Conceptualising teacher education in professional training

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‘Frances Ellen Bostock’

(1912-1967)
Abstract

This thesis examines the education of people who are employed as educators in certain professional settings. It considers how such education has changed in response to academic accreditation increasingly being demanded in professional locations. Yet, the preparation of in-service trainee teachers is depicted as still being concerned with enabling compliance with prescriptive, professional guidelines that temper educational aspirations. This is shown to have implications for how professional identity is understood for the teacher educators and for the trainee teachers. This topic is considered primarily through the perspective of the author's own recent professional engagement in police training, with some historical reference to other areas of professional training in which he has been engaged. By considering his own practice, the author conveys the educational challenges being encountered more generally as preparing those for work in professional training is recast as teacher education. A central theme is concerned with how the challenges relate to professional concepts of ‘teacher’ mediated through language associated with respective professions. The thesis considers how these restrictive definitions introduce uncertainty in relation to how professional identity is experienced by professional trainers, especially the police, when engaged in teacher education. The principal focus of this thesis, therefore, concerns not only the notions of professional teacher or trainer perceived by those who have undertaken teacher education, but also an analytical investigation into the responses made by trainee teachers in relation to the qualification content and the training experience.
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Chapter One: Current teacher education contexts

1.1 Introduction
The uniforms of the hair and beauty teacher, police trainer or nurse trainer are symbolic of educators working in professional settings, each with their vocational background and corresponding practices. This thesis seeks to analyse how current legislation requires this diverse workforce to train as teachers and examines the education of people who are already employed as educators in certain professional settings. Primarily this education refers to programmes of teacher education provided within one college of Further Education, two Police Training Academies and a University Faculty in which the author is or has been employed. These educators are from diverse professional settings and are brought together, regardless of professional background, to train as teachers on such programmes. They also spend time on a professional placement determined either by their profession or their subject specialism. The political background has become more significant in the past decade as the government has increased its control over teacher education with very precise stipulations of what is to be achieved during such programmes. The data on which this study is based were gathered during a personal and professional transition as a teacher educator from one institute of Further Education to a University.

While considering the specifics of teacher education programmes, I examined and evaluated the conceptualisations of ‘teacher’ as constructed by professionals who bring with them values, ideas and opinions on what this means to them both personally and professionally. Over the period of this study I have encountered dissatisfaction, consternation and sometimes hostile resistance to the requirement to engage in teacher education. The concerns expressed were twofold: in the first place they recognise the change in teacher education from one which historically focused on the distinct professional and subject-specific needs of the trainee teachers, to one where there is a purely generic approach. This current approach concentrates on the nuts and bolts of teaching and learning in general and rarely makes reference to the subject specialisms of each educator. These professionals wondered at least why they were not grouped together in specific cohorts which were related to their professional area i.e. nurses with nurses, plumbers with plumbers. Secondly and furthermore, government initiatives (DfES, 2003b and 2004) to drive the training through compliance with an ethos (Ball, 2003) consisting of prescriptive professional standards and placed in mixed profession cohorts, have meant that these educators either frequently misunderstand or misinterpret what is required of them as educators. The standards are considered to be vague
or open to interpretation, yet are used primarily to inform the design of teacher education programmes and to determine how a fully qualified teacher is identified. The misunderstandings or misinterpretations manifest themselves in the teacher education classroom and are concerned primarily with the qualification content and requirements, mixed subject groups and perceived irrelevance to the professional settings. So, on the one hand, it requires them to be governed by a performative ethos (Ball, 2003) in which the educator’s worth is measured against quantitative standards and, on the other, demands adherence to a doctrine of personalised, inclusive and differentiated learning, enshrined within a qualitatively based creed of learner experience. Therefore, the thesis highlights issues for the author’s professional interrelationship with the professional educator as qualification provider and how each educator’s construct of professional ‘teacher’ is obscured. The issue is the reduction in time, space and opportunity to deeply reflect on this professional situation and afford it systematic scrutiny and analysis.

The thesis examines the schisms and misunderstandings arising from alternative understandings of teacher education processes. The study that it describes explores the diversity of these understandings across subject or professionally related pedagogies. Historically, teacher education formats have typically consisted of three parts; learning and teaching theory i.e. generic pedagogy or the nuts and bolts, subject-focused learning and teaching, and workplace practice overseen by a subject specialist mentor. A feature of this education was also that trainee teachers were taught in subject-specific groups which facilitated commonality of discussion and debate on subject related themes. This is no longer the case. Teacher education is predominantly generic, groups are mixed subject i.e. heterogenic rather than homogenous or subject-specific, and subject-specific teaching is largely absent.¹

1.2 Teacher education
The current decade is witness to the greatest growth of a type of teacher education attributable to the introduction of a suite of qualifications² which all educators are required to attain to varying degrees. The educators generally undertake training over a period of either one or two years depending on their specific circumstances and are then eligible for one of two qualified teacher statuses i.e. Associate Teacher in Learning and Skills (ATLS) and Qualified Teacher in Learning and Skills (QTLS). This thesis focuses on those professionals who have trained

¹ Numeracy, Literacy and ESOL trainee teachers are placed in non-mixed groups where there is sufficient capacity.
² See glossary and table 7.1 in chapter seven.
for two years on a part time basis. It considers how such education has changed in response to the academic accreditation increasingly being demanded for teachers or trainers in professional locations but moreover it documents some of the difficulties experienced by students in initial teacher education. The thesis explores the diversity of experience of educators with a particular emphasis on police trainers. It explores how these educators conceptualise their professional identity with a view to informing those who deliver programmes. This conceptualisation is predicated on data captured during observations and professional discussions. A thorough analysis of this data provides insights into emergent professional language in social interactions and in socio-specific contexts. It also investigates the contextual dimensions of educator identities, i.e. tutor, teacher, assessor, and trainer across a range of diverse settings. Through discourse analysis, the role of social interaction in the creation of personal and professional worlds is explored.

This thesis encapsulates the opinions and perceptions of trainee teachers on their preparation. There is further thematic analysis of the difficulties they experienced especially with regard to the apparent conflicts between their designation, caught as they were between being known either as a ‘teacher’ or as a ‘trainer’. The overall aim of the research was to investigate the perceptions of trainee teacher’s experiences through the filter of my own professional practice as a teacher educator. Data were gathered through the following overarching activities:

- An investigation of a given cohort’s experiences of teacher education prior to and post inception of professional standards for teachers.  
- Investigating how participants articulate (or disarticulate) their professional identities, views and experiences as trainers, and how this could influence professional teacher education programmes.
- Questioning how current accreditation processes address the lack of subject-specialist teaching and learning.

In brief, the thesis explores how professionals in vocational settings draw on training processes to produce conceptions of themselves as teachers, and the dissatisfaction arising through this process. Finally, the thesis explores the consequences of reduced subject-specialist input in current teacher education programmes.

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3 See glossary in Appendix 1.
1.3 Difficulties in making the transition to new models of teacher education

Perhaps unsurprisingly, some common difficulties arise as a result of there being just one set of standards for all professional trainee teachers regardless of specific professional setting as they embark on programmes of teacher education. Training has a tendency to emphasise competence-based aspects of delivery at the expense of critical reflection. Whilst current teacher education practices acknowledge the varied needs of a diverse workforce (Armitage et al., 2007), the associated qualification itself appears not to have made the same degree of adjustment. Furthermore, the professional standards have also introduced new professional issues for teacher trainers. The attempt to adapt the training to suit all professional trainee teachers’ needs finds the trainers themselves challenged. For example, vocationally oriented trainee teachers are sometimes dissatisfied by the ‘academic’ format and mixed subject groups. The relative lack of knowledge of each other’s settings can prove to be a distinct barrier to effective training. The main group to be considered in this study however, the police, have remained in non-mixed specialist cohorts which have been seen as beneficial in terms of effective communication between educators in the classroom. What is worrying, however, is that, despite this commonality of training setting for educators in a police context, there is an occasional lack of understanding of that specific setting on the part of the deliverer of teacher education. Another issue to be addressed relates to how prescriptive standards of practice can shape and manipulate the role of a teacher by concentrating on observable phenomena. As will be shown there is a propensity for trainee teachers to regard their training as a means to provide simplistic answers and formulaic prescriptions on what constitutes teaching and being a teacher. Professionalism is determined by that which is observed. Faith in knowledge has been lost by embracing a holistic, competence–based model of teacher education curriculum (Grundy, 1987 and Ball, 2003)) as the way to become a professional teacher. This appears to be linked to a belief that there is one single, authentic identity of teacher which can be learned and applied to any given learning situation (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000:1060). Knowledge, expertise and competence are measured against prescriptive standards and in terms of academic writing at levels beyond that usually required for the educators’ professional knowledge base. Indeed to them this writing does not serve any apparent purpose in terms of occupational relevance.

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4 We need perhaps to embrace other assessment formats in the demonstration of professional competence. After all, the empirically observable practice is what ultimately the learners will see. The first committee for the Institute for Learning (PCET) was convened in 2001 and its purpose was to meet the clear need for a body or organisation to oversee the process of training and confer a professional status through academic study.
Early in Phase A of this study I concluded one piece of research with an argument for the creation of a professional structure/body which, in turn, might ensure a more relevant training initiative. This, I argued, would better consider the professional needs of its members and also provide an epistemologically sound basis for genuine professional evolution and development. Wider concern of this sort led to the establishment of a professional body. The Institute for Learning (IfL) was motivated by a realisation that such ambitious objectives could only be achieved if teachers were empowered with a sense of value within a professional framework. Understandably, placing mixed professionals and those who are resistant to training, creates tensions from the start and a very challenging experience for the teacher educators. Therefore the data suggests that trainee teachers are dissatisfied with the content, the requirements of teacher education programmes and the mixed subject groups in which too many variants on the concepts of teacher and teaching emerge.

1.4 Context: multiple conceptualisations of the designation ‘teacher’

The following retort is indicative of tensions arising through the play of multiple designations in teacher education:

Why do I have to do this? I am a trainer not a teacher! (Police Trainee, Cohort 6, 2010)

Anyone teaching in the post 16 sector in a mainstream college was termed a ‘lecturer’. This designation which reflected the more accepted university term had become more familiar for specialist practitioners who happened to teach. It is quite often cited by established lecturers who have been in my cohorts that they fell into teaching after leaving their proper job. It is as if the concept of teaching and the delivery of learning are somehow an easier option to the professional role in question. Indeed lecturers and trainee teachers could be identified as professional i.e. having specialised knowledge, meeting learners’ needs and to some extent determining classroom dynamics but the professional accreditation issue has also caused a perceived disassociation from the notion of professional teacher. Yet the term ‘lecturer’ stretches further than classroom teacher. It encompasses work based learning operatives, complex interprofessional training systems and outreach/community educators. So, as the need for compulsory teaching qualifications began to take effect in 2001, what has ensued is not only an array of interpretations of the qualification standards themselves, but a crisis of identity amongst trainee teachers. Many who adhere to the standards of their identified professions, e.g. a plumber will nonetheless find that the concepts are not easily transferable
in a holistic sense to teaching and training. Under the banner of dual professionalism (IfL, 2006) a professionally competent plumber is not necessarily a professionally competent teacher so the former should not, as was the case before 2001, be the automatic passport to becoming the latter. Yet many vocationally oriented ‘lecturers’ are in fact trainers whose work is grounded not in the academic but rather in the needs of the workplace. Trainee teachers’ comments sometimes reveal this perspective:

We are put off by the way you have to engage in teacher education which revolves around learning the theory of education and writing essays about it.

Work-based expertise is privileged but there are demands that it is now demonstrated in a more academic fashion in order to fulfil the requirements of an IfL endorsed qualification to teach in the sector (IfL, 2006). Furthermore it is widely accepted that such experiential knowledge from the world of work is valuable (Armitage et al, 2007: 24) but the application of this knowledge without subject-specific input remains problematic (Lucas and Unwin, 2009). So the notion of dual professionalism is one that requires high level teaching skills and high degrees of subject knowledge and the ensuing tensions and concerns associated with it will be discussed in later chapters.

1.5 The case of police training

Few Higher Education Institutions (HEI’s) now delivering teacher education for colleges and other professional settings across the United Kingdom have the critical mass of trainee teachers necessary to form coherent or viable specialist groups and so they deliver programmes that essentially develop generic pedagogy. Police training, however, has retained its capacity to form subject-specialist groups. Police training, of all the training contexts encountered in this research, is the one nearest to the historic, professionally focused, teacher education programmes which provide opportunities to develop subject-related pedagogical skills. Although it is relatively new in its current organisation, it is the most rapidly growing educational expression of quality teacher education; that is to say, it was pivotal in helping me explore how non-mixed groups of professionals supported by experienced mentors can operate. This research also suggests that current teacher education ought to reflect this and become more professionally focused in content and structure in terms of specialism. A question remains as to whether the provision of non-mixed groups of trainee teachers could improve their preparation as teachers. This thesis examines, in thematically distinct chapters,

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5 Institutional reports 2008-2012.
the conceptual issues encountered with professional educators undertaking training, the consequences of providing generic rather than subject-specialist teacher education in specific professional settings and the police’s professional discourse where rank and hierarchy exude compliance. It seeks to address the aforementioned issues raised by trainee teachers in logical sequence involving discursive analyses, the experiences and perceptions of both mixed professionals and non-mixed police cohorts and significant positive influences in police training which can serve to improve teacher education in general. It also provides further insights as to whether subject-specific cohorts, such as the police, really can bring cohesion to the teacher education classroom.

1.6 Overview of thesis chapters
Chapter one of this thesis introduced the professional contexts in which the author is employed and the groups with whom he works as a teacher educator who, through the data, express dissatisfaction with either the lack of subject specific input due to there being mixed cohorts of diverse professionals, or, in the case of non-mixed cohorts, a lack of subject specific input in the programmes from the teacher educator. Since there are no opportunities to create homogenous subject groups of trainee teachers in the author’s institution, the established, non-mixed groups of police trainee teachers provided an opportunity to explore teacher education in their context.

Chapter two represents an examination of the research study itself explaining the choice of participants firstly from three mainstream FE/HE educational establishments and secondly from two police constabularies, and how their broad and diverse backgrounds can be seen to influence their understanding and misunderstanding of the requirements of the programmes. The chapter also examines the transition from training to teacher education revealing differing concepts of ‘teacher’ closely tied to their professional settings and how the research involved a significant amount of time, immersed within those settings.

Chapter three introduces an exploration of the diverse conceptualisations of teacher leading to an analysis influenced by symbolic interactionism (SI) and discourse analysis (DA). The thesis adopts models of DA in order to explore discourse in the context of professional change (Fairclough, 1993, 1995, 1996, 2003, 2006; Fairclough and Wodak 1997; Van Leeuwen, 1993, Gee, 1990 and 2005) enabling fuller scrutiny of prevailing themes in the professional environment outlined in sections 1.2-4. Currently and throughout the period of study these have been a perceived irrelevance of teacher education, the lack of subject/professional focused pedagogy and a professionally related construct of what a
teacher is. The intention is to build analytical apparatus around professional activity which considers the semiotic elements of social practice (Fairclough, 1995) and how language as a social phenomenon renders specific meanings and values at the individual and institutional level (see diagram 1.1). Gee builds on this describing ‘Discourses’ as means to get people recognised in certain ways incorporating simultaneous multiple identity which is ‘core’ or ‘situated’. Meanwhile symbolic interactionist research (Cohen and Manion, 1994) lends itself more to the small scale situational, everyday manifestations which arise in localised data. Such an approach to research serves to understand and interpret people’s motivations and how these are governed by the particular training of the professional environment. Murray et al (2008), for instance, argue that the theory allows an appreciation and validation of the concept of perpetual change and the potentially continual creation, modification and change of meanings attributed to social events and experiences thus the tenets of symbolic interactionism (Blumer, 1969) are based on the belief that the researched should be studied in the context of their environment. Diagram 1.1 shows how the tenets also assume that people act on the basis that meanings have for them i.e. they attach meaning to things and then act on that meaning either as an individual or as part of an institutional order.

Diagram 1.1 Semiotic Triangles: Symbols (things)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual</th>
<th>Institutional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thought</td>
<td>Social Convention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol ↔ Referent</td>
<td>Symbol ↔ Referent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Frawley, (1992)

The world is interpreted through the use of symbols or language in the process of interaction and individuals are then able are able to act based on agreed meanings attached to things in the environment. These theoretical elements were employed to help make sense of the issues experienced in this research. Language is an essential aspect in social interaction where meaning is constructed and created therefore the links between language, discourses and professional conceptualisations are central to this thesis. Moreover, through this research, a personal conceptualisation of teacher evolved through participation with other educators and professionals. This was a process of discovery, of interacting and inter-relation with people as
they interacted with the world. In other words the analysis of collective social experience perceived differently by different professionals. This further consolidates my own personal understanding of why the use of contextually specific terms in essentially mixed subject environments is a barrier to effective communication.

This thesis presents an exploration of the processes of teacher education programmes and has twin, equally valuable, purposes: to make an original theoretical contribution and to improve professional practice in this area. It has enabled the establishing of common themes through the triangulation of multiple methods namely questionnaires, professional observations and discussions and semi-structured interviews. The analytical apparatus is used to explore contextual discourse characterised by the ideas and concepts which trainee teachers bring to the programmes. Thus the common themes are related to a lack of subject pedagogy, diverse concepts of ‘teacher’ and opportunities to discuss professionally related subject matter in discreet, non-mixed groups. Chapter four explains how professional activities and events give rise to theoretical considerations and how participants’ ideas and contributions are equally significant for creating interpretative categories of analysis. The very act of researching these raises more questions to inform this work i.e. how can subjektdidaktik processes be developed in programmes? The subjectivity of this research including my influence on the research process is also acknowledged since direct researcher intervention is an ever present active process of intervening and asking how and why? Methodologically, this has led to my building analytical apparatus around professional practice within an interpretivist paradigm utilising a systematic, cyclical method of planning, action, observing, evaluating (including self-evaluation) and critical reflection. The actions have a set goal of addressing an identified problem in the workplace i.e. improving communication and efficiency in teacher education sessions. Interrogation of discursive practice particularly in identifying patterns, regularities, recurring words and phrases would involve an attempt to develop theoretical knowledge with results or solutions of practical value.

My work in chapter five elaborates the linguistic significance of contexts (Gee, 2005) identified in chapter three: in essence the knowable aspects of the areas and contexts I have sought to analyse which are awash with value laden words and phrases, inherently culturally bound (or institutionally specific) and which reflect the values of the culture or institution. It further argues that misinterpretation and misunderstandings between mixed cohorts and the teacher educator as a possible reason for the dissatisfaction with the training. The intersections of professional training, professional subject matter and teacher education are
illustrated diagrammatically to explain the author’s disconnect between them. Issues in the professional interrelationship of qualification provider with the trainee teacher are raised where the complexity and contextually bound nature of their individual professional identity in the work place is obscured. The analysis reveals how language and discourse are central to the creation of identities which emerge through interactions which are institutional and situational (Van Dijk, 2011).

Chapter six provides a synthesis of the research data and theorisations of the previous chapters and critiques certain professional literary sources in order to relate notions of professionalism generally and teacher professionalism specifically as understood by trainee teachers. It is shown that such notions include a strong conviction of professions as seats of highly specialised knowledge in which professionals as ‘communities of practice’ can engage in developmental dialogues which preserve and enhance that knowledge. A new perspective of teacher professionalism referred to as dual professionalism requires that trainee teachers become expert subject specialists as well as expert teachers. The data suggest a lack of opportunity to engage in subject focused pedagogical discussion or subjektdidaktik despite such specialised knowledge being viewed as essential in trainee teacher development. A personal perspective is also offered which renders the significance of introducing subjektdidaktik within programmes stronger as the author struggles with supporting trainee teachers’ diverse content knowledge (CK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Theoretical references to Gee’s work on situated meaning helps illustrate how words and their meanings are contextually and ideologically as well as professionally value-laden. The chapter further illustrates the problematic of dual professional identities in the classroom and presents the necessary implications for the teacher educator to recognise the need for a deep and critical awareness of diverse professional practices and the need to make explicit the interdependency of generic and subject focused pedagogy through dialogue. A synopsis of the main themes of the thesis concludes the chapter presenting an argument for a deeper embedding of opportunities to explore and discuss the relationship between professional subject matter and generic pedagogy.

Chapter seven looks critically at teacher education in a police context in order to explain the programme that the trainee teachers follow and, significantly, to describe the situation that overarches and shapes their experiences. This chapter also explores my own professional situation in terms of teacher educator to the mainstream sector and to the police. It provides further analyses of the importance of training to the police and examines further issues in its
delivery which are specific to them. Analysis tools are employed to ask questions around significance, identity, relationships, connections, sign systems and knowledge (Gee, 2005). The chapter purposefully restricts itself to a strict focus on the police service where the imposition of teacher education and professional standards is felt at a local level. So if, in theory, language is simultaneously saying many things, this can be identified in the nature of signs, signifiers and the signified. Identifying the complexities of signs and signifiers and how these are always contextually bound and specific to the professional setting is useful analytical tool to explore how conceptualisations are much more to do with interactions, self-identity, relationships and language within settings rather than a fixed, immutable labelling based on some central ideal of educators which comes from expressions typically used in the sector, for example:

You are an assessor! You are a trainer! You are a teacher!

These conclusive statements are ineffectual and limiting so I want to present an appreciation of how expressions associated with educational instruction are fluid and interconnecting rather than distinct and disparate. This chapter focuses on the experiences and perceptions of non-mixed, subject-specialist cohorts of police trainee teachers (2008–2011) undertaking teacher education on two year part time programmes. It is centred on the conceptualisation of the teacher role within the police and how the introduction of the professional standards impact on the way in which understanding of that role is shaped or even manipulated by their implementation. What becomes clear is that there are, within the police, distinct professional hierarchies, and clearly delineated framings or demarcation lines and, where such hierarchies are tightly framed, it is suggested that hierarchies of practices are likely to develop (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 2001). The chapter clearly examines how such framing is problematic in their conceptualisation of the role of ‘teacher’. This chapter and the subsequent one focus on the issues encountered around dual professionalism and the inextricably linked concepts of professional subject expertise and competence within the discreet, non-mixed police cohorts.

Chapter eight offers an analysis and observation of police training contexts and curricula in action. It further explores the positive and negative effects of training within the police and whether any positive attributes from my experiences with these professionals can be applied to improve the construction and delivery of teacher education programmes. Furthermore the chapter investigates and examines the questioning of established pedagogical practice by
police trainee teachers undertaking teacher education within their own training organisations which has been heavily influenced by the National Police Improvement Agency (NPIA). Observations of that practice and further analysis of the role of a teacher in this context produces a twofold interpretation or conceptualisation of what constitutes a teacher as understood by the police cohorts. This draws on a review of the pedagogical function of police trainers in the classroom and of the review of the function of a tutor in online learning as required by the police academy. The notion of discipline is explored and it is suggested that within police training this has as much to do with control and power as it does with ordered pedagogy. However the subject-specialist, non-mixed cohorts associated with the police have yielded interesting and conclusive evidence of the need for a reconsideration of the significance of specialist pedagogy in teacher education. Of particular interest here is the concept of police subjektdidaktik and how this is influential in their practices as trainers. Chapter nine concludes the thesis and summarily presents an argument which views any movement towards professionally focused, non-mixed cohorts as centripetal and any movement away as centrifugal. Centripetally, the data reveals trainee teachers’ aspirations toward professionally focused pedagogy and subjektdidaktik presents a theoretical attempt to correlate clear and meaningful processes to meet those aspirations. Centrifugally, non-mixed cohorts of police trainee teachers are strongly influenced by their professional affiliations and practices which strongly influence instances of classroom practice. The data also suggests this influence in other professionals so the implications for the teacher educator include a lack of awareness of their nature and insufficient resource to address them effectively. Increased dialogue between teacher education providers and the diverse professions is strongly recommended in order to debate an informed move to more substantial subject focused support for in-service trainee teachers. Finally the chapter further recommends structures to enhance trainee teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge in the form of virtual subject specific input facilitated by teacher educators.

To summarise, there are three main strands within these chapters which focus on issues of professionally oriented conceptualisations of the role of a teacher. One: how discursive preference within training processes create concepts of teaching in contrast to training and how these alternative conceptions reside in different dimensions of practice e.g. training schemes, development plans, and conceptions of education, professional identity attached to

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6 Subjektdidaktik is explained in chapters five and six and refers to the theoretical relationship between subject matter/content and subject related pedagogical practice. (Also see figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 for fuller descriptions).
teaching. Two: how conflicts between the notional concepts of teachers and trainers are tackled in the teacher education classroom. Three: how we might compare and contrast police training with more generic teacher education programmes through thorough alternative understandings of the art of teaching adults (Knowles, 1984).
Chapter Two: The research study

2.1 Background and overview
This research was conducted in order to explore and examine how educators in certain professional settings, particularly the police, responded to and reconceptualised their and my understanding of the term ‘teacher’. It also considered the notion of whether subject or professionally related cohorts could bring desired cohesion to the teacher education experiences. In order to carry out the research I chose to obtain the views of various professionals undertaking a programme of professional teacher education over a period of six years. Specifically six cohorts including three cohorts of police professionals were selected to make up the sample of 60 participants. Each cohort answered a survey questionnaire, were observed in the training classroom and in the workplace and participated in professional discussions\(^7\) and semi-structured interviews. Data gathered for this research were recorded and transcribed primarily through field notes and logs. Along with this primary data, I made use of secondary resources in the form of published articles and literature to support the findings and relate the professional contexts\(^8\).

2.2 Definition and design of the research
Professional requirements in teacher education such as the professional standards for teachers (LLUK, 2007) can enable dialogue which produces and reproduces concepts of teacher or trainer. However the concepts always remain susceptible to reformulation and therefore there is no finality in the authorial construction of the data used to describe their creation. Furthermore, these creations are influenced by the distinct professions in which the teacher or trainer operates. These professions can be referred to as communities which Benzie and Somekh (in Somekh and Lewin, 2011:174) describe as ‘relations between people in activity’ and practice as ‘relational interdependence’ which can be ascribed to those professionals found within teacher education classrooms. The police cohorts, for example, constitute a community of practice in this sense in that they construct their identity through participation in that profession and its environment which shapes a particular view of the world through professional experiences, values and beliefs\(^9\). The research, therefore, considers, in particular, the situated nature of the police community’s practice in terms of training, education and knowledge as an example of professionals engaged in teacher education.

\(^7\) See chapter seven, sections 7.10 and 7.11 on how this was utilised.
\(^8\) Full details of research methods and pertinent literature on teacher professionalism are in chapter three and six respectively.
\(^9\) Discourse (big D). This is explained in chapter three, section 3.2.
My experiences as a trainee teacher in 1987, and my desire to influence the development of future teachers, meant that I became principally involved in teacher education in 1999. This thesis actually picked up my involvement five years later, whereupon I had become aware of the increasingly mixed nature of the groups I was teaching, and gone were the discreet subject-specialist cohorts of former years; there were hairdressers, law graduates, learning support officers and all were training to teach alongside each other. For many years Further Education has valued vocational competence, skills and attributes above pedagogic expertise and trusted those vocational qualities as prerequisite to sound pedagogical practice. This implied a strong connection between the trainee teacher and their community of practice (CoP) (Lave and Wenger, 2003; Gee, 2005; Benzie and Somekh, 2011) and the reliance that this CoP had a strong if not professionally focused pedagogic practice to begin with. Goodson (2007:9) has confirmed this affiliation by pointing out that, a trainee teacher ‘working in disciplinary modes normally develops their first allegiance to their home discipline’. This reliance can also be understood as subjektdidaktik\textsuperscript{10} whereby there have been opportunities to develop distinct pedagogic practices associated with the profession. Trainee teachers encountered in this study persistently wondered if they would actually be presented with such opportunities to further explore the relationship between their established practices and generic pedagogy which raised for me a remembrance of my own training. During the period of this research, my situational identities (see Van Dijk, 2011 on this term) shifted very abruptly, particularly in the period 2007-2008. At this point I became employed full time in a university as a teacher educator where I found my professional selves emerging suddenly and erratically. To set the context, here is a timeline to present my own multiple professional identities using four key aspects:

FE Linguist Specialist (1988-2007)

FE/HE Teacher Educator (1999-2011)

FE/HE Experienced teacher (1988-2011)


Whereas in FE I had established myself as team leader of modern linguists and a record of 20 years successful teaching, in HE, I found myself on much less secure ground. It was at this

\textsuperscript{10} Subjektdidaktik is discussed in detail in chapter five and refers to the theoretical relationship between subject matter/content and subject related pedagogical practice (also see figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3).
point that I became involved very fully with police training which hitherto I had had no experience. In this world came much unpredictability in terms of when or whom I was to teach, of deadlines from all sources, of a continuous year without the formal stops and starts of an FE college term. During this period of personal, professional, transition, I became increasingly aware and observant of the cohorts of trainee teachers from various professional settings. But more importantly, and using Gee’s (1990) analogies of professional group membership, I had previously been trained as a linguist and as a teacher and I learned to speak, think and act like a linguist teacher. I benefitted from professional cohesion with other linguists and a connection with those whom I taught. In the final years of the above timeline I had become a teacher educator with those who appeared not to hold a connective understanding of teacher in the way I did. For the first time I was professionally disconnected from those I was teaching. The rationale for this research therefore concerned an investigation into the interactions, perceptions and subsequent behaviours of professional trainee teachers influenced by their own established communities. The key resided in the creation and interpretation of narrative layers which has captured these communities of practice. There was the issue of how text or speech represented the construction of understanding and meaning and how that grounding of the meanings of the words mediates between the words one hears and the objects to which those words refer. One important aspect of word meaning is the recognition of patterns which is, principally the domain of cognitive linguists but for social linguists the question becomes more about how they mean things differently in social or cultural settings. So, at one level, this thesis shows how the creation of a set of professional standards tends to idealise or objectify the concept of professional teacher which paradoxically leads to many uncomfortable variants on this concept. Yet, it is clear, that these variants existed prior to the inception of the professional standards in 2007 and suggests that conceptualisation through an ideal leads to many interpretations or variants on that ideal. In an attempt by the government to set clear boundaries through language to the conceptual identity of teacher/trainer, conceptual blurring is the unintended, incidental or accidental result. It is language which has enjoined the government via the standards to presume its necessity. To view the construct of teacher as having a core of fixed common characteristics suggests that identity is what one has rather than what one does. The latter characteristic also suggests that the construct is constantly redefined.

Chapter seven explores in detail conceptualisations of ‘teacher’ by police trainee teachers and other professionals who have embarked on a course of teacher education. Discourse analysis
techniques are employed to analyse the opinions, statements and views elicited through professional discussions. Using discourse analysis techniques to look at the strata underpinning their discursive practice, deeper analysis on how language is used to produce concepts of ‘teacher’ are traced to practices inherent within the police. This is shown to be crucial in how police training manifests itself as distinct in its nature from other professional training. Chapter eight critically evaluates in detail the established educational practices inherent in police training and is analysed using discourse analysis which underpins the design, production and distribution of multimodal teaching and learning. Overarchingly, however, is my need to explore how these constructs have negatively influenced the delivery of teacher education programmes. So the wider analysis, as stated in the introductory chapter, is three fold and involves critical discourse analysis to investigate: 1. How various professionals conceptualise teacher education 2. How dialogue and language are used to conceptualise their professional identity and finally 3. How the above 2 are manifest in the thoughts, words, views and practice of professional police trainee teachers. Researching practitioners in professional settings seeks to explore and explain social behaviour where interpretation of rich and contextually meaningful data may lead to a deeper understanding of human action in a social setting. An interpretative paradigm permits greater understanding of the subjective world of human experience, reflecting the views, values and opinions of the participants rather than the assumptions of the researcher. There is a need to consider first and foremost the paradigm in which one is to undertake the research and to reflect deeply on the suitability and design of the methods to be used within that paradigm.

Thus researching practitioners is a process of understanding a social or human problem conducted in a natural setting emphasising people’s words and actions and requiring the researcher to present this data in such a way that remains true to the participants’ views and perspectives. In other words contextually specific data arrived at after close observation and deep analysis of the topic or thesis. Observational inquiry means that the researcher must commit to carrying out the study over a lengthy period and should engage in the complex process of data analysis and participate in social research which does not have specific procedures yet which must be systematic, perspectival and constantly evolving.

My research focuses on the perceptions and behaviours of professional trainers and teachers in particular settings and needs to be explored, and the established theoretical framework to be questioned and developed. Also I would expect to be viewed as a learner, rather than an expert passing judgement, in other words entering the natural setting and representing the
participant’s point of view. This research which uses an interpretative, phenomenological analysis (Smith and Osborne, 2008) is aimed at increasing my ‘understanding’ of a particular behaviour or practice and the data would invariably be expressed thematically and sub-thematically. Adopting a phenomenological approach was an iterative process linked to observational evidence and shared theorising between me as researcher and the participants. Capturing naturally occurring evidence of human behaviour without perceptions or determining structures held by me was pivotal in this iteration. It is within the framework of interpretative analysis that all these meanings can be investigated and analysed in order to reflect on all the complexities and unpredictable phenomena that exist in real life contexts.

In this thesis, research methods which focus on practitioners engaged in teacher education were employed so as to identify and explore the conceptualisation of teacher education in professional training during the time of research. I opted to use this research method considering the objective to obtain first hand data from the participants. The research used trainee teachers who were already employed as professionals in their respective settings as participants from three educational establishments in the North West of the UK in order to gather relevant data; the method was appropriate as I was employed full time within these establishments and was able to spend significant proportions of my time in the pursuance of this research as a practitioner in teacher education. For this research, primary and secondary data types were gathered. The primary data were derived from the responses the participants gave during the questionnaire, interview, and professional discussion and feedback elements of the professional observation processes. The secondary data on the other hand, were obtained from published governmental documents and literature that were relevant to the field of teacher education. The focus of utilizing the framework of the interpretative paradigm was on the investigation of authenticity, complexity, contextualisation and mutual subjectivity of the researcher and the participant. The data gathering methods were centred on understanding phenomena in their naturally occurring states and were used to provide rich and well-grounded descriptions and explanations as well as unforeseen findings for new theory construction.

2.3 Research participants
In order to investigate the ways in which professionals reconceptualise their understanding of ‘teacher’, I emphasised the use of participants. This was the basis of cooperative enquiry, whereby I undertook research with participants rather than on them (Heron and Reason in (Bradbury and Reason, 2007). To achieve specific and pertinent data, certain criteria as to
who could be involved in the sample section were employed. They needed to be undertaking a course of teacher education on a part time basis and in service within their professional settings. This would ensure that each participant, despite their varying professional roles, was undertaking the same programme type\textsuperscript{11}. Researching those who could study full time and pre-service trainee teachers was not considered as many of these are typically without established professional roles in vocational settings. It must be stressed here, that in relation to this sample, there is no claim to any generalisation of the findings to a particular or wider population of trainee teachers. The purpose was to explore the relationship between cohorts, professional accreditation and its impact. Many of the participants were known to me professionally and certainly in the case of the police trainee teachers, I was informed of their individual biographies and experiences in my capacity as personal tutor as well as researcher. In each case the intentions of my research were carefully explained, conscious of avoiding the mistake or assumption that participants are always clear on the nature of the research study. Confidentiality would be maintained particularly in identifying any specific individual trainee teachers. For the purpose of the thesis, only the cohort and date from the glossary was referred to when quoting individuals. Simple random sampling was used to determine the selection of participants who were all offered an equal opportunity to participate. As stated earlier, the principal methods of data collection included questionnaires and more crucially professional discussions and semi-structured interviews. Each method was used in the context of normal professional activity and each cohort would be in class for at least 4-5 hours per week and in their professional setting for the remainder of the working week. Field notes and annotations were used in professional discussions and interviews in order that participants would not simply be bombarded with questions. I wanted to capture thoughtful, reflexive views and opinions over a period of time and I was able to immerse myself in the professional police training academy for more than two years, being on site for at least 36 hours in any week. According to Lea and Street (1998), it is crucial to penetrate the culture, which I take here to refer to the professional setting, for a lengthy period of time to explore what lies beneath the surface.

**2.4 The transition from training to education in preparing professionals**

This thesis shows that the teacher education and accreditation explored here, and its current focus on generic pedagogy, is not sufficiently equipped to support the specific professional

\footnote{\textsuperscript{11} See glossary.}
needs of those undertaking teacher education. For example, teacher education programmes have diminished the capacity on the part of the provider to simulate 'real life' scenarios which are crucial in providing a quality experience through its attempt to embrace the entire diversity of professional educators in mixed groups or cohorts. The data suggested a notable increase in misunderstandings and misinterpretations of programme requirements as each participant wrestled to appreciate the professional needs of others rather than on their own contextually specific needs. Placing mixed groups of professionals together therefore has significant repercussions in the delivery of teacher education programmes. It seems that professionals who engage with this, encounter a great deal of consternation at the perceived irrelevance of the training to the professional setting, again primarily around content and mixed subject groups. The research showed that there is contention and conflict around the instrumentalist ideology (Armitage et al, 2007:193) or system of meaning (DfES 2005, DfES 2006) underpinning the training of teachers, and the diversity of skill, expertise and vocational background now gives impetus to the need to abandon the ‘one cap fits all’ approach. As previously stated, the professional educators’ backgrounds are broad and diverse, and this is made more problematic by the variety and number of professional designations assigned to those educators. Despite this, there remains only one specific accreditation process for all who undertake teacher education programmes. Furthermore, the relatively recent production of a set of generic ‘tick box’ professional standards (2007) appears not to adhere to the need to abandon one accreditation process since they, in effect, shape a single identity for a teacher. As there are many types of teacher/educator it follows that there are many identities and one particular profession which has, for specific reasons agreed to undertake current teacher education, is the police. Not only do the police remain as distinct non-mixed groups when undertaking training within their own academies but they too must also contend with a renewed and significantly altered understanding of teacher professionalism within the framework of the professional standards. The cohorts I had become involved with provided me with an opportunity to explore the issues that were prevalent in teacher education namely those of role (assessor, tutor, lecturer and educator), identity (teacher or trainer) and generic rather than subject-specific training. Indeed there are trainers who are usually associated with the uniformed services and whose title implies a

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12 Again the euphemism to refer to how trainee teachers record how they have met a professional standard.

