possibilities of experience and activity to be found elsewhere, notably in the home and at work.

As a consequence of the tremendous dynamism of industrialised societies, it has become necessary for the 'next generation' to quickly find its bearings and adapt itself to situations instead of simply following in the footsteps of the preceding generation. This dynamism creates uncertainties and tensions between generations and various social groups and imposes new demands on long life education.

Education must play its part in preparing young people to cope with the four main aspects of life:

- family life (relations with the opposite sex, children and the older generation);
- leisure (the ability to get on with others during leisure hours and to profit from the 'cultural' facilities provided by the community);
• working life and participation in trade, commerce, industry and the production system (an essential part of the life of individuals);
• life within the community (social interaction with others and participation in the political life of the community in the broadest sense of the world);

These four aspects of life are not intended to be exclusive or rigid. It is important that the interaction between the four facets of life should be taken into account in the educational process. At the same time, it is hardly unrealistic to expect equal allowance to be given simultaneously to all four facets in every learning situation.

Taking the division of the individual's life into family, leisure, working and social life as the starting point, these are changes in demand with regard to qualification caused by prevailing conceptions of the society of the future. Therefore, in the curricula, a proper balance at every stage of education must be found between knowledge, skills and attitudes on the one hand, and theoretical, practical and creative elements on the other.

Hence, teachers hold a key position in the education system and if the ideals and proposals we want in the system are to make progress, it requires active co-operation and involvement on the part of teachers at all levels. The training of teachers and educators is consequently a very central task of the education system. This means the teaching profession must be a key profession. If it is, teacher education must be accorded a higher priority in educational policy. In terms of teacher training, in England and Wales particularly, there has been a good deal of discussion.
about the need to change public attitudes towards education and a key part of this change must be to raise the esteem of the teaching profession and public confidence.

Contemporary teacher education seems to be very different from the kind of programme common in the past. Initial teacher education will concentrate on shorter, more intensive courses, involving preparation for the classroom. More of this training - but not all - will be school-based. There will still be a place for extended professionalism rather than the immediate requirements of the classroom. During the second stage, induction/probation, the emphasis will change, encouraging teachers to reflect about practice as well as to become better practitioners. The third stage will concentrate on professional concerns: encouraging teachers to understand the curriculum as a whole, for example, and to reflect on teaching with reference, when appropriate, to the potential contributions of such disciplines as philosophy of education, psychology of education, social psychology of education and sociology of education. Also, professional teachers need opportunities for continuous education, not only to update their skills and re-think their methods, but to develop as human beings and professional teachers in a variety of ways. Part-time research into the processes of teaching and learning should be a high priority for them. In other words, Schön's phrase, 'the reflective practitioner', is helpful: a good professional teacher, for example, not only does a good job but reflects on what he/she is doing so that they can both improve their own practice and pass on useful advice to other practitioners. Part of this process of reflection may be to enrich practice by
theoretical insights derived from other disciplines such as the psychology, sociology and philosophy of education.

Arguments have been put forward for research-based programmes of initial training which neither uphold the traditional model of higher education-based training nor the trend towards an apprenticeship model. In doing so they support arguments that research-based initial training can provide the basis for a new vision of continuity and coherence in teacher education as a whole.

First, the primary teaching role of schools of education in higher education should be to foster these abilities (or forms of enquiry) which aim to generate practical understanding as a basis for intelligent decision making in educational situations. This role need not be confined to the development of teachers in schools. A professional School of Education could be concerned with the vocational educational and training practices of all professional groups, for example, the education of doctors, nurses, social workers, police officers, lawyers, managers etc.

Second, the primary research role of schools of education is to collaborate with educational practitioners in reflecting the range and variety of practical situations they encounter as educators. This would entail helping them to collect case evidence and involving them in the theoretical analysis of that evidence. It would also entail the collaborative production of case studies and cross-case comparisons that represent dialogues about and understanding of educational situations, problems and issues. The primary focus of such research would be on understanding whole
situations - particularly those which are experienced as difficult, problematic and novel - and drawing comparisons between them. Its main aim would be to develop and maintain the stock of professional knowledge; drawing on judgements and decisions in the complex and unstructured situations they handle. Such outcomes would themselves constitute a major part of the teaching resources within school education.

The research would itself be a constitutive dimension of the professional development programme within the school. From a practical science perspective, the academic staff would teach through their research and research through their teaching. Furthermore, a school of education operating from a practical perspective would give an important role to specialised investigations in the fields of educational philosophy, psychology, sociology, linguistics, etc. Finally, the academic staff of a school of education will themselves need to have developed to a high level those cognitive, interpersonal and motivational abilities which inspire students. They will need to achieve at least the level of competence in some other teaching context prior to entry. To develop even further as educators of educators and educational researchers, they will themselves have to view their own pedagogic practices as a field for self-evaluation and reflective decision making.

Within the research approach, institutions can find a new role, not as an objective and rational foundation for practice, but as source of ideas which can be eclectically utilised in situational problem solving. They will be involved in processing what appears to be useful and relevant to understanding particular kinds of situations in all their complexity.
As Brian Simon argues:

If each child is unique and each requires a specific pedagogical approach appropriate to him or her and to no other, the construction of an all-embracing pedagogy, or general principles of teaching becomes an impossibility. To develop effective pedagogy involves starting from the opposite standpoint, from what the children have in common as members of the human species: to establish the general principles of teaching and, in the light of these, to determine what modifications of practice are needed to meet specific individual needs.' (Simon, 1981 p141).

If this analysis is correct, it suggests that the starting point for any new approach to pedagogical theory should come from our study of learning as a social rather than as a cognitive process.

Therefore research findings can all be used to develop a powerful framework of teacher training and to establish the curricula for ITT of the results of analysing all the strengths and weaknesses of the teaching profession in any society at the present time. Consequently, as Professor Maurice Galton argued, such strategies need to be grounded in the most recent psychological and sociological developments relating to learning as both a cognitive and a social activity. There is now sufficient research into teaching and learning to provide a suitable framework for this approach. The challenge for teacher educators is to find ways of integrating this knowledge into their courses so that the theory is lived rather than simply received.

From these aspects, teacher training can be viewed in some ways as a highly inefficient process. Recent international studies of teaching show very limited variations in teaching styles across countries although there
are great variations in training methods, including the duration of training, the length of school experience and the mode of induction. Further results of this research show that there is much variance between Turkish and English teacher education in terms of theoretical formulation and practical application for initial teacher education. The questions facing teacher training are mainly what is the essence of good teacher education in an increasingly industrial society. The key question is how are the training institutions to adapt their traditions to meet new practical and intellectual demands?

These are the questions to which England has been seeking new answers. English teacher training policy has been developing and keeping a balance between the necessity of supplying large numbers of teachers to cope with the growing school population and the need for maintaining and improving the quality and status of teachers. Moreover, it may be observed that teacher training in England and Wales has been moving from a classical, traditional and theoretical teacher training approach towards a research school-based pragmatic approach. It seems that the pragmatic approach is gaining ground in English teacher training. It may become unique that teacher training in England is developing a system, which is more decentralised, in many aspects, than most countries.

Therefore, as the research has shown, Turkey has been copying and adopting the patterns of other nations. Turkey has attempted to adopt necessary changes, but in the context of central enforcement. In contrast, England has been developing, making progress and preparing actual proposals of reform at an almost leisurely pace by way of much public
discussion, soul searching and experimentation in English initial teacher training. In addition to this, English teacher training has been seen as a unique partnership between its various elements. In particular, there has always been strong links between central government, teacher training institutions and schools for ITT in England. In contrast, there has always been a gap between institutions and schools for ITT in Turkey. Moreover, there is now open disagreement between the government who want control of teacher education and the universities who do not wish to relinquish responsibility.