13 It is also not unusual to find police officers training alongside other professionals on generic courses.

14 This confusion was explicitly recognised during a period of consultation prior to the introduction of the professional standards. There was no agreement on one specific term.
limited role in the delivery of learning. There are tutors generally associated with the pastoral role carried out by teachers but often used to prevent having to refer to them as teachers. **Teacher** is most often applied to those involved in secondary education and conjures up this image for many. **Educator** can be assigned to any of the previous, but pragmatically finds it used sparingly and only in teacher education as an archetypal representation of those who teach or train i.e. a teacher educator. The term **assessor** is generally used to describe those who observe and judge performances and competences in vocational settings i.e. the police, the health service and the fire service. These terms are consistently used by those who embark on programmes of teacher education and are used defensively to condemn the irrelevance of the training to them.

Educational initiatives create identities, and institutions such as colleges, training academies and universities essentially talk identities into being through the implementation of initiatives. In this thesis, it will be shown how many educators feel compelled to work up to a particular identity, in this instance, that of a ‘teacher’ which for them is inappropriate. Theory also provided a focus for the methodological approach explored later in chapter four so in the next chapter I want to draw on several theorisations whose connecting feature is the contextual and pragmatic application of language to inform that and each subsequent chapter.

### 2.5 Summary

Within the teacher education contexts depicted here, and based on the data presented throughout this thesis from observations of practice, it is apparent that there can be no clear-cut, unitary construct of teacher or of teaching in professional terms. Professional learning and reflections from professional in-service trainee teachers are shaping new understandings of professional knowledge in this context. Further, it demonstrated a strengthening of how the concept of teacher is viewed and understood by professionals in dialogic, symbol-saturated, context-less environments. Described as ‘reflexive explorations’ which ‘capture features of classroom life and reveal particular attachments to certain value system,’ the teaching observation process in a teacher education context can be underpinned by an intention to enhance learning and teaching, or as a teacher educator tool to ensure standards are met or maintained, and is pivotal in the process of ‘meaning making from complexity’ (Jones and Somekh, 2011). Therefore the activity took note of the uniqueness of each observation by focusing on a particular instance of the experience, namely subject specialist teaching. It is because the cultural processes of discourse and identity formation at the level of the individual have material effects in this research that these processes are so important to interrogate and make
visible. The identification of examples of discourse is not only useful in order to identify on-going professional training needs, but by also scrutinising the salient aspects of that discourse, more targeted analysis and intervention can be postulated and enacted. An in-depth scrutiny of professional practice is presented in chapter eight.

However, to conclude I considered and selected an approach to my research based on action research (Carr, 2006, Somekh, 2006) which was not opportunistic. This EdD programme and research study enabled the execution of systematic, cyclical opportunities of reflection and re-inquiry into lived experiences mediated through language and the building of an interpretivist, analytical apparatus around professional practice. The very act of researching and articulating events in these teacher education contexts and professional settings raised many questions around the significance of subject pedagogy and therefore the ensuing narratives depicted later on in chapters five and six of this thesis are intended to be partly advisory, theoretically insightful and practically investigative of complex professional contexts and positionings. Indeed in chapter six, I will shift in analytical focus from the concepts of profession and professionalisation explored in phase A of the EdD to a further and deeper analysis of the notion of teacher professionalism. Of interest in these contexts is the increased use of discourses of teacher professionalism which are concerned with occupational change, relations and conditions, and with discourses constructed within professional groups which produce multiple repertoires to make sense of their identity as teachers. Before engaging with the cohorts of professionals, the next chapter presents a fuller analysis of the underpinning theories which comprise the analytical apparatus employed within this research in order to provide a framework for a deep, critical analysis of professional interactions and discoursal activity of professionals conceptualising their experiences of teacher education in professional training.
Chapter Three: Theorisations

3.1 Theoretical review
Teacher education aims to educate professionals to successfully integrate into a multi-contextual educational system. Therefore, the main hypotheses which drive this chapter are:
1) Professionals have differing concepts of ‘teacher’ closely linked to their professional bases.
2) Each base has, as Fairclough (1995) describes, an ordered set of discursive practices. 3) Language is the medium through which these practices are made known and teacher education must acknowledge these to strengthen its connect with professionals as ‘teachers’.

This thesis began with an overview and definition of the research undertaken acknowledging the professional conceptualisations of teacher as produced or even co-created by groups of professionals engaged in teacher education. Focusing on professionalism requires theorisations which frame the research so this chapter theorises my commitment to challenging the assumptions and meanings created by professional groups through the lenses of symbolic interactionism and discourse analysis fundamentally to take the concept of ‘teacher’ and as according to MacLure (2003:9) to ‘unravel it a bit and to open it up to unsettle the relationship between words and worlds.’

As a researcher, I am a unique individual and my unique view of the world and my research activity influences how the world is to be perceived, analysed, evaluated and argued. Moreover my view of the world and how it is organised, my beliefs, values and methods constitute a theoretical framework or paradigm in which phenomena can be observed. Sparkes provides a simple analogy of a paradigm:

At a most fundamental level, different paradigms provide particular sets of lenses for seeing the world and making sense of it in different ways. They act to shape how we think and act because for the most part we are not even aware that we are wearing any particular set of lenses. (1992:12)

My view of the world and the paradigm in which I operate are intrinsically linked and will have major influences on the nature of the researcher and the researched. Schostak (2002:07) states that ‘paradigms are thus not just ways of seeing that leave all else unchanged. There are material consequences.’ And these consequences have particularly strong implications for the researcher:
The project is not a simple matter of choosing a subject and applying methods. The researcher must interrogate its foundations, its paradigmatic assumptions if claims are to be made about the objects discovered and the world explored in the course of the project. (2002:09)

Theory allows the researcher to appreciate and validate the concept of perpetual societal change and the continual creation, modification, development and change of meanings attributed to social phenomena and experience. It also permits an interpretative approach which is premised on a claim to knowledge based on the provisional and contextual nature of the world.

Murray et al explain that:

the interpretive stance is not just a reaction to the perceived hegemony of normal science, it is also a reaction to the forces within social and behavioural science that do not offer unequivocal support to the domain of subjective experience as evidence of stable, recurrently measurable social phenomena. (2000:31)

The interpretivist approach seeks to explain human social behaviour on the basis of meanings which human beings attach to persons or events. In turn this is interpreted through language which is the medium that creates our social world. They explain that an interpretivist approach serves to interpret reasons for social action to uncover the meaning systems people use to make sense of their surroundings. ‘Social order is no more than the millions of interactions produced by purposeful individuals’ (ibid, 2000:08). Sparkes comments on the advantages and strengths of interpretation from the standpoint of the researcher:

Agreement or disagreement by the subjects of interpretation need not necessarily reduce or enhance its credibility. To believe otherwise is to adopt a stance that is somewhat simplistic in that it ignores those aspects of power that develop in social relationships. (1992:32)

In phase A of this doctoral programme, I contrasted at length the logical, positivist movement with symbolic interactionism. The early twentieth century movement of logical positivism briefly involved scientific exploration and the objective collection and judgement of facts in order to arrive at a positive truth. Moreover it sought to formulate laws to account for the happenings in the world and form a firm basis for prediction and control. The logical positivist takes a two level view of context by examining random statements to deduce an
underlying order. This made much sense to me in terms of my understanding of research. Significant knowledge would be based on sense experience and verifiable by observation and the commitment to pure empiricism would therefore permit the laws and law-like generalisations to determine truth. Vague, imprecise, wishy-washy data would be considered unverifiable and dismissed. But can we trust our senses or perception? Is perception the same as sense data? By contrast the term symbolic interactionism (SI) (Blumer, 1969; Charon 1995) favours research strategies such as participant observation, in depth semi-structured interviews and professional discussion. The aim would be to explore an issue or problem by examining how participants make sense of their world and circumstances and its significance for them. As a researcher I am concerned with analysing context specific peculiarities, small scale situations, not to explain or generalise behaviour or perception. The symbolic interactionist paradigm is adopted when interpretation of rich and contextually meaningful data may lead to a deeper understanding of human action in a social setting. This permits a further understanding of the world of human experience and their interaction with the world. The research is not about the world or the person in utter distinction with each other but rather with the interaction of each and the emergent largely open and indeterminate revelations (see Diagram 1). The valuable aspect of this approach for me is to provide stepping stones upon which to build knowledge to guide professional practice in teacher education which is connected with the focus and methodology of this research. A thorough understanding of the trainee teachers’ professional practices is a necessary prerequisite to such guidance to be explored through chapters six to eight.

Diagram 3.1: Interaction with the world
3.2 Discourse analysis

Over the last twenty years, the study of discourse or discourse analysis has become an important theoretical perspective for researchers concerned with the study of learning in professional settings (Wertsch and Toma, 1995; Gee, 1999 and 2005). By studying discursive activity within teacher education classrooms and professional settings, such research provides new and innovative insights into the complex relationships with discourse, professional practice and learning. DA regards language as social practice and takes the use of language in context to be crucial. Many assumptions of DA include language as a social phenomenon and also that individuals, groups and professional settings have specific meanings and values that are expressed in language. The main theoretical dimension which drives this research is DA and builds on the theorisations of Fairclough (1995), Gee (2005), MacLure (2003) and Foucault (1977, 1989). Each theorist lends an important perspective in DA, for example the notion of context, meaning, and events as perceptual judgements. Fairclough’s work concerns how power is exercised through the intrinsic properties of discourse and language and how professional practices are discursively shaped which is particularly useful in establishing how concepts of ‘teacher’ are produced and reproduced through professional discourse. Fairclough’s key papers from the period 1983 to 1993 challenge the reader to constantly engage and reengage with text and speech directing us particularly to the historicity of discursive events. Gee assists the analytical aspects of this research through the theoretical concepts of ‘situated meaning and assemblies of mind’ based on a current and very relevant construal of context and on experiences of that context (2005:95). Also his exploration of the concept of Discourse (big letter D) and discourse (little d) is extremely useful, the former referring to ways of being in the world and the latter to language-in-use. Therefore a combination of language in use with other ‘stuff’ such as social practices, such as values, ways of thinking and behaving is Discourse. Gee further elucidates these concepts:

These combinations I will refer to as ‘Discourses’, with a capital D (‘discourses’ with a little d, I will use for connected stretches of language that make sense, like conversations, stories, reports, arguments, essays: ‘discourse’ is part of ‘Discourse’- ‘Discourse’ with a big D is always more than just language). (1990:142)

Therefore Discourses are ways of displaying membership in a particular group or profession enacted explicitly or tacitly by those who wish to remain accepted within them.
The various Discourses which constitute each of us as persons (or subjects) are changing and often are not fully consistent with each other; there is often conflict and tension between the values, beliefs, attitudes, interactional styles, use of language and ways of being in the world which two or more Discourses represent. (ibid, 1990:145)

MacLure (2003) proposes how identities and realities are socially constructed and how there is instability and fluidity between words (language) and worlds (professional settings). This section, therefore, explains how DA as a research method can map forms of analysis to produce further understanding of professional concepts and practices and how these are also recreated.

DA has a range of different meanings but, for this thesis, is fundamentally a cautionary exploration and form of intervention into how text/speech at all levels can work within socio-cultural practices. Cautionary because the nature and use of language is premised on the socio-specific contexts in which it is manifested. This research explores the conversations, discussions and debates of professionals around their experiences of teacher education. In the early phases and chapters of this thesis, it was necessary in the interest of presenting the concept of teacher/trainer, to emphasise the nonexistence of any professional standards prior to 2007. Thus it is clear that any language used to predicate a particular concept would not be based on a prescriptive set of standards or an ‘ideal’ but instead on the discursive norms associated with a teacher at that time i.e. how to act and talk like a teacher by those working in multiple and varied settings. In the absence, however, of a universal, institutional construct of the professional teacher, the teacher could draw upon historical concepts of being a teacher related to their own experiences of observing and of accepting those who taught them or those who worked with them. So within my more recent research, it is not surprising to find professional trainers and teachers attempting to reconceptualise their roles based on their own professional settings involving specific discursive norms and distinct representations of how they see their role. This process is explained clearly by Fairclough who supports the view that teacher identity is historically disparate and fractured and influenced markedly by the multiple professional settings which exist:

Since any set of discursive norms entails a certain knowledge base, and since any knowledge base includes an ideological component, in acquiring the discursive norms one simultaneously acquires the associated ideological norms. (Fairclough, 1995:42)

Textually Fairclough describes the ideological nature of language as notably:
A range of properties of texts is regarded as potentially ideological including features of vocabulary and metaphor, grammar, presuppositions and implicatures, politeness conventions, speech exchange systems, generic culture and style. (1995:2)

Within the thesis it is made clear through the data that the various professional settings already have established discourse and protocol and these practices are particularly strong. There is a tendency for plumbers, engineers, lawyers and hairdressers to maintain that they happen to teach and that much of what the prescriptive ideal suggests is irrelevant to them. Despite the notion that identity is created through interaction and expression, why is it that professional teacher identity is to be qualified only by empirical, demonstrable evidence and furthermore by regulative standards ascribed to an ideal (or governmentally acceptable) description? It is my view that the conception of identity will relate directly to the experiences and the internalised concepts gained in the teaching/training environment:

I’m a trainer not a teacher so why do I have to do all this theory? It doesn’t tell you how good I am.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 3, 2007)

This frustration is not only serving to demonstrate the fear that is felt by the prospect of academic expression i.e. ‘all this theory’ but is also a representation that ensues in discourse structured by assumptions, however arbitrary, which favours one ‘teacher ‘over the other ‘trainer’. The retort about ‘being good’ is clearly rooted in the NVQ model of performance criteria against given standards which for this trainee is a zone of comfort and familiarity and of course defence.

3.3 **Foucault and the power of discourse**

The teacher education programme attempts at one level to transform professional trainers into teachers and to an extent my distinction of trainers and teachers has meant that there is an empirical nature to that transformation. In other words it is possible to confirm the generic learner focused teaching and learning skills through professional observations of practice. However the organisational settings, in which this is meant to operate, can be suffused with a sense of control, restriction and oppression. The thesis moves from focusing on various

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15 On the 12th January, 2002, the Times Educational Supplement ran with an article entitled ‘Training goes to the heart of teaching trades’ and intrinsically dealt with the very issue.
professionals within the teacher education classroom to a strict focus on one profession the police. Within the police, there is rank, hierarchical and regimental settings which influence training and keep each in his/her place.

Chapters seven and eight are used to analyse the conceptualisation of ‘teacher’ by the police and the way in which that is demonstrated in practice. To theoretically substantiate the research methodology of my thesis which employs an interpretivist approach, it is with Foucault’s thoughts on reality and understanding and its application which will be useful. Useful because it can build on the layers produced by discourse analysis and present further insights into how discourse shapes concepts. Dismissing notions of universal truth and objective certainty, Foucault summarily asks how power (and language) operates in society. He does not separate knowledge and power and does not isolate discourse from the social practices which surround it. Power, like language, is not some kind of entity whose essence can be abstracted from its situations of use, let alone abstractly defined or measured. Instead it is essentially about investigating how some people are able to do certain things to other people: sometimes little things (as in a close personal relationship), and sometimes things of great societal import (like enacting or implementing laws), in other words, with collective activities in the real world, and all their uncertainties, contingencies, and unanticipated consequences.

Putting this to work on the data in this thesis was both revelatory and disconcerting particularly within professional settings where established practices exude power e.g. teaching and police training i.e. gaining qualifications, rising up the ladder, demarcation of roles. Rather than proceed to discuss Foucault, I am drawn to how his contributions to thought can open up possibilities in my research to explore more deeply what lies beneath the surface of observable behaviour and professional discourse. Kendal and Wickham provide excellent guidance on how I can employ Foucaultian methods for analyses of police discourse. They explain:

The Foucaultian method’s use of history is not a turn to teleology, that is, it does not involve assumptions of progress (or regress). History should be used not to make ourselves comfortable, but rather to disturb the taken for granted. (2000:04)

Within the data in chapters seven and eight, there are numerous references to the nature of police training which point to a passive or submissive acceptance that this i.e. their professionalism is the way it is or it is what they are told to do. So Kendal and Wickham
suggest looking for contingents rather than causes to these stances, in that the event which leads to the discourse, is just one possible result of a whole series of complex relations between other events (2000:05). By taking the statement from a police trainee ‘We are a much disciplined profession, we are told what to do and we do it to the letter’ (Police Trainee Teacher Cohort, 2009) it is best not so much to find a cause for there may be many but to view it as a contingency. For example, the idea of a government body powerful enough to issue law and policy to a professional body that has no direct influence on that power is a contingency. The requirement of each professional body representative to disseminate that law and policy within organisations which will follow without question is also a contingency. It is perhaps related to a government whose ideological view is to ensure that relevant, current law informs frontline practice in a top down manner which in turn is replicated by the top down, hierarchical management within those organisations. An analysis would consider several steps including an attempt to understand the relationship between the sayable and the visible in institutions and an ordering of statements or instructions from government to police management, from management to officers, from officers as trainers to trainee teachers. There is also an analysis of the positions that are established in management through discourse which produce subject positions such as officer, CID officer, sergeant, inspector and more intricately good trainer, great officer, strict sergeant and challenging trainee officers. Then comes discourse as a corpus of related statements with rules which create spaces for new statements. Every discourse, therefore, is part of a discursive complex drawing on its contingent relationship with other discourses. Management for example is what Foucault (1989) calls a moral technology of power. It is a modern, all-purpose equivalent of Bentham’s panoptican, a generalisable model of functioning or a way of defining power relations in terms of the all-embracing conception of organisational control. Power (Kendal and Wickham, 2000:54) is not necessarily repressive but is productive and the focus is on how it works and how it is practised. So it is within the police that rank, hierarchical and regimental settings influence training and keep each in his/her place. My experiences of police training have meant an acute awareness on my part of the didactic, authoritative pedagogy of the training which has been equated with an oppressive outlook.

You are requiring us to change our learning and teaching strategies from those where we feel in control and in charge to those where we relinquish control to the learners. I can understand that but it is uncomfortable.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)
Moreover, my own role as researcher is powerful and I need to be aware that where power exudes compliance of the participants to fulfil my research objectives, this is to be seen within the discursive complex and contingencies which produce such compliance. In other words, I affect the research participant dynamic at a much deeper level than mere physical presence.

For Foucault, knowledge in the human sciences is not disinterested, neutral, objective or value free; rather it is inextricably entwined with relations of power. Power produces knowledge and power and knowledge directly imply one another. (Peters, 2004:44)

The thesis therefore considers if these trainee teachers are subjects or participants whose professional and personal identities are problematic.

3.4 Control and power in discourse: insights into specialist teacher education in the police

Theories on institutions as disciplinary, attitude changing and controlling organisms naturally influence an understanding of training. After all, the trainer seeks to modify/control behaviour in the trainee for the common good i.e. to be able to teach. This would, in turn lead to discipline through knowledge which is power. My work with the police training organisations in Lancashire and Merseyside and specific power designations that are intrinsic to police hierarchy resurface in the training classroom and present struggles which, according to the data, typically characterise such cohorts. Why should the police undertake teacher education anyway which is a qualification for teachers and trainers in mainstream FE? One trainee in my 2008/09 cohort contributed the following during a professional discussion which exemplifies the micro politics of power exercised locally within the police training academy:

I am not convinced that either internally within the police or externally in bodies such as the IfL 16 (Institute for Learning) people are ready to accept police officers as teachers and would much rather we keep the title of trainer. The problem with this of course is that once a person becomes educated and gains knowledge it is not always easy to keep them suppressed.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 4, 2008)

16 The IfL have indeed endorsed the higher status of QTLS on the Police as of December 2009.
The mention of suppression here implies that despite the success of teacher education to instil liberalist ideas on learning and teaching (Hirst, 1965) in Peters (1973:99), there is a sense that, hitherto, the concepts of learning and teaching held by the police have been acquainted with control, power and oppression and certainly with modifying and conditioning behaviour. Furthermore there are several discourse models at work here: one of career advancement or self-development and success in sharp contrast to keeping one’s place and rank in mind.

3.5 Multimodal discourse analysis

Pedagogy or the art of teaching is not merely limited to the interactions of teachers and trainers with students but also with the materials and resources in the transmission of knowledge. Multimodal concepts and, more fully, the language of multimedia is a strong feature of the art of teaching. Indeed colleges, universities and training academies have embraced multimedia and within this theoretical framework there is more focus on practice and resources in teaching. Multimodality concerns the relationship and impact of mixing of language, image and graphic in communication and represented in four distinct strata (Kress and Leeuwen, 2001). For this thesis, particularly in chapter eight, there is a focus on the art of teaching and how the police in particular have engaged with multimodality in their use of a vast array of new and emerging technologies in their training. My research here is concerned with two aspects of their practice: 1) how the police use their texts and training materials to represent aspects of their professional identity and 2) how they use online and traditional resources to represent their identity as teachers or trainers. The theory underpinning multimodal discourse is called ‘social semiotics’ which is the explained further by Kress and Leeuwen in Van Dijk (2009:109) as ‘the study of 1) the material resources we use in multimodal communication, and 2) the way we use these resources for purposes of communication and expression’. Kress and Leeuwen have researched and theorised the way in which people and therefore educators use communicative modes and media in practice. For example there is access to smart boards, DVDs and interactive video for training purposes and simulation of real life events. This allows the fusion of words, texts and images to communicate messages which are prolific within police training and through which multimodal discourse analysis can be actioned. Moreover the theoretical frameworks of multimodality as posited by Kress and Leeuwen (2001) define the organisation of the expression and distribution as the necessary semiotic modes in the articulation and interpretation of aspects of reality which are; discourse or socially constructed knowledge, design which is the means to transpose socially constructed knowledge into social interaction,
production or organisation of expression and distribution which is ensuring that the stratum of expression is preserved. Organisations are perfect places for perpetuating practice in multimodal fashion where meaning is not solely confined to articulation but can be seen as ancillary to other semiotic modes (Kress and Leeuwen, 2001):

Formerly, in the English tradition, the teacher was in control of curriculum and of its shape to a very large degree; he or she was in control of pedagogic practice in the classroom, as well as being in charge of assessment and evaluation. This aggregation of practices in one person is now being unmade by currently potent ideological and political forces, and teachers are seen as delivering (the newly fashionable metaphor is significant) a curriculum designed elsewhere without the teacher’s input, and increasingly tight control is exercised over the mode of delivery, the pedagogic practice in the classroom as well as over assessment and its forms. (2001:43)

So, the production of the professional standards for teachers which drive teacher education has at its heart the metaphor of deliverer of learning which limits the teacher to a circumscribed form of production. Kress and Leeuwen stress that discourse, design, production and distribution are not abstract semiotic layers. ‘They represent practices which can aggregate or disaggregate’ (2001:122). For example, with the police and other professional trainers, complex practices formerly all resting with an individual have been disaggregated. This naturally has consequences and chapter eight reviews the pedagogic practices and discourses of the police with this in mind. They are deliverers rather than designers of learning. Kress and Leeuwen speak of a dis-articulation of the profession, a formerly stable semiotic arrangement and framing which:

At the moment is being disassembled: more and more, the curricular content is being centrally prescribed, and the role of the teacher is becoming one of retailing that centrally produced content. (2001:48)

This sits comfortably with the notion of training and trainer as distinct from teacher which for many conveys more professional autonomy in curriculum design for example. It follows, therefore, that current political ideology promotes a concept of teacher as one who delivers learning along predetermined and ostensibly visible guidelines. For me, the metaphor of deliverer explains how the police view their role as a teacher or trainer and further how reprofesionalisation of the teaching workforce is effectively a deskilling or deprofessionalisation reducing the role to a technical operative. Kress and Leeuwen’s work
on contrasting the monomodal hierarchies of past professionals with the new multimodal approaches to present what remains as unstable arrangements is deeply ramified in the police trainee teachers struggle to manage with being officers, teachers and trainers. Kress and Leeuwen (2001:48) point out that ‘when practices, habits and traditions persist and come to be closely supervised, two directions might be taken: they remain inexplicit, implicit, passed on by osmosis or by the ‘mimicking of observed practices or they may be made explicit, articulated, formulated as overtly stated rules or as examples of best practice.’ The police struggle with a teacher education curriculum which promotes notions of designing and shaping curriculum but as Kress and Leeuwen further observe ‘the role of the teacher is becoming one of retailing a centrally produced content.’ This, as is explored in chapter eight, provides a basis to understanding, on the one hand, the police trainee as a recipient of the designed and produced content of curriculum and on the other the understandable struggle with the teacher education qualification to insist on skills which are increasingly disaggregated across the profession. The chapter further reviews their pedagogic practice and related discourse drawing upon how they see and identify themselves observably as trainers and teachers. Multimodal discourse analysis enables scrutiny of how multiple semiotic resources are combined to create particular kinds of meaning.

3.6 Putting the theories to work
In order to deploy deep, critical analysis of professional interactions and discourse, it is clear that Gee offers an approach to methodology which on the one hand stresses the importance of history and experiences in the production of discourse and the contexts in which this is found. Out of these come assemblies of mind in which a conceptual construct is heavily reliant on social specific histories and contexts. On the other hand, however, there is also a strong emphasis on the fluidity of situated meaning which can be actioned very quickly to suit the social or professional context. This fluidity implies a change of meaning which can render many similar words or concepts conveying very different things. This notion of situated meaning and assemblies of mind is crucial in gaining a deeper appreciation of the discourse of teachers and trainers in various professional contexts. It also has great significance in my analysis of the police as it is clear that their use of words varies in meaning or reciprocal understanding to those in other professions. This can be attributed of course to context and profession but it would be unwise to adopt Occam’s razor here and conclude that it is simply because they are police. Putting Foucaultian analyses to work as suggested by Kendal and Wickham (2000) is useful since it is possible with this work transcend ‘cause’ as the
precursor to understanding the nature of discourse. Causal attributes can limit the analysis by rendering some more important than others and by suggesting a linear history i.e. X caused Y which caused Z. To view discourse and practice as an evolution of contingencies, some not apparently related can really help delve deeper into how discourse functions to shape or create concepts affecting the very relationship of signs, signifiers and the signified. Consequently signs attributed to police training may vary considerably from those attributed to initial teacher education:

There is no intermediary element, no opacity intervening between the sign and its content. Signs, therefore, have no other laws than those that may govern their contents: an analysis of signs is at the same time, and without need for further inquiry, the decipherment of what they are trying to say. (Foucault, 1994:66)

In addition to the significance of how ‘teacher’ is conceptualised in professional training, it is equally important to explore and analyse how this manifests itself in observable practice especially in the production and use of media to support learning. The design of artefacts in teaching and learning for example from pre-course materials, advertisements for courses, in-course training manuals evokes the theory of interpreting and constructing the content of texts and other communicative methods. This refers to discourse or discourses which are ‘socially constructed developed in the context of specific social institutions in ways that are appropriate to the interests that dominate in these contexts’ (ibid, 1994:66). For example, the recruitment material for would be officers to the police force would have a particular communicative purpose and would encode a specific relationship between the intended recipient and the recruiter. Of interest in this thesis would be how multimodal discourses include and exclude different things and how they serve a particular interest. Moreover this is useful in exploring how artefacts are used in pedagogical practice and how their use can create new meaning. The term within police training is indeed ‘trainer’. This manifests itself in an environment of discipline and control and through discursive practice which creates, as will be shown in chapters seven and eight, a new understanding of ‘teacher’.

3.7 Summary
To summarise, discourse research challenges knowledge and assumptions about the organisation and manifestation of professional practice and socially constructed meaning. Foucault (1972:49) referred to discourse as ‘practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak.’ Such practices embody meaning and are linked to power but in this
respect power which is concerned with how particular things come to be seen as true. The world we experience is one constructed by discourse through language. Different uses of language tend to reiterate the respective positions of each participant. Linguistic interactions are manifestations of the participants' respective positions in social and dialogic space. This determines who has a right to be listened to, to interrupt, to ask questions, to lecture, and to what degree. This can be more than apparent in the discursive practices of the police and is explored in chapters seven and eight. Throughout this research, conflicting discourses which operate within teacher education relate to the social construction of ‘teacher’ and how each professional group creates this based on their own professional history, ontology and experience. There is also a resounding sense of a desire on the part of each professional group to be considered as distinct, indeed homogenous. The creation of non-mixed or homogenous groups, therefore, appealed to me and them as a solution to create discursive regularity to produce understanding, knowledge and skills with connotations of security, protection and belonging. Theoretically, the construction of analytical tools as a framework in which to scrutinise professional practice has thus far enabled a lens through which to make sense of the data:

- Semiotic triangles which identify meaning as the individuals’ and institutional relationship between symbols (words), referents thought and social conventions.

- Words and expressions which have meanings based around context, use and a pre-conceptual structure.

- Discourse analysis which recognises meaning as specific to contexts and situations of interaction.

- Situated meanings which are negotiated through communicative social interaction.

- Meaning making in multiple articulations which presents discourse as a socially constructed knowledge of reality where semiotic action is not confined to articulation. Language may be understood as ancillary to other semiotic modes.

- Discourse as language seen as a form of social practice.

Interrogation and analysis of such discursive practice particularly in identifying patterns, regularities, recurring words and phrases would involve a particularly multidirectional
methodology with well-constructed, finely tuned methods. These are discussed in the next chapter.
Chapter Four: Methodology, data collection and analysis

4.1 Introduction to methodology

Drawing upon Foucault’s notion of discourse as practice, this thesis makes tentative suggestions about the effects of certain prevalent and newly emergent discourse on professionals engaging in teacher education. The EdD programme has also enabled a sophisticated construction of analytical apparatus around professional practice in order to scrutinise the data that was provided in questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and professional discussions. These produced threads which suggested that all cohorts of trainee teachers had very similar things to say in terms of dissatisfaction with the teacher education programme i.e. totally generic training and a lack of subject-specialist input. However, the methodological approach was not intended to be a form of triangulation to arrive at a single conclusive viewpoint or solution as to how teacher education is conceptualised in professional training rather the intention was to provide a depth of understanding which could still allow a variety of perspectives. These are important if I am to evidence the hypotheses suggested in chapter three and their significance in teacher education. For the thesis to be feasible and valid I needed to describe how, when, and in what context, the voices of the trainee teachers were to be heard, who actually heard them and the impact of this. Kvale (1996) discusses how ‘reality is multi-layered’ so reliability in professional discussions, observations and semi-structured interviews are open to many interpretations which simultaneously exist and are produced according to the contexts and situations encountered. By combining multiple voices, documentary evidence and research methods listed above, I have been able to triangulate my findings to increase the credibility for a sound analysis of professional conceptualisations, not to produce a definitive one. However this is not to dismiss the emergence of new and original conceptualisations of professionals in training.

The introductory chapter outlined the recent emergence of professional standards for teachers which inform teacher education programmes. There are methodological tensions which arise when the formal language of standards is used as a referent, and difficulties are encountered in these contexts when trainee teachers use the language to describe their professional activities. I attempted at every instance to produce as faithful an analysis as possible using my reflective diary, transcripts, field notes and observation data and give a direct, authentic voice to each professional. The primary issue was to generate data which gave an authentic insight into people’s experiences. Appropriate areas of research involving observation and
questionnaire include the vast field of evaluative studies e.g. to better understand the perceptions of students on programmes or the views of tutors. Each provides the opportunity to observe the quality of the behaviour and the real human interaction where much more than the spoken word is at issue. The way in which things are said and the body language used will give the observer more insight into the content of the activity. Even if subjectivity is ever present, the research design has enabled a greater contribution to exploring the professional issue. It could be argued that any intuitive evaluation may be open to further scrutiny but well-constructed questionnaires and well thought out observation schedules are clearly useful tools in gathering qualitative data and are valuable in establishing the participants’ feelings and perceptions. In other words, the more successful research project in terms of gathering a wider or deeper picture is one which adopts more than one method within a certain paradigm to obtain more reliable data and classically through triangulation. (Creswell, 2002)

Participant observation required that I would seek to become a member of the observed group. This can be very demanding on the observer. Perhaps this was more akin to that of the complete participant role and could raise ethical issues in that students would be effectively deceived and the recording of activities might be viewed with suspicion. As Kirby and McKenna (1989 suggest: ‘Research from a covert or manipulative perspective is not generally acceptable’ (in Cox, 2002:196). It was decided ultimately to adopt the participant as observer role and make my intentions known from the start. It was accepted that this might influence how the members of each group act or react to my presence but the primary concern was precisely to observe and record perceptions and behaviours to learning with technology and, implicit here, was the need for total honesty and sincerity on the part of the participants. It was concluded that observation of activity supplemented by data from questionnaires and professional discussions completed at the end of the sessions could provide greater insight into the behaviour and this methodological triangulation would pinpoint any consistency or any inconsistency, perceptions or behaviours encountered.

4.2 Data gathering and analytical framework
The main data gathering tool in the initial stages of this research was a survey questionnaire effectively divided into two sections containing closed and open questions. The first section gathered factual data based on current study mode and professional setting. The second contained questions which related specifically to perceptions of their training experiences\textsuperscript{17}

\textsuperscript{17} This relates to their teaching practice and to the production of assignments.
and was distributed to three cohorts of approximately sixty trainee teachers in the period September 2006 to June 2012, from which fifty one completed responses were received. No choices of answers were supplied, relying instead on the responses from the trainee teachers only. In order to explore the validity of the questionnaire used for the study, the questionnaire was trialled with three respondents who were not part of the cohorts to be surveyed. These respondents, as well as their answers, were not part of the actual study process and were only used for testing purposes. After the questions had been answered, they were asked for any suggestions or any necessary corrections to ensure further improvement and validity of the tool. Some minor revisions to the survey questionnaire based on their suggestions were then made including one particularly vague question based on mentoring in order to ensure comprehension amongst the various professionals where this concept is viewed as problematic.

A series of twenty semi-structured interviews and thirty professional discussions were conducted during the period and more importantly detailed notes after or during classes were taken. Events which might have been missed had there been a more formal platform for views and opinions on the programme were also recorded. Common themes ran through all the interviews and professional discussions, for example, concern with the nature of the training, views on the professional standards, future expectations and aspirations premised around the training. Professional observations were undertaken twice per year for each trainee teacher as a requirement of the programme and these were designed to elicit summative judgements and suggestions for improvement on the quality of teaching using a predefined set of criteria based on professional standards for teachers. The key methodological approach focused on language in use and formed the basis on which knowledge production and its interpretation is premised. In using data from classroom observations, professional discussions, and informal interviews to help create the narrative of this thesis, I have found Mason’s subjective/objective stances on reflection, preparing, noticing and researching especially helpful. My data or evidence was thus represented to provide words on which to act, and to provide professional occurrences on which to take a deeper and more reflective appreciation of the causes and effects of such interactions. Mason comments that:

Conjectures in the discipline of noticing are not about what the case in a particular situation is, but about what may prove to be a fruitful perspective or way of thinking, a fruitful distinction which enables noticing to take place in the future. (1992:31)
He summarily describes his paper as a practical suggestion to undertake systematic, disciplined, personal professional development with the aid of colleagues. Researching practitioners in their respective settings is the main tool through which to enable such practices through the disciplined approach of ‘noticing’. Interactions are manifestations of subjective truth which I argue can be taken as knowledge of, or about, a particular context. As these are numerous and unpredictable, a methodological challenge was to look for consistency through triangulation of multiple methods through the analytical framework theorised in chapters two and three.

4.3 Data processing and analysis including ethical considerations
As this research required the participation of professionals in training, certain ethical issues were addressed. The revised ethical guidelines for research (BERA, 2004) provided support in my understanding of the need to consider carefully the extent to which my own reflexive research and professional intervention can impinge on others’ perceptions and behaviours. In every instance of the research detailed here, I was essentially in two roles of teacher/tutor and researcher. The impact of my roles on the participants had to be clearly elucidated and analysed. If I am to observe and evaluate situations and contexts then I influence the very dynamics that drive them including relational and social variables. In order to secure the consent of the selected participants, I relayed all important details of the research such as observation, interview and professional discussion, including its aim and purpose. By explaining these important details, the participants were able to understand the importance of their role in the completion of the research. The participants were also advised that they could withdraw from the research even during the process. With this, the participants were not forced to participate in the research even though they may have felt compelled out of loyalty to me as their tutor or for other hidden reasons. Their confidentiality was also ensured by not disclosing their names or personal information in the research. Only references to cohorts and dates were made when answering the research questions or quoting the participants.

This research emphasises the significant and problematic conceptualisations of the professional educator and how my subjective experiences and viewpoints have informed my approaches. What do professional trainers really think of the notion of becoming a teacher? Is this simply a matter of following a pre-set list of standards? Does teacher education bring about new conceptualisations of teacher when each is exposed to the distinct and differing practices of other professionals? Consequently my professional discussions needed timely and appropriate execution which at all times began with simple questions of a factual nature,
moving into what, how and why? At each discussion I would again explain the thesis and its aims. As stated by Jones and Somekh in Somekh and Lewin (2011:132) ‘it is also necessary to guard against becoming too immersed in the group’s culture and losing sight of alternative perspectives.’ I have relied heavily on professional discussions, observations and questionnaires and so these were designed to follow on from any observations made by me in the course of a particular session or practice. They also allowed for considerable reflection before responses were made.

The overarching research activities mentioned in the previous paragraph attempt to explore the relationship of the individuals and cohorts of trainee teachers to their contexts. The central concern, from a methodological perspective, was also how to analyse these complex aspects of teacher education. Discourse within this context is dominated by specific language which renders participants challenged as to how to describe the nature of their specific issues. The situation of the individuals encountered is significant in how they perceived the programme and was heavily influenced by what they carried historically and professionally to it. Data analyses codes and themes, therefore, included the following:

- Development of trainee teachers’ training practice including evidence of discussion, debate and exploration of the relationship between subject and pedagogical practice i.e. subjektdidaktik
- Evolving conceptualisations of professional identity
- Professional discourses
- Expectations of professional training

Each code provided a sound focus for the three methods of data collection mentioned and each provides relevant, ancillary data which can be incidentally incorporated into this research within its overarching themes. The precise analysis processes are explained later in this chapter. I was also aware that my own formal teacher education programme mentioned in chapter two was used as a normative benchmark for what I understand teacher education to be. The limitations and strengths of this subjective understanding of training form the basis of my own reflexive contribution to this research. To present a right way and a wrong way argument was not my intention but prescriptive standards in teacher education forced this. The methods used helped explore feelings and experiences of teacher education programmes.
in certain professional settings, and through my own interaction with these professionals emerged new vocabulary and contexts to enable me to relate this narrative. As Jones and Somekh in Somekh and Lewin (2011:142) state: ‘the dynamic interplay between observing events, writing about them and then subjecting these texts to the practice of deconstruction’ is pivotal in gaining insights into teacher conceptualisation.

4.4 Summary
Yet there is a degree of unreliability in each method as these do not exist or emerge without some degree of affect from the researcher. Of relevance to my observations of practice, Jones and Somekh further advise that the ‘observed may become tense and have a strong sense of performing, even of being inspected’ (2011:142). Inspection of performance speaks to a discourse of organisational professionalism, of standards and procedures and authority. Discourse in this sense becomes the ‘vehicle for power-knowledge, permeating and characterising the professional setting’ (Foucault, 1980:93). Such discourse also carries particular rationalities of thought informing how we should act and be and throughout this research it was evident that what teacher education wanted professionals to be was conflicting with their beliefs and practices. This affirmed, to a certain degree, a discourse of professionalism characterised by words and phrases including references to being taught about teaching their subject, grouping together as professionals and concepts of professional ‘teacher’. Discourse is also about power. Discourse and knowledge are manifestations and materialisations of social practice which as forms of action are equipped with a truth value linked to different power mechanisms. The next chapter explores how language in context and subject-specific pedagogy is co-relational in the minds of these professionals and assists in building a deeper, analytical apparatus to examine conceptualisations of teacher education in professional practice.
Chapter Five: Context and subject-specific pedagogy

5.1 Introduction
This chapter further explores the tensions arising from the implementation of standards which, along with policy initiatives, have insisted on the development of subject-specific pedagogy in teacher education programmes (see appendix one, domain C). Bearing in mind the historic momentum for change from subject focused towards generic teacher education, the professionals involved in this research have made specific responses to a need related to subject-specific pedagogy. Healey and Jenkins, for instance, have contended that ‘different clusters of academic disciplines and their respective degree programmes have distinctive norms and values and show wide difference in their teaching practices’ (2003:3). Although this research has focused on professionals from vocational settings i.e. hairdressers, caterers, health professionals and police trainers, they too profess distinctive norms and values and difference in teaching practice in their respective training (Robson, 2006). Therefore they have demonstrated resistance to teacher education due to its perceived irrelevance i.e. it does not speak to them as distinct professionals and it lacks focus on the distinct teaching practices of professionals. The relationship between content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge will be discussed more thoroughly in the next chapter so first I shall introduce and explain the use and significance of language in context to the analytical framework of this thesis, showing how meaning is produced in the socio-specific context of professional settings. Second I shall further elucidate the significance of the creation of opportunities to discuss and explore the optimal way to study and teach a given subject, theorised as subjektdidaktik.

5.2 Language in context
I have sought to analyse contexts which are awash with value laden words and phrases, inherently culturally bound (or institutionally specific) and which reflect the values of the culture or institution or profession and subject. Gee (2005) states that words and their meanings are never neutral; instead language is the product of a way of living or way of behaving and performing in the world. Each way of behaving or living produces its own language. It is only within a context that we can understand the meaning of words; but when we look for a word’s meaning we do not abstract it from a given context and generalise as if there were some essence to be discovered, instead, we look to the way the community of people use such words. Language can say many things simultaneously and therefore it is when there is mutual understanding between communities and individuals that effective
communication takes place. The data suggests that the mutual intelligibility between mixed cohorts and the teacher educator is a factor in the dissatisfaction with the teacher education programme. Theoretically, if language is simultaneously saying many things, this can be identified in the nature of signs and signifiers. The Saussurian structuralist conception of the tripartite relation of sign = signifier/signified is a sound basis to initially explain linguistic signs based on context and use. In analysing words, statements and discourse, the thing referred to (sign) conjures up not only the concept associated with it (signifier) but is also inclusive of a conceptualised definition and image of that concept (signified). So context and use determine meaning where the meaning of an expression or word is a function of its use in a given context. In addition, this meaning is also a conceptual structure rendering context and use as relevant to meaning because interlocutors have a prior conceptual structure of the expression or word (Van Dijk, 2011). For example, ‘teacher’ conjures up an image (signifier) to which we can apply a description and that definition or image is socially and contextually specific (signified). One of the police trainee teachers (Cohort 6, 2010) expressed her recognition of the functionality of teacher and applied it to her sister who was a school teacher. She preferred to be known as a trainer as there was clearly for her a distinction based, not on functionality, but rather on the image and prior conceptual structure of what a teacher is. It is with symbolic dominance that interesting correlations and features arise since their symbolism depends upon other signs for their recognition and interpretation. It is only understandable with reference to a pre-existing social convention which specifies the way in which the sign stands for that which it represents. A symbol (language) is a self-contained relationship between various signifiers. A symbol is defined by its relation to other symbols, and yet those other symbols are only different from it in as much as they have a different relation to each other than it does. But then, what are they in themselves? Where is this elusive meaning in which they are supposed to terminate? Meanings are then assigned and modified through an interpretative process that is ever changing, not fixed and immutable. Therefore one could argue that professionals who are engaged in teacher education programmes act based on symbolic meanings they find within any given situation. They interact with the symbols, forming relationships around them and from the data it is clear that the goals of their interactions with one another are to create shared meaning. Wertsch (1991), for instance, regards conscious reflection as important in meaning making. This thesis explores meaning as produced by interprofessional discourse which is problematic on a number of levels:
Professionals from various communities of practice have an interpretation of what it is to be a trainer or teacher.

They use and develop pedagogical practice based on their professional understanding of these practices.

They use different words to describe the same things but in turn these words convey meaning that is influenced by their professional communities.

So language is itself is viewed as a symbolic form, which is used to anchor meanings to the symbols (things). Meaning is also determined by the positions held by those who use the words. In other words an educator in any setting will develop a concept of their professional status based on the prevailing rhetoric. It can be summed up as follows:

Words and expressions change their meaning according to the positions held by those who use them finding meaning by reference to those positions i.e. by reference to ideological formations in which those positions are inscribed. (Pecheux, 1982:112)

Wodak and Meyer offer a suitable and appropriate description of local meaning which is:

The result of the selection made by speakers in their mental models of events or their more general, socially shared beliefs. At the same time they are the kind of information that most directly influences the mental models, and hence the opinions and attitudes of the recipients. (2007:103)

Such mental models of discourse require knowledge of the context, socially shared attitudes, norms, values and beliefs. As Van Dijk (2011) adds, ‘local meaning conveys many forms of implicit and indirect meaning.’

Within police training other meanings and positionings are encountered which are rooted historically in their own profession and which emerge in discourse that uses words and notions such as discipline, being told what to do and demarcation of role. Fairclough (1995) speaks of as speech communities where language appertains to a particular setting:

Every institutional frame includes formulations and symbolisations of a particular set of ideological representations concluding that particular ways of talking are based on particular ways of seeing. (ibid, 1995:38)
This ‘seeing’ is demonstrated already by the existing police training programmes whose ideological premise one is of ‘do as you are told.’

There is also the question of how words and their meanings affect communication particularly when the words themselves are imbued with situated meaning. Described as ‘models in interaction that consciously or unconsciously guide our actual interactions in the world,’ Gee (2005:60 and 83) explores this, explaining why various words ‘have situated meaning and on what basis can we change them and add new ones?’ He explains that different social and cultural groups have different explanatory theories about why a word can mean different things. In this thesis it is clear that various professionals readily employ the use of certain words to describe, explain or term very specific artefacts, roles or practices associated with teaching and learning for example. Gee outlines how these situated meanings are placed within certain discourse models to readily explain this phenomenon but is quick to limit the efficacy of these ‘explanatory frameworks’ as simply that which people hold unconsciously within to make sense of the world and their experiences. The discourse of police training has a different set of situated meanings for the word ‘mentor’ compared with the discourse of teacher education which I will explore further in a later chapter. But crucially Gee (2005:64) further recognises that situated meanings are assembled out of diverse features and that in context we assemble the features that will constitute the pattern or situated meaning that a word will have in context. Thinking and using language is an active matter of assembling the situated meanings that you need for action in the world. Some discourse models are shared and others are not. For example, my discourse model of how teachers and trainers behave, interact and value is based largely on my shifting professional contexts. Initially as a modern languages teacher, my context and discourse was shared and argued with other linguists. My move into teacher education whilst retaining my status as a linguist teacher was imbued with ideas on what teachers are mainly informed by the discourse of linguists. Finally my move into HE and away from language teaching put me in a context of teacher education informed by my experiences. I was also placed on the periphery of the professional discourse model exercised by the police. I was influenced in my dealings with the professional training of the police academy by what Gee calls prototypical simulations of teacher/trainer driven by my own understanding of what a typical teacher/trainer professional context. In other words ‘discourse models explain relative to the standards of the group why words have the situated meanings they do and fuel their ability to grow more (Gee, 2005:95 and 97). Situated
meaning is fully explored in chapters six and seven and applied to the table of conceptualisations of teacher and trainer.\textsuperscript{18}

\textbf{5.3 Subject-specific pedagogy}

The nature of language, namely words and expressions, are conceptually never static thus conveying meaning when the context of their use and a prior conceptual structure is considered. The data in this research suggests that the misunderstandings between mixed cohorts and the teacher educator is a reason for the dissatisfaction with the programme. This can be shown theoretically in a diagram (see \textbf{Figure 5.1}). This representation stems from British and German research (Ball, 2000; Healey and Jenkins, 2003; Goodson, 2007; Fisher and Webb, 2006; Achtenhagen, 1981; Glöckel, 1990; Klafki, 1994; Klingberg, 1994; Plöger, 1994) which suggests an identifiable ‘language or way’ associated with the teaching and training in specific subjects which in turn suggests a similar linguistic connection with professions. The claim is that in addition to general aspects of teaching and studying, subjects differ according to their special characteristics and this leads to pedagogical decisions that are of a subjektdidaktik character. So the perceptions of teacher or trainer established here are distinctly related to, but different from professional settings. Even more importantly it is purely the pragmatics involved, that is to say, the language in use that is the creator of this perception. There is clearly a relationship between teacher education and the specific profession but it is not as the subjektdidaktik models in \textbf{Figure 5.1} suggest. In fact the intersections are less pronounced if not absent in the training classroom. \textbf{Figure 5.2} suggests my interpretation of this situation which is a significant contributory factor to the inherent confusion and misunderstandings in the teacher education classroom. \textbf{Figure 5.2}, in stark contrast to \textbf{figure 5.1}, shows a strong cohesion between the professional setting and training practices but teacher education is detached and perhaps irrelevant. It appears not to embrace either the practices of the professionals in their settings nor of course any understanding of their subject knowledge. At the same time the professional setting can be said to embrace a pedagogic relationship training and subject matter and, within that setting, language is used to make meaning and sense of what a professional trainer is. So, social interactionism serves to understand and interpret people’s reasons for social action in turn uncovering the meaning systems people use to make sense of their surroundings.

\textsuperscript{18} See table 7.4
Murray et al (2000) argue that the theory allows an appreciation and validation of the concept of perpetual change and the potentially continual creation, modification and change of meanings attributed to social events and experiences. Therefore, professionals in their
respective settings, act based on symbolic meanings they find within a given situation. In Figure 5.2 there is clear interaction between the professional knowledge and skills and the pedagogy that is used to pass on that knowledge. Symbolic interactionism can serve as a theoretical perspective for research to expand the understanding of the teacher education classroom. More importantly it shows how professionals relate to objects and other professionals and how this process of interpretation leads to behaviour in certain situations. Professionals, therefore, interact with the symbols, forming relationships around them. Gee (2005) observes that DA involves asking questions about language and is used to construe aspects of the situation network and how this gives meaning to the language. The goals of their interactions with one another are to create shared meaning. Language is itself a symbolic form, which is used to anchor meanings to the symbols. They develop their self-concepts through interaction and they are influenced by culture and social processes, such as social norms, thus their social structures are worked out through the social interactions with others. Fairclough (1995) adapting Foucault adds to this to suggest that social situations, domains or institutions as having their own order of discourse or an ordered set of discursive practices associated with it. For a professional setting or community of practice (CoP) to be understood in terms of engagement there has to be mutual understanding. Each professional setting is a community of practice which is distinct and distinguished by its own training practices and language in context. Meaning is determined by the positions held by those who use the words. In other words an educator in any setting will develop a concept of their professional status based on the specific context. Teachers and trainers and their roles are complex and identity is created through interaction and expression in specific contexts but is also qualified only by empirical, demonstrable evidence and furthermore by regulative standards ascribed to an idealistic or governmentally acceptable description. I have already mentioned that the generic standards are useful in describing the function of teachers and trainers but their lack of specific contextual focus means that when bringing mixed cohorts together, confusion arises in terms of the diversity of contexts, uses and conceptual structures.

I know there are assessors and tutors and trainers in this group and we carry out similar roles, I imagine. It’s just I don’t know how to appropriate the content of this course with my subject area and the other assessors, tutors and trainers cannot help me there.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 3, 2007)
So the lack of specialist contextual focus is what ultimately will influence the professional discourses since it is accepted that the conception of identity will relate directly to the experiences and the internalised concepts gained in the training setting.

So overarchingly I reiterate; is there scope for improvement in the design and delivery of the teacher education programme? How I am able to make sense of this situation where mixed cohorts not only have problems with communication on specific practices and terminology but who also have issues with the professional statuses? In other words, discourse is created that speaks to the distinct professionally focused view of teacher and resists attention to the multiplicity of meanings or concepts that the word carries. The word teacher, therefore, can be understood in very different ways. In-depth analysis of trainee teachers’ discourse is used to identify the position played out by certain professions.

Substantial reviews and analyses of police training from research activity provided particularly useful contributions to the suggestion that there is subject focused pedagogy in their practice (see Figure 5.3 and chapters seven and eight). The police already have well established training programmes which although not recognised outside the profession, have nonetheless extremely useful attributes. These include prodigious and varied assessment regimes coupled with structured and detailed rationales required to justify teaching and learning methods. Also there is a distinct subjektdidaktik character with which all police trainers are familiar. In other words, the character concerns a contextually focused understanding of how police trainers train others. However, through the data the police have readily declared themselves to be part of a disciplined profession and have ideas and notions to describe this which pervade their professional discourse and influence their understanding of what trainers ‘do’ and what training ‘is’. Discipline is equated with being told what to do and this forms the basis of police training at all levels. Rank and hierarchy feature predominantly within the police, as do the associated concepts of respect for authority and meritocracy and this, influences the conceptualisation of the role of teacher within their professional setting. This conceptualisation is formulated through words and discourse captured during semi-structured interviews, observations and professional discussions. A thorough analysis of words and language in context, therefore, provides insights into the nature and the use of language in social interaction and in socio-specific contexts which is helpful because it produces the conceptualisation of the roles of both teachers and trainers. It also helps to deconstruct identity further through the analyses of educator identities, i.e. tutor, teacher, assessor, and trainer. These designations are used in very diverse settings including
the police and each can have a very different meaning according to context. The questions which fed the research activities were concerned with how professionals from vocational areas conceptualised their new role as ‘teacher or trainer’ and why there was negativity toward the accreditation. Also whether the key to providing a solution to that negativity rested with the fact that mixed cohorts of professionals in a programme of teacher education, should be avoided.

Thus the analytical apparatus helps me to explore ideas of socially constructed identity which is motivated and inspired by the use of human language resting predominantly on the fact that words have contextually specific meaning. The constructed or constructing of identities referred to, concern the designations ascribed to various professionals in educational settings. The issue in this work was the discomfort that professionals feel in assuming a particular designation which is mediated through language derived from professional standards and teacher education modules and requirements.

**Figure 5.3 Subject matter didaktik in police training as an intersection of subject matter and didaktik**

![Diagram showing the intersection of Law and Procedure, Teaching and Training, and Teacher Education]

The data also shows how, when professionals attempt to settle into the requirements of a particular designation, this reconfigures the space that defines those requirements. So once I establish the sources of data, and the methods of data collection, the next stage in the analytical process is to examine theorisations which help scrutinise more deeply how language and professional identity are used to recreate new identities.
The next chapter will focus on how people, (here trainee teachers from vocational settings), interact with the world, on their interrelations with the programme and with other trainee teachers. The methodology is one of a process of exploration for me as I interact with those interacting in the world and how their experiences or perceptual judgements can create ways of seeing particular phenomena. My research, therefore, is motivated by how professionals use texts, dialogue and practice to create their professional identities as teachers. Discourse analyses assist in making sense of the meanings inherent within speech, words and texts particularly for me to understand the phenomena which lead to, and emerge from dialogue. Dialogue is on the one hand a practically useful concept in professional discussion and identity construction where the opening and closing of dialogue is an almost tangible reality that can be empirically measured. On the other hand it is a quasi-transcendental concept implying that an infinite potential for new meaning emerges from the invisible gap between perspectives in dialogue. In subsequent chapters there is an exploration of the relationship between professionals and dialogue. The snippets of conversation primarily between me as researcher/participant observer provide data which produce further meaning making as the professionals struggle to conceptualise themselves as teachers.

5.4 Police Training: the significance of professional subject-specific pedagogy

In order to further clarify the professional context, it is necessary to present an overview of the police training arrangement with regards to its history, ethos and aims. A chief characteristic of the police generally is their craving for objectivity and authority and this is manifested in the nature of their own professional training programmes. They seem to demand of the trainers that they give this training certainties, an almost black and white ethical code within professional teacher education that in turn suggests an all too reliant attitude to the supposed ‘infallibility’ of the training itself. As a researcher, the implications are to interrogate the foundations and paradigmatic assumptions which produce such thought which is broadly a positivist vs. interpretivist mind-set. In brief, the police are also troubled by the ambiguity, generality and competing and conflicting points of view associated with the generic pedagogy of teacher education programmes, the essence of which is to disseminate a multitude of theoretical standpoints and relate these to the professional art of teaching in every professional setting.

The police have had training structures established almost as long as teacher education has, notably through NPT (National Police Training), CENTREX (Central Police Training and development Authority) and now the NPIA (National Police Improvement Agency, 2004)
which have their own accredited qualifications at levels 3 and 4. Courses such as the VRQ4 (Vocationally Related Qualification) provide highly sophisticated training course opportunities and are recognised within the force with appropriate respect. They are vocationally relevant of course and in principal offer two important modes of professional development which are useful in terms of professional standards.

Against the backdrop of professional standards we can infer that it is the regulative nature of these standards that have created the indistinguishable roles of trainer and teacher. If we take function and role as the focus of teacher professional identity then the two professions of police training and mainstream teaching can be easily related. Police trainers actually want a stepping stone to mainstream teaching. One police teacher trainee added further on this:

I wonder what the issues are surrounding the retention of staff when they realise that with externally accepted teaching qualifications their earning potential outside the police might increase.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 5, 2008)

5.5 Language: mutual understanding in the police’s professional community of practice

I have argued how meaning as context and use and as a prior conceptual structure assists mutual understanding effective communication between communities and individuals. The data suggests that misunderstandings and misinterpretations between mixed cohorts and the teacher educator is the main reason for the dissatisfaction with the programme. This can be identified in the nature of the words themselves which are always contextually bound and specific to the professional situation. Gee argues that language simultaneously reflects the way things are (reality) and constructs it to be a certain way (Gee, 2005:97). Figure 5.4 shows how there is clear engagement of police subject matter, training practice and teacher education but how this is itself contextualised by the context of the police community of practice (CoP) (Lave and Wenger, 1991 and Wenger, 1998)\(^\text{19}\). The circle in figure 5.4 is a representation of a community of practice but the circular shape also conjures up associations with protection, security and belonging. Jeremy Bentham’s panoptican referred to by Foucault (1977) was circular and reflected a confined community to symbolise exclusivity constructed within powerful, homogenised frameworks. Fairclough adds to this by identifying

\(^{19}\) CoPs are discussed at length in chapter six, section 6.3.
Discourse as imbricated in social relations and processes where, in this research, individual police professionals make sense of the language and community that surrounds

**Figure 5.4 Illustration of the intersection of police training, subject matter and teacher education**
them, relating this to their existing ideas and ways of thinking. Teacher education is embraced but very clearly on their terms.

5.6 Summary
Subjektdidaktik is a useful, deep and complex process in theorising ideas on subject related teaching and instruction. Just as it recognises distinct subject, or indeed professionally relevant practices in teaching, it also acknowledges the significance of language as the medium of such practice. Consequently it will be shown in chapters seven and eight that police training has distinct practices which involve the use of language in context. In a more general sense, such theorisations on practice can be applied to the diverse professionals encountered in this research but it is with a detailed scrutiny of the police that a deeper elucidation of significance of subject-focused pedagogy has been enabled. However, the consequences of the absence of this focus in teacher education programmes are examined more closely in the next chapter.
Chapter Six: Conceptualising teacher education in professional training: analysis, evidence and argument

6.1 Introduction
In this chapter I will debate and synthesise the theories presented in previous chapters with the available professional literature in order to prepare an in-depth analysis of how teacher education is conceptualised in professional training. I have focused on the views of in-service trainee teachers on their teaching preparation and their identity as teachers, against a background of constant change, drawing on the theoretical framework of discursive analysis to examine the trainee teachers’ concepts of professionalism whose perspective significantly informs this and subsequent chapters. The elements of the framework are intended to provide a conceptual structure for interrogating the multiple meanings of ‘teacher’ particularly as conceived by in-service professionals—first simply to reveal them and suggest their complexities, but then also to chart their origins and implications as they both shape and are shaped by governmental initiatives and professional contexts. These initiatives and influences, in turn, raise the significance of subjektdidaktik theorised in chapter five as promoting discussion and experience of distinct pedagogical practices amongst professionals engaged in teacher education. The participants involved in this study comprised 60 trainee teachers from diverse professional settings whose fields of specialisation consisted of Hairdressing, Police Training, Hospitality and Catering and Health and Social Care. Data were collected through a personally administered questionnaire which included both a structured and an open-ended part with regard to two specific aspects: observation of teaching and conceptions of mentoring. Prominent among the findings, in particular regarding the mentoring aspects of teacher education programmes, is a perception of it granting too little focus on subject or professionally focused pedagogy. The component of the programme perceived as most important to the trainee teacher’s role is subject pedagogy expressed by the trainee teachers as ‘knowledge gained through opportunities to discuss and experience how to apply pedagogical knowledge to their professional subject matter.’ (Cohorts 1-3 2004-7) This was theorised in chapter five as subjektdidaktik and will be further argued as a necessary future component of teacher education programmes. The core issues centre on developing an understanding of how trainee teachers conceptualise the term ‘teacher’, how language and professional contexts are pivotal in this process and how subjektdidaktik has implications in the construction and delivery of teacher education programmes.
6.2 Teacher professionalism
The initial chapters of this thesis propose new features to the study of teacher education, namely an evaluation of the diverse conceptualisations of teacher leading to an analysis influenced by symbolic interactionism (SI) and discourse analysis (DA). Language, as argued in chapter two, is an essential aspect in social interaction where meaning is constructed and created and the links between language, discourses and professional conceptualisations are central to this thesis. The analysis reveals the importance of subjektdidaktik in helping to illustrate how professional in-service trainee teachers’ understanding of the term ‘teacher’ can be articulated. Drawing on the work of Fairclough (1995), Gee (2005) and Van Dijk (2011) it is argued how this relationship is determined by self-concepts systematically developed through interactions which are professionally and more importantly contextually bound. Teacher professionalism as understood by trainee teachers undertaking teacher education programmes is predicated on a perceived need to promote much stronger links between subject matter and pedagogy and in turn positively influence their future development. Numerous suggestions by them point, for instance, to a desire for increased homogeneity of the cohorts by profession or subject thereby strengthening an argument for opportunities to develop their subject or professional pedagogies. An opportunity to explore the police as a professional homogenous group follows in subsequent chapters but to prepare and set the scene I must present arguments and debates around the notions of professionalism and teacher professionalism and their particular significance for these diverse professional trainee teachers.

Before I concentrate on competing discourses of teacher professionalism, I will offer a brief review of historical perspectives of professionalism around specialised knowledge and autonomy specifically. Professions are usually understood as occupations with special statuses as experts or disciplinary authority as with lawyers and doctors often as a result of extensive training and licence to practice. Hodkinson (1995), Hargreaves and Goodson (1996) and Goodson (2007 and 2010) have provided relevant, substantive, traditional and contemporary perspectives on professionalism, knowledge and competence which have resonances with my own experiences as a professional teacher and which are crucial if one is to make sense of the data presented in this thesis. The latter acknowledge two prevailing views on what constitutes professional knowledge in a teaching context building on the earlier work of Fullar and Brown (1973): first, as ‘something that teachers learn from researchers or something they construct with the assistance of researchers’ (1996:187).
Secondly they accentuate the relevance of ‘stages through which teachers pass to enable a better understanding of the types of knowledge that would be beneficial at a certain period in a teacher’s development’ (1996:188). They define professionalism in terms of shared attributes, theoretical and practical knowledge acquired through the attainment of qualifications and statuses (Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996). The characteristics of this traditional discourse include having specialised knowledge and self-regulation, therefore, according to them; professions consist of adherents who are trained, expert and subject to peer appraisal and approval enhancing the status of the professional group. Crucially Goodson (2007) identifies the development of teachers’ professional knowledge as theoretically informed practice amongst professionals engaged in critical discussion. Hodkinson (1998) describes professionalism as being prescribed by detailed standards of performance, determined by lead bodies arguing that teachers are to be competent and above all flexible and describing them as technicians to be controlled. Furthermore he parodies the influences of technical rationalism describing good teachers as ‘someone who works uncritically within whatever contexts are determined for her/him, who strives to achieve targets determined for her/him by others, with resources provided(or not) by others and in ways increasingly prescribed by others’ (1998:200). Juxtaposing two dimensions of teacher professionalism, he highlights as pivotal teacher development wherein trainee teachers are empowered with a responsibility for their own development. He points conclusively to a form of professionalism which can lift teachers and trainers to higher levels of expertise arguing for ‘different level of professionalism to reflect the varying complexities of teaching’ (1998:206). In all, this is indicative of professionalism as a codified expectation which attempts to replicate established professions on two fronts: of professional standards or codes and of specialised knowledge. The introduction of professional standards for all teachers suggests a return to an ideationally viewed concept of a single identity of teacher within a restricted notion of professionalism based on competencies. Thus professionalism is viewed as a pedagogical endeavour concerned with the quality of teaching whose symbolic strength is measured in terms of acquiring a set of competencies through performance related criteria. Government policy seeks to reprofessionalise the sector (DfES, 2003b and 2004; Armitage, 2007; Lingfield, 2012) and this opens up the concepts of professional teacher to multiple interpretations.

20 See appendix 1.

21 Chapter one, sections 1.1, 1.3 and 1.6 introduced this shift in teacher education.
6.3 Conceptualisations of teacher professionalism
The literature on teacher professionalism moves in many directions, and criticisms emerge from a variety of ideological positions. Of all the writings encountered, one author and critic predominantly offers an extensive review of the many directions and positions. Jocelyn Robson (1998, 2006)\(^2\) has significantly contributed to the literature by examining four conceptions of teacher professionalism namely: professionalism as discourse, professional qualifications, teachers’ work particularly concerning professional updating and lastly communities and identities as elaborated in the writings of Hoyle, Wenger, Boud and Walker. According to Robson, Hoyle offers a conceptualisation of professionalism in early work identifying and focusing on a definition of professionalism as strategies and rhetoric employed by members of an occupation seeking to improve status and conditions. He further suggests a series of hypotheses around professionalisation based on this definition whose critique sets in motion new thinking around two related strands: a concern, on the one hand, with status and increased credentials and, on the other, with increasing the knowledge and skills of its adherents. A further notion of professionalism is also captured drawing on Hoyle and John (1995) and Freidson (2001) as an occupation based on the impartial application of specialist knowledge and expertise. The professionals involved in this research have professional backgrounds whose ethos reflects these definitions. The importance of subject knowledge and expertise is defined by the requirement to possess appropriate qualifications. However it is their biggest concern when attempting to relate this to teacher education:

I can already ‘teach’ my subject so why do I need to do it differently? Indeed how do I do it differently? This never really gets explained. (Trainee Teacher Cohort 3, 2007)

Lave and Wenger (1991) offer a conceptualisation known as ‘Communities of Practice’ proposing a sociocultural theory of learning to explain how context generates meaning and identity and differing as a recent phenomenon based on groups of professionals formed through mutual and shared conducts characterised as legitimate peripheral participation. Professional identity is not, in this theoretical perspective, a stable or static notion. Instead Wenger (1998) proposes that:

- Identity is fundamentally temporal.

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\(^2\) Jocelyn was a teacher educator at Garnett College when I was training as a teacher in the late eighties and she has subsequently had considerable experience of training professionals which has culminated in research papers and books on professionalism crucially focused on post-school education.
• The work of identity is on-going.
• Because it is constructed in social contexts, the temporality of identity is more complex than a linear notion of time.
• Identities are defined with respect to the interaction of multiple convergent and divergent trajectories.

In theoretical terms, practices, which serve to define a community, are constituted by and constitute the participants. The community is dynamic and the members are developing continually as practices evolve. Communities do not have a set of practices set in stone, which new members acquire and perform. Rather, in performance the practices are reconstituted and in new membership the practices are developed. Wenger (1998) identifies different forms of trajectory, which provide interesting characterisations:

Table 6.1 Wenger’s Trajectories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trajectories</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peripheral trajectories</td>
<td>Trajectories which do not lead to full participation but do involve identity shifts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inbound trajectories</td>
<td>Trajectories which suggest the goal of full participation, even when the participant is peripheral in the beginning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insider trajectories</td>
<td>Even when a full participant identity can shift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boundary trajectories</td>
<td>Those which span a number of communities of practice, linking them and brokering practices with them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outbound trajectories</td>
<td>Trajectories which clearly enable participation in a future community of practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In teacher education programmes, trainee teachers are joining new communities and in theory, by using Wenger’s identifications of identity as a referent, they are legitimate peripheral participants in those new communities. A community of practice is conceived as a set of relations among persons, activity and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Yet the term community has created confusion due to its perceived meaning amongst professionals and the change in meaning attributed to its proponents. A case in point would be the identification of an important conceptual confusion in Lave and Wenger’s (1991) text, and Wenger’s (1998)
subsequent work. Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2004) argue that there are two different meanings in the text, and that each confuses the other. On the one hand, Lave and Wenger (1991) are arguing that learning is fundamentally a social act. That is, we cannot learn without belonging to something i.e. a community of practice. In their terms, ‘A community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge’ (1991:98). However, on the other hand, the term ‘community of practice’ is also used in a narrower sense, best captured in Wenger’s (1998) later definition which explains the community as mutual engagement, joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire of actions amongst its adherents. These two meanings share many properties but they are different: Whilst the first is useful, the second is one I have found to be more so in my attempt to understand the conceptualisation of teacher education in professional training. It offers a thorough understanding of how professionals are socialised into a community. The concept is again more recently redefined by its author as ‘Groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis’ (Wenger, McDermott and Snyder, 2002: 4). In terms of discursive practice and social interaction amongst professionals, Van Dijk (2011) proposes the notions of ‘mental models’ and ‘event models’ in which the latter are discourses interpreted as coherent, relative to the mental models that users have about the events or facts referred to. In other words models of discourse which require knowledge of the world, of socially shared attitude, values, norms and beliefs. He further argues that social situations require the cognitive interface to transform social structures into structures of relevance called contexts. An IfL position paper from 2009 debates how communities in the sense that echoes Wenger’s second and third definitions coupled with dialogue can strengthen professionals as professionals:

Commitment to professional practice within a profession is not only personal but an obligation to the profession itself. Teachers need to develop communities of professional practice, extending beyond their employing organisations where they can engage in developmental dialogues about the profession.

Finally, Boud and Walker (1998) in a succinct introduction to the notion, use the early work of Schon to promote reflective practice as a key component of teacher professionalism which is viewed not only as influenced by context but also a transformative, shifting process. Introduced by Schon, reflective practice involves thoughtfully considering your own experiences as you make the connection between knowledge and practice, under the guidance of an experienced professional within your discipline (Schon, 1996). Schon had previously
argued (1983) that the model of professional training that relied upon filling up students with knowledge then sending them out into the world of practice was inappropriate. A reflective practice model would enable trainee teachers within a discipline to compare their own practices with those of experienced practitioners, thus leading to development and improvement. Boud and Walker (1998) note various shortcomings which I view as currently relevant. They criticise:

- Reflection processes with no link to conceptual frameworks.
- Failure to encourage students to challenge accepted teaching practices.

Boud and Walker are also critical that the level of personal disclosure required might be beyond the capacity of some trainee teachers. They point out that ‘it is common for reflection to be treated as if it were an intellectual exercise - a simple matter of thinking rigorously. However, reflection is not solely a cognitive process; emotions are central to all learning’ (1998: 194). During this research, reflective practice enabled a trainee teachers’ construct of teacher professionalism derived through professional discussions23 (Cohorts 1-6) an example of which is given here:

- the use of skills based on theoretical knowledge
- education and training in those skills certified by examination
- a code of professional conduct oriented towards the ‘public good’
- a powerful professional organisation

These features are correlated and tabulated overleaf:

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23 An integral component of classroom discussion on teacher education programmes.
Table 6.2 A conceptualisation of teacher professionalism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Professionalism foci</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Trainee teachers’ Concept of Teacher Professionalism</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social construct with assistance from researchers</td>
<td>Hargreaves and Goodson (1996)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications/Trained/Expert/Status/Professional Codes</td>
<td>Turner (1990)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IFL (2007)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialised knowledge and self-regulation</td>
<td>Hoyle and John (1995)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friedson (2001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject discipline</td>
<td>Shulman (1987), Lenze (1996)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community of practice</td>
<td>Lave and Wenger (1991, 1998)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexive practice in action and on action</td>
<td>Boud and Walker (1998)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data suggests that the teacher education programmes experienced in this research do little to create opportunities to develop distinct subject-focused pedagogical knowledge and skills. The existence and requirement to become *dually* professional in a setting where the first occupational identity is prioritised over the second can result in confusion. Table 6.1 clearly indicates how trainee teachers recognise the importance of qualifications, communities of practice (however loosely meant), reflexivity and specialised knowledge as essential in their respective professional identities. Despite this, the situation renders the latter component in a state of flux: shared professional knowledge about what constitutes specialised pedagogical knowledge and skills is understood by each respective profession in their specific contexts, but the relationship and application of teacher education pedagogy and professional practice remains divided. Consequently the concept of teacher is as diverse as the professions themselves. Robson (1998), for instance, found that FE\textsuperscript{24} teachers prioritised their former professional identity over that of being a teacher, because, as she later argued, that previous experience provides the credibility required for their new teaching role (2004:187). This emphasis on their former vocation or dual professionalism affects their perception of their

\textsuperscript{24} Further Education.
role as a teacher and how they relate to the teacher education they will have to undertake. Their role often goes unrecognised outside a sector, historically and contemporarily still described by some as *polycontextual* (Clow, 2001; Lucas, 2004; Gewirtz et al, 2008) conceding also that a focus on the professionalism and pedagogy of in-service trainee teachers continues to remain largely unresearched. Their backgrounds, qualifications and experience are as diverse as the broad ranging curriculum might indicate. As Clow argues, ‘If their characteristics are compared to those characteristics of a profession, based on the medical/law model, as described by Millerson (1964) then there seems to be little evidence for arguing that FE teachers belong to a profession. There is no guarantee that an FE teacher has any theoretical knowledge about teaching, although they may have theoretical knowledge about their original profession/vocation/subject (2001:409). She further points out that, ‘there remain features of FE teaching that are not comfortably described by any one theory’ (2001:416). Could the diversity of types of professionalism acknowledged in this research by trainee teachers be a reason for the lack of agreement on the meaning of becoming a professional teacher?