This study illustrates the urgent priorities for Turkey to:

- Plan for activities in teacher education should be supported not only bilaterally between government and universities but also by social organisations and by regional organisations of government.
- Long term bilateral multilateral networks of associated universities or other educational institutions to be established to enable them to learn to work together in training personnel, developing educational materials and conducting co-operative research as a partnership. Especially the modernisation process is essentially an educational process, if it is to take place with a maximum of freedom and a minimum of coercion in Turkey.

From the point of view of courses for ITT, the Turkish system has the possibility of a strong theoretical basis, in other words, the foundation subjects have dominated Turkish teacher education. In my view, sadly, the theory is not applied to practice. In England, the course study illustrates certain trends in initial teacher training that are common across many courses and reflect both conventional wisdom as well as the requirements of CATE criteria. It can be said that all the courses for ITT in
England are school-based, however, the teacher training curriculum seems to no longer have foundation subjects such as philosophy, sociology, social-psychology. It is very interesting that the staff of schools of education seem to be becoming inspectors of student teachers in initial teacher training courses.

Nevertheless, I am of the opinion that course framework in England and Wales is much more applied in nature rather than covering only the theoretical aspect of the subject, while in Turkey, we find a very serious lack of the practical side of knowledge. It seems that English teacher education is more practically orientated in nature, which makes student teachers think about ideas and concepts, and applying these concepts helps them to understand. This conceptual understanding leaves a permanent impression on their minds and then they can make connections with real situations in terms of what they are taught.

As noted, in England and Wales the courses for ITT have been organised in accordance with the age-groups, their needs, abilities and the educational stages in terms of pre-primary, primary and secondary schools. The Turkish system has been designed according to primary and secondary education without considering childrens' age, needs and abilities. English Teacher training is concerned with aspects of a real situation and with events that actually happen in schools during the English teacher training courses. Moreover, it seems to deal with the situation in schools in practical rather than theoretical ways. In this way classroom research findings have been used to enhance the professional development of teacher education in the critical field of classroom management and
control in English teacher training. The programmes are also very flexible and adaptable to local and national requirements in terms of CATE criteria. By contrast, Turkish courses have been dealing with theoretical aspects to the extent that courses there are too slanted in that direction. Moreover, the programmes for Turkish ITT do not seem to be sufficiently flexible and adaptable to local requirements. More importantly, there has been an increasing perception of the gap between many of realities of classroom life and the content of teacher education programmes.

As this study has shown, whilst sixty seven percent of course time is spent in the school by English student teachers, less than eight percent of Turkish student teachers' time is spent in school.

As far as all above are concerned, broadly speaking Turkish system must take account of the student teachers need to:

a) exercise with responsibility relevant skills, knowledge, abilities, dispositions, capacities, and understanding;

b) be able to continuously to uncover and create his/her own theories of action and to use and evaluate these

c) be able to work with pupils in order to facilitate their best interests in terms of learning.

d) concomitantly and continuously to be able to adapt and refine all these things.

Therefore, Turkish teacher training institutions has been giving much theoretical knowledge to student teachers but in doing so has isolated itself
from the pragmatics or problems and needs of Turkish primary and secondary education. They have not endeavoured to integrate theory with practice. It is vital that more time be devoted to teaching practice in Turkey.

From the assessment procedure point of view, continuous assessment is used throughout. Turkish assessment procedure in teacher education seem to be forward written tests based on the knowledge in each subject in terms of term-system. It would be desirable if a mixture of standardised assessment instruments, including tests, practical tasks and observations were used continuously and constructively according to the content of the subject.

The Turkish system has a selective examination system which enables the state to deploy teachers across the country when the students have completed their courses. In comparison, in England, students must apply to individual schools across the country. It is important that students should be attracted to the teaching profession in terms of a teacher's salary, social prestige, career, social and personal facilities. The profession should be organised properly. At this point, Turkish teacher training has, sadly, very poor facilities in order to organise the educational environment and educational materials for use in both teaching and learning in the faculties of education and for teaching practice in schools. The teaching profession has low prestige in Turkish society. This causes students to opt for teaching courses, if there are no other opportunities in society. This influences the quality of teacher training in a negative way.