6.4 A personal perspective
The participants in this study and I regarded ourselves as professionals and recognised and valued the significance of applied pedagogical subject knowledge as key to this identity. However, the process necessary to implement this remains absent:

> I can see how important the generic stuff is but I really want someone to teach me how to teach my subject. I am left to apply the generics\(^\text{25}\) to my subject.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 1, 2004)

So, before I concentrate specifically on the significance of generic pedagogy and professional subject knowledge, I turn to a personal experience to show how the notion of teacher professionalism has affected my own thinking and involvement in teacher education. Having been introduced to the relevance of teacher education in social inquiry in the early 2000s, my involvement in teacher education and the remembrance of my own experience of teacher education, led me to pursue specific research questions and collect data around the following: participants in mixed cohorts demonstrate conflict in professional identity, create conflict and

\(^{25}\) Generic pedagogy had become the main feature of teacher education for the Further Education (FE) sector following the 1992 Education Act concerning Universities amongst whose aims it was to provide teacher education in FE across the board. Prior to 1992 the main providers were Bolton Institute, Huddersfield Polytechnic, Wolverhampton Polytechnic and Garnett College. Some provision was made at the University of Manchester also.
consternation in the classroom, and ascribe contextual value to objects and symbols that appear to derive substance from respective professional affiliations and identities. Pivotal to my thesis is the realisation that context refers to environments and dialogic spaces in which new meanings and concepts around professionalism, i.e. contextual values associated with teacher education, were discursively being produced. During an eight year period which also saw my professional transition from FE teacher to HE lecturer, I became increasingly aware and observant of the cohorts of trainee teachers from various professional settings acknowledged by Robson (2006) and Armitage (2007). More importantly and, as previously outlined in chapter five wherein I made use of Gee’s (1990) analogies of professional groups, I had previously been trained as a linguist with other linguists by an expert who could authoritatively promote and facilitate effective dialogue and discussion around theoretical pedagogy and its distinct application to the teaching of languages. Ultimately as a teacher, I learned to speak, think and act like a languages teacher and I benefitted from professional cohesion with other linguists and a connection with those whom I taught. The trainee teachers involved in this research require this cohesion which I am unable to provide. Now I am teacher of generic pedagogy without first-hand experience and knowledge of the application of the diverse professional subject knowledge bases to teaching. Indeed for the first time I feel professionally disconnected from the increasingly diverse and mixed cohorts. This thesis concerns the challenges of how to bridge this gap and promote more meaningful and professionally focused teacher education through a more robust understanding and conceptualisation of teacher education in professional training i.e. through the relationship between subject knowledge and generic pedagogy. So for the sake of clarity and conciseness I will avoid a full autobiographical description in favour of a more explicit correlation and analysis of this experience with a focus on dual professionalism, language and subject pedagogy in order to begin an examination of how in this research teacher education is being conceptualised in professional training.

6.5 Dual professionalism
Over the past decade a new perspective of teacher professionalism has emerged. Generally this perspective is a consequence of governmental influence (DfES, 2003b and 2004) whose rhetoric continues to support the notion of professionalism as being advanced through

26 See chapter two, section 2.4.
27 See chapter five section 5.4.
28 Expert teacher and expert subject specialist in this context.
professional bodies which, through standards and codes, are more explicit about what is expected of trainee teachers. Notwithstanding my thesis concerns how this influence more specifically continues to impact on professionals engaged in teacher education as trainee teachers. Labelled by its advocates as ‘dual professionalism’ (IfL, 2002), this perspective focuses on a variety of discourses of professional practice that lead to conceptualisations which stress the salience of disciplinary knowledge over pedagogic practice or at the very least the need to bring parity of importance to each.

As a representative of an institution that responds and contributes to education policy which promotes subject-based professional learning, and which provides a supportive professional community, my institution is a critical context for me in re-defining teacher professionalism in terms of affirming the relevance of subjektidaktik which promotes and strengthens the connect between disciplinary knowledge and pedagogy. The previous paragraph approximates the definitions of dual professionalism in the context of this research offered in the first instance by Kennedy (2007) and secondly very recently by Graal (2012):

While there is no overall agreement as to exactly what constitutes a profession, there are certain key aspects which are commonly cited as being likely to pertain to an occupational group seeking claim to professional status. These generally include reference to specialist knowledge, autonomy and responsibility. Professionalism, therefore, implies that such characteristics are evident in an individual’s work. (Kennedy, 2007:04)

And

In the past decade the sector has seen the inauguration of a professional body, the Institute for Learning, and teachers and trainers from a wide range of academic but more often vocational backgrounds make up its membership; this dual professionalism is one focus which offers good working definitions of what professionalism might mean in the Lifelong Learning Sector (and beyond) and how continuing professional development (CPD) is central to professional formation for all teachers. (Graal, 2012:154)

In more specific but contentious terms Taubman (2013:18) writing very recently from a UCU 29 perspective elaborates on this interpretation:

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29 Union of Colleges and Universities.
This puts forward the view that a lecturer possesses two forms of professional expertise: around their subject and around the practice of teaching. However, this has been criticised as an artificial distinction between two interdependent aspects of teacher professionalism (Race and Pickford, 2007). It is also vital to understand how the balance between the two aspects of dual professionalism will vary between sectors and roles.

These definitions are central to an understanding of the debates around dual professionalism that have spawned a plethora of interpretations and applications which revolve around the inter-relationships of teacher educators and professional trainee teachers. With Taubman’s ‘artificial distinction’ in mind i.e. of generic pedagogy and subject expertise, this section traces the impact of dual professionalism upon professional academic experiences. These are mentioned to illustrate how the notion serves as an understanding of an evolving teacher education context and how it motivates teacher educators and trainee teachers to confront and debate the complexity associated with it. I will elaborate on the evolution of the notion by critically examining the research literature which has offered opportunities to explore essential new insights and in-depth analyses. Principally I sought to identify how certain negative attitudes, behaviours and perceptions around teacher education mediated through language and professional practice were adopted by professional trainers engaged in teacher education when the structure of the programmes initially appeared not to support them. In brief, my argument is that the neglect applied to one of the two aforementioned and distinctly interdependent aspects of trainee teachers’ professionalism has brought about the need to analyse the negative effects during the period of this research. Chapters one and five of this thesis argue how trainee teachers’ concepts of teacher are strongly connected to their profession and how developing as teachers require deeper understanding of this crucial aspect. If teacher educators and programmes are to strengthen the tie between university/college and professional teacher education, in effect bridging the perceived disconnect of college/university learning and the realities of the professional training classroom, then acknowledging these divergent perspectives is a first step in providing transformative learning experiences for professional trainee teachers. To that end, I have made use of empirical research into in-service trainee teachers’ experiences to explore

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30 See Robson (2006:14-15 and 28-29) for an excellent review of the history and variety of teacher education programmes.

31 Each programme must incorporate opportunities to meet the professional standards in subject knowledge (Domain C) (see appendix 1).
conceptions of ‘teacher’. Through a discussion of these conceptions in subsequent sections, the hope is to further the debate about ways to provide a more thorough, reciprocal appreciation of the needs of teacher educators and trainee teachers. In placing in-service trainee teachers with mentors, teacher education as an institution signals the status of mentors as experts of practice, which, as identified in government reports remains problematic (DfES, 2003b, 2004, IfL, 2009 and DfE 2012). Principally and simultaneously they argue for a change in the form and function of teacher preparation as best based on a strengthened or redefined professionalism. The concept of a redefined professionalism accordingly recognises teacher’s work as being based on specialised knowledge and skills, expecting all teachers to have the ability to use them appropriately in a variety of contexts.

So in terms of teacher professionalism, certain literary sources choose to focus on assumptions about the importance of the subject discipline (Schulman, 1987; Lenze 1996) which I review and debate later in section 6.9 providing historical references to its relationship with generic pedagogy. Some like Race and Pickford (2007) oppose the notion of dual professionalism as formed on a false premise or artificial distinction associated with an unsound assumption that it implies a simplistic view of the role of the professional teacher. They acknowledge the importance of expertise and experience around subject matter but carefully stress how this plays only a small part in helping students to learn. Their main assumptions centre on the autonomy of the professional trainee teacher who it is claimed can, with guidance, training and mentoring, readily marry or apply the art of teaching with their subject specialism. Yet there is no reference to the processes of this application. Other sources argue that it obscures and diminishes a wider understanding and appreciation of the contextual diversity inherent within teacher education. Simmons and Thompson (2007) direct the processes of pedagogical application of subject matter toward the mentor drawing heavily from the negative aspects of several Ofsted reports and Government papers (Ofsted, 2003, 2006 and DfES, 2004) which speak principally of inadequate provision and lack of support as constraining trainee teachers in their potential as professionals. Fisher and Webb (2006) highlight these tensions by outlining a theoretical trajectory of what it means to be a subject specialist arguing that the contextual diversity of subject specialists requires substantial support through on-line communities of practice. Conversely Tedder and Lawy’s work (2009) relates these issues and tensions to a misconception of what mentoring is and by drawing specifically on the work of Colley et al (2003) they recognise how individuals’ relationships with the mentor are crucial implying a physical presence and individually focused guidance. I
will argue in sections 6.6 and 6.9 how important it is to think about why the concept of discipline-specific pedagogy has gained ground recently. The governmental initiatives and recommendations have led to a rethinking of the nature of what a professional teacher is and it is into this very fluid structure that trainee teachers enter.

6.6 Towards an understanding of dual professional knowledge and skills
Now I intend to advance a deeper understanding of dual professionalism in a teacher education context and at the same time convey that understanding to teacher educators interested in the training of professionals. With reference to appropriate academic literature and governmental policy I propose a focus on two very distinct but alternative views advanced by each and the essential premises and the contrasting assumptions about dual professionalism argued through these texts. The first view argues principally for a fuller and more detailed scrutiny of the relationship between generic teaching skills and subject knowledge (Kleickmann et al, 2012; Hollins, 2011; Ploughright and Barr, 2010; Lucas and Unwin, 2009) and the second argues the notion as a necessary if not flawed means to reprofessionalise the workforce (Hoyle and John, 1995; IfL, 2002; IfL, 2009; DfE, 2012).

Kleickman et al (2012) have very recently undertaken cross sectional comparative analyses of maths teachers’ development of professional content knowledge around subject matter. Their research is deeply premised on the distinctions between content knowledge (CK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) viewed respectively as ‘teacher’s understanding of the subject matter taught and the knowledge needed to make subject matter accessible to students’ and that ‘this knowledge is at the heart of their professional competence’ (2012:91). Drawing on earlier sociological research they also argue that teacher’s professional knowledge and belief are significantly shaped by their former experiences. Thus they conclude a direct correlation between CK and PCK regarding CK as the necessary prerequisite for the development of PCK. More crucially they draw evidence from several studies to conclude that ‘teaching experience needs to be coupled with thoughtful reflection on instructional practice’ (2012:92) which echoes Boud and Wallis’ (1998) attributes of teacher professionalism.

Hollins argues for a holistic practice-based approach to preparing trainee teachers in a school context arguing that the essential, skills and knowledge are premised on ‘using academic knowledge to interpret and translate knowledge into pedagogical practices’ (2011:395). Quoting Grossman et al’s (2009) cross-professional perspective on teaching practice, she
stresses the importance of three concepts for understanding pedagogies of practice namely representation, decomposition and approximation. The second is salient in my thesis and is described as the essential skill of ‘the breaking down of practice into its constituent parts for the purposes of teaching and learning’ (2011:396). Subjektidaktik processes require critical reflection on how subject matter becomes taught matter so the perspective of decomposition must be understood in terms of a combination of subject content and subject pedagogy (see Table 6.3 and appendices 6 and 8). This is further argued as essential in terms of ‘the deep understanding of the organising ideas for a discipline; domain specific reasoning and practices; the processes for participating in a disciplinary based discourse community’ (2011:397). Furthermore, Healey and Jenkins (2003:1) situate ‘working within and with disciplinary communities’ centrally within the processes of educational development. They placed their focus on the academic development ‘of teaching in the disciplines’ and suggest that the ‘view that teaching that is generic reduces it to the technical matter of performance … something you lay on top of your real work, unconnected to the disciplinary community’ (ibid, 2003:3). Thus the significance of subjektidaktik is rendered stronger in terms of identifying disciplinary context and subject decomposition as pivotal in the process of providing more meaningful experiences in teacher education.

Ploughright and Barr (2012) further the argument around domain specific practice as a distinct tension between vocational experience and its relationship with being a professional teacher. They question the lack of applied theoretical pedagogical knowledge and an agreed specialised knowledge base of teaching in a sector which ‘draws on several different traditions and cultures from a variety of industries and occupations from which its teachers are drawn’ (2012:10). They refer to the ‘inextricable links between subject matter and the way in which it is taught’ (ibid:10) but provide no solution to how this may help in-service trainee teacher to confront this issue bar a recognition of the fractures that exist in the sector and a call for a more integrated professionalism based on phronesis.32 Where are the opportunities for distinct opportunities to ‘decompose’ the knowledge of the subject and the appropriate pedagogies?

Finally Lucas and Unwin’s (2009) work concern studies of in-service trainee teachers in colleges of FE in England exploring the deficiencies in training (2009:426) which I have also

32 Wise practical reasoning, based on judgement and wisdom, and that accords with the centrality of context and the reflective nature of the activity of teaching (2012:1).
identified earlier in this thesis around professional subject matter and pedagogy. They acknowledge the issues around trainee teachers’ attempts to connect the theoretical and practical elements of their teacher education. They too draw on research which highlights the significance of the cultural dimension in relation to subjects and their related occupational practices arguing a culture whose workforce identity i.e. teachers’ identity is ‘primarily tied to their subject or occupational expertise’ (2009:426).

Table 6.3 Development of subjektdidaktik procedures for Teaching and Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matters relating to the teaching content of subject teaching</th>
<th>Matters relating to subject specific teaching processes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>educational purpose of a subject</td>
<td>learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>course or subject specification</td>
<td>teaching structure and process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject matter and content</td>
<td>teaching methodology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.7 Mentoring and the transmission of disciplinary knowledge and skills

The transmission of disciplinary or subject knowledge within teacher education contexts is the responsibility of a work-based mentor whose role is to provide professionally focused pedagogical support in the respective professional setting. Thus the notion of trainee teachers becoming dual professionals rests firmly with the expectation that mentors would also be dually expert in their fields. Dual professionalism also incorporates the conviction that mentoring is largely a socially and contextually specific practice (Cunningham, 2005). Cunningham (2005:25) has also posited a very useful definition of what constitutes a good mentor:

Mentors are skilled, experienced teachers who are involved in guiding, counselling and supporting trainee teachers in practical ways. They are able to offer both a role model and essential information on a college’s learners, its curriculum, its organisational structure and its policies, at least those relating to learning and teaching.

The mentor should provide advice on practical matters, opportunities for reflection (Rudney and Guillaume, 2005) and clear advice in a constructive environment (Portner, 2003; Ensher et al, 2004; Carroll, 2005). During the period of this research some trainee teachers were encouraged, whilst in their work place, to reflect and regularly discuss work with a mentor although this was usually unofficial or informal. The data showed that the majority of trainee
teachers stated no provision or help was available, one admitting to not having asked for it and a few to admitting to being aware of only occasional and sporadic contact with mentors:

My mentor was always busy and could only support the odd fleeting meeting and even then I felt I was interfering so eventually I just stopped. I have my certificate to teach now but I can’t say that I fully understand the relationship between the generic content and my subject.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 2, 2006)

The next section builds upon the significance of mentoring and several of the authors’ efforts mentioned in the previous section, but rather than concentrate on the writers per se and more important, to support the argument of this thesis, I concern myself with two distinct effects of dual professionalism gleaned from their work. These are representative of particular theoretical directions in which I am interested, namely professional practice as discourse and Hoyle and John’s (1995) notion of professionalism as specialised knowledge.

6.8 Professional practice as discourse
There is a growing body of literature on discourse analysis and specifically its relationship to educational development. Interest has largely been stimulated by the work of Fairclough, Gee and Van Dijk. I have already provided substantial references to the theories espoused by each in previous chapters with particular emphasis on language in context. In this section I will look at their work on context from two perspectives, the first of which is guided by data from this research linked to professional conceptions of ‘teacher’ and the second by the structure of teacher education programmes in terms of subject-focused pedagogy. In theoretical terms, how does discourse help reveal professionalism? What particular features of teacher education are obstacles to its advancement? Prior to a fuller exploration it is first necessary to suggest that any professional identity construction amongst trainee teachers involved in this research remains diverse. In attempting answers to the questions it is important to examine the nature and status of professional knowledge defined through the affinities and discourses between trainee teachers’ perceptions of themselves and the close relationship to the knowledge and skills they possess. This prompts me to examine trainee teacher identity formation as articulated through talk, professional interaction and self-presentation. It also highlights the situatedness of the self and of identity (Simpson, 2002; Gee, 2005) i.e.

33 Chapter three, section 3.2 on Discourse (big D) and discourse (little d).
professional narratives developed through communication in response to new situations, resources and practices. Therefore, it is important for me to explore how trainee teachers attach great importance to their professional status, its conventions and practices and how words carry meaning which is attributed to this affiliation. Briefly, it is useful to first examine how words simultaneously mean many things. Discourses, according to Gee, exist and work to get people and things recognised in certain ways. A useful analogy of his is to refer to Discourses as KITS, in other words ‘situated meaning grounded in actual practices and experiences’ (2005:95). Gee’s main claim is that situated meanings do not reside ready made in individual’s minds but are negotiated through communicative, social interactions which highlight an important reciprocity between language and reality. Using a word or phrase carries an assumption that the locuteur means what they say and that others will understand the accepted meaning. I want to propose that words and expressions adopted by professionals in this research are ‘layered’ or have ‘multiple layers’ of meaning which are recognised and imbued with meaning in specific contexts (see Table 6.4). Each sign and its relationship with the signifier and signified has meaning in context. For example, if I take the word ‘storyboard’ and I ask the reader to reflect on what this conjures up: i.e. its meaning to you. You may think of directors and film sets and a process of outlining a production but it is unlikely that you would gain the same extent of meaning that a director would. Their experiences, histories and contexts immediately imbue this word with deeper meaning and significance. DA is concerned with the content of speech in social interaction and emphasises how speech is employed to support (and repress) alternate accounts of social action and behaviour. These deeper meanings and significances i.e. layers constitute, as Fairclough (1995) argues, ideological discursive formations theorising that institutions construct subjects ideologically and discoursally thereby connecting words as indicators of sociocultural processes and relations. In other words language in context constitutes the structures of perspectival reality. For the purpose of this section I shall refer to meaning as layered to illustrate the processes involved in discursive practice. A central element is that trainee teachers explore the practice of teaching for its underlying professional meanings and how these meanings relate to their own structures of personal meanings. Such an exploration involves the shaping and testing of personally-meaningful action in professional practice and commitment to meanings found to be valid and practicable constitutes the core of professional activity. Closer examination and

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34 As theorised in chapter five section 5.2.
35 This does not suggest layers as if a word exists and meanings pile up sequentially or linearly on this word to give it meaning.
deconstruction of expressions of professional discourse amongst trainee teachers can be viewed as the point at which professional learning has optimum potential to influence the formation of teacher identities and what this can imply for their future professional development. It can also emanate from competing professional views, in this case, associated with professional affiliations and experiences.

**Table 6.4 List of terms with layered meaning**:  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>test</th>
<th>exam</th>
<th>trial</th>
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<tr>
<td>inquiry</td>
<td>judgement</td>
<td>evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practical</td>
<td>essay</td>
<td>study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demonstration</td>
<td>journal</td>
<td>diary</td>
</tr>
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</table>

These arise from strong commitments to professional identities, to fostering professionally focused learning and development, and to self-development or learning as a professional:

I can see how important the generic stuff is but I really want someone to teach me how to teach my subject. I am left to apply the generics to my subject of English and with only scant guidance from my mentor this is very confusing.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 1, 2004)

My tutor really tried to make all this theory make sense for me but I would still prefer more direct instruction on how to teach my subject or at least how the theory is applied specifically to my subject area.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 2, 2005)

My mentor was always busy and could only support the odd fleeting meeting and even then I felt I was interfering so eventually I just stopped. I have my certificate to teach now but I can’t say that I fully understand the relationship between the generic content and my subject.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 2, 2006)

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36 We don’t just name things, we conceptualise them! (Van Dijk, 2011) In other words, context, use and conceptual structure give meaning to each.
I wish that we could have formalised the mentoring process somehow to include subject pedagogy and with other trainee teachers doing my subject.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 2, 2006)

I am concerned that my mentor is not really fully aware of the commitment needed in the role and also how he is going to cover everything I need to know about teaching my subject.

(Trainee Cohort 3, 2007)

As Gee (1992) in (Gee, 2005:67) states: ‘thinking and using language is an active matter of assembling the situated meanings you need for action in the world’ which are routinised by the practices of the Discourse to which professionals belong. The mentor in these instances is equated with another kind of ‘teacher’ whose job it is to impart knowledge on subject content and its associated pedagogy. This also precludes a notion of the trainee teacher as a passive recipient of this knowledge rather than a pro-active contributor which is argued as a simulation which foregrounds certain aspects of ‘teacher’ that can be taken as important, salient or prototypical. Gee (2005:85) expands further on this; the descriptor is actually a ‘total or partially unconscious explanatory storyline connected to a word or concept’ and as emerged through the data, this storyline varied amongst in-service trainee teachers according to professional context. As a result, the generic focus and contextual diversity created confusion as the mixed cohorts struggled to make it apply to their subjects:

There are so many instances where I ask for clarification on what something means and I get no helpful response. It’s not my tutor’s fault that he doesn’t know my subject area but it is really confusing and has meant that I am spending more time seeking explanations and clarifications than getting on with the work. An example was one assessment criterion which required an example of records of students’ attainments. Everyone in my cohort talked about mark books, records of achievement and mark transcripts. We don’t have them in Hairdressing or we call them something else.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 3, 2007)

Difficulty also arises in appreciating the importance of the above examples of discourse. These statements are in fact complex in their creation, which, when deconstructed, can be

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37 See chapter three, section 3.2.
linked to prototypical simulations in the mind (Gee, 2005). In other words, there is a distinct leaning toward instructionist pedagogy (direct instruction, teach my subject, specific application) and they articulate a certain perception of what it means to provide enabling, constructive, professionally focused dialogue. There is inference of professional practice associated with observations of practice and an emphasis on demonstrable professional skills. However the lack of specialist knowledge and context awareness is considered detrimental by trainee teachers who commented specifically on the lack of opportunity to discuss and experience subject specialist approaches i.e. subjektdidaktik.

Developing a creative and reflectively critical approach to subject pedagogy is deemed as both a useful and desired enhancement to the teacher education programme to address and minimise tensions and to build new theories to guide practice. However, it is clear from the data that a lack of opportunity to engage in subject-focused discussion and build practical rather than generic and theoretical expertise, directly impacted on the desire to express such understanding. So how can this be developed in teacher education programmes?

6.9 Specialist knowledge and expertise
There are numerous detailed studies of the way teachers develop their professional expertise and identities which focus primarily on governmental initiatives around curriculum development and accreditation (Robson, 2006; Clow, 2001; Lucas, 2004; Avis, 2007). Some also highlight the importance of the socio-cultural dimension in relation to subjects and their associated occupational practices (Hodkinson and James 2003; Bathmaker and Avis, 2005; Lucas, 2007; Lucas and Unwin, 2009). For some time, Lucas (2003 and 2007) has warned of ‘over-regulating a sector that is characterised by the diversity of learners and contexts’ and how the regulatory moves themselves should recognise the difficult balance that needs to be struck to improve the quality of professional practices across different cultures and professions. Furthermore Lucas and Unwin (2009) provide an excellent contextual analysis of the diversity of those learning contexts and fragmented professional cultures and of the implementation of professional standards, arguing as I do in this research, that teachers’ identities are closely tied to their subject or occupational expertise. For this reason, a debate that has emerged most strongly in teacher education has been the concept of discipline specific pedagogy or subject specific pedagogy. This recognises that teaching may be different in different discipline, subject or industry areas implying that pedagogical approaches may need to be quite different when teaching, for example, hospitality students or physics and maths students. While the principles of teaching remain constant, the methods
used may change. Generic pedagogy ensures every teacher has a range of methods at his or her disposal and there may be some methods that apply more readily to some disciplines than others. Shulman (1987) has opposed any emphasis on the mutual exclusivity of subject knowledge and pedagogy, arguing for a construct of teacher knowledge labelled Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) as a critical and sophisticated amelioration and amalgamation of traditional teacher education models. Speaking about education in general, he maintains that all teachers need to have both general pedagogical knowledge and discipline-specific pedagogical knowledge. The intersection of the two interdependent aspects of teacher knowledge represent for Schulman an effective and necessary component of teacher education but no reference is made specifically and practically as to how this can be effectively developed. In his favour, Shulman certainly could not have envisaged the growth and diversity of diverse professionals engaged in teacher education during the last decade. According to him discipline-specific pedagogical knowledge can be explained in this way and his view remains relevant in current teacher education contexts:

For the most regularly taught topics in one’s subject areas, the most useful forms of representations of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations – in a word, ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible for others. (1987: 9-10)

So what is the difference between discipline-specific pedagogy and the teaching methods that are used out of habit in particular disciplines? Shulman’s view of discipline-specific pedagogy clearly suggests that disciplines or subjects may be taught most effectively in particular ways. Later work by Cochran et al (1993) offer a definition which mirrors subjektdidaktik in terms of teachers’ critical reflection and interpretation of subject matter to show how it can be organised, adapted and represented for teaching. In other words how Fachwissen (knowledge of the subject) becomes Shulfach (that which is taught). However as Lucas (2005) argues, these ways can sometimes reflect little more than particular communities of practice in particular institutions or settings. So the job of the effective and reflective trainee teacher is to examine ways of teaching his or her discipline area and choose the most effective, but his proposal of a sophisticated amalgam of content and pedagogy constitutes what he believes is a trainee teacher’s own special form of professionalism. Although Bathmaker and Avis (2005), for instance, contend Wenger’s communities of practice and legitimate peripheral participation as empowering elements in professional
teacher identity formation and of gaining knowledge and skills, I would argue that this is problematic in teacher education programmes where diverse, mixed and non-mixed cohorts have differing special forms of professionalism associated with their respective professions. This view is not confined to teacher education contexts or solely to current thinking. It can also be evidenced in higher education teaching where the differing nature of teaching in different discipline areas has also been a subject of debate. Described by Robson as ‘subtle and complex’ (2006:58-59), the role of the teacher is ‘in part to induct students into discipline-specific modes of thought’ which reflect those of the teacher whose ‘allegiance to the discipline is likely to be stronger than to the institution’ (2006:67). Lenze (1996), for example, also points out that while central teaching-development units in universities tend to offer professional development programmes that assume that teaching skills remain constant in all areas, academic staff ‘fall on the other side of the fence, claiming that teaching in their fields differs from teaching in other disciplines’ (1996: 1). Yet Burke (2009) argues that neither teacher educators nor colleges/universities can adequately train teachers on their own because neither has access to the full range of skills, knowledge, expertise and up-to-date experience and wisdom that is required. I am not convinced but I would, however, concede that what lacks is first hand opportunity to explore, discuss and apply subject-specific or professionally related knowledge to pedagogical activity. There has also been a legitimate concern that while in-service trainee teachers may have discipline knowledge and qualifications, they do not necessarily have the breadth of knowledge across the discipline that is needed to teach in it. This suggests a lack therefore not only in pedagogical content knowledge but also in subject content knowledge, and so a systematic program of development is needed to address these two areas rather than relying on individuals’ professionalism to address deficiencies. Of significance is the need for dialogue and the connection between subject content and pedagogy:

I am concerned that my mentor is not really fully aware of the commitment needed in the role and also how he is going to cover everything I need to know about teaching my subject.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 3, 2007)

There are, of course, many positive aspects of the generic teacher education programmes I have been involved with evident from the data and the only disadvantages are the inconsistency in quality and rigour of the subject-specific mentoring arrangements but more
importantly the lack of significance opportunities to explore and apply subject knowledge to pedagogical practice. A recent interim report on professionalism in FE (2012) also suggests this and re-emphasises the interdependency of subject content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge in professional practice:

Initial teacher training programmes appear to be largely generic and theoretical, rather than being related to the professional and occupational expertise of college lecturers; mentoring continues to be weak; the system of qualifications and credits is very inconsistent among teacher training providers; and the commitment of FE employers to support their staff to attain excellence in pedagogy appears distinctly uneven.

The following extract also has resonances with the current and continuing debate around subject pedagogy and suggests little progress in terms of effective practice:

The quality of trainee teachers’ teaching is affected adversely by their limited knowledge of how to teach their subject this is partly blamed on the diversification of teacher education. It is claimed that this has led to a decline in standards of discipline-specific pedagogy. (Lingfield, 2003)

As mentioned in the introduction, I will focus in the next two chapters on police trainee teachers as distinct, non-mixed specialist cohorts of professionals who have established pedagogies within their own training systems. In this context, I remain the generic teacher educator with no formal understanding of police training CK nor a shared understanding of PK. In other words, they have ideas and convictions which influence in pedagogical terms what they do and what teaching is; conceptualisations which are at odds with my own. This proves challenging when attempting to deliver teacher education and encompass effective communication and common understanding:

What is this to do with me? I am a trainer assessor not a teacher. (Role)

Can’t you teach me how to teach my subject? (Training formats and subject knowledge and teaching)

In chapters seven and eight it will be shown that such convictions and articulations are powerful and currently serve as a disconnect between me as teacher educator and they as professional trainers. This enables a more robust conceptualisation of professionalism which accounts for the contingent properties of meaning and practice within distinct professions.
How has professionalism come to exist as a particular configuration of knowledge, discourse and practice? How do discursive relationships come to exist? From a police trainee teacher perspective professionalism is a product of broader articulations which privilege certain ways of knowing, being and practising which I will explore fully in these chapters.

6.10 Summary
This chapter provided insights and perceptions on how professionals see their role as a teacher in light of professional standards and the way in which teacher education is delivered, arguing that professional identity is determined by an adherence on the part of the work force to the concept of dual professionalism. Current teacher education programmes with which I am familiar are based on a reliance to put overall responsibility on placement mentors to provide subject-specific advice and guidance. However the quality of this is variable and has led to trainee teachers demanding a more subject-specific approach. The data has shown that there are mixed trainee teacher cohorts in terms of role e.g. assessors, tutors, trainers, as well as subject specialisms. There is clear absence of subjektdidaktik and a detached attitude to teacher education formats.

The chapter revealed several areas in which individuals were struggling with concepts around teacher identity and many instinctively looked back to their own established practices and pedagogies in an attempt to adapt these to what was required by the qualifications. This will be explored and analysed in the next two chapters. Defining the theoretical framework for professional identity analysis had privileged the subject and narrative aspects of professional trainee teachers’ identity construction and articulation via discourse presented as non-formal, shifting and subjective.

The chapter also explored the application of discourse analysis theory to real professional situations which offered representations of natural, social behaviour. It enabled an analysis of the embodiment and on-going activation of discourses by individuals through their identifications and articulated standpoints. Professionals, as carriers of discourse, are an important conceptual move as this enabled professional trainee teachers to be understood as ‘practitioners’. ‘Practitioner’ constructions of ‘teacher’ subvert and refract dominant academic discourses and, in so doing, open up space for new practices and alignments, while at the same time constraining other possibilities. It is because cultural processes of discourse and identity formation at the level of the individual have material effects that these processes

38 Chapter three, section 3.2 reviewed this in detail.
are so important to interrogate and make visible. The main theme was the struggle people felt during their engagement with teacher education programmes, yet the very struggle re-defined the space and was in itself educative.

Finally this chapter affirmed the consequences of an ineffectual focus on subjektdidaktik and language in context as a means to understanding the dynamics of teacher education experiences for diverse professionals. Discourse was heavily characterised by processes of homogenising the groups in the minds of individual professionals and negating the others through a process of comparison and division exemplified through language and associated rhetoric. The analysis of statements from trainee teachers as they attempted to describe their dilemmas produced new and interesting subject and professional positionings. Aspects of language use in professional settings appeared to emerge as normative educational discourse in relation to classroom experiences and this in turn created tension and conflict as each clashed with the other. This was problematic in that the mentor was in fact responsible for everything which relates to the subject that the trainee teacher is teaching forming the basis of the discord experienced by those undertaking teacher education programmes and these are examples of that discord:

My mentor was very supportive but we hardly had time to meet and everything seemed rushed or too much trouble.

I wish that we could have formalised the mentoring process somehow to include subject pedagogy and with other trainee teachers doing my subject.

(Trainee Teacher Cohort 2, 2006)

The latter statement raised further issues for me in that there was a distinct lack of focused subject pedagogy and the opportunities for trainee teachers to interact with others in their area, in order to facilitate discourse around distinct pedagogic practices associated with those areas. More important, however, was the creation in the mind of the trainee teacher of the concept of subject-specific pedagogue constituted by the lack of such a concept in the professional relationship. However, as this brief conceptual analysis suggests, the subtle and not-so subtle ways in which mentors instruct, support, and socialise trainee teachers are of consequence. In some cases, the research has illustrated that these moves on the part of the
mentor can significantly affect the quality of teacher education. Unfortunately, as has been noted, the disconnect between university and a professional-based component of teacher education calcifies the divide between theory and practice, between knowing about the work of teaching and doing the work of teaching. Unsurprisingly there are also as many conceptions on teacher professionalism as there are authors. No author however is singly able to successfully encapsulate a notion of professionalism to all aspects which pervade teacher education. Numerous sources have acknowledged teacher education as intensely complex (Lucas, 2004; Robson, 2006; Armitage et al, 2007) and the diversity of trainee teachers engaged in teacher education is itself an important and distinctive feature of this complexity which challenges me to pursue the relevance of promoting clearer and more professionally focused links between teacher education pedagogy and professional practice.

So, summarily this chapter has contained the central argument to my thesis which I shall recap as a series of six points:

- Dual professional identities amongst trainee teachers are problematic in teacher education classrooms since each professional brings with them considerable but diverse experiential, professional knowledge of practices and a professionally related and specific concept of ‘teacher.’

- One of the main challenges for teacher educators and in-service trainee teachers concerns opportunities to explore and discuss professional subject knowledge and its distinct pedagogical application. The reasoning behind subject specific pedagogy relies on the argument that different models of learning may be employed for different subjects. The most powerful theoretical argument for a re-emphasis on promoting exploration and discussion of application of subject knowledge to pedagogical practice is subjektdidaktik, lacking in current teacher education provision with which I am familiar.

- An implicit assumption is that subject expertise rather than knowledge and skills in education are the chief determinant of the quality of teaching and learning. There are, however, significant drawbacks to the traditional reliance on technical expertise and subject knowledge at the expense of pedagogy. My concern is how these two aspects of teacher professionalism can be effectively supported and made more explicitly interdependent. Both aspects therefore deal with relations between policy makers, teacher education providers and trainee teachers who are in-service professionals.

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• Temptation is to attribute my concern to the absence in current teacher education programmes which is only slightly misleading because there is support through subject focused mentoring and all the professionals encountered have their own established concepts around pedagogy which are a challenge for the teacher educator. As will be debated in the next two chapters, the police in particular have discursive resources of professionalism in their occupational domain potentially acting as disciplinary-power mechanisms which serve to profess appropriate pedagogical identities and activities. Subjektdidaktik processes can address my concern in abating the professional disconnect I have in this relationship but this must involve a deep and critical awareness of the pedagogies and practices within police training.

• This helps further the current debate around policy on teacher professionalism and teacher education specifically with regard to supporting subject pedagogy. The affinity of trainee teachers with their former professional subject matter is strong yet the quality of their teaching is affected adversely by their limited knowledge of how to teach their subject in accordance with the professional standards. There is an urgent need to recognise teachers’ work as complex and demanding, and improvement in teacher quality requires a re-conceptualisation of how we prepare a new generation of diverse professional trainee teachers.

• Even in the absence of a return to face to face subject-focused teacher education, there is scope at least for the re-emergence of opportunities to promote subjektdidaktik multimodally for diverse professionals through mobile and digital technologies.

If the arguments of this chapter are accepted, the current provision is unacceptable as well as untenable. So, in order to further the debates presented here, how can dual professionalism i.e. the promotion of expert teacher coequal with expert subject knowledge be promoted? Could promoting homogenisation of groups according to specialism and background be a solution?40 The next chapter examines the experiences of non-mixed cohorts of police trainee teachers to explore these questions further building the analytical apparatus specifically to focus on the challenge of authoritatively applying teacher education to the strongly established ideologies and pedagogies, hierarchies and disciplinary practices of police training.

40 Suggested reforms around these notions are discussed conclusively in chapter 9, sections 9.1 and 9.5-7.
Chapter Seven: Dual professionalism: a concept to embrace dual identity in professional training?

7.1 Introduction
Although current teacher education programmes along with the professional standards for trainee teachers has enabled the emergence of the notion of dual professionalism\(^4^1\), the grouping of trainee teachers according to specialism is still largely absent. This research began with the training of mixed groups of trainee teachers whose multiple needs and demands were indeed problematic and ended with the non-mixed groups of police trainers. An attempt was made to build analytical apparatus around professional practices exploring how far they were related to the initial teacher education processes for professionals. Whilst reflecting on my own teacher professionalism, I was drawn to the historical factors pertaining to my own experiences in terms of formal training. The teacher education programme which I had undertaken some twenty five years ago was of a particular structure and type which no longer exists in terms of distinct, scheduled face to face subject specialist input. In essence, the structure was simply that subject specialist teaching and learning sessions were a coequal part of programmes as much as generic teaching and learning pedagogy. The fact that this is no longer a feature of programmes is, according to the responses of trainee teachers in this research, unacceptable especially when they are more concerned during their preparation with how to teach their subject, rather than with just learning how to teach. This observation, however, is far more complex. It raises debates (DfES, 2003a) on whether there is such a notion or process as, or an actual need for, specialist or subject related pedagogy. Chapters five and six suggested how theorisations around opportunities and the specifics of how to discuss and explore the application of subject matter to pedagogy appealed to the trainee teachers’ perceptions of professional self-identity. They were increasingly dissatisfied with the programmes and the data conclusively suggested this but capturing that dissatisfaction needed further scrutiny and methodological precision. Discussion on the varied, contested and dynamic nature of practitioner roles and the increased diversity in professional training (Colley et al, 2003; James and Biesta, 2007) itself added relevant impetus to the current observations and debates contained within my own research and showed how there is now a need for more explicit and strategic approaches to teacher development and professional practice. In terms of non-mixed groups and as a result of my own professional transition from FE to HE and to a teacher education faculty mid-way through this research, I became

\(^{4^1}\)See chapter six, sections 5.5 and 6.6.
substantially involved with the educating of police trainee teachers. In brief, they were already established ‘specialists’ and I was principally the provider of generic teacher education with a view to enabling the effective transmission of their professional knowledge and skills to others drawing on substantial evidence from two police training organisations.

7.2 Teacher education and the police in the broader context of reprofessionalisation

Since 2001 pedagogical debates and discourses have embraced the development of shared aims and values within the professional setting. These have led to a suite of endorsed qualifications (see table 7.1). These qualifications focus on generic pedagogy and as such are created for use across the sector. The subject specialist elements are not taught; rather they are mentored in the workplace and researched by the trainee teacher. This was, and is, an attempt to reprofessionalise a broad and diverse workforce and briefly it is a centralised, governmentally controlled directive with regard to accountability in terms of skill, expertise and curriculum delivery. Statistically 40% of full time staff and 43% of part time staff in the sector had no high level teaching certificate at the start of this research (Armitage, 2007:273) and many were and are vocationally oriented trainers, assessors and instructors whose teaching and training is grounded in the needs of the workplace. Through its generic rather than subject-specific focus, the programme raises problematic issues not only in the professional interrelationship but also negates, to a large extent, the complexity and contextually bound nature of the individuals professional identity in the workplace. This is historically supported by research in the field (Brandes and Ginnes, 1997; Chappell, 1999) and further explains why generic, academic teacher education programmes continue to be particularly problematic. Nevertheless the generic teaching qualification which is for all employees is available in various levels.

My experiences with the police service and a focus on their level of experience and qualification suggests that it is equated to the National Qualification Framework (NQF) level 3 and instantly it can be seen that the full teaching award is pitched at level 5 for such trainee teachers. Also the desired cohesion of the concept of professionally shared aims and values is now impeded by the imposition of an accreditation process which has uniformity and comparability of outcome as its aim rather than a respect for the quality and creativity of individual vocational settings.

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42 It is assumed that trainee teachers are already experts in their subject prior to embarking on the teacher education. However a subject expert does not necessarily make an expert teacher.
### Table 7.1: The endorsed staged qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>PTLLS – levels 3 / 4</td>
<td>Full qualification with eligibility for ATLS and QTLS statuses[^43]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>CTLLS – levels 4 / 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>DTLLS – levels 5 / 6 / 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was felt that level 3 qualified practitioners having to conform to level 5 outcomes of learning was not only undesirable but highly inappropriate. Teacher education programmes and the police service have radically differing organisational arrangements and mechanisms which challenge such understanding. Language, understood as context and use and as a conceptual structure is pivotal in conveying an appropriately sophisticated analytical framework for this chapter.

#### 7.3 An analysis of specialist training and the dual professional within a police training context

Focusing on the experiences and perceptions of non-mixed, subject specialist[^44] cohorts of police trainers (2008-2011) undertaking university accredited teacher education, I will analyse the discursive practices of the police and consider how rank and hierarchy as well as professionally specific terminology influence their understanding of professional designations. Words and expressions associated with educational instruction will be examined in order to further explore how these are articulated especially where rank and hierarchy feature with the associated concepts of respect for authority and meritocratic values. I will argue how the generic nature of the programme content produces problems in terms of mutual understanding of key concepts of learning, teaching and assessment between the teacher trainer and the cohorts. The introduction of professional standards for trainee teachers has impacted on the way in which an understanding of ‘teacher’ is shaped or even manipulated by their implementation. This will raise issues of articulation and interpretation of those practices which in turn influences the articulation and interpretation of professional teacher identity. In this instance, professional designation can be a matter of assessment of skill, knowledge and competence within the police force, or indeed a hybridising of the roles

[^43]: QTLS (Qualified Teacher in Learning and Skills) is the new status conferred by the professional body IFL (Institute for Learning) for those who have the full qualification (all 3 stages) and commit to the 30 hours of professional formation within their workplace per year. ATLS is the status conferred on those who have a limited role in the delivery of learning. This limited role has in fact proved hard to identify since even the most casual part-time lecturer is generally performing the “Full Role”.

[^44]: Of course there are individual specialisms but more critical here are the shared organisational perceptions of the police cohorts.
of teacher and trainer within police training. Considering the theoretical rationale from earlier chapters which underpins the subsequent analysis contained here, a brief reminder of the questions consistently raised by mixed cohorts of trainee teachers will be useful:

- Why do I have to do this? I am a trainer\(^{45}\) not a teacher.

- Why are we in mixed subject groups and not according to subject specialism\(^ {46}\) ?

What transpires is very revealing; there is effective commonality of understanding between police trainee teachers since they are immersed in essentially one subject/professional setting but the lack of understanding of their setting on my part as teacher educator means as a consequence that I become the barrier to effective training. What emerges from the scrutiny of police training are two inextricably linked and powerful concepts of professional knowledge of having subject expertise and of professional competence which is passing on that knowledge in an educational context as a specialist. The police trainee teachers are subject specialists and will use that knowledge in their own training. It is also a question of how that knowledge and delivery is actually predicated on a traditional pedagogic model of control and authority. The standards drive forward a proposed notion of what constitutes a governmental opinion on what a teacher happens to be and application of the standards to police training practices remodel discursive practices to reflect this regulative system.

### 7.4 Acronyms and Jargon: linguistic features of teacher education within the police

The linguistic adjustment to the delivery of training within the police was both necessary and pertinent if effective training was to take place. Within hours of working with the cohorts it became apparent that technical jargon and acronyms were as numerous within the force as within teacher education. My previous work in Phase A of the doctoral programme elaborated this feature: in essence the knowable aspects of the area I have sought to analyse are awash with value-laden words and phrases, inherently culturally bound (or institutionally specific) and which reflect the values of the culture or institution. Since I am caught up in an institutional order of discourse, I am confined and constrained by the language available which is used to describe it. My interviews\(^ {47}\) yielded evidence of a structure which could only be appreciated with regard to the culturally specific understanding of the microcosms which make up that structure. Gee (2005:73) sums up this state as ‘simulations in the mind’ in

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\(^{45}\) Those that deliver learning within the police service are called trainers and not teachers.

\(^{46}\) This is not the case in professional police training where cohorts are non-mixed specialists.

\(^{47}\) This in this context refers to a tertiary college of further, adult and higher education.
which our understanding of situational interactions and meanings is shaped by our store of
multiple perspectives we may hold on those interactions. Thus the data from the interviews
was very much a question of localised, idiosyncratic perception, ready to be synthesised and
organised to reflect a particular point of view (Ely, 2003), and that point of view would
reflect the prevailing institutional order. So, acronyms, jargon and training structures combine
to create challenging environment for the teacher educator which reflects the disconnect
highlighted in figure 5.2 in chapter five.

Firstly, in terms of acronyms, these are extremely powerful if one is to engage in initial
discourse i.e. when speaking about the IFL, eligibility for the two teacher statuses undertaking CPD, to implementing the VACSR (Validity, Authenticity, Currency,
Sufficiency, Reliability) principle in assessment strategies and the FOG (Frequency of
Gobbledygook) or SMOG (Simple Measure of Gobbledygook) techniques in textual analysis
are typical examples. The terms are often extensive and obscure in meaning to outsiders:

We constantly need to ask for clarification. We use acronyms that the tutors don’t
know and they use acronyms we’ve never heard of.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 4, 2008)

An example would be those trainee teachers who provide short bespoke courses in countless
skills as necessary in the police force at a given time. Such courses are endemic within the
police training academy as they react to new initiatives and needs deemed applicable by the
government and the National Police Improvement Agency (NPIA). This reactive curriculum
is defined here by one of my police trainee teachers on the teacher education programme:

Neighbourhood policing is a central component of providing a Citizen Focused
service that aims to put communities, their needs, issues and priorities at the heart
of local policing. “The right people, in the right place, in the right numbers in
order to create neighbourhoods that are safe and feel safe” (Association of Chief
Police Officers 2005) My subject-specific area of neighbourhood policing must

48 i.e. section 6.6 in chapter six and sections 7.10 and 7.11 in this chapter.
49 Institute for Learning (IfL) is the professional body which confers the teacher statuses in the sector.
50 ATLS and QTLS: see glossary
51 Here the programme refers to Certificate of Higher Education refers to the university accredited teacher education
programme endorsed by the Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO 2000-2007) or by Life Long
Learning UK (LLUK 2007 onwards).
meet the needs of the local community as we are a police service who serves a public that have high expectations and we must train our police officers and PCSO’s to manage those expectations, as defined by Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary (HMIC) we must “secure and maintain high levels of satisfaction and confidence through the consistent delivery of a first class policing service that meets the needs of individuals and of communities”.

(Cohort 6, 2009/10)

The above is, therefore, demonstrative of a curriculum that is constantly in flux and whose content and delivery is re-examined and repackaged on a regular almost weekly basis. More importantly, however, is the context in which the subject is supported. All the trainee teachers engage in specialist cohorts and there is common understanding of the nature of the subject and how this can be related to other students:

We all try to understand the generic pedagogy and apply it to our subjects. This is challenging but because we are together as a subject-specific group we can all gain a common understanding of its application relatively quickly. We also have the support of very experienced subject-specific mentors who work alongside us.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

Secondly, with profession comes jargon, an acutely innovative linguistic ability which empowers its adherents in the art of professional interrelationship to the exclusion of other professions. The extent of police jargon is complex and the clashing of the two worlds has invariably led to a clash of terminology and on occasion has resulted in inadequate communication. For example, much of my initial work with the police centred on rationales which are in essence a short piece of writing which evaluates and justifies the reasons for adopting particular strategies or assessment procedures in a lesson and therefore verifying the meeting of learning outcomes. Speaking at length of rationales only served to induce confusion and misunderstanding until one trainee said ‘Oh you mean storyboards!’ whereupon everyone was seemingly completely in the know. This use of questioning to determine meaning is a linguistic process referred to as onomasiology \(^\text{52}\) and is concerned primarily with establishing understanding when there is no word or concept available. This

\(^{52}\) See page 106 for a further explanation.
onomasiological discourse (Grzega, 2004) is a common feature of my experiences with the
crime concentrating itself in questions from both the teacher educator and the cohort. In other
words the concept of what a *storyboard* is evolved from my question:

> What do you call the section of your planning documentation in which you justify
your choice of objectives, you’re learning and teaching strategies including
assessment and address targets from previous observations? (Professional
Discussion, 2009)

Subsequently, what emerged was a debate on rationales and how short they were compared
with storyboards which contained copious amounts of detailed information covering the
entire lesson and accounting for virtually every move. This, of course, is only a minor
instance in my working experience but is nonetheless accompanied by a plethora of other
instances including acronyms⁵³, and this appears to be what the police training scenario
actually is; an onomasiological minefield. This could be pre-empted by adopting a close
review of the situational and professional vocabulary of the setting prior to programme design
and validation.

Thirdly, in terms of structure⁵⁴, the police have had training structures established almost as
long as teacher education has. They are vocationally relevant and in principal offer two
important modes of professional development which are useful in terms of standards. The
first is within the structured and detailed rationale required to justify teaching and learning
methods. These are termed ‘storyboards’, a principle based on that used in the film industry
i.e. a graphic description with pictures and props which evolved from its precursor the lesson
pre-brief. Story boards require the trainee to establish detailed acknowledgement of the
questions ‘Why do what you do in the lesson?’ ‘Is learning taking place and what is its
value?’ Such detailed planning is required of the police in their execution of duty
underpinned by a meticulous, prove it mentality.

A review of this method will show that the police are not only dedicated to the creation of
evidence in their pursuance of professional recognition but are prolific in its production in an
extent bordering on pedantism. This raises the questions: ‘Why engage in teacher education?’

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⁵³ i.e. PC could be a computer or an officer: context matters.
⁵⁴ as previously stated in chapter five, section 5.4.
‘What is its purpose?’ From my numerous interviews with police trainee teachers I have been struck by the similarity of responses especially on these terms.

Statements from police trainee teachers (Cohort 5, 2008):

Future accreditation of police training courses requires close working relationships with the University. The Cert HE programme has proved thus far very very rewarding and the instruction is very good.

The Cert HE programme is interesting and rewarding and I feel it will certainly make me a better trainer.

A rewarding programme that enhances my skills and abilities and will give me eligibility for a recognised professional status within my training career. I now have a real appreciation of the methodologies and practice beyond the police service.

Thus I can conclude that the police view their association with a university and its qualifications as a precursor to establishing themselves as an organisation which promotes excellence in teacher education and moreover with qualifications which are nationally recognised and provide eligibility for fully qualified teacher status, a status which the police attained in 2009.

7.5 Language use in teacher education

Very soon after meeting the first of my two police cohorts in early 2008, it became clear that the requirements of the teacher education programme (which is not strictly a police qualification) did not sit comfortably within the job descriptors of the police. In other words, language in use, context and associated conceptual structures did not appear to comply with the established understanding within the police service of what was required. This created confusion, ambiguity, conflicting and competing points of view. Immediately I had to begin understanding more deeply the structures within the police service with a view to establishing a common link between the requirements teacher education and their actual professional practice. In a wider context this is not unusual since, as I have previously argued, the

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55 Within the police, the desire to attain the full teacher status rather than anything below that is and has been achievable but how that has manifested itself has raised interesting assumptions. The data particularly the professional discussions predominantly makes reference to teachers as pedagogues who transmit information from the front and everyone sits and listens.
requirement to fulfil the outcomes can appear irrelevant and epistemologically unsound when compared with another professional qualification system. On a professional level, I could understand the conflict and, theoretically, the values and competencies ascribed to police training are institutionally specific. As in Foucault’s Ordre du Discours (1971), every system is a political means of maintaining and modifying the appropriateness of discourses with the knowledge and power they bring with them. Fairclough (1995) speaks of this order of discourse as speech settings or as institutions as speech communities where language appertains to a particular setting. A brief review of these programmes in terms of language in context and attributes follows.

The police already have training programmes which although not recognised outside the profession, have extremely useful attributes. The first attribute of professional development within the police is the prodigious and varied assessment regime which amongst other things incorporates multiple choice and detailed accounts to justify the choice of assessment as intrinsic methods of identifying and checking learning. For me, the qualifications fall under censure on two counts 1) the lack of academic rigour in the production of evidence of learning, particularly given that the standard course length is twelve weeks, and 2) of assessment and the lack of any national recognition other than that acknowledged within the force itself. Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) distinguish three foci to deal with interpersonal meaning making: attitude, contact and social distance. Attitude refers to the relations of power and involvement that are developed between teachers and learning activities, resources are artefacts. Teachers who regulate the content, sequencing and assessment of learning through multiple choice exercises for example, promote the restriction of student option and contribution to that learning:

We are often in court being grilled by court officials. Providing conclusive evidence is part of our make-up.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

Further evidence is provided in their detailed rationales provided on the current programme which can exceed 3,000 words. Thus the professional standards required of the teacher

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56 The use of multiple choice which on the one hand has the advantage of testing a variety of levels, easy to mark and has high reliability, they can, on the other hand, lead to trivial questions or questions based on recall or memory and students may guess. Sometimes it can be a question of sufficiency. For example a knowledge check of 50 questions and a pass rate of 40% may lead one to ask whether getting 40% of the questions right is sufficient to determine competence. If it is, then so be it but it seems a curious strategy.
represented in domains A-E (see appendix 1) are strengthened by the requirement to not only justify that learning has taken place but to prove it at length.

The police cohorts are not only dedicated to the creation of evidence in their pursuance of professional recognition but are prolific in its production. One such instance is the production of rationales and of strategies for assessment. Both terms are never used in police training though they do have comparable counterparts. Establishing this fact was inherently problematic as immediately the signs and signifiers, even though similar, could not be expressed as accurately as was desired by the cohort. These terms (see Table 7.2) are or at least should be self-referential. They are simply a result of what they are not. A storyboard is a storyboard is a rationale is a rationale. And this is not simply a question of linguistic connotation. Both rationale and storyboard for example, are hyponyms, related by sense but subordinate to a more overarching term. Knowledge check and exam are subordinates of the hypernym ‘assessment’ and indeed the term often needs several sessions to cover. Knowledge checks are simply a type of assessment usually written in the style of question & answer. Yet this hypernymy can prevent cohesion in the ‘training’ of police staff in terms of appreciating the depth and diversity of meaning inherent within each term. The responses during professional discussions and interviews have respectfully referred to a demand for clarity but as can be appreciated here, clarity of expression has more to do with pragmatics than with actual words which are in their own right extremely clear. It is important, for the sake of clarity, to briefly revisit my previous arguments that my attempt to explore conceptualisations of teacher is not a matter of just semantics or connotation but of micro narratives and situated meaning which produce very significant issues of communication in the teacher education classroom.

Table 7.2 Terms of educational instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Police Talk</th>
<th>PCET Talk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-brief57</td>
<td>No equivalent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storyboard</td>
<td>Rationales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge check / Exam</td>
<td>Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debrief (used in ‘affective’ situations)</td>
<td>Feedback</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57 See appendix 4 for an example.
Different uses of language tend to reiterate the respective positions of each participant within a specific context. Linguistic interactions are manifestations of the participants' respective positions in social space and categories of understanding, and thus tend to reproduce the objective structures of the social field. In other words a symbolic representation of the social structure is reproduced. This can be more than apparent in the discursive practices of the police which Fairclough (1995) describes as ‘A way of signifying a particular domain of social practice from a particular perspective.’ (ibid, 1995:14) Language and in particular words or symbolic representations of meaning are constructed through the interactions of individuals in a professional context. So, in general, words possess a multiplicity of meaning, designation and interpretation and the proposition that the meaning of a word does not exist in itself but is determined by the contexts, use, conceptual structures and ideological assumptions in which words and expressions are produced. It is summed up by Fairclough as follows:

> Words and expressions change their meaning according to the positions held by those who use them finding meaning by reference to those positions i.e. by reference to ideological formations in which those positions are inscribed. (ibid, 1995:111)

The importance of words in police trainee teacher discourse construction is encapsulated in the following statement which served to promote a need to move toward a greater mutual understanding of teacher education in police training:

> I think it would be a start if our tutors from the University have a full understanding of how police training works and the words and terminology we use. Without that we are confused and so is the tutor.

(Police Trainee Cohort 5, 2009)

Each word has a situated meaning and is associated with a cultural model or Discourse described as a ‘totally or partially unconscious explanatory theory connected to a word or concept’ (Gee, 2005:60). These are explanatory frameworks in which the police make sense of their relationship with artefacts and practice. These are not typically shared across teacher education and can hinder cohesion and understanding in the classroom. Out of context these strategies and processes mean nothing. They need context and a related conceptual structure to convey meaning but the context itself imbues the words with further situated meaning dependent on ideological views. Thus another layer is added to the analytical apparatus.
### 7.6 Analyses of what is or what constitutes a trainer’s and a teacher’s identity

The idea of teaching for the police cohorts conjures up school with didactic\(^58\) methodology and playgrounds. Thus the trainer in this particular field would function predominantly as a teacher in this sense in the facilitation and assessing of knowledge or competence but would be identified as trainer, no doubt clinging fast to the professional, occupational standards of the police to give the title weight and credibility. Within the teacher education programmes there is no distinction made by the qualification title to the role of the qualified professional. Consequently the qualification could be for a trainer, a teacher or an assessor. The police cohorts, through professional discussion, had begun to wrestle with their descriptions of themselves in terms of identity and how that meant a wrestling with the historical connotation of teacher and a reluctance to embrace the title, yet perform the duty. Lecturer, tutor, teacher, trainer, assessor and instructor are all value-laden and loaded professional roles in as much as their professional or specialist knowledge is. Attempting to describe a teacher, trainer, assessor or educator creates confusion and disenfranchisement for both teacher educator and trainee, unless the classroom can take on the mantle of the particular specialism and operate from that perspective.

### 7.7 Discourse and the issue of professional designations

So, it can be argued that the roles described are each laden with conflicting meaning which depending on the professional setting can have extremely varying connotations and through discourse and debate can produce complex relationship values. Interestingly the professional standards use only the term ‘teacher’ as the designation ascribed to all who work within the Lifelong Learning Sector (LLS) which is certainly an acknowledgement of the wide range of specialist areas, roles and responsibilities but my concern is whether teacher education will actually encompass this diversity. Pedagogy requires ‘constant engagement with questions about what it means to think, to learn, to know’ (Biesta and Egea-Kuehne, 2001:7). I have been part of a system which for me was highly rewarding and successful and which is now being superseded by a ‘tick box’ philosophy, a regulative approach to professional function and a very confused attempt to categorise the diverse range of teaching staff in the sector under one heading. And moreover with a qualification which on the whole appears vague and ambiguous in its attempt to homogenise the sector rather than concentrate on exploring diverse curricula aimed at professionals in their respective settings.

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58 Didactic is the term applied to teaching which involves predominantly teacher instruction from the front with minimal teacher/learner interaction.
All cohorts undertake the same:

Cohorts 1-6

Certificate of Post Compulsory Education and Training

Teacher

Educator

Lecturer

Trainer

Educator

Assessor

7.8 Police perceptions of teacher education

As a researcher, the implications of this research have been to interrogate the foundations and paradigmatic assumptions which produce thought which is broadly a positivist vs. interpretivist mindset. In brief, the police trainee teachers are troubled by the ambiguity, generality, and competing and conflicting points of view associated with teacher education programmes. It is important, however, to stress the indefatigable approach of the majority of police trainee teachers to meet the professional standards and to so do with absolute precision. For many, the art of teaching is developmental and acquired over a period of time, possibly a lifetime, and therefore one could argue that the acquisition of skills or initial qualities is primarily what is needed within the training. The standards appear to require much more than this and adhering precisely to that requirement creates an absolutist approach to the training qualification itself rather than to its purpose of providing guidance on how to teach, prepare, initiate and evaluate teaching. Thus the overlapping of communities of practice both in terms of trainee teachers to the training and me to the police setting demonstrates that even though there are commonalities or patterns of consistency in the delivery of learning, there are also quite divergent approaches and discourses which are inevitably shaped by the ontogeny (personal histories) of the individuals within the discreet cohort. These histories are manifested in discourse which produces subordinance and rank which along with the actual professional police designations typically within a given cohort can provide an interesting
angle on the possible group dynamics experienced. Rank and hierarchy feature predominantly within the force as do the associated concepts of respect for authority, meritocratic values and relative importance as well as the more negative aspects of collegiate team working e.g. jealousy, envy. The latter was only ever uncovered through observations of everyday professional practice.

In Figure 7.2 the hierarchical representation clearly outlines that rank is what matters but the notion of PC, CID are less clear.

Consequently there is a preference for hierarchy within the teacher/trainer/learner/trainee scenario. Teacher education programmes generally support an equality of trainer/teacher in terms of negotiated learner outcomes, individual learning plans (ILPs) and critical discussion. Naturally the police trainee teachers will bring with them their rank and command respect for it but this is difficult when establishing group work and collegiality within a cohort.

The police structure pervades the entire process of training and development and can have restrictive consequences in terms of professional interaction and behaviour, yet rather than resistance to this I find that there is conformity in the pursuance of the qualification. Here we find a co-construction of socio-culturally situated identities (Gee, 2005).

**Figure 7.2 Rank in police cohorts**

![Diagram of police rank hierarchy]

All can be a trainee teacher, yet within a cohort, rank will matter.

In other words the rank and designation of the police directly influences the interactions of each in terms of respect and choice of words. The situation in which the CID officer, sergeant and PCO (Police Community Officers) are engaged in educational debate, the sway of opinion is carefully gestured in favour of the sergeant as it is unwise to display subordination.
even in the pursuance of educational enlightenment. This is an example of the inconsistency of certain discourse models which:

Though they are theories (explanations), they need not be fully formed, or consistent. Their partiality and inconsistency is the result of the fact that one discourse model can incorporate different and conflicting social and discourse values, or values connected to groups to which some people who hold the model don’t actually belong, or, at least values that serve other people’s interests better than their own. Sometimes it can be hard to tell whether a person holds two conflicting models or one heterogeneous, conflicting one. (Gee, 2005:85)

The following extract of discourse serves to illustrate such a conflict:

**Teacher educator:** Can you explain the factors involved in the choice of assessment strategy for the courses you teach?

Three groups begin to debate and the spokesperson for group three responds;

**Trainee Teacher 1** (Police officer); Umm to ensure measurement of objectives? Or to create a clear alignment with learning outcomes?

**Teacher educator:** Yes ok...

**Trainee Teacher 2** (CID officer): I agree with what xxxxx has said but I think perhaps it has more to do with well ....we must aim to find the best fit between purpose, validity, reliability and manageability.

**Teacher educator:** Yes I can see both points of view here.

The above data\(^{59}\) reflect the conciliatory nature of discourse in the latter police cohorts undertaking the teacher education programme and represents also a sense of arbitrary dismissal and assertion of a point of view to show rank and authority in knowledge of the subject matter. The session was based on assessment theory and had been accompanied by hand-outs and an introduction on the theory. The teacher educator moves to ensure that the police trainee teachers apply the theory to practice. Clearly trainee teacher 1 is troubled by the discussion and uses interjections and rising intonations usually associated with questions. But

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\(^{59}\) This data is composite of the period between January 2008 and June 2009 and concerns a small snapshot of the deliberations between a CID officer and a police officer.
it is within trainee teacher 2’s response that an indirect castigation of the first one’s attempts is made whilst at once quoting ad verbatim from the class notes. The particle ‘well’ ties the two utterances together as if they should sound as if they go together. Both responses are adequate and merit positive praise yet the tension is related to rank and status and a reluctance to acknowledge that the responses are actually not so related. Certainly rank plays its part in the interrelationships and discursive practices of police cohorts which on the one hand assures compliance to the training but on the other inhibits the development of the trainee. The following example shows an unprecedented acquiescence on the part of the majority of a cohort which consisted of 1 inspector, 3 sergeants and 18 police constables. It concerned feedback and evaluation of the course delivery by a police trainee teacher:

If you want feedback on your delivery, it is best to ask the inspector first how things went. If positive you are assured of a positive response from the rest. Little feedback comes your way if you ask the constables first. They will actively seek the opinion of the inspector through nonverbal communication before saying anything. Rank\(^60\) is very powerful.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

**7.9 Police training: a disciplined profession**

Discipline is the word that is consistently used by the police cohorts in their description and articulation of professional identity. Indeed it is possible to talk of training which is expected to produce a specific character or pattern of behaviour which of course is a predominant feature of police training; especially training that produces moral or mental improvement. Discipline can be explained in the following statements:

*Controlled* behaviour resulting from disciplinary training; *self-control*.

*Control* obtained by enforcing compliance or order.

A *systematic* method to obtain *obedience*: a military discipline.

A state of order based on *submission to* rules and authority.

Punishment intended to *correct* or *train*.

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\(^{60}\)The police training academy can trace its roots back one hundred and fifty years to the regimented and hierarchical structures of the Army Training Corps and consequently, terminology has been influenced by the disciplined and rank structures inherent there.
A set of rules or methods, as those regulating the practice of a church or monastic order.

In other words:

1. To train by instruction and practice, especially to teach self-control to someone.

2. To teach to obey rules or accept authority.

3. To punish in order to gain control or enforce obedience.

4. To impose order on.

The language used here is a predominant feature of police discourse on discipline but does not appear to be viewed as unacceptable. Yet it does produce an attitude to study and to new knowledge which is didactic and anti-dialogic. I would argue that the teacher as an authority has the right to guide and direct the process of learning and this right ought not to be exercised in an authoritarian manner. Discipline does imply submission to rules so one might distinguish between self-discipline and discipline imposed by others and it is the former which is ideally aimed at. I would further argue that through textual and discursive analyses it is possible to uncover the mindset and principles of the profession and in turn advance the vocational understanding needed within teacher education. It is unavoidable in this instance not to seem to be presenting only an artful proposition of reality that purports to disclose an actual truth:

> Texts are at their most persuasive when they don’t seem rhetorical, but rather pass themselves off as fact or realistic description.
> (MacLure, 2003:80)

Table 7.3 is representative of several aspects of police training protocol and is followed by a textual analysis which presumes a style and code that is propagandist at worst and persuasive at least. With an analysis of Table 7.3 in terms of language usage, it is possible to produce discourse which is based on appeasement, persuasion and control; how to become a police officer in a few easy steps, how to pass the exams which presumably is a promise and moreover through audio learning which assumes no need for visual resources or a tutor. This observation of the pragmatics within this text is not to demean the intention but merely to show that this mind-set created by the language in use can definitely influence how training and teaching may be conceptualised.
**Table 7.3: Police recruitment and assessment: online advertisement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This course is designed to help candidates pass the interview and assessment stages of the police recruitment process.</td>
<td>People applying to join the Police Service. The course includes role plays, problem solving, group discussions, structured interview skills and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Police Initial Recruitment Test</strong></td>
<td><strong>How To Become A Police Officer</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This guide provides career information that covers every aspect of the UK Police Officer selection process from completing the application form, including sample responses, through to role play exercises and actual interview questions!</td>
<td>The 'How to become a UK Police Officer' CD Rom is the most comprehensive guide available! Full of insider tips and advice, and brought to you by current serving Police Officers, it will guide you through the UK Police Officer selection process and help you to secure this fantastic career at the first attempt!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Police Probationer Training</strong></td>
<td><strong>Crystal Clear Audio Learning Ltd.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An audio learning course to help probationary constables in learning the legislation they need to know to pass the two year probationary period.</td>
<td>Probationer constables in England and Wales. The course includes guidance on PACE, Police Powers, common and statutory law including road traffic, offensive weapons, theft, public order, assaults and much more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OSPRE Training</strong></td>
<td><strong>OSPRE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To assist you in your OSPRE PT1 preparation, test your knowledge with the questions provided.</td>
<td>Police-Training.co.uk is a unique online Police training service that provides a total learning environment for Probationers, Constables, Sergeants, Inspectors and Detectives on a 24/7 basis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At the heart of this, however, is the outcomes ideology of modern education systems, the idea that learning must be driven by specific, measurable outcomes which then shape the concept of what learning is. This has manifested itself typically as follows:

You are simply teaching me to pass an exam, to meet the learning outcomes of a module. I just want to learn.

So long as we meet the learning outcomes of the course and sometimes there may be 10 to 20 in a typical session, then I am doing my job as a trainer.

The latter statement has been expressed in numerous settings and the general retort has been that within police training the teacher must tell the trainee what they need to know to pass the exam. With professional standards it has become possible to ‘tick off’ each standard with the required evidence of observable practice and therefore state categorically ‘You’re a teacher now!’

In both instances we see an overlapping of the communities of practice in which each learner is subjected to an objective driven curriculum which in turn has an assessment methodology appropriate to affirming a degree of acceptable competence. However caught within this community of practice must be the inescapable realisation that each case is not a measurement of learning but simply an affirmation of competence against a set of criteria that is merely deemed appropriate within that community of practice (see appendix 1). So in fact we end up with a qualified teacher / trainer or someone who has ticked enough boxes that apparently declares this to be the case. This needs very careful consideration and indeed should only be considered against the idea that within police training there is a need to control and modify behaviour, to enforce compliance and to obtain obedience; all features of the word discipline.

When I use the word modify, this is not unusual in pedagogical terms and when I speak of outcomes ideology it is interesting to note that within police training these objectives which at first are behaviourist in construction e.g. fire a gun, use a baton, fill out a form are actually qualified by the affective and humanist domain e.g. to appreciate, recognise the moral dilemma in etc. These objectives draw on the domains of learning referred to as Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives (1964) which will be scrutinised more closely in chapter eight.
7.10 Professional discussion as a research tool

My research methodology incorporated the use of professional discussions and the cohorts themselves were consulted on their own professional evolution and identity. A focused discussion on identity with cohort 6 (Feb 09) produced for me a number of interesting and sweeping statements in which identity was evidently in a state of flux, of shifting. What for me was *a priori* knowledge that all police trainers are essentially police officers, sergeants etc. and think of themselves as such is now seriously re-examined. To clarify, I am not saying that they no longer cling to their professional identity but rather it is somehow enhanced by the realisation that they are now also teachers or at least operating as one under the depiction. They are in the main performance criteria produced and sustained in the minds of those whose ideas and concepts of teacher and trainer are influenced by the professional institution which disrupts and recreates the concepts. The debate did allow all members of the cohort to speak and make contributions and there was consensus on the data produced in terms of perception of knowledge of how they appreciate the designations. Table 7.4 illustrates clearly the differences identified by the cohort. Here we can appreciate the emergence of an uncomfortable perception of designation, one perceived as inferior to the other. The above descriptors are made by police trainee teachers whose identity of self actually relates to the descriptors of a teacher once the teacher education programme is at an end and consequently there is some finality to the concepts produced. It is interesting, therefore, that this analysis of perceptions of the role of teacher should include demarcation. It is the demarcation factor in roles which is not useful in the delivery of teacher education programmes. If these words and concepts are viewed outside of their context, devoid of meaning ascribed to them through such contexts, what professionals actually do can be closely scrutinised without making assumptions. The police cohorts for example found the title of ‘teacher’ uncomfortable as it conjured up through the process of deferral, the memory of school, of standing at the front, didactic teaching methodology and the deliverer of knowledge (a possible definition of pedagogy: see Green (1998) in chapter eight).

**Discussion:**

The debate started with the question:

As you are weeks from the end of your teacher education programme, are you trainers or teachers?

What constitutes a trainer and what constitutes a teacher?
### Table 7.4 Teacher and trainer descriptors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is or what constitutes a trainer? (Responses)</th>
<th>What is or what constitutes a teacher? (Responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PowerPoint</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stand up and deliver at the front</td>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do things without the theory</td>
<td>Tertiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychomotor and behaviourist</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting by numbers</td>
<td>Someone who understands the wider picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rote learning</td>
<td>Demarcation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>Innovative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>Deeper knowledge of the art of instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outside the box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developer of packages of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assesses learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The fount of all knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fully qualified</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interesting how now this appears to describe what is contained in the classification ascribed to trainers! Notably some responses from the cohorts concluded that that is what modern police trainers do but as a result of teacher education and its input on curriculum delivery and planning, they have become facilitators of learning, drawing on andragogical approaches to enhance the learner’s experience. As one participant said:

Traditional teachers were in fact trainers, a mouth on legs! Now the trainers, us are teachers.

One of the members of cohort 5 (2008) immediately concluded that: ‘in the past, teachers were trainers!’ And finally upon being asked: ‘If someone asks you now, what do you do?
How might you respond?’ The overwhelming response was: ‘I work for the police as a trainer.’

A further example is the word ‘mentor’ which depending on context means many differing things and as this term is used prolifically within the sector the issue of its use without context or in several contexts simultaneously is problematic:

The teacher education programme is designed for teachers not trainers! It is difficult to get the assessment to fit the role of the trainer.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 1, 2007)

This statement produces already very challenging and unsettling perspectives on professional identity. The distinction here of teacher and trainer is only made clear when the trainee is, in fact, a police officer in one of my generic cohorts working within the constabulary. In one sense the meanings ascribed to here are not a question of semantics but of relationship and power or perhaps distinction i.e. the concept of teacher relating to the traditional setting placing the trainer distinctly in a different sphere. Therefore, the institutional use of language is not determinant of the institution but by it and as institutions are diverse so too is the reciprocal understanding of that language. Within the police, the term and role of trainer is as powerful a concept as teacher.