In order for change to happen, Turkish teacher training needs to be funded
properly. The universities need much more educational materials and facilities as soon as possible, because lack of proper funding is making Turkish teacher training difficult and problematic as this study illustrates.

Finally, there are vast areas of educational psychology, educational administration and management, sociology, philosophy, history of education and curriculum theory which have no real justifiable place in the courses. We need to filter out the elements in these areas that are in fact significant for the practical teaching and restrict professionals to these. The idea of determining the objectives of teacher training courses from the overall aim of preparing teachers for their first appointments leads inevitably to the suggestion that we need an appropriate job analysis before we can get very much further. For teachers who believe that children differ in inherent ability (or in levels of readiness) tend first to ask, "What's wrong with the child?" rather than, "What's wrong with my teaching?" There should at least be clarity about some of the forms of expertise that schools at present expect of new entrants to the profession. Yet even this helpful information will have to be treated with caution for two major reasons. First, we should not conceal from ourselves the need to judge reasonably just how far the next generation of teachers ought to be trained to carry out these activities that at present occupy young teachers. It may be worth noting that teacher training courses is a kind of key opening the doors to teaching which have not completed at end of the course. The second is that analysis, experiment and research are what we need, and at present we can only act as responsibly as possible in the light of past experience. Attempts at job analysis and to know the teaching tasks can, of course, help us to some extent in refining the concepts in which we
understand and implement the nature of the teaching and learning atmosphere.

Under these circumstances, the research-based approach for ITT seems to be better because the theory is lived rather than simply received.
CHAPTER 24

CONCLUSION

This study has as its major theme a comparison of the teacher training policies and practices in Turkey and in the United Kingdom. Working as an educator in Turkey, I wished to explore the contrasting approaches adopted in Europe and the United Kingdom to teacher training.

My country is undergoing profound cultural changes, changes which have been gradual over a very long period of time. The Ottoman Empire was profoundly influenced by the French Revolution in 1789, and from this point there is a discernible trend in the westernisation of Turkish thought and culture. The French influence can hardly be underestimated because Turkish governments have consistently borrowed French ideas and practices. One example would be that during the 1890s teachers were not appointed unless they could speak French. While this is a significant example, even more important would be the centralisation of French systems and thinking, which were translated into Turkey almost without alteration. This centralisation continues to be a marked feature of the present Turkish philosophy of operating its initial training system. The 1923 Revolution opened the way for some alternative views such as the influential reports made by John Dewey during the 1920s, but while these were advocating pragmatism, the predominantly rationalistic and pedagogic French schools of thought continued to exert a predominant influence.

During the 1960s there has been a continued drive to westernise and Americanise Turkish society and culture. This process was given impetus by Turkey's application to join the European Common Market. This application, though rejected, is still on the table and is exerting powerful
pressures on Turkey to reform its laws and customs along democratic lines. One example of this in the field of education would be the University of Tarmara which since its formation by the state in 1984, has as its major purpose to reform all institutions and systems so as to conform to European practices. Specifically in terms of the University system, an innovation which is waiting in the wings, would be the development of a more school focused system of initial teacher training. At the present time there continues to be a wide gap between theoretical and practical aspects of training. As noted earlier, this in part derives from what may be termed the 'French connection'. As identified in my earlier chapter, while 67% of time in British initial training is spent in schools, in the Turkish system the same percentage is around 8%. This is one of the major findings of my study and something which will need reform within the Turkish context. One of the important perspectives that I am taking back to Turkey would be the need to change competition between providers into co-operation. A major area where this needs to occur are in arrangements for, and rationales of, school practice. It is this element of initial teacher training which provides the greatest scope for bringing together theory and practice. The PGCE course in Leicester has a slogan, 'theory without practice is sterile; practice without theory is blind'. This is essentially what I have discovered, and a principle which I need to put in place in terms of a reform of policy and practice towards initial teacher training in Turkey.

In the spirit of the above thrust, a major initiative needs to be taken in terms of assessment. The present Turkish system pays great attention to didactic and memorisation techniques related to key theoretical texts. It is important that their assessment modes shift so as to encompass some of the skills, attitudes and practical dispositions which I have observed during my time in Britain. Creating something along the lines of a new partnership would bring
together the Universities and schools in Turkey which presently are too far apart.