The creation of the IfL coupled with professional standards has led to the emergence of a conceptual framework of professionalism which encompasses two strands, namely subject specialist expertise and professional competence in the transmission of that knowledge. Despite grouping of professionals together and establishing a common language associated with police training, my lack of experience or knowledge of their Discourse prevented me from providing the best experiences.

I have shown, thus far, that the use of language that is contextually specific is crucial in teacher education. The diversity of skill, expertise and background should mean the abandoning of a ‘one cap fits all’ approach to qualification yet assessment formats on the whole remain traditional i.e. essays and the content remains largely generic with mentoring in the workplace replacing subject-specific input in the classroom.
7.11 Professional discussions: a means to understand how the police viewed their teacher education experiences.

In order to evaluate the training of the police cohorts as they proceeded to fulfil the standards associated with a teacher, I undertook three professional discussions of two hours in duration plus a survey of how the cohort were positioned in terms of their professional identity. They were concluding programmes which, in their opinion, the police training academy welcomed as a means of raising the quality of teaching and training within the service. This research has explored a twofold divergence in attitude and reaction to the training. On the one hand, it is a means to an end designed to lend credence to the Academy’s pursuance of quality training provision. On the other hand it has shown that there is much to gain from the diversity of trainee teachers who undertake the training. Data from a short survey distributed to the police cohorts on their perceptions of development and professional evolution in terms of teaching or at least being designated teacher is helpful. It is helpful particularly if the police wish to be fully qualified and attain full teacher status. The survey contained a descriptor of the two roles assigned to the sector and three carefully structured questions on the perceptions each cohort member held initially, midterm and at the close of their initial teacher education.

‘Police trainer’ is the accepted generic term but one member of cohort five at the close of year 1(2008) on the programme said:

Is this now the correct title for the role? I regard myself as a teacher in view of the fact that I am totally involved in curriculum design.

Another said:

I have actually enjoyed the progression of my development and consider myself being more of a teacher than a trainer.

Another said:

I believe that I have the skills and attributes of a teacher and this has been evident in a practical setting by working towards the standards. It is obvious to me to know that I have control over items such as the curriculum, learning descriptors, teaching methodology and more which I believe shows that the correct title would be that of teacher.

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61 It was confirmed by the IfL in December 2009 that the award of QTLS can be conferred on police trainers.
Another:

My sister was a teacher and I did not feel that I did the same job as her. What I do fit the description of teacher as the work I carry out is teaching.

Gee (2005) provides a toolkit for discursive analysis which if applied here can produce, not only the intersubjective nature of the discourse, but also the internal discourse associated with intramental processes necessary for thought and reflection. This thought and reflection instigated by me as part of the professional discussions, is indicative of the requirement for trainee teachers to engage in reflective practice. As the police take on the challenges of teacher education and adhere to the professional standards associated with this, they clearly debate their identity by engaging with self-reflection and I can tap this through discursive analysis and direct discussion:

I find it challenging to reflect on my practice. Not because it is complex but more so because I have to ensure that what I am saying fits in with the terminology used by the tutors on the programme. What I find, however, is that we do do the things required by the programme. We just call it something else you know like storyboard, debrief etc.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

In an earlier chapter I mentioned the physical adjustment I had to make – from experienced FE tutor to senior university lecturer working with an established profession, namely the police. There is a feel to this work which is beyond mere semantics in terms of a logical or philosophical standpoint i.e. true or false claims or systems. The linguistic term ‘Semantic Field’ (Lyons, 1977) could be best applied here. That is to say that the vocabulary in use is not merely a list of independent items i.e. teacher, trainer, tutor but one part of a field within which such words interrelate and define each other in various ways. A particularly good example of this is found when one considers the police concept of ‘mentor.’ In brief this is a designated colleague who supports the everyday needs of a new colleague and gives advice and pointers in the course of the mentee’s duties. A mentor would never assess any professional practice. Consequently the use of mentor and its contextual interrelationship with the sign of coach or guide within the police does not correlate with the concept inherent within teacher education programmes i.e. a mentor will observe and assess subject-specific professional practice and lead the mentee in the right direction to achieve subject specialist
standards. An onomasiological\textsuperscript{62} feature of police trainee teacher discourse is easily demonstrated here:

**Question:** 'What do you call someone who coaches and develops you in your professional setting and assesses your professional practice through set criteria and professional standards for teachers?'

**Answer:** 'Don’t know, we don’t have one person who could do that in our system! A mentor does not assess!'

This illuminates the problematic nature of linguistic terminology and is evident from one police trainee teacher’s summary of their introduction to teaching in the sector:

> What is obvious to me now is that terminology what seemed mysterious and incomprehensible at first, was in fact very clear once we realised that the terminology used by our tutor had a specific counter term in our training.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

So, the generic nature of the curriculum content within training, designed to embrace all communities of practice, would have benefited from a review of the terminology used in the community of police training prior to delivery.

**7.12 Summary**

This chapter has referenced how professionals have a negative response to current teacher education and professional standards. Reference to language in context also helped explore the importance of the relationship between language and communities of practice wherein each has its own ‘game’ whose language and grammar is mutually intelligible and contextually relevant. Language and grammar here are metaphors for the production of statements and the social/professional forces or ways of life which determine those statements. Within the mixed specialist cohorts of the teacher education classroom there is a very distinct use of professional designations such as assessor, trainer, teacher, and tutor. Each is used defensively according to profession to resist the current training requirements. In other words, the data suggests the central concept of teacher as prescribed by the professional standards and the training qualification does not fit their concept of what they understand as a professional trainer. My desire here was to scrutinise the nature of the words themselves. As

\textsuperscript{62} In linguistics ‘onomasiology’ is a procedure to find out the specific word for a given concept.
words go, they are not helpful within teacher education classroom as each one means or evokes a concept that differs for each participant. For example, the terms mentor or assessor have different meanings in different professional contexts. This is a consistent phenomenon and has meant that delivery of training is often disrupted. Rather than entertain the entire cohort’s reasons for not wanting to engage in the training by restricting dialogue to debates on the multiple meanings of each term, I wanted to suggest here that the words themselves, that meaning itself, is not fixed in such environments and to underpin that with a theorisation on the unfixed meaning inherent within words themselves. Restoring an opportunity to discuss teaching and training through the subject specialism is a positive move otherwise the trainee/tutor relationship remains problematic. Historically Barnes (1971:29) has acknowledged this by referring to conflicting frames of reference:

The teacher teaches within his frame of reference; the students learn in theirs, taking in his words which mean something different to them and struggling to incorporate this meaning into their own frames of reference. The language which is an essential instrument to him is a barrier to them.

Placing trainee teachers in a contextually meaningful environment of professionally focused training disperses the confusion. It is the subject that specifically identifies the professional and not the generic pedagogy of current teacher education.

Thus the possibilities for meaning and for definition are pre-empted through the social and institutional positions held by those who use them. Meanings thus arise not from language but from institution practices, from power relations. (Ball, 1990:2)

The police cohorts, on the surface, welcome the opportunity to undertake teacher education programmes and engage with the concept of teacher but viewed this through a lens of compliance with their own professional ideologies. The notion of discipline is explored and it is suggested that within police training this has as much to do with control and power as it does with ordered pedagogy. The police trainee teachers have readily declared themselves to be part of a disciplined profession and have ideas and notions to describe this which pervade their professional discourse and influence their understanding of what trainers ‘do’ and what training ‘is’. This professional discourse or their language (Hacker and Schulte, 2009) has been present since the development of National Training Organisations within the police such as the NPIA and understandably is received with the obeisance and passivity one might
expect in a system where rank and hierarchy exude compliance. Discipline is equated with being told what to do and this forms the basis of police training at all levels.

During observations and analysis of police training, they show through comments, behaviour, discussion and professional observations of practice how rank and authority carry some influence on how they interact as professionals. Although, as will be shown in chapter eight, many of the prerequisites of quality teaching are present i.e. sophisticated resources, non-mixed groups of professionals including some revealing expertise in certain theories of teaching, this manifests itself in evidence of teaching that could be very one-way, authoritative and nonreciprocal i.e. tell them what they need to know without question and in classroom discussion which suggests, for example a holding back on the part of younger officers when with their seniors. The teacher education programme is much more encouraging of discussion, debate, interaction and learner-centred activity which also shapes my personal understanding of what teaching is. The police cohorts find this problematic and so ‘ticked the boxes’ to meet the professional standards and requirements of the training, but retain a particular conceptualisation of their role, resisting the term teacher in favour of trainer and I suspect returning to the authoritative style once I was out of the picture. So, the data suggests a conceptualisation of teacher which is at odds with their respective professional understanding of the term which is heavily influenced by their professional settings and institutions. This is clearly the shared meaning aspired to in communities of practice which interdependently draw on their respective professional practices to agree meaning in context. But does this lead to cohesion and a more harmonious classroom for teacher education? This is discussed conclusively in the next chapter.
Chapter Eight: Further conceptualisations of training within the police

8.1 Introduction
This chapter relies on several concepts of teacher-learner identity e.g. on-line and flexible learning, strictly traditional pedagogical practice and ambiguity of educational discourse to explore the new relationships, spaces and data arising from such practices. These practices are sites of private discourse restricted by cultural and institutionally specific codes and methods of meaning creation. The chapter explains and argues how traditionally developed pedagogical skills and practices are insufficient when significant professional activity here defined by institutional codes of practice and professional standards takes place remote from the settings and participants. Further explorations produce a twofold interpretation of what constitutes a teacher as understood by the police cohorts drawing on a review of the pedagogical practice of police trainee teachers in the classroom and of the practices of a tutor in online learning as required by the police academy. The perceived ambiguity of educational discourse is exemplified through a linguistic review of a text and analysis of a journal article on assessment. I will elucidate through the data how transposition of ideas and meanings to different contexts is not smooth and therefore has significance in programme design and delivery. Discourse analyses (Fairclough, 1995; Gee 1990 and 2005; Van Dijk, 2011) will also be used in order to demonstrate how discourse produces the concepts associated with teaching. Further analyses of open learning and distance learning models of instruction demonstrates how the police have embraced the concepts but only as a replacement for face to face learning which appears not to acknowledge the dynamic changes involved. There will be an investigation and examination of established pedagogical practice by police trainee teachers undertaking university accredited teacher education within their training organisations which has been heavily influenced by the NPIA (National Police Improvement Agency). An introduction to inductive rather than purely didactic methodologies and a learner- rather than teacher-centred approach has meant a destabilisation of professional identity in terms of their authority as trainers. References to language usage within the police help produce a mind-set which would further problematise the move to a role of a lecturer which can be described, to use the language of Freire (1970) and Knowles (1984), as anti-dialogic and non-reciprocal. It is also suggested that the use of the affective domain in police training could provide interesting and useful strategies to enhance teacher education overall. This chapter concludes with a review of the affective domain of learning and a suggestion that how the police use this, should be embedded more explicitly within teacher education.
What can I learn from my experiences with police training which could further enhance or improve teacher education in general? This can be achieved by further analysing the police training context and curriculum in action.

8.2 Pedagogy of the oppressed: a historical reference to police training

Police training incorporates many of the desired features of educational instruction including online/blended learning, well-resourced learning and teaching environments and a focus on specific learning outcomes for trainee teachers. There are, however, issues of interpretation and understanding of the theories and the role of the tutor in these features. The theoretical rationale for this chapter presents a critical review of specific theories which underpin educational instruction. Their perceptions that educational discussion is ambiguous bring about reluctance to accept the multiple points of view associated with this field. As a teacher educator (and formerly as a linguist) I was particularly conscious of a quote from my own training which essentially declared that a good teacher is one who tries to put themselves out of a job (ref). In other words one who relinquishes control of knowledge and skill and passes this on in a dialogic manner where the student is co-equal to the teacher in any transactional relationship. This is problematic in police training for a number of reasons. Freire’s work The Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1970) and The Politics of Education (1985) has macrosocially elucidated the terrible and destructive effects of oppressive education and microsocially the anti-dialogics of education or a didactic, nonreciprocal model of teaching in which the teacher is the controller, possibly operating from a sincere belief that there should be no other way of educating. The banking concept states in part that:

the teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his or her own professional authority, which she and he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students.

(Freire, 1970:73)

He further describes this naïve consciousness where the teacher is superior to facts and in control of them. This was certainly a feature of police training. Freire’s banking concept (1970:73) presents attitudes and practices which mirror naïve consciousness.

It is not surprising that the banking concept of education regards men as adaptable, manageable beings. The more students work at storing the deposits entrusted to them,

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63 This refers to a sophisticated ‘blend’ of face to face and virtual learning experiences.
the less they develop the critical consciousness which would result from their intervention in the world as transformers of that world.

Table 8.1 Freire’s banking concept

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>the teacher teaches and the students are taught;</td>
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<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td>the teacher knows everything and the students know nothing;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td>the teacher thinks and the students are thought about;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td>the teacher talks and the students listen—meekly;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.</td>
<td>the teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td>the teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g.</td>
<td>the teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the action of the teacher;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h.</td>
<td>the teacher chooses the program content, and the students (who were not consulted) adapt to it;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>the teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his own professional authority, which he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j.</td>
<td>the teacher is the Subject of the learning process, while the pupils are mere objects.</td>
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The more completely they accept the passive role imposed on them, the more they tend simply to adapt to the world as it is and to the fragmented view of reality deposited in them. (Freire, 1970:73)

This ultimately explains a definition of a teacher as one who teaches another without transmitting any knowledge. This paradox is further explained by viewing the teacher as an explicator providing explanations to bridge the gap between the one who knows nothing to knowledge. The psychological oppression of the student in Freire’s work is answered by the liberating practices of the problem-posing explicator. In the banking concept of education:

Knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider know nothing. (Freire, 1970:72-73)

These resonances have certainly arisen in my conversations with established police trainee teachers in their relationships with their own students. Sessions typically commenced with statements like:
I have been in the police for over twenty five years and therefore you will need to listen to me draw upon my considerable experience if you want to pass your course.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

This immediately sets the teacher up as the subject and the students as passive objects to be shaped by the subjective, partial view of reality of the teacher. Freire (1970) refers to this as an act of depositing which, instead of communicating, the students simply receive, memorise and repeat. Ultimately the students receive, file and store the deposits. Teacher education, however, is sufficiently processed to provide opportunities for teachers to recognise that there is much more to teaching. It is not about modifying or conditioning but about students being independent and autonomous. Freire developed this as critical consciousness where teachers represent facts in their causal and circumstantial correlations and where dialogue truly communicates. Also, the learners may gain what Freire calls “conscientizacao” (1970:67) or conscientisation which refers to learning to enable the learner/trainee/student to perceive social, political, and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive elements of their situation. I am not suggesting that there would be a potentially revolutionary reaction by police cadets to their police trainers. However, there is certainly a feeling that, as the police trainers become qualified teachers in a functional sense by undertaking teacher education, by registering with the IfL and by using the methods of delivery proposed in teacher education in their teaching and training, that power could actually backfire on the academy that has insisted on the introduction of the qualification in the first place. Worryingly for them, the police trainers may leave to pursue the profession in mainstream settings. This is a consternation expressed by one trainee in cohort 5 which suggested that the police academy may not have necessarily foreseen the impact of teacher education on their training staff. They may use the qualification to leave the police. Recent destination data (2011) captured in professional summative discussions during April and May indicated this intention:

I intend to leave the force in the near future and pursue a career in FE. I have the full qualification necessary to do that and I also have the transferable skills.

I have secured a post with a local FE college.

65 Or alternatively the face of police training could be transformed.
8.3 Development and reflective practice: key features of teacher education for the police trainee

Throughout my engagement with police trainee teachers, they have consistently had issues with ambiguity of educational debate which could have its roots in numerous domains. The traditional role of teacher used to be that of a didactic\textsuperscript{66} presenter of information passively listened to by ‘learners’. This situation has been changed with the advent of more inductive, heuristic\textsuperscript{67} approaches to learning which have had implications for the role of the teacher. Yet there is a perception amongst the police that didactic is best and that this is what constitutes a good teacher. It is argued that these perceptions can be changed over time with the introduction of learner-centred approaches (Reece and Walker, 2000:117).

Having taught in the FE and HE sectors for more than twenty years, I have been aware of adult learners embarking upon programmes with the preconceived assumption that there are right answers for everything and that the teacher is there to act as the one who corrects them should the right answer not ensue. For instance, a trainee teacher may recognise the existence of a multiplicity of different points of view in the subject matter but still look for the point of view that the teacher wants them to learn. Through carefully organised and sequentially appropriate materials and tasks, it is possible for learners to develop awareness of the relevancies of diversity of opinion and the right to have and defend those opinions. Learners recognize that things can only be said to be right or wrong within a specific context. Teachers are seen as expert guides or consultants rather than as authority figures who impart the truth. Linguistic development like intellectual development requires learners to ultimately conceptualise knowledge as contextually meaningful and relativistic. In terms of transfer of that knowledge involving skills such as initiative, attitude, feelings, problem solving this implies socially constructivist approaches to methodology i.e. interaction mediated through language with more able peers. Trainee teachers bring with them their own individually constructed histories, perceptions and beliefs of what is expected of them and even what may become of them. Theoretically, it is with carefully staged planning and experiential learning that they will come to achieve their goals perhaps attaining the highest possible stage in their intellectual development. Within teacher education programmes, whether part time or full time, it is possible to see the evidence of this staged development as it unfolds. During each

\textsuperscript{66} Didactic (not to be confused with subjektdidaktik) as a teaching term, occurs frequently throughout this and the preceding chapter and refers to a style of teaching in which teacher/trainee interaction is minimal in favour of presentation of material without discussion.

\textsuperscript{67} From the Greek heuristikos for ‘discovery’ which essentially places the teacher as the provider of opportunities to learn through discovery by the learner. See Bostock and Wood (2012) for a further explanation.
stage of the programme it is vital that they become steadfastly aware of all the basics required to make singularly personal yet objective commitment to the concepts of learning and teaching methods and curriculum design. This development must be encouraged; to remain trapped in the initial stages is actively discouraged. The trainee teachers acquire enough experience of learning and of relative self-awareness to effectively pursue a career in a given field having explored the implications and necessity of commitment and responsibility. However, there is a need for far greater emphasis on the idea that learners approach knowledge from a variety of different standpoints. We each interpret the world from a different position and each person may occupy several positions simultaneously with respect to different subjects and experiences. The developmental process is a constantly changing series of transitions between various positions.

8.4 Pedagogy and Andragogy: defining learners’ and tutors’ roles in police training
Concisely and distinctly, this section distinguishes two areas of educational instruction and highlights the nature of learner, tutor materials and resources and their respective positionings in each context. This is helpful in highlighting the model which drives police training. Perhaps on reviewing table 8.2, the question should be ‘What are the similarities?’ rather than ‘What are the differences?’ between the two approaches. Pedagogical and Andragogical approaches focus on classroom practices and discourse and provide a perspective on how the teacher interacts with trainee teachers to develop ideas in the classroom. The verbal communication in the classroom is described in terms of two dimensions: authoritative/dialogic and interactive/non-interactive. In authoritative discourse, an authority figure (normally the teacher) controls the direction of the talk, to focus it on one point of view (normally the contextually established professional view). In dialogic discourse, the discourse is open to different points of view, both every-day and subject-specific. Interactive talk involves more than one speaker, whereas non-interactive talk involves just one speaker. The communicative approach can be applied to different teaching scenarios, for example, authoritative talk is more appropriate when new meanings are being introduced in the classroom, whereas dialogic talk is more appropriate when trainee teachers’ everyday views are being explored. One would therefore expect to see shifts between authoritative and dialogic discourse throughout a sequence of lessons, according to the purpose of the talk. On the one hand, pedagogy here suggests an authoritative ‘do what you are told’, ‘the teacher is in charge,’ and andragogy a dialogic ‘think for yourself’, ‘the teacher will help you do that’.
Table 8.2: Andragogy and Pedagogy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Andragogy</th>
<th>Pedagogy</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Demands of learning</strong></td>
<td>Learner must balance life responsibilities with the demands of learning.</td>
<td>Learner can devote more time to the demands of learning because responsibilities are minimal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Role of instructor</strong></td>
<td>Learners are autonomous and self-directed. Teachers guide the learners to their own knowledge rather than supplying them with facts.</td>
<td>Learners rely on the instructor to direct the learning. Fact based lecturing is often the mode of knowledge transmission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Life experiences</strong></td>
<td>Learners have a tremendous amount of life experiences. They need to connect the learning to their knowledge base. They must recognize the value of the learning.</td>
<td>Learners are building a knowledge base and must be shown how their life experiences connect with the present learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purpose for learning</strong></td>
<td>Learners are goal oriented and know for what purpose they are learning new information.</td>
<td>Learners often see no reason for taking a particular course. They just know they have to learn the information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Permanence of learning</strong></td>
<td>Learning is self-initiated and tends to last a long time.</td>
<td>Learning is compulsory and tends to disappear shortly after instruction.</td>
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</table>

Green, J (1998)

In other words, a behaviourist model of interaction in the first instance, through to a more cognitive/humanist approach in the second. The andragogical assumptions are better placed under a continuum of attainment of each learning goal. This is because there are many stages to learning before self-actualisation or self-determinism is achieved and which Knowles (1984) a key proponent of andragogy appears to regard as actual prerequisites for andragogical learning and teaching. On the other hand, the pedagogical assumptions are more akin to the notion of training and particularly where no previous knowledge is anticipated during instruction. This clearly negates the stages and levels through which learners often go in order to achieve their goals. Consequently there is a need to mix or blend the two models in
order to define a more sound recognition of learning and teaching. At this point it is noted that police training sits comfortably within the pedagogical model.68

If the descriptors above are used and the teacher education pushes the andragogical approach, the consequences are manifested in dialogue and discussion especially during sessions and tutorials. Andragogy is a goal to be worked at and critiques of this model are easily come by, for example Tennant (1988) pointed out that:

the rationale and empirical support for the humanistic concepts of self-development and self-direction have gaps and weaknesses which need to be acknowledged. There is a need to distinguish the rhetoric of adult education from its rationale and empirical base. The prevailing rhetoric asserts that in everyday life adults are basically self-directed and that this self-direction is rooted in our constitutional make up, it also asserts that self-development is an inexorable process towards higher levels of existence, and finally it asserts that adult learning is fundamentally (and necessarily) different from child learning. These assertions should not be accepted as articles of faith. (ibid, 1998: 23)

Although the humanistic69 approaches are welcomed, teacher education programmes do not propose a wholesale adoption of andragogical methodology but rather an acknowledgement that learning is, like those that deliver it, a ‘complex, multifaceted endeavour’ (Baker and Heyning, 2004:140) so what might be the best ingredients to determine effective learning and what role might be played by the tutor in this instance? These roles are shaped by discursive practice, from commonality and a standpoint that assumes that human agency is active: behaviour is imbued with meaning and is determining OF culture, social systems and structures rather than determined BY culture, social systems and structures. In other words might the professional role of a teacher or trainer already pre-exist any designs to describe it?
My own training at Garnett College did appear to70:

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68 Pedagogy embodies an instructor-focused education where instructors assume responsibility for making decisions about what will be learned, how it will be learned, and when it will be learned. Usually, when pedagogy is practised, the relationship of the student to the teacher is dependent and (often) passive, and the relationship between the student and his/her peers is a competitive one. (Paraskevas and Wickens 2003:4)

69 Humanism is an educational theory which concerns itself with the development of the self in terms of values, attitudes and emotions and with learning how to learn and be aware of your own developmental needs.

70 Professional standards for teacher education covered in this thesis only came into existence in 2007.
We appear to already do what is suggested in the programme. It’s just either said differently or is almost simply a question of doing what is needed without knowing what it is called. However we do have a didactic approach to teaching and little time to employ more inductive learning.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

In conclusion, the concept of teacher in an andragogical model is one of facilitator in which learners direct themselves in the instructional process through guidance from the tutor. Previous experiences are used to help assimilate new knowledge and skills which are professionally relevant and easy to access. So this is a case of problem oriented instruction where simulation, role play and enactment are predominantly featured in the learning, teaching and assessment process. Tasks rather than memorising content are more important and tutors are asked to relinquish control and meet the challenge of self-directed learners. Crucially open ended, Socratic questioning (Bostock and Wood, 2012:47-51) is used to elicit responses from all learners whatever their learning style:

It [andragogy] moves from emphasising ‘someone teaching something to someone in a given context’ to one that captures the essentials of the interaction between those constituents in the following manner: ‘someone learning something with someone and/or others in a given context that facilitates interaction’.

Andragogy produces collaborative relationships among students and between the students and the instructor. What the class knows as a whole becomes more relevant. The emphasis shifts from the instructor onto the students’ contributions to the group discussion and learning, their roles, and the responsibility which they engage in, as well as their attitudes towards change, readiness in filling complementary roles. (Paraskevas, A and Wickens, E, 2003:5)

8.5 Online tuition: a critical multimodal analysis of how the police have implemented this method of teaching and learning

Teaching and training within the police also incorporates an element of online learning (OL) and distance learning (DL), a synthesised definition of which is provided here:

Transactional distance is the space where instructors and learners accomplish the work of learning in an environment that separates them in both time and geographic distance, and also the interplay of teachers and learners in environments that have the
special characteristic of being spatially separate from one another. This situation creates a cognitive space between educator and learner, a psychological and communications gap, a space of potential misunderstanding between the inputs of instructor and those of the learner.


There are also very useful, historical definitions which provide a backdrop to the approaches to be adhered to. Telford in (Thomas, 1995:165) summarises the essence of Distance Learning (DL) here demonstrating the three key aspects of i) geographical separation of teacher and learner in space and time; ii) the control of learning by the student and iii) the non-contiguous communication between student and instructor mediated by ‘print or technology’ (Sherry, 1996:2). It is the increased shift towards technology which has meant the need to redress its influences upon the instructional process and indeed to redefine the role of the tutor in DL. Historically we find the roots of DL in radio and television although in the latter even the most expert teachers were not necessarily suited to broadcasting becoming, in effect, boring talking heads never relinquishing control to the student and thereby blocking any two-way communication between instructor and student. Increasingly more sophisticated communication technology is becoming available and with it the chances to exploit it in ways hitherto inconceived e.g. through email, the Internet, video conferencing and digital media. But each technology implies the need for interaction: and in the learning process this means interaction with content and with people (Berge, 1995:1). The importance of providing an environment in which both kinds occur can in effect minimise the barrier of geographical distance considerably. This argument is based on Moore’s (1990) theory of ‘transactional distance’, a replacement term for ‘distance education’ and a threefold formula which includes the study of i) interaction between learners and teachers; ii) the structure of instructional programmes and iii) the self-directedness of the learner or learner autonomy. Firstly, separation in space and time (Telford, 1995) leads to special patterns of learner and teacher behaviours and to an apparent psychological space between them with the potential to create misunderstandings (Moore, 1990). Secondly, structure expresses the rigidity or flexibility of the programme’s educational objectives, the teaching strategies, and the capacity for differentiation, in other words the higher the structure, the lower the interaction and the lower the structure, the higher the opportunity for dialogue and interpersonal interaction. Thirdly, learner autonomy is the extent to which the learner rather than the instructor can determine
the objectives, experiences and evaluation decisions of the learning programme. In view of this theory and its three elements, a relationship model can be created which states that:

i) The greater the structure;
ii) The lower the dialogue in a programme; and
iii) The more autonomy on the part of the learner is needed.

These elements or variables are therefore relative and changeable according to the nature of the programme e.g. a recorded television broadcast would be explained by this model as it is generally one way communication, providing little if no opportunity for dialogue and input from learners. It can be said that DL is potentially very flexible but its success is reliant upon a sound relationship between the qualitative variables above and the extent to which the programme acknowledges these variables. A lack of understanding of the interrelationship of these variables on the part of the National Police Improvement Agency (NPIA) has led to an overreliance on an otherwise excellent model of learning in terms of flexibility and efficiency, ‘Learner Autonomy is not just letting the student get on with it – there is a complexity which requires careful consideration’ (Mannian-Brunt in Field, 1997:32). A relationship model showing the provider, tutor and student roles (see Figure 8.1) demonstrates in the case of the Police the need to work more closely with trainers and students to truly meet their needs. Mannian-Brunt (1997:31) reminds us of the need to guide adults carefully through their learning experiences stressing their need to ‘talk to someone.’ Rowntree (1998) reiterated this point in his evaluation of support:

General support may be necessary but [it] is not sufficient. Most learners need individual support... computerised feedback [can be] very useful but impersonal and therefore impartial.

He commented further that, ‘Students can’t answer back.’ (Rowntree, 1998:77)

Canning supported this assertion with reference to his detailed study in technology based learning claiming that, ‘The use of new technology raises the expectations of students for a more personalised system.’ (2002:37) Within these frameworks a common but not always essential feature of the learning process is technology i.e. the personal computer (PC). It is through this medium that the tutor can make his/her presence felt but the role cannot be described as being comparable to that of the traditional teacher. Canning with reference to previous research comments that historically, ‘Jarvis (1995), Knowles (1979), Pedlar (1990)
have all argued for the reconceptualising of the role to that of facilitator or enabler.’
(2002:32)

**Figure 8.1: Provider, tutor and student roles in online learning**

So the emphasis is shifted to that of environments of shared understanding rather than teacher dominated lectures, which it is suggested can be conceived within a continuum ranging from total learner control to total instructor control (Table 8.2). The former enables students to regulate their own learning, exercising choice over the pace and amount of information to be processed. The tutor is able to guide these processes through negotiation and discourse and the learner actively controls the sequence of learning constructing knowledge step by step and generating rules and models from the experiences. The theoretical framework of knowledge acquisition here is termed ‘constructivism’ based in part on the findings of Bruner (1960) and linked especially to Piaget and encouraged by Knowles (1984). The theoretical purpose of learning is (i) for an individual to ‘construct’ his or her own meaning from educational experiences, not just to memorize or regurgitate the right answers (ii) to promote curricula which acknowledges prior learning and (iii) to promote extensive dialogue or interactivity in the creation of knowledge. In an online or virtual environment the learner should interact with content and with people, the former provided in sequentially effective and meaningful activities and the latter to provide the opportunity for reflection and discussion to promote meaning and understanding from those experiences which allow learners to transcend the information initially imparted. In other words the opportunity is provided to create new meaning for them. Therefore, the role of the tutor has moved from that of the primary source of knowledge or the presenter of information to that of one who requests the production of knowledge through the provision of opportunities for successful interaction with online processes.
Implicit and crucial here is the multimodal fashion of delivery required across the strata of discourse, design, production and distribution identified in chapter three, section 3.3 (Kress and Leeuwen, 2001). Design is ‘the organisation of what is to be articulated into a blueprint for production’ (ibid, 2001:50). It is clear that police trainers are not the designers of their curriculum but should effectively ‘produce’ that which is designed and planned through a thorough understanding of that planning. In other words the trainer is the deliverer or producer of the event of learning. Multimodal analysis is useful to examine how tasks/materials/subject matter, the activity and the choice of interface i.e. screen, DVD, mobile device affected interaction and collaboration in a purely virtual or blended environment. The analysis showed a correlation between the activity design and the amount of permissible discourse but the police create environments in which trainee teachers take less ownership and contribute less discussion. One contributory factor is considered in the next section.

8.6 Examples of perceived ambiguity of educational discourse and argument

Police trainee teachers have consistently raised the issue of ambiguity in terms of engaging in educational discussion which is a pivotal feature of teacher education:

Sometimes discussion can be very frustrating, leading to a great deal of interpretation and contradiction. Some aspects are also ambiguous. We would rather know what we need to know than to engage continually in speculation. (Cohorts, 2008-11)

It is appropriate, therefore, to give an example of ‘ambiguity’ from the data supplied during a professional discussion on the philosophical debates about curriculum design, learning theory and assessment. What follows, therefore, is a text transcribed and constructed by me in response to an article by Phil Race (1995) on assessment to demonstrate where there is linguistic evidence of the perceived ambiguity of educational argument and indeed of educational instruction. This formed the basis of professional discussions with cohorts 2 and 3 in 2009-11 and covered many of the concepts on identity and assessment referred to so far; I have highlighted the phrasal ambiguities which at first were not appreciated by the police trainee teachers.

71 See appendix 3 for a full transcript.
Race’s article on assessment was scrutinised and the following tasks completed;

1. What are Race's overall conclusions?
2. What are the major reasons he gives for coming to those conclusions?
3. What are the strengths of his argument?
4. What weaknesses (including hidden assumptions) can you identify in his argument?
5. Conclude your comments with a brief section putting forward a counter argument to Race's view.

Assessment:

- Your response to this task will be used to make a judgement about your skills of expression, reasoning and analysis of argument.
- Your response may be handwritten or word processed but should not exceed 1000 words in total.
- The form of your response is not important - you may present it as continuous prose or address each of the points under a separate heading.
- You should not need to carry out further reading or research to complete the task satisfactorily; it is not intended to test your knowledge of assessment processes.
- There are no hidden assessment criteria.

Five examples of ambiguity as perceived by the police cohorts (2009-11)

1) He criticises timed written examinations, congratulatory certification for written efforts, written portfolios (in vocational training!) that are still accepted as best for measuring ability. Inability to express views and opinions effectively in written formats may deny losers without top qualifications their aspirations to top jobs.

2) Race stresses the importance of integrating the notion of what learners can do, when they do into assessment procedure, maintaining that experiential learning is not necessarily reflected in so called good qualifications.

3) Where current and previous assessment procedures have fostered an atmosphere of fear and defensiveness, his arguments for learning by doing and from mistakes, for self-
monitoring, discovery and cooperation are ample reason for assessments to monitor and accept these qualities.

4) This may, of course, belie the truth, evoking urgency where thought, research, evidence and objectivity are required. Effective interpretation of his analogous references to winners and losers may reflect some aspects of some people’s lives but is perceived as too generalized to accept at face value. He quips at the well qualified: professional who have been subjected, by official bodies too numerous to mention, to the most rigorous scrutiny and examination. He suggests almost that we are surrounded by incompetent managers, surgeons, dentists etc. when really it is only a small minority who have slipped through the net and caused us to question their accreditation.

5) Would it not be better to maintain such measurable end products but to also investigate more thoroughly that which is to be measured and more important precisely how? Suffice to say that collateral, experiential learning, although intrinsic to the general processes of learning, cannot be effectively measured without the need for copious paperwork and box ticking. Consider the psychological factors involved of interpreting what is done, seen, observed and how to actually record this. Staffing would be too complex to imagine. Proof of competence can just as truthfully be reflected in a grade or classification than in a thick book full of ticks.

The above transcription is indicative of discursive practice within teacher education and, in this instance, on the theme of assessment for learning. Once I had presented the arguments, the cohort was more concerned with the instructions and their ambiguity as well as the way in which the discussion embrace contrasting perspectives. The cohort was asked to highlight the text where they felt it was ambiguous and unclear and to identify preferred phrases as follows. Academic argument is usually formulated through assumptions and assertions substantiated through evidence. Indeterministic discussion and counter argument were clearly problematic for the cohort which was inclined to dismiss the process as irrelevant and continues in current cohorts:

We are not used to this type of approach to learning. We need to know clearly what is or isn’t and then why. Presenting several arguments is not particularly helpful.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 4, 2007)
Typically the activity of summarising texts and producing written responses to texts involve a substantial review of the curriculum models and assessment often appropriated chronologically to British Education and Schooling History, namely, content (Hirst, 1974), situational (Lawton, 1983), process (Stenhouse, 1975) and product (Tyler, 1971) each of which favours a particular learning theory.

**Table 8.3 Ambiguous and preferred expressions in police training**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ambiguous</th>
<th>Preferred expression</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>Must</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is not important</td>
<td>Is or is not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should not need to</td>
<td>Do not need to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not necessarily</td>
<td>Is or is not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belie the truth</td>
<td>True or false</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Process is affiliated with Cognitivism\(^{72}\) and Humanism\(^{73}\) which embraces the notions of heuristic learning and the holistic importance of the human being. Against this, is the behaviourist and neobehaviourist model stressing the control and dominance of an instructor and the setting of very specific objectives which the police initially favour. Finally the professional standards/descriptors of a teacher promote dual professionalism, collaborative learning and teaching, varied assessment techniques and moreover a holistic approach to the learning experience in pursuance of continued quality, betterment and relevance. The following police trainee teacher’s quote is equating discipline and professionalism with being told what to do and doing it:

> We are disciplined and when told what to do we do it to the letter.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

This exemplifies the Pedagogy (teacher led) versus Andragogy (learner led) debate explored recently by Bostock and Wood (2012:4-25). Motivation plays a pivotal role in ensuring that the latter is successful and is certainly a feature of police training since many of their students are well motivated but generally extrinsically. In my observations of police training, they and

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72 Cognitivism stresses the importance of thinking about what is being learned.

73 Humanism stresses the importance of the self in what is being learned.
their students are motivated by the end product; a teacher education qualification or promotion or both. They see themselves as the deliverer of knowledge, are constrained by time and adopt a didactic, pedagogical approach for efficiency. Yet they continue to be aware that the concept of learning requires much more. From the data this is not demonstrated in their relationships with their own students; commonly called pre-reads, these constitute an efficiency method incorporating a rather antiquated view of distance learning pedagogy, e-learning with a massive assumption that students are motivated by such learning and will prepare for the delivered session.