In terms of my period in Britain, it might be said that courses and structures have moved too far along the school based dimension. Some students appear to have a grasp of the skills involved in teaching but are in danger of losing theoretical perspectives. While the latter may be termed old-fashioned, they at least provide Turkish students with a firm, if sometimes partially relevant, foundation. Also it may be observed that the period of training in Turkey is four years, and my observations of English students suggests that the length of teacher training courses in the United Kingdom is generally too short to properly encompass both theory and skills of teaching.

In arriving at these conclusions, I have spent a great deal of time observing and participating in English teacher training courses. In reflecting my research methodology, my main focus has been on qualitative and quantitative ways of assessing training programmes. In the section dealing with policy and administration I provide a breakdown of course modules and hours of study. Through interviews and participation in teacher training courses, I have established a data base of student opinion relating to the effectiveness of training offered. If I had more time I would extend the numerical and qualitative base to test out the hypotheses argued relating to, among other critical areas, the time allocated to varying parts of courses. I think this is a critical issue because it is my impression that students do not have enough time to formulate a secure philosophical base to underpin their practice. This latter point may also be applied to teacher training staff, whose level of supervision and lecturing appears to preclude their being able to devote enough time to research and writing. Perhaps, for this reason, the theoretical base of English initial training appears to be less secure and substantial than it was.
In summarising and bringing together recommended points for action, when I return to Turkey the following priorities need immediate attention:

1. To increase the level of facilities available for initial teacher training, for example, libraries, classrooms and levels of equipment and teaching support. I would observe, that current levels of support in such critical areas as computing and libraries are inadequate to support the increased standards expected of teachers.

2. Secondly, as noted earlier, there is a need to shift the balance in Turkey from theory to practice and I have noted the critical role played by teaching practice in achieving this. Conversely, in Britain there is an argument for reducing some aspects of teacher training in schools in order to enhance the theoretical base.

3. Thirdly, in addressing the area of research there is a need to pursue what Professor Maurice Galton has described as making training relevant. Presently in Turkey, there is some danger of the process being divorced from schools. Galton highlights the research based process approach whereby students are empowered to bring together theoretical and practical dimensions. Galton's model of on-going teacher training, a training partnership and negotiated curriculum, is a model which has much to offer Turkey in terms of curriculum innovation.

4. Of all the areas that I have researched, the above has the greatest importance and potential for achieving dynamic change. As I have argued in the thesis, this approach provides a way of integrating initial
training. This is especially important in Turkey, because of the present dislocation of theory and practice.

In terms of the application of students to initial courses and their appointments to teaching posts, I have observed good practice in terms of the co-operation achieved in Britain between lecturers and professionals. Some aspects of these arrangements could be applied to everyone's benefit in Turkey, where the present system is over-centralised.

Reflecting on my time in Turkey and Britain, I note a need to enhance the status and quality of teachers within both countries. In my own country, one way in which this might be secured would be to increase the levels and demands of teacher training courses so as to attract a higher quality of student. While this may be idealistic and economically expensive, I believe firmly that the quality of the education system depends on the qualities of teachers employed.

In providing a final synthesis for my study, I have been reflecting on a preferred model for teacher training. Both the models in Turkey and in Britain have strengths and weaknesses. However, the process model advocated by Professor Galton has the potential to develop courses and models which I have observed in both countries. The key features of such a process model are enabling ones; enabling students to integrate theory and practice and to continue with life-long learning. The process model enables researchers to contribute knowledge, skills and experience to an ongoing way of teaching and learning. The weaknesses, or alleged weaknesses associated with this model, namely lack of conceptual and academic clarity, are not so evident in my judgement as to disbar this as the most hopeful innovation for a Turkish audience. This would be because the model provides a point and
focus for integration of what are presently incoherent parts. Clearly I
recognise the economic and political factors which need to be addressed before
this model can serve to take Turkey forward into the 21st century.
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