So there is an element of the blended learning approach in police training but it falls under censure on two counts; there is far too much material (often thousands of pages) and a relatively unstructured support regime to help the students handle this type of learning. In other words great ideas poorly thought out. The police have embraced an andragogical and blended learning model but in the latter have not thoroughly understood the complexity of role and function in e-learning. Therefore, the role of the tutor has moved from that of the primary source of knowledge or the presenter of information to that of one who requests the production of knowledge through the provision of opportunities for successful interaction with online processes. Leaving the learner with a set of pre-reads and a DVD/Video and a CD and hoping for the best is not wise. As Hussein (2005) suggests, there needs to be a very clear explanation of the relevance of the audio-visual materials. The following is indicative of that problem:

We wonder if all this e-learning especially through the SARA problem solving model we use in neighbourhood policing (SCAN, ANALYSIS, RESPONSE, ASSESS), and The BREEZE e-learning package that is produced by Merseyside Police for blended training, is under the MLE Managed Learning Environment programmes which record if the materials have been accessed is really only a matter of affirming that access of information has taken place. What about the actual learning and understanding?

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010).

This indicates that the understanding of the concepts of learning and the processes involved in assessment are getting police trainee teachers to question established practice in an informed and critical manner.
8.7 The affective domain of learning: the predominant learning domain in professional police training

In police training there is a predominant use of the affective and psychomotor domains of learning driven primarily by subject content and professional requirements. The former concerns itself with attention, interest, awareness, aesthetic appreciation, moral, aesthetic and other attitudes, opinions, feelings or values and is to do with the modifying in a positive sense, the values and attitudes of learners. It is featured predominantly within the professional standards for teachers as the first of three aspects within each of the standards’ domains A-F which cover all the spheres of professional practice associated with teaching i.e. A) Professional values and practice, B) Learning and teaching, C) Specialist learning and teaching, D) Planning for learning, E) Assessment for learning and F) Access and progression. The first aspect within these domains is concerned with attitudes and values expected of teachers in the sector. As can be seen above, it is expected that teachers should be familiar with moral, aesthetic attitudes, values and opinions and these are expected of police trainers and officers in their service to the community. As one trainee stated:

Neighbourhood policing is a central component of providing a citizen-focused service that aims to put communities, their needs, issues and priorities at the heart of local policing. We appear to always be in the affective domain with our work and therefore in our training and teaching.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

Perhaps it is in this domain that a shared understanding of professional identity can be evidenced. In other words, like citizenship and tutorial support on life skills within mainstream teaching which involves affective learning i.e. an attitudinal or value-laden transformational learning journey, then so too is it for police trainee teachers whose professional standards require evidence of this transformational learning in order to carry out effective public duty.

Within the affective domain, each succeeding level involves more internalisation of the value or attitude which becomes a way of life. This domain, by far, has the most presence in terms of police training and curriculum design; it is usual for the other two domains to be used but it is the subject matter and content that determines the use of the affective domain i.e. investigating or training to deal with rape, child abuse, and murder and witness intimidation.

See appendix 5 for a fuller account.
The need to put themselves in the shoes of others is paramount if a full understanding or appreciation is to be gained. For example:

- Listen to . . . to appreciate the importance of . . .
- To have an awareness of . . . to respond with personal feelings . . .
- To have an aesthetic appreciation of . . . to have a commitment towards . . .
- To recognise the moral dilemmas involved in . . .

Teaching and training in the domain involves receiving, responding, valuing, organising and characterising which can be further categorised as feelings, emotions and affect. This is a particularly dominant feature of the language of the police. I would argue that this particular domain helps shape how the police trainer understands his/her professional identity as distinct from other teaching or training since it focuses directly on the sensitive and sometimes disturbing nature of their curriculum content. It is within these situations that the affective domain is a necessary feature of their professional training.

Generic pedagogy stresses the importance of nonverbal communication in social interaction but is generally only concerned with an examination of its significance in avoiding certain expressions in a teaching and learning context e.g. meanings transmitted by a frown, a blink, a grimace or a smile etc. Affect takes one further step by encompassing the resonances that accompany expressions and it is with this understanding that police training scrutinises the power and intensity of affect as trainee teachers are put into simulated life situations and made to reflect on the resonances of the experiences. Affect is non-conscious and therefore cannot be switched on and off. The young adult trainee teachers are often unprepared for the intense sensation that accompanies exposure to violence, murderous intent and other unsavoury aspects of humanity; an indescribable sensation or ‘affect’ that prepares them for action. The following statement typifies this experience:

- I need to always prepare for the various responses I get from police cadet trainees on my course especially emotional ones as they try to come to terms with the experience. I don’t need them to explain anything, just to be aware of the possible consequences of experiencing what I need to show them.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

Another of the police trainee teachers further reflected on this as part of a professional discussion session:
Generally, I am not lacking in self-esteem, however, the unknown territory that I was entering as a ‘student’, prompted me to identify with Taylor’s ‘Model of the Learning Cycle’. I was in disorientation, and as suggested by Taylor (2000:15), ‘discomfort is a natural and even necessary part of the learning processes; I needed to recognise this and work with it, but how was I to do this? Firstly, I examined my attitudes and values in respect of myself ‘as a learner’, and secondly, I recognised that there was a need to devise appropriate ‘coping strategies’ to reorient myself, and make this a success. Taylor (2000:15) refers to this as the exploration phase, and she argues, ‘students can work through the discomfort with the support of the educator’.

(Police Trainee Teacher Cohort 6, 2010)

The educator in this instance would need to be a subject specialist tutor and therefore totally familiar with the experiences described.

Attitudinal change can be broken down into three components (Reece and Walker, 2000:96) which all have varying degrees of intensity. These are:

- **Knowledge** What the learner knows
- **Emotion** What the learner likes or dislikes about the subject matter
- **Action** What the learner does to express the feelings of like or dislike

These attitudinal changes need to be managed as all learning is and the police have strategies to deal with non-conscious resonances and results of exposure to the more disturbing features of subject matter. Their term for this is ‘to debrief out of the affective domain’ which is written into their session plans and storyboards typically as follows:

1. State intended learning outcome
2. Facilitate small group discussion
3. Learner-centred focus rather than teacher-centred
4. High levels of participation by individuals (the presence and actions of peers affects attitudes)
5. Role play and simultaneous discussion
6. Debrief out of the affective domain

The desire to ensure values and attitudes are encouraged and not forced, the de-brief (see appendix 4) is used to bring about a return to normality after exposure to a particular event. To leave learners in the affective domain, as the police often state, could be a barrier to further learning so it is as a group that the learners are helped to cope with the resonances. This is useful in many aspects of learning particularly where the subject content could be termed emotive or requiring empathy without negative repercussions i.e. racism, politics, religion.

8.8 Summary

The police trainee teachers find the programme problematic; they have an authoritarian ethos which prevails in the interactions of teacher educators and trainee teachers and ambiguity or interpretation is uncomfortable for them. Although willing to put into practice the andragogical model of teaching and learning, they are more comfortable with the anti-dialogic methodology associated with Freire (1970) and traditional pedagogical models. This could be attributed to a confusion of the concepts of self-discipline and imposed discipline. It has also been shown how notions of professionalism cannot assume a single identity of ‘teacher’. There is evidence of an emerging identity of an on-line teacher which is flawed through a misunderstanding of the development of transactional distance and the significance of compensating the lack of human contact or instruction in a sophisticated and supportive way. Each trainee teacher comes with their own histories, perspectives and interpretations of the situation. They certainly do not arrive with a clean slate and consequently all the standardised concepts and ideologies presented by teacher education are invariably reshaped and cognitised to fit (or not) into those psychological mindsets. Consequently my role is to promote the improvement of generic knowledge and skills of trainee teachers with a qualification which focuses on broad outcomes, underpinning knowledge and professional values. This role is not concerned with subject specialism, so a lack of specialist competence on my part is at once a barrier to effective communication and mutual understanding in the training classroom. The police have their own language and although there are semblances of familiarity, the language remains unfamiliar to me. Despite my willingness to engage with the notion of language in police discourse, it was the qualification itself and my lack of knowledge of police practices which instigated the barriers to effective learning and common understanding.
However, one feature of police training represents a very positive move toward recognising the importance of subject-specific input in training and is worthy of further scrutiny: namely that of learning and the affective domain. Since it is concerned predominantly with values and attitudes it is perhaps the most difficult domain in which to teach. Attitudinal change takes time and much of the training carried out by the police recognises this.
Chapter Nine: Thesis conclusions and recommendations

9.1 Conclusions

From my own professional perspective I have certainly evolved as a teacher educator during my career and this validates my contributions to teacher education in this thesis. The chapters have indicated my transition from FE to HE wherein I became focused on enhancing knowledge of pedagogy or my personal understanding of pedagogy in improving learning in teacher education. For the first time, however, I also experienced a severe professional disconnection from those I was teaching and them from me. Misunderstandings or misinterpretations manifested themselves in the training classroom and were concerned primarily with the qualification content and requirements, mixed subject groups and perceived irrelevance to their professional settings. At the beginning and end of the periods of this research, trainee teachers were asked for their views on teacher education. They made qualitative statements based on their experiences over a period of two years. They reported a significant leaning away from generic pedagogy, distancing themselves from the view that pedagogical theories can be systematically and effectively applied to professional practice without issue. They had developed a subject-focused orientation which recognised the significance of discussion and practice and more subject related pedagogical skills. In other words an interconnected subject related body of ideas created through discussion where misunderstandings are explicitly worked on and resolved.

However one researches teacher education and those who undertake such programmes, be it through linguistic, discursive or situational analyses, there are always implications for the design and delivery of teacher education. This thesis has accessed the concept of ‘teacher’ through the three types of analyses mentioned and in every case has encountered a desire for clearer, professionally focused, subject related instruction theorised as subjektdidaktik. The purpose of generic teacher education i.e. to relate theories of learning to professional practice was not appreciated in its current format. Each professional had their own concept of ‘teacher’ co-created and based on respective backgrounds and practices. This research provided accounts and descriptions which were in depth and which provided details of the contest of professional trainers working within teacher education. Inevitably this drew on prior assumptions, experiences and interactions which in turn shaped what is an ever changing complex. This allowed me to appreciate the possibility of such complexity in other professionals.
9.2 Discursive ‘othering’
Professionals from various backgrounds played a significant role in the co-creation of concepts around ‘teacher’ as they formed heterogeneous groups of trainee teachers studying and practising alongside each other. This research focused on the concepts in terms of their influence and visibility in the teacher education classroom. These discursive networks pervaded my teacher education programmes, creating conflict, misunderstanding and incohesion. So, rather than focusing solely on a personal construct of teacher, I employed DA as a framework to analyse how definitions, meanings and identity are produced or formed. This helped bring these professional concerns to the fore in order to examine how government regulation and policy produce a deficit discourse in Foucaultian terms of ‘othering’. For example, chapter six provided insights and perceptions on concepts of teacher within the structure of a teacher education process, arguing that professional identity of a teacher is determined by an adherence on the part of the work force to the concept of dual professionalism. As introduced in chapter three, discourse is connected to prototypical simulations effectively created in the mind to show how a situation is taken as ‘typical’ (Gee, 2005:96). Each professional had the capacity to create prototypical simulations in relation to ‘teacher’ and associated practices and the problems begin when these are distributed from the mind into the discourse encountered in the teacher education classroom. Unlike the former structures of teacher education, the current programme showed how cohorts were composed of mixed professionals in terms of designations e.g. assessors, tutors, trainers, as well as subject specialisms e.g. lawyers, hairdressers. The roles, words and practices were scrutinised to explore strange correlations which are prevalent in the discourse and self-conceptualisation of each trainee teacher. These correlations led to discord and disharmony within the delivery of the teacher education programmes exemplified through disaffection with its relevance to the individual.

This raised issues related to the theoretical processes of subjektdidaktik and the need to identify distinct practices associated with professional settings. This proved challenging when delivering training which attempted to encompass this diversity in terms of effective communication and common understanding of the relevance of the qualification requirements. Gee (1990, 2004 and 2005) framed his thinking in terms of Discourses which shape the identity of professionals. One must ‘speak and act, and at least appear to think and feel in terms of values of viewpoints inherent within the Discourse, otherwise one doesn’t count as being in it.’ Furthermore it can promote ‘concepts and values at the expense of’
others.’ Although each professional engaged in the programmes attempted at many levels to engage also with the appropriate Discourse of ‘teacher’, there was conflict since each also had a professionally related Discourse whose values, norms and viewpoints on this were indeed opposed or conflicting. So was the solution simply ever about homogenising groups based on their distinct subject specialisms? Have government initiatives on promoting an increase in subject specialist pedagogy in teacher education been a positive move?

9.3 Reprofessionalism and discourse analysis
Reprofessionalisation in teacher education has been on the government agenda since 2001 based on a concern for the non-subject specialist content of teacher education programmes. The introduction of professional standards status has masked the real issue which this sought to rectify: subject-specific teaching and learning. Whereas a review of the discursive practices of the non-mixed police cohorts produced a comfortability with their own practices and abilities as trainers and indeed a distinct advantage in being part of a subject focused cohort, the issues of contextually bound and professionally specific terminology in the qualification content lead to discord and disharmony in its delivery. A programme, whose generic content is a precept to providing a course for all regardless of setting, falls under censure on two counts; in its desire to embrace the entire diversity of professionals, it was considered by the cohorts as vague or ambiguous and open to interpretation despite the specialist make-up of the police groups.

Professional concepts of ‘teacher’ remain a complex issue and its significance within teacher education still remains a largely unresolved problem. It has been argued that the language used to articulate designation is value laden and contextually bound and that, in many instances, this could prove to be a barrier in the delivery of teacher education programmes. Also the generic content has meant that the argument for further subject specialist input has re-emerged and is manifest in the dialogue of trainee teacher cohorts. The issues raised apart from the lack of subject specialist teaching included the challenge of academically structured written compositions as a demonstration of teaching ability, contextually bound, professionally specific terminology and uncomfortable descriptors of professional practice.

The neglect of subject-specialist teacher education has increased since the early nineties as the number of institutions involved in generic training has proliferated. When there were few providers (and there were just five in the 1980s), each had sufficient numbers to create viable groups of teachers from a particular curriculum area (Construction, Hair and Beauty, Art and
Design, Business Studies etc.) The absence of subject-specific knowledge of the teacher educators involved in police training, however, caused confusion and a barrier to effective communication. I have encountered within my own professional environments and situations, multiple discourses of professionalism of socio-professional identity and very varied conceptual models of teacher identity. Central to these experiences was the use of language in the creation and production of meaning. I have drawn significantly on theorisations that propose that identities are formed through social and technological skills in the classroom but also between experiences in the environment in which professionals function on a daily basis (Day et al, 2007:579). The bringing together of many professionals, each with a social construct of ‘teacher’ based on experience and histories was found to be consistently problematised by mutual misunderstandings. So the dual concern with both what something can mean and how it has achieved this meaning is common: language is socio-professional practice. Gee helped strengthen the notions of meaning production arguing that thinking, being, acting and interacting using symbols, images, artefacts are the very processes which underpin language use (Gee, 2005:46). In many ways language provided the medium through which teacher is ideationally viewed and understood by respective professionals. Therefore the analyses of the multiple discursive networks created within the teacher education classroom not only presented the complexity of discursive practice but produced evidence of professional identity amongst professional trainers as fragmented and distorted. MacLure historically recognised wider instability amongst teachers for many similar reasons whose personal and professional identity is achieved substantively through the resource of language (MacLure, 1993 and 2003:55). Unsurprisingly the data revealed that, amongst mixed cohorts of professionals, there was an aspiration or even desire to envisage a teacher education process which was predominantly subject or professionally focused in terms of its pedagogy. In other words they aspired to a pedagogy drawing upon theories of subjektdidaktik. When the opportunity arose to work with non-mixed cohorts it soon became clear that this was also a possible solution to their concerns.

9.4 Police training and teacher education
The police found their teacher education experiences problematic. Although willing to put into practice a model of teaching and learning which the author held throughout as a benchmark, they were more comfortable with the authoritative, one-way communication in their respective training classes. This could be attributed to a confusion of the concepts of self-discipline and imposed discipline. The practices and policies within the police massively
influenced their conceptualisation of the role of teacher in their professional training despite my drive to instil what I considered to be an appropriate model of teaching and, therefore, of the concept of a teacher. My role was to promote the improvement of generic knowledge and skills of trainee teachers with a qualification which focuses on broad outcomes, underpinning knowledge and professional values. This role was not concerned with subject specialism so a lack of specialist competence on the part of the teacher educator was at once a barrier to effective communication and mutual understanding in the training classroom. The police have their own ‘language’ and professional conventions and although there are semblances of familiarity between in terms of roles and functions of teachers and trainers from other professional settings, these terms remain unknown to generic teacher educators and therefore insoluble in the current qualification. Despite my willingness to engage with police discourse, it was me as programme deliverer who instigated the barriers to effective learning and mutual intelligibility. If I return to the original question about police trainee teachers and why university accredited teacher education is chosen then, with scrutiny, it is possible to see that this was a quality assurance measure, the aspiration to professional betterment and a need to project an image of competence and discipline. This was a performative ethos or what one enacts or performs to count in the eyes of others. That is to say making themselves count in relation to the measures of competency or performance defined by the profession which by the same means is also held to account. Performance itself was not the issue here but rather performing for the sake of performativity pointing to a position of finality i.e. I have performed X Y and Z and now I am a teacher. The performative role of the police training academy is enhanced through government targets and funding constraints. However as Ball (2003:221) has indicated, the production of ‘performative information’ required for ‘perfect control’ consumes so much energy that it drastically removes the energy available for making improvements.

9.5 Towards an argument for subject-focused pedagogy in teacher education
This thesis accessed the conceptualisation of teacher education in professional training through the four foci mentioned in chapter one and each provided a sound basis for data collection and provided relevant ancillary data which was incorporated into this thesis. Throughout I have encountered a desire for clearer, professionally specific instruction which accentuates the importance of subject specialism and promotes a move away from the current

75 The police have other vocationally orientated routes to accredit their trainers but these are not recognised outside the sphere of police training.
qualification structures. With this in mind it is important to now attempt three things. First to
discern those factors by which a dialogue is emerging which seeks a closer association with
teacher education of the past. For convenience and clarity I will describe this movement
towards a professionally focused, non-mixed specialist approach as centripetal and any
movement away i.e. new professional standards, current course structures as centrifugal.
Therefore I am looking for signs of change from a centrifugal to a centripetal direction.
Secondly I want to identify those movements which are clearly centripetal and thirdly, by
promoting my argument for recognition of the significance of subject-related pedagogy and
by actions which clearly reflect that argument, I must encourage and accelerate the centripetal
movement. Trainee teachers on the programmes examined in this research consistently stated
a desire to have subject-focused instruction within teacher education. What did this actually
mean? Subjektdidaktik is a theoretical attempt to correlate a clear and meaningful relationship
between subject content and how to teach that subject. Teacher education in its current format
is basically about how to teach. If trainee teachers embrace the practices recommended in
teacher education programmes and apply them to their teaching then discussion and debate
around subjektdidaktik would naturally arise. Perhaps it is this natural occurrence which is
desired and which is currently lacking. In other words a focus on the acquisition of threshold
concepts associated with teaching coupled with the intellectual capacity to select and apply
appropriate techniques. Conceptual understandings around subjektdidaktik like many
elements of teacher education programmes are slowly learned and need rehearsal (Gibbs,
2011; Yorke, 2001).

So, what are the indicators that mark the change in direction from hostility to the current
programme structures to a growing appreciation of the argument for subject specialist input?
It is clear that the overarching professional standards for teachers provide for the generic
initial teacher education of new entrants to the profession. The programmes, however, do not
cover the subject specialist skills and knowledge that trainee teachers and trainers feel they
require. The idea is that these entrants to the sector should bring their subject expertise with
them from earlier careers and experiences. This process is overseen by the Institute for
Learning (IfL) which although recognising the notion of dual professional identity, readily
relinquishes the responsibility to maintain subject expertise to the teacher and not to the
teacher education provider. Instead of this and in addition the new entrant must seek the
advice and guidance of a subject-specific mentor which as was seen in chapter six has varied
in quality and, although viewed by cohorts as an essential feature, does not readily address all
the subject-specific needs of trainee teachers. The focus on generic pedagogy which is taught to mixed subject cohorts has meant that the qualification by its very nature has ensured the ambiguity of discourse and vagueness of instruction which the cohorts have found problematic. In other words, when bringing several professions together and then using value laden concepts to introduce skills and knowledge in teaching, there is a definite centripetal movement toward the need for subject-specific pedagogy and there is evidence of a demarcation of roles assigned to teacher teachers. The words and processes associated with roles is not mutually understood and therefore classroom discourse is erratic, confused and without sense to them. The increasingly complex conceptualisations of teachers are further complicated by the need, on the part of the training provider, to deliver clearer subject-specific and professionally contextualised instruction which at the moment is left to a subject-specific mentor. As a result, a significant factor in the promotion of a return to former subject-specific models of training places a demand for the reformation of teacher education providers to one of more specialist and therefore more professionally focused forms of training. Roles and hierarchies are problematic and by shifting the focus of analysis from the words that describe roles i.e. assessor, mentor to one of processes which are new and unpredictable can further promote a centripetal movement. Personal and professional understandings of identity contribute to the fracturing of stereotypical and prejudicial barriers which whilst producing a remarkable similarity of roles between the various designations helps lay the foundations for a more coherent and cohesive approach to training.

It is the research with police trainers and training (2008-2011) which also strongly promoted the centripetal move which I would argue is necessary and welcome in teacher education. Discursive analyses based on professional discussions and observations of practice produced a structure of training which was non-mixed in terms of subject-specificity, which was supported by experienced and competent mentors and, although lacking subject-specific input in the qualification in the same way as historical teacher education, clearly showed the significance of two out of the three factors argued for improved training. It is clear, however, that the police found it difficult to embrace non-didactic, learner centred andragogy and an outcomes based approach to curriculum design which encompasses both product (Tyler, 1971) and process models (Stenhouse, 1975). Many of the methods employed in their teaching i.e. storyboards, debriefs and formative knowledge checks, and an improved knowledge of the significance of the role of the teacher in online learning coupled with excellent high quality resources are welcome attributes to bring to teacher education if
executed effectively. Furthermore their abilities to operate in the affective domain and promote meaningful learning experiences associated with feelings, attitudes and ‘affect’ is worthy of increased scrutiny since this expertise is not readily accessed in current models of delivery.

However, there were elements of the research which also produced a centrifugal move on the part of the police trainee teacher cohorts whereby instances of classroom practice were influenced and swayed by the ranks and hierarchies which make up the structures of the police profession. When relinquishing their traditional, authoritative, didactic teacher role to one of facilitator of student centred learning, this reconceptualisation of the teacher as the one in control was problematic. And as they moved to embrace the andragogical ideals of the qualification, so too were they aware of the problems and issues of terminology which impeded effective instruction and of contention between ranks which in turn proved to be a barrier. Acquiescence to and compliance with the dominant rank within the cohort is a definite inhibitive factor in effective training and prevented the evaluation and therefore improvement of programme design and delivery. Their identification with a disciplined profession is one akin to authority and control and produced a desire to maintain that authority which unless carefully executed could easily mean a reversion to anti-dialogic methodologies in their teaching and learning contexts. Finally, their insistence on absolutes in determining the basis for educational argument prevents, to a certain degree, the capacity to confront their learning in an open minded manner and to embrace multiple perspectives on learning and teaching. Compelled by targets, of rising through the ranks, of hierarchical relationship to each other and of power and status, it is to their credit that in spite of this the police trainee teachers have at least acknowledged if not yet fully accepted the notions of ambiguity in educational discussion, of competing and often irreconcilable points of view and of appreciation of the fuller role of a teacher. Preparation of trainee teachers for professional debate and discussion is crucial in their preparation and I would naturally expect that such debate is a regular part of their daily discourses. The cohorts regularly stated that there was continually ambiguity in debates and deliberations which made them anxious.

9.6 Police trainee teachers’ reactions to theory
The data showed that there was a genuine irresistible acrimony to the substance of teacher education particularly the ‘threat’ of writing theoretical and formal accounts to demonstrate understanding of education theory. This meant that an emphasis on their desire to stress respect for their working understanding and knowledge in use within their particular fields of
expertise pervaded discourse in the classroom. Basically the main retort from the police trainers consisted of two themes:

Why do we have to do all this theory”, and “I am good at what I do and I can demonstrate that to others.

The transmission of knowledge is not, or shouldn’t be one way. The data suggested a general embracing of the notion of teacher as opposed to trainer as a descriptor of the functionality within the professional setting. The emphasis that this training appeared to place on the ‘propositional and practical knowledge’ elements of teaching noted by Burnard (1988:131) simultaneously denied the critical importance of the experiential and affective elements of learning through which they gain ‘personal and idiosyncratic’ insights into what it is to ‘be’ an educator, and the self-knowledge (ibid,1988:129). Nind and Thomas (2005: 97) argue that this is a ‘principal tool in helping trainee teachers to understand and teach.’ There was indeed an attempt to move to andragogical methodology (Knowles, 1984 in Green, 1998) but the word ‘teacher’ was still unsettling and unexpectedly the cohort decided to refer back to the fact that in response to ‘what do you do?’*, they would say ‘I work for the police as a trainer!’. What is clear is that the regulative changes associated with teacher education have certainly impacted on traditional delivery methods within police training and to some extent in a quality way. Whether I remain convinced that I have made teachers of the trainers is only possible if I negate the strong professional attachment that each trainee teacher holds to their police status. And it can be seen that the responses to questions on identity remain focused on ‘trainer’ with the newly developed attributes of ‘teacher’.

Yet of all the training contexts encountered in this research, the one nearest to the historic teacher education programmes is the police. Although it is a relatively new in its current organisation, it is the most rapidly growing educational expression of quality teacher education. It has the marks of a distinguished and specialist academy in its professional composition, its organizational structure, and its institutions designed to improve excellence in training all in a growing sophistication and maturity. Its increasing importance in the provision of training has resulted in the recognition of its trainers by the institute for learning (IfL) which has conferred its offer of affiliate membership and highest status for teaching in the sector; QTLS. Its very dynamism has helped me explore how non-mixed, subject-specific cohorts, supported by experienced mentors can result in excellent outcomes for trainee
teachers. Its leaders are open in their dialogue with teacher education providers and this has meant a willingness on their part to share good practice and demonstrate how the ‘disciplines’ of commitment, cohesion and desire to learn are qualities which mainstream training would embrace and encourage. More important is the fact that the centripetal movement is further demonstrated in the exhortations from police trainee teachers that mirror their counterparts in mainstream teaching: a return to subject specialist input in the qualification itself. How that subject-specific input will manifest itself remains to be seen but I shall make recommendations in the next section. The consistency and quality of mentoring is sporadic to say the least so a movement to improve this remains an issue of mentoring rather than of embedded subject specialist input. Given the current economic recession it is unlikely that the British government would entertain increased investment in providing this necessary input. In the last analysis, however, there must be a radical change in the approach of the providers of teacher education towards an understanding of the necessity to provide subject specialist input in some form.

So, given that the characteristics and structures of current training providers continues to propel them in a centrifugal direction, there is perhaps some hope that course evaluations, evaluations of placement and mentoring experiences by trainee teachers and the argument presented in this research could, at the very least, see a more purposeful and informed move towards subject specialist input in teacher education. Dialogue between the police training academy and mainstream training provision is already underway. The need for further dialogue between mainstream teacher education providers and their mixed subject cohorts is already long overdue.

9.7 Recommendations
From the outset I have endeavoured to research a complex issue in initial teacher education involving in-service professionals. Through my experiences of teaching in this area during a period of significant cultural change, I have encountered dissatisfaction and consternation on the one hand, particularly on issues such as mixed cohort teaching, but on the other I have found appeal with the idea of a return to non-mixed subject-specific teaching in initial teacher education. This professional doctoral programme has given me considerable opportunity to focus on and research this important aspect of my duties as a provider of teacher education. It

76 Data from Ofsted EHU inspection figures 2007-11.
has required me to demonstrate certain key capacities and to recognise the significance of high level generic, analytical skills in research:

• The capacity to relate reading to key professional issues in the field, including ethical issues, and to relate theory to practice.

• The capacity to analyse problems and issues related to the professional context.

• The capacity for critique and reflective engagement with particular topics.

• The capacity to present and discuss the implications of analyses with respect to changes in policy and practice.

It has enabled the development of analytical and critical frameworks to scrutinise workplace realities and provide a reconstruction of professional and work based knowledge and it has challenged me to set my professional work within a theoretical context and draw upon theoretical models which can be used to explore professional practice. Consequently I am able to understand that the process of such activity is just as important and valuable as the product. Attaining and maintaining critical researcher identity and indicating active use of reflective practice in my professional role has facilitated a deeper understanding of my own professional situations and a propensity to obtain perspectives from diverse (and eclectic) evidence bases. The evolution of this doctoral programme continues and mirrors the experiences and outcomes provided in this thesis which view the concept of the reflective practitioner as central and which observe and explore the problematic notions of generic vs. subject specialist knowledge. This is in two senses; firstly my development of reflection as a skill to analyse language and context, and secondly, an encouragement to analyse previous professional experiences which are reflected in the debates around teacher professionalism presented in chapter six. The same chapter also presented a synthesis of ideas, concepts and approaches from my professional setting with relevant theoretical frameworks which have helped me to propose change, to innovate and to make a difference within my workplace. I will expand on this in a moment. Summarily the doctoral programme has provided opportunities to:

• Recognise relevant existing experiential, educational and subject-based issues.

• Provide a framework for extending the knowledge base of my professional sphere of activity.
• Recognise the trans-disciplinary nature of this professional work.

With particular regard to the third bullet, I can expand on two specific examples of the effective transference of these skills to current, professional activity: Firstly and in my current capacity as module leader of the PGCert for HE specialists, I regularly work with students representing a great variety of professional and academic disciplines. The student group is composed of senior university academics, teacher educators, and even PhD students with varied research backgrounds. Indeed, a student group where a lively multidisciplinary discourse is an everyday activity. Debates on multi- and trans-disciplinary work are often about the differences and commonalities of professionals and academics; in short, about their respective identities. It is my strong conviction that these identities are framed by the original education these professionals have received and by the institutional contexts in which they perform their profession. Thus, the institutional context is responsible for the encouragement of multi- and trans-disciplinary work which is enhanced by the acquisition of appropriate skills and knowledge from the EdD programme. There has already been significant debate (Healey, 2000; Neumann, 2001; Robson, 2006) around the development of the scholarship of teaching in Higher Education arguing that it needs to be developed within the context of the culture of the disciplines in which it is applied providing a challenging agenda for the development of subject-based teaching in this sector. As argued in chapter six, it is difficult to agree on a specialised knowledge base which in an HE teacher education context is as fractured and disparate as that which confronts the educator in an FE context. The opportunities to explore CK and develop PCK in HE are under-researched and any practical solution is overshadowed by its subtlety and its complexity (Robson, 2006) where academics continue to claim differing pedagogical practices according to discipline. As with the cohorts in this thesis, I remain the generic teacher educator with no formal understanding of their respective CK or opportunities to develop PCK. The suggested recommendations of this thesis may also help resolve this. The analytical processes which evolved through this thesis are readily transposed to this new setting and have provided me with a stronger and more focused approach to the delivery of this programme. Therefore I have been part of a shifting context of doctoral identity where specialised academic identity is replaced by the development of generic analytical and critical skill based approaches. These emphasise the process of revealing the complexities of work based activity, the dynamics of the workplace and the salience of professional knowledge.
Secondly, my intentions are also to seek possible directions on how to improve provision and enhance training experiences for those engage in programmes of teacher education at my institution. This longitudinal study and involvement with trainee teachers has reaffirmed and extended the findings of earlier work in which mixed groups of professionals increasingly desired subject specific support in their preparation. In particular it has reaffirmed speculations regarding the potential value of subject focused pedagogy (SFP) and has permitted further exploration of the ways that this can contribute to effective professional advancement of trainee teachers. The earlier themes of this thesis which focused on the significance of language in context and professionally focused pedagogical practices have not dissipated, rather they have enabled a stronger understanding of how SFP processes can bring useful affirmations and insights for professional development. Later themes around the interdependency of generic and subject focused pedagogy afforded trainee teachers the opportunity to see SFP as explorative, problem solving activity designed to influence and enhance their potential teaching styles and approaches. The final themes around effectively supporting PCK represented the trainee teachers’ deepened appreciation of the practical and reflective explorations of their teaching preparation to consider three important aspects namely interaction, context and professional situation. As the trainee teachers encounter new contexts and situations, their practices evolved to take account of these supported by generic and SFP input plus mentor support. I propose, therefore, to recommend to the Annual Monitoring and Review Board\(^{77}\) a specific and comprehensive set of actions which have been derived from the research found in these pages. I plan to promote a cautious but necessary reintroduction of subject specialist input specifically for in-service trainee teachers by involving mentors whose principal role is to support them in their subject specialism\(^{78}\).

- Glossaries to cover situated meaning in words used in professional settings.
- Creation of online subject-specific networking between mentors.
- Trainee teachers grouped in a virtual forum according to subject in order to access appropriate mentor input and facilitate dialogue.

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\(^{77}\)This is a meeting at which programmes and courses are summarily reviewed in order to suggest actions for improvement.

\(^{78}\)There are six elements which contribute to teachers developing their specialist subject which are outlined in appendix 6.
• Subject-specific pedagogy input by mentors at workshops\textsuperscript{79} for trainee teachers.

This thesis and its research activities are an attempt to develop results or solutions of practical value and to develop theoretical knowledge which is timely since new programmes are, at the time of writing, being established. Existing programmes are undergoing significant revisions\textsuperscript{80} to comply with revised professional standards and to try and provide distinctive alternatives to current provision and practices. Teachers, more or less, will attempt make sense of those practices adjusted in line with new descriptive lenses to identify with successive curriculum models and the way in which these identifications frame learning. In order to promote subjektdidaktik processes, I have suggested above an increased dialogic contact between experienced, trained mentors and in-service professionals in order to provide effective subject-specific support. Those mentors who have high quality experience, knowledge and skills in the subject field within every area across the sector would be encouraged to nurture metacognitive and metalinguistic skills of their respective trainee teachers in their subject areas. In other words, an encouragement to discuss and debate how to teach the subject matter itself in the best possible way to maximise learning and understanding. As explored in chapter seven, the police trainees explicitly respected and welcomed the support of experienced mentors who had first-hand knowledge of practices and processes of police training. Increased triadic engagement of teacher educator, mentor and trainee teacher to explore pedagogical concerns and issues was an effective opportunity to discuss and enhance practice through the subject specialism. A pivotal feature of subjektdidaktik is dialogue and the enhancement of PCK which, through augmented reality platforms, can be brought to the teacher education classroom and facilitated by teacher educators. They can also begin to expand their own awareness of the PCK of a range of subject specialisms strengthening the connection between teacher education and professional training. Experienced/advanced practitioners with proven experience of supporting the embedding of best practice would engage with mentor training within my institution\textsuperscript{81}, but

\textsuperscript{79} Appendix 8 outlines how applied subject pedagogy can be promoted through augmented reality platforms and face to face support and dialogue.

\textsuperscript{80} Proposals include replacing the existing PTLLS, CTLLS and DTLLS programmes with a level 3 award in education and training, a level 4 certificate in education and training and a level 5 diploma in education and training. A level 7 diploma has also been suggested. Furthermore, following recommendations from the interim report of the Independent Review of Professionalism in Further Education, LSIS has proposed the development of specialist qualifications at level 5 for teachers of literacy and numeracy; and integrated qualifications at level 5 for teachers of English, maths, ESOL and for teaching disabled learners. The proposal also suggests reviewing the professional standards for teachers with new qualifications being delivered from September 2015.

\textsuperscript{81} See appendix 9.
will also have involved themselves in cycle of appraisal and observation within their respective professional settings. This approved cycle will assure the institution of high quality education and teaching capacity which not only would help trainee teachers maintain their subject knowledge, but also support dialogic engagement on the optimum way to apply that knowledge i.e. subjektdidaktik. An alternative construct to Wenger’s Communities of Practice mentioned throughout this thesis proposed by Gee (2004) and known as ‘affinity spaces’ has helped me suggest an approach to supporting subject-specific pedagogical knowledge as specified in the above recommendations. In other words spaces, whether virtual or face to face, built to resource those who share a particular endeavour (an affinity) governed by a theoretical framework which drives context and relationship to the fore i.e. mutually constitutive relationships. Thus the community or affinity is made coherent by practices which focus on up to date subject knowledge and discussion which promotes subjektdidaktik i.e. appropriate engagement with the connection between subject matter, content and application in the teacher education classroom. These dialogic opportunities can be scheduled within modules or provided as group tutorial sessions but the emphasis on face to face debate and discussion is at the fore of this proposal. The subject specific workshops (appendix 8) will provide material for trainee teachers to further develop and reflect on their specialist subject knowledge, their pedagogical teaching skills and the processes of their own and students’ learning. The university and related professional placement experiences will continue to form the central learning activities and will provide the context in which the complex and inter-related skills of teaching – the application of subject knowledge, planning for learning, classroom management, teaching methodology, assessment and recording – are developed. These areas are also clearly identified in domain C of the professional standards. This of course does not give the trainee teachers specifically what they think they need i.e. total subject focused teacher education but goes some way to improving what is currently an issue in these programmes. In other words programmes which provide dialogic opportunities for them to improve understanding and engagement with the theories of teaching and learning and their distinct professional or specialism application.

Thirdly there is a distinct need to review the programme requirements and deeply consider the respective audience. Minimising issues of communication will involve detailed

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82 See especially point 1 on augmented reality platforms in appendix 6.

83 The IfL has agreed with Ofsted’s assertion (November, 2012) that opportunities for teachers to update their specialist vocational knowledge are lacking, largely due to increasing teaching hours and sporadic opportunities for effective continuing professional development (CPD). So too the report suggests there is a need for more up-to-date specialist vocational equipment.
knowledge and research of the respective subject/professional settings. The implications based on the research presented in this thesis are that in-service trainee teachers are more likely to benefit from opportunities to engage with subject specialist input alongside generic input and subject-specific mentor support during the placement. As with the police cohorts, it is also likely to see considerable improvement in achievement if all trainee teachers are encouraged to network and share expertise in their respective professions and are given access to subject specialist advice both in terms of resources and actual taught sessions.

Teacher education attempts to reflect the reality of vocational application, and the complexity of the professional settings makes the concept of subject specialism and the associated move towards mentoring based on subject specialism a difficult one to implement. Yet it remains a fact, based on the evidence of this research, that the professional or subject needs of teachers and trainers can be met if dialogue is increased between vocational training professionals and teacher educators to cement positive and cohesive relations. The trainee teacher who insists that teacher education is irrelevant or not sufficiently professionally focused must learn to appreciate that language is dialogic, that words and concepts do carry histories of use and are not context-less (Blommaert, 2006). When they ask to be taught how to teach their subject, they must appreciate the necessity of dialogue and language as processes of meaning making to achieve an understanding of what this actually means. Finally the evidence from this research suggests that it is thoroughly advantageous to all concerned if the subject matter and professional training are linked in a constantly centripetal engagement with the theories and practices of teacher education pedagogy.
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Glossary

Trainee teachers whose views and perceptions were discussed, observed and captured for this research study

Trainee Teacher cohorts (2004-2010)

I will make reference to six cohorts of trainee teachers of which the former three were pre-2007 generic PCET cohorts in one institution of Further Education undertaking one of two FENTO (Further Education National Training Organisation) endorsed Certificate of Higher Education courses:

1. *7407(Stages 1 and 2) (2004-5) 15 trainee teachers


And the latter three were and are Police Trainee Teachers within the Police Training Academy, Merseyside and accredited by the University,

4. **Certificate of HE (FENTO endorsed) 2007-8 18 trainee teachers

5. **Certificate of HE (LLUK endorsed) 2007-9 13 trainee teachers

6. **Certificate of HE (LLUK endorsed) 2009-10 19 trainee teachers

*7407 refers to a City and Guilds teacher education programme equal to the Certificate of HE/PGCE typically taken in three stages at Level 4 and which was phased out in 2007. The Certificate of HE and PGCE acronyms refer to a University accredited course endorsed by the Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO 2000-2007) for teachers who are either non-graduates (Certificate of HE) or graduates (PGCE).

**Certificate of HE refers to the University accredited teacher education programme endorsed by the Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO 2000-2007) or by Life Long Learning UK (LLUK 2007)
Certificate of Education (FE) refers to the CNAA accredited Teacher Education Programme available until 1989.

The former are crucial in representing the generic, non-subject-specific nature of the pre-LLUK training and the latter are analysed to establish discursive practices in identity construction. Indeed this thesis concerns itself with the participation of these trainee teachers in two overlapping communities of practice namely PCET and Police Training and the thesis will attempt to determine the extent to which participation in these communities through reflection and action will shape their vocational representation of Learning and Teaching and thus their professionalism. There is also an attempt to generate data which is useful in the design and delivery of PCET teacher education.

ATLS\(^4\) refers to the Associate Teacher Status for those whose role is substantially limited.

QTLS refers to the Fully Qualified Teacher Status for those whose role is conversant with the professional requirements of a full time teacher in the sector.

\(^4\) ATLS has proved very unpopular with very few teachers wishing to be labelled in this way.
Appendix 1
LLUK Professional Standards 2008-11

Domain A: Professional values and practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROFESSIONAL VALUES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Teaching in the lifelong learning sector value:

| AS 1 | All learners, their progress and development, their learning goals and aspirations and the experience they bring to their learning. |
| AS 2 | Learning, it’s potential to benefit people emotionally, intellectually, socially and economically, and its contribution to community sustainability. |
| AS 3 | Equality, diversity and inclusion in relation to learners, the workforce, and the community. |
| AS 4 | Reflection and evaluation of their own practice and their continuing professional development as teachers. |
| AS 5 | Collaboration with other individuals, groups and/or organisations with a legitimate interest in the progress and development of learners. |

They are committed to:

| AS 6 | The application of agreed codes of practice and the maintenance of a safe environment. |
| AS 7 | Improving the quality of their practice. |

| PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING | PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE |

Teachers in the lifelong learning sector know and understand:

| AK 1.1 | What motivates learners to learn and the importance of learners’ experience and aspirations. |
| AK 2.1 | Ways in which learning has the potential to change lives. |
| AK 2.2 | Ways in which learning promotes the emotional, intellectual, social and economic well-being of individuals and the population as a whole. |
| AK 3.1 | Issues of equality, diversity and inclusion in relation to learners, the workforce, and the community. |

Teachers in the lifelong learning sector:

| AP 1.1 | Encourage the development and progression of all learners through recognising, valuing and responding to individual motivation, experience and aspirations. |
| AP 2.1 | Use opportunities to highlight the potential for learning to positively transform lives and contribute to effective citizenship. |
| AP 2.2 | Encourage learners to recognise and reflect on ways in which learning can empower them as individuals and make a difference in their communities. |
| AP 3.1 | Apply principles to evaluate and develop own.
| AK 4.1 Principles, frameworks and theories which underpin good practice in learning and teaching. | AP 4.1 Use relevant theories of learning to support the development of practice in learning and teaching. |
| AK 4.2 The impact of own practice on individuals and their learning. | AP 4.2 Reflect on and demonstrate commitment to improvement of own personal and teaching skills through regular evaluation and use of feedback |
| AK 4.3 Ways to reflect, evaluate and use research to develop own practice, and to share good practice with others. | AP 4.3 Share good practice with others and engage in continuing professional development through reflection, evaluation and the appropriate use of research. |
| AK 5.1 Ways to communicate and collaborate with colleagues and/or others to enhance learners’ experience. | AP 5.1 Communicate and collaborate with colleagues and/or others, within and outside the organisation, to enhance learners’ experience. |
| AK 5.2 The need for confidentiality, respect and trust in communicating with others about learners. | AP 5.2 Communicate information and feedback about learners to others with a legitimate interest, appropriately and in a manner which encourages trust between those communicating and respects confidentiality where necessary. |
| AK 6.1 Relevant statutory requirements and codes of practice. | AP 6.1 Conform to statutory requirements and apply codes of practice. |
| AK 6.2 Ways to apply relevant statutory requirements and the underpinning principles. | AP 6.2 Demonstrate good practice through maintaining a learning environment which conforms to statutory requirements and promotes equality, including appropriate consideration of the needs of children, young people and vulnerable adults. |
| AK 7.1 Organisational systems and processes for recording learner information. | AP 7.1 Keep accurate records which contribute to organisational procedures. |
| AK 7.2 Own role in the quality cycle. | AP 7.2 Evaluate own contribution to the organisation’s quality cycle. |
| AK 7.3 Ways to implement improvements based on feedback received. | AP 7.3 Use feedback to develop own practice within the organisation’s systems. |
## Domain B: Learning and teaching

### Teachers in LL sector value:

| AS 1 | Learners, their progress and development, their learning goals and aspirations and the experience they bring to their learning. |
| AS 2 | Learning, its potential to benefit people emotionally, intellectually, socially and economically, and its contribution to community sustainability. |
| AS 3 | Equality, diversity, and inclusion in relation to learners, the workforce, and the community. |
| AS 4 | Reflection and evaluation of their own practice and their continuing professional development as teachers. |
| AS 5 | Collaboration with other individuals, groups and/or organisations with a legitimate interest in the progress and development of learners |

### They are committed to:

| BS 1 | Maintaining an inclusive, equitable and motivating learning environment. |
| BS 2 | Applying and developing own professional skills to enable learners to achieve their goals. |
| BS 3 | Communicating effectively and appropriately with learners to enhance learning. |
| BS 4 | Collaboration with colleagues to support the needs of learners. |
| BS 5 | Using a range of learning resources to support learners. |

### PKU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers in LL sector know and understand:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BK 1.1 Ways to maintain a learning environment in which learners feel safe and supported.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 1.2 Ways to develop and manage behaviours which promote respect for and between others and create an equitable and inclusive learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 1.3 Ways of creating a motivating learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 2.1 Principles of learning and ways to provide learning activities to meet curriculum requirements and the needs of all learners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers in LL sector:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BP 1.1 Establish a purposeful learning environment where learners feel safe, secure, confident and valued.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BP 1.2 Establish and maintain procedures with learners which promote and maintain appropriate behaviour, communication and respect for others, while challenging discriminatory behaviour and attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BP 1.3 Create a motivating environment which encourages learners to reflect on, evaluate and make decisions about their learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BP 2.1 Provide learning activities which meet Curriculum requirements and the needs of all learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 2.2 Ways to engage, motivate and encourage active participation of learners and learner independence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
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<tr>
<td>BK 2.3 The relevance of learning approaches, preferences and skills to learner progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 2.4 Flexible delivery of learning, including open and distance learning and on-line learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 2.5 Ways of using learners’ own experiences as a foundation for learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 2.6 Ways to evaluate own practice in terms of efficiency and effectiveness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 2.7 Ways in which mentoring and/or coaching can support the development of professional skills and knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK3.1 Effective and appropriate use of different forms of communication informed by relevant theories and principles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 3.2 A range of listening and questioning techniques to support learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 3.3 Ways to structure and present information and ideas clearly and effectively to learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 3.4 Barriers and aids to effective communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 3.5 Systems for communication within own organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 4.1 Good practice in meeting the needs of learners in collaboration with colleagues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 5.1 The impact of resources on effective learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BK 5.2 Ways to ensure that resources used are inclusive, promote equality and support diversity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Domain C: Specialist learning and teaching**

**PV Teachers in lifelong learning sector value:**

| AS 1 Learners, their progress and development, their learning goals and aspirations and the experience they bring to their learning. |
| AS 2 Learning, its potential to benefit people emotionally, intellectually, socially and economically, and its contribution to community sustainability. |
| AS 3 Equality, diversity, and inclusion in relation to learners, the workforce, and the community. |
| AS 4 Reflection and evaluation of their own practice and their continuing professional development as teachers |
| AS 5 Collaboration with other individuals, groups and/or organisations with a legitimate interest in the progress and development of learners. |

**They are committed to:**

| CS 1 Understanding and keeping up to date with current knowledge in respect of own specialist area. |
| CS 2 Enthusing and motivating learners in own specialist area. |
| CS 3 Fulfilling the statutory responsibilities associated with own specialist area of teaching |
| CS 4 Developing good practice in teaching own specialist area. |

**PKU Teachers in LL sector know & understand:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CK 1.1 Own specialist area including current developments.</th>
<th>CP 1.1 Ensure that knowledge of own specialist area is current and appropriate to the teaching context.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CK 1.2 Ways in which own specialism relates to the wider social, economic and environmental context.</td>
<td>CP 1.2 Provide opportunities for learners to understand how the specialist area relates to the wider social, economic and environmental context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK 2.1 Ways to convey enthusiasm for own specialist area to learners.</td>
<td>CP 2.1 Implement appropriate and innovative ways to enthuse and motivate learners about own specialist area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK 3.1 Teaching and learning theories and strategies relevant to own specialist area.</td>
<td>CP 3.1 Apply appropriate strategies and theories of teaching and learning to own specialist area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK 3.2 Ways to identify individual learning needs and potential barriers to learning in own specialist area.</td>
<td>CP 3.2 Work with learners to address particular individual learning needs and overcome identified barriers to learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK 3.3 The different ways in which language, literacy and numeracy skills are integral to learners’ achievement in own specialist area.</td>
<td>CP 3.3 Work with colleagues with relevant learner expertise to identify and address literacy, language and numeracy development in own specialist area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK 3.4 The language, literacy and numeracy skills required to support own specialist teaching.</td>
<td>CP 3.4 Ensure own personal skills in literacy, language and numeracy are appropriate for the effective support of learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK 3.5 Ways to support learners in the use of new and emerging technologies in own specialist area.</td>
<td>CP 3.5 Make appropriate use of, and promote the benefits of new and emerging technologies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK 4.1 Ways to keep up to date with developments in teaching in own specialist area.</td>
<td>CP 4.1 Access sources for professional development in own specialist area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK 4.2 Potential transferable skills and employment opportunities relating to own specialist area.</td>
<td>CP 4.2 Work with learners to identify the transferable skills they are developing, and how these might relate to employment opportunities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Domain D: Planning for learning**

**PV Teachers in the lifelong learning sector value:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AS 1 Learners, their progress and development, their learning goals and aspirations and the experience they bring to their learning.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS 2 Learning, its potential to benefit people emotionally, intellectually, socially and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
economically, and its contribution to community sustainability.

AS 3 Equality, diversity, and inclusion in relation to learners, the workforce, and the community.

AS 4 Reflection and evaluation of their own practice and their continuing professional development as teachers

AS 5 Collaboration with other individuals, groups and/or organisations with a legitimate interest in the progress and development of learners.

**They are committed to:**

DS 1 Planning to promote equality, support diversity and to meet the aims and learning needs of learners.

DS 2 Learner participation in the planning of learning.

DS 3 Evaluation of own effectiveness in planning learning.

**PKU Teachers in LL sector know & understand:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DK 1.1 How to plan appropriate, effective, coherent and inclusive learning programmes that promote equality and engage with diversity.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DP 1.1 Plan coherent and inclusive learning programme’s that meet learners’ needs and curriculum requirements, promote equality and engage with diversity effectively.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DK 1.2 How to plan a teaching session.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DP 1.2 Plan teaching sessions which meet the aims and needs of individual learners and groups, using a variety of resources, including new and emerging technologies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DK 1.3 Strategies for flexibility in planning and delivery.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DP 1.3 Prepare flexible session plans to adjust to the individual needs of learners</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DK 2.1 The importance of including learners in the planning process.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DP 2.1 Plan for opportunities for learner feedback to inform planning and practice.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DK 2.2 Ways to negotiate appropriate individual goals with learners.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DP 2.2 Negotiate and record appropriate learning goals and strategies with learners.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DK 3.1 Ways to evaluate own role and performance in planning learning.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DP 3.1 Evaluate the success of planned learning activities.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DK 3.2 Ways to evaluate own role and performance as a member of a team in planning learning.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DP 3.2 Evaluate the effectiveness of own contributions to planning as a member of a team.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Domain E: Assessment for learning

#### PV Teachers in the lifelong learning sector value:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AS 1</th>
<th>Learners, their progress and development, their learning goals and aspirations and the experience they bring to their learning.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS 2</td>
<td>Learning, its potential to benefit people emotionally, intellectually, socially and economically, and its contribution to community sustainability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 3</td>
<td>Equality, diversity, and inclusion in relation to learners, the workforce, and the community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 4</td>
<td>Reflection and evaluation of their own practice and their continuing professional development as teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 5</td>
<td>Collaboration with other individuals, groups and/or organisations with a legitimate interest in the progress and development of learners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### They are committed to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ES 1</th>
<th>Designing and using assessment as a tool for learning and progression.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ES 2</td>
<td>Assessing the work of learners in a fair and equitable manner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES 3</td>
<td>Learner involvement and shared responsibility in the assessment process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES 4</td>
<td>Using feedback as a tool for learning and progression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES 5</td>
<td>Working within the systems and quality requirements of the organisation in relation to assessment and monitoring of learner progress.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### PKU Teachers in LL sector know & understand:

| EK 1.1 | Theories and principles of assessment and the application of different forms of assessment, including initial, formative and summative assessment in teaching and learning. |
| EK 1.2 | Ways to devise, select, use and appraise assessment tools, including, where appropriate, those which exploit new and emerging technologies |
| EK 1.3 | Ways to develop establish and promote peer- and self-assessment. |
| EK 2.1 | Issues of equality and diversity in assessment. |

#### PP Teachers in LL sector:

<p>| EP 1.1 | Use appropriate forms of assessment and evaluate their effectiveness in producing information useful to the teacher and the learner. |
| EP 1.2 | Devise, select, use and appraise assessment tools, including where appropriate, those which exploit new and emerging technologies. |
| EP 1.3 | Develop, establish and promote peer and self-assessment as a tool for learning and progression. |
| EP 2.1 | Apply appropriate methods of assessment fairly and effectively |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EK 2.2</th>
<th>Concepts of validity, reliability and sufficiency in assessment.</th>
<th>EP 2.2</th>
<th>Apply appropriate assessment methods to produce valid, reliable and sufficient evidence.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EK 2.3</td>
<td>The principles of assessment design in relation to own specialist area.</td>
<td>EP 2.3</td>
<td>Design appropriate assessment activities for own specialist area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EK 2.4</td>
<td>How to work as part of a team to establish equitable assessment processes.</td>
<td>EP 2.4</td>
<td>Collaborate with others, as appropriate, to promote equity and consistency in assessment processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EK 3.1</td>
<td>Ways to establish learner involvement in and personal responsibility for assessment of their learning.</td>
<td>EP 3.1</td>
<td>Ensure that learners understand, are involved and share in responsibility for assessment of their learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EK 3.2</td>
<td>Ways to ensure access to assessment within learning programme.</td>
<td>EK 3.2</td>
<td>Ensure that access to assessment is appropriate to learner need.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EK 4.1</td>
<td>The role of feedback and questioning in assessment for learning.</td>
<td>EP 4.1</td>
<td>Use assessment information to promote learning through questioning and constructive feedback, and involve learners in feedback activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EK 4.2</td>
<td>The role of feedback in effective evaluation and improvement of own assessment skills.</td>
<td>EP 4.2</td>
<td>Use feedback to evaluate and improve own skills in assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EK 5.1</td>
<td>The role of assessment and associated organisational procedures in relation to the quality cycle.</td>
<td>EP 5.1</td>
<td>Contribute to the organisation’s quality cycle by producing accurate and standardised assessment information, and keeping appropriate records of assessment decisions and learners’ progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EK 5.2</td>
<td>The assessment requirements of individual learning programmes and procedures for conducting and recording internal and/or external assessments.</td>
<td>EP 5.2</td>
<td>Conduct and record assessments which adhere to the particular requirements of individual learning programmes and, where appropriate, external bodies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EK 5.3</td>
<td>The necessary/ appropriate assessment information to communicate to others who have a legitimate interest in learner achievement.</td>
<td>EP 5.3</td>
<td>Communicate relevant assessment information to those with a legitimate interest in learner achievement, as necessary/ appropriate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Domain F: Access and progression

**PV Teachers in the lifelong learning sector value:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AS 1</th>
<th>Learners, their progress and development, their learning goals and aspirations and the experience they bring to their learning.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS 2</td>
<td>Learning, its potential to benefit people emotionally, intellectually, socially and economically, and its contribution to community sustainability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 3</td>
<td>Equality, diversity, and inclusion in relation to learners, the workforce, and the community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 4</td>
<td>Reflection and evaluation of their own practice and their continuing professional development as teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 5</td>
<td>Collaboration with other individuals, groups and/or organisations with a legitimate interest in the progress and development of learners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**They are committed to:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FS 1</th>
<th>Encouraging learners to seek initial and further learning opportunities and to use services within the organisation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FS 2</td>
<td>Providing support for learners within the boundaries of the teacher role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS 3</td>
<td>Maintaining own professional knowledge in order to provide information on opportunities for progression in own specialist area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS 4</td>
<td>A multi-agency approach to supporting development and progression opportunities for learners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PKU Teachers in LL sector know & understand:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FK 1.1</th>
<th>Sources of information, advice, guidance and support to which learners might be referred.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FK 1.2</td>
<td>Internal services which learners might access.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FK 2.1</td>
<td>Boundaries of own role in supporting learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FK 3.1</td>
<td>Progression and career opportunities within own specialist area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FK 4.1</td>
<td>Professional specialist services available to learners and how to access them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PP Teachers in LL sector:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FP 1.1</th>
<th>Refer learners to information on potential current and future learning opportunities and appropriate specialist support services.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FP 1.2</td>
<td>Provide learners with appropriate information about the organisation and its facilities, and encourage learners to use the organisation’s services, as appropriate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP 2.1</td>
<td>Provide effective learning support, within the boundaries of the teaching role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP 3.1</td>
<td>Provide general and current information about potential education, training and/or career opportunities in relation to own specialist area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP 4.1</td>
<td>Provide general and current information about a range of relevant external services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FK 4.2 Processes for liaison with colleagues and other professionals to provide effective guidance and support for learners.</td>
<td>FP 4.2 Work with colleagues to provide guidance and support for learners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 2
Conclusions and Reasons for Conclusions in the studied text “Quality for some-what about the rest? (Race, P 1995)”

Race concludes that there is a need to challenge and in some way prioritise the modes of assessment used in our failure ridden system; that for every ‘winner’ in this competitive yet elitist system, which disadvantages the majority of even ‘qualified’ people, there are many ‘losers’. He blames current assessment procedures and negative competitiveness for the fact that the sheer number of ‘failures’ far outweighs ‘successes’, asserting that those who possess the very highest grades or classification within a qualification will in turn obtain the highest posts. He maintains that the term ‘Further’ Education (FE) against ‘Higher’ Education (HE) implies ‘failure’ whereby FE is for those who have previously failed the system and HE merely a continuation for those few who have ‘succeeded’.

Race attacks the notion of ‘words’ and how still they matter despite the ‘observable’ core skills and competences in GNVQ’s and NVQ’s for example; the latter still being expressed in the language of teachers. He criticises timed ‘written’ examinations, congratulatory certification for ‘written’ efforts, ‘written’ portfolios (in vocational training!) that are still accepted as best for measuring ability. Inability to express views and opinions effectively in written formats may deny ‘losers’ without ‘top’ qualifications their aspirations to ‘top’ jobs. He argues that study strategies rather than competences in attainment are emphasised demonstrating more a successful acquisition of such strategy rather than intelligence/ability.

Race stresses the importance of integrating the notion of what learners can do, when they do into assessment procedure, maintaining that experiential learning is not necessarily reflected in so called ‘good’ qualifications. He acknowledges that ‘success’ should be devoid of discriminatory terminology and classification, asserting that the former ignores the ‘true’ measurement of skill/ability and undermines real achievement. Despite the emergence of ROA’s and Portfolios of evidence, the soft option of ‘how good you look “on paper”’ is taken. It is proposed that progress be attained through a major overhaul of current assessment procedures, whereby learners become more closely involved in the processes, whereby attitudes to those processes are changed and relevance applied more widely to experience than outcome. Finally the measurement of what is learned is questioned, the criteria and the divisive assessment procedure itself, challenging a need for positive assessment rather than a narrow, inflexible and prescriptive regime which excludes the majority it purports to help.
Strengths and weaknesses of argument

Race seeks to actively address the serious social imbalance of what is viewed as ‘successes and ‘failures’. His summary of school day competitiveness and classroom activity with rewards for ‘winners’ only is aptly analogous to his depiction of the assessment system throughout mainstream education and beyond. His comments on the assessment and accreditation of professionals particularly doctors and surgeons and in light of recent media coverage, serves to strike a chord deep in the minds of those who prescribe criteria for the appointing of such and therefore lends credence to his desire to confront the assessment systems head on.

Certification, grading, classification etc. are not only derisory and discriminatory but, he argues, also undermine the ‘majority’ and enable the ‘minority’ to ‘compete’ in the previous minority’s self-perpetuated system. He backs his argument with reference to the ‘losers’ and the ‘failed’ and the need to reassess ‘Thinking Skills’, emphasising the encouragement of attitudes that count; that of the wish to go on learning.

Where current and previous assessment procedures have fostered an atmosphere of fear and defensiveness, his arguments for learning by doing and from mistakes, for self-monitoring, discovery and cooperation are ample reason for assessments to monitor and accept these qualities.

However, educational outcomes and assessment procedures are so varied and complex that it is somewhat easier to generalize ones ideas and categorize individuals. Race appears to, without actual reference to statistical evidence, bordering on the purely anecdotal and creating an atmosphere of ‘they the few’ and ‘us the many’. This may of course belie the truth, evoking urgency where thought, research, evidence and objectivity are required. Effective interpretation of his analogous references to ‘winners’ and ‘losers’ may reflect some aspects of some people’s lives but is perceived as too generalized to accept at face value. He quips at the ‘well qualified’; professional who have been subjected, by official bodies too numerous to mention, to the most rigorous scrutiny and examination. He suggests almost that we are surrounded by incompetent managers, surgeons, dentists etc. when really it is only a small minority who have ‘slipped through the net’ and caused us to question their accreditation. It is to his detriment that he forms his assumptions rather subjectively and however quick he is to make suggestions for change he fails to address the issue of exactly how.
Brief counter argument

‘Lifelong learning’, ‘Widening Participation’, and ‘Quality Assurance’; buzzwords in education today, show that ‘inclusivity’ is at the fore of modern professional thinking. Assessment and accreditation procedures are therefore being put in place to address these significant changes. With regard to exam grades and degree classifications, the ‘end result’ has usually been agreed by teachers who have monitored progress typically over three to four years. To deem such qualifications as elitist is to deny the rigorous assessment of competence and ability measured throughout. It is with frequent and regular testing procedures that standards both academic and formal can be maintained. Emphasis placed on experiential learning may not place stress on what is to be achieved. A doctor, dentist, surgeon should ultimately be able to perform X, Y, Z to become qualified. Can we truthfully acknowledge the notion of partially qualified/competent surgeons, drivers, and pilots? Etc? Such professionals are shaped into being by detailed objectives, observable performance criteria and so on already. Both written and oral examinations are needed as a diagnostic agent to test the credibility and authenticity of future professionals. Would it not be better to maintain such measurable end products but to also investigate more thoroughly that which is to be measured and more important precisely how? Suffice to say that collateral, experiential learning, although intrinsic to the general processes of learning, cannot be effectively measured without the need for copious paperwork and box ticking. Consider the psychological factors involved of interpreting what is done, seen, observed and how to actually record this. Staffing would be too complex to imagine. Proof of competence can just as truthfully be reflected in a grade or classification than in a thick book full of ticks. John Bostock 2009-11 Classroom notes on ‘Assessment for Learning.’
Appendix 4

The topic to be debriefed is defined here

Aim of Debrief:
1. To reflect on (state the topic(s) and if appropriate the period of time upon which the debrief is to focus).
2. Identify personal experiences,
3. Views shared and discussed to establish:
   (a) (i) Personal learning, and,
   (ii) the future positive use of that learning.
   (b) Ideas for the future (for the benefit of either self / others or the organisation)

Place: .......................... 
Time: ..........................
Debrief leader: .......................... 

Initiator / Client: ..........................
Participants: .... number ....

Material output of Debrief:
(Indicate if attached to this report)
1. Original Notes and Responses
2. DEBRIEF REPORT
   (This document)
3. RESPONSES MADE DURING THE DEBRIEF
   Printed as
   Appendices 1a + 1b to this report.
   Appendix 1a Personal Learning and its future use.
   (1 Sheet)
   Appendix 1b Ideas for the future.
   (1 Sheet)
   .... (further appendices may be appropriate where additional final prompt questions are used) ....

Debrief Report
The debrief was attended by representatives from

...(briefly describe the debriefing context)...

All participants were given the opportunity to reflect on their roles and to contribute their views in discussion. The main issues raised:

Main Difficulties:

•
•
•

Most Successful aspects:

•
•
•

In closing the debrief participants were each asked to identify:

1. Personal learning, and its use.
2. Ideas for the future.

Responses appear in full on Appendix Sheets 1a + b (attached)
Summarised:

(a) (i) Personal Learning:

•
•
•

(a) (ii) Future use of Learning:
All participants were able to express a future positive use of their learning.
Uses included:

(b) Ideas for the future

•
•
•

Signed .............. Date ......
Role(s) taken - (please indicate)
Debrief Initiator / Planner / Leader / Participant

Course Handout Reference Page

Created and first used June 2001
Structured Debrief Report
Prepared by

Occasion / Event:
The topic to be debriefed is defined here

Aim of Debrief:
1. To reflect on ... (state the topic(s) and if appropriate the period of time up on which the debrief is to focus).
2. Identify personal experiences,
3. Views shared and discussed to establish:
   (a) (i) Personal learning, and,
   (b) Ideas for the future ...(for the benefit of either self / others or the organisation)

Place: ...................
Time: ....................
Debrief leader: ............

Initiator / Client:
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Participants: ... number ..... 

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Uses included:

(b) Ideas for the future

Signed ................. Date ............
Role(s) taken - (please indicate)
Debrief Initiator / Planner / Leader / Participant

---

Created and first used June 2001
STRUCTURED ROLE PLAY

Structured role play is sometimes referred to as a 'practical' or 'skills development exercise' in the police service.

Its purpose is to develop the main player's skills, so the main player is themselves in their professional role. The main player therefore does not require de-roling and there is little or no need to de-role the secondary player(s).

Facts and behaviour of other players are scripted, to assist the main player to practice their skills in a safe learning environment.

The content of observer sheets should be determined by the training objectives, focussing on skills and procedures. Completed observers' sheets should assist the main player develop their action plan.

Structured role play sequence

1. Set the scene
2. Brief players and observers
3. Run the role play
4. The main player is not in role and therefore does not need de-roling.
5. Secondary players may need de-roling; it is the trainer's decision
6. The main player self-assesses their performance ('What's?')
7. Secondary players give feedback to main player ('What's?')
8. Observers give feedback to main player ('What's?')
Appendix 5
Blooms Taxonomy (1964) adapted from (Bostock and Wood 2012)

There are three domains of learning based on Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives and knowledge of these are required of trainee teachers in planning and preparation for teaching. A review of these is useful in arguing how perceptions of their teaching are heavily influenced by all three.

- The Psychomotor Domain of learning

This domain includes motor skills or physical skills including sense perception, hand and eye coordination, etc. and skill development proceeds from the simple to the complex ending where performance becomes automatic or habitual. For example:

To plan; to draw; to throw; to weld....

And involves imitation, manipulation, precision, articulation and naturalisation. Indeed within Police Training it is possible to see this in firearms training, dog handling and record keeping.

- The Cognitive Domain of learning

This domain is concerned with the process of thinking how and why and with increasing difficulty i.e. from simple to complex. This is where the dilemma lies in terms of police trainee understanding of educational matters that do not sit neatly in one box or another. In the first instance it is feasible to assume compliance with the need to have knowledge and comprehension on subject matter and as can be seen, it is clearly suitable in police training scenarios.

Knowledge. To be able to:

State; recall; list; recognise; select; reproduce; draw...

Comprehension. To be able to:

Explain; describe reasons for; identify causes of; illustrate…

Application. To be able to:

Use; apply; construct; solve; select…

E.g. to use Newton’s Laws of Motion to solve simple problems.
Analysis. To be able to:

Break down; list component parts of; compare and contrast; differentiate between…

Synthesis (this involves choosing, using and putting together diverse skills, abilities and knowledge to accomplish a particular new task). To be able to:

Summarise; generalise; argue; organise; design; explain the reason for…

Evaluation. To be able to:

Judge; evaluate, give arguments for and against, criticise…
Appendix 6

Six elements to promoting subject specialist pedagogy

1. **Watching others teach your subject** (e.g. real time / on video/dvd/digital recordings)
   One innovative idea to support subject pedagogy would involve the use of Aurasma which is an augmented reality\(^\text{85}\) platform created by the Autonomy Corporation. Primarily designed for 3G and 4G mobile devices, it uses the device's video camera to recognise pre-trained images and overlay an image or video so that the video tracks as the camera is moved. In this way, mentors can take digital videos of aspects of sessions they have taught or which their colleagues have taught to produce a series still images which by using Aurasma can trigger a simulated digital video representation of the image in real time.

2. **Finding out about pedagogy for your subject** (e.g. Session planning; Research; Text books; Subject publications / web sites / associations)

3. **Talking / working with other teachers of your subject** (e.g. face to face; on line forum; conferences; staff development)

4. **Getting guidance / support from an experienced teacher of your subject / curriculum area** (e.g. face to face\(^\text{86}\) or on line mentoring)

5. **Developing / accessing learning resources specific to your subject** (e.g. creating resources; accessing resource collections / libraries; publishing resources / articles)

6. **Engaging with practitioner communities related to your subject** (e.g. your course team; staff development; conferences; on line discussion groups / fora)

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\(^{85}\) Augmented reality (AR) is a live, direct or indirect, view of a physical, real-world environment whose elements are augmented by computer-generated sensory input such as sound, video, graphics or GPS data. With the help of advanced AR technology (e.g. adding computer vision and object recognition) the information about the surrounding real world of the user becomes interactive and digitally manipulable. Artificial information about the environment and its objects can be overlaid on the real world.

\(^{86}\) A main feature of my recommendations would be to increase opportunities for face to face instruction and discussion on subject pedagogy.
Appendix 7

In order to provide appropriate guidance and subject support to trainee teachers, Subject Specific Mentors will need to spend 25 hours (approximately one hour per week) with a trainee over the period of their practice. These hours would be pro-rata for part-time trainee teachers (i.e. 12.5 hours per year over 2 years). These hours for Subject Specific Mentoring would be in addition to any lesson observations undertaken (4 per year for full time and 2 per year over 2 years for part-time) and to the Interim and Summative meetings.

Please organise/provide the following for trainee teachers:

An induction to the department/area to include the department’s key policies (including Safeguarding), handbooks, syllabuses/course specifications and schemes of work as appropriate.

Negotiate a timetable of lessons that the trainee teacher can observe—usually within the first two weeks.

A teaching timetable (and relevant class lists) in negotiation with the trainee teacher, including information about students in their classes to assist with differentiation.

A timetable when weekly Subject Specific Mentor Sessions and Workshops will take place.

Checklist for SSM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organise and provide</th>
<th>Please tick when completed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Welcome the trainee teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Timetable shared and agreed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Induction to college/setting-policies, safeguarding, ECM</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Induction to department to include the department’s key policies (including Safeguarding), handbooks, syllabuses/course specifications and schemes of work as appropriate.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor/Trainee teacher/Personal Tutor contact details</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schedule of weekly meetings and subject specific workshops</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 8

The aim of the subject-specialist workshops is to enable the trainee teacher to critically engage in the following pedagogic processes:

1. The application of subject knowledge
2. Planning for learning in the subject or profession
3. Classroom management
4. Assessment
5. Teaching methodology

Through engagement with subject-specialist workshops, professional trainee teachers will:

- Be able to identify their own strengths and areas for development in relation to their subject specialism/s, pedagogic knowledge and skills (including ICT skills).
- Demonstrate that they have acquired an understanding of students’ learning processes in the subject-specialism.
- Demonstrate their skills in relation to planning for teaching, managing and assessing in subject-specialist environment.

### Workshops (suggested overview)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structuring sessions in alignment with schemes of work.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Trainee teachers will look through lesson plan templates and use these to devise their own template, drawing from all examples the important areas of focus. They will then go on to devise a basic lesson and look at timings of a structured session.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session Plan Templates: subject-specific learning outcomes, content, activity and assessment.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Trainee teachers will develop their own Schemes of Work (SOW) relevant to a topic that appertains to the specialist area in which they wish to teach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- This will then be followed by group discourse and comparison and discussion of the content and broad areas of these SOWs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A sample lesson will be devised based on one of the SOWs produced within the lesson – this will be done collegiately as a group.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subject Knowledge Audit.

Considering your academic and/or professional achievements, identify your strengths and areas for
improvement.

**Knowledge of core content of subject specialism**

- What is the fundamental qualification informing your subject specialism?
- To what level have you studied this and what other experience supports your subject knowledge?
- To what extent can the subject content of your degree or professional qualification be seen to be current and relevant?
- What have you done to ensure the currency and relevance of the subject knowledge you originally developed?

**Development and Use of Subject Specific Resources including Use of New and Emerging Technology.**

- Trainee teachers will commence the lesson by undertaking an initial needs analysis (subject knowledge based) as opposed to one they may have done from a more generic pedagogic nature in PPD sessions.
- Subject Specific Mentor will bring in a number of resources (in different formats) and trainee teachers will review these and determine what their purpose is in respect to contributing to learning.
- Trainee teachers will produce a subject specific resource and evaluate its effectiveness.

**Formative and Summative Assessment within the Scope of Subject Specialism.**

- Trainee teachers will be given some practical work to assess in pairs then report back to the group. They will then assess each piece of work supplied and as a collective arrive at a grade/level for each piece with a clear rationale for their choices and decisions.
- Trainee teachers will review how Assessment for Learning is used to aid learning and ultimately progress and achievement.

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87 Trainee teachers will discuss Hazards and Risk Assessment within the Scope of Subject-Specialism. They will undertake risk assessments of different resources and tools in the professional setting; they will then draft a risk assessment for specified equipment.

Trainee teachers will also consider the implications of Health and Safety with respect to the different areas of their subject specialism.
Classroom Management Tools and Techniques.

- Trainee teachers will review a videoed lesson in its entirety and discuss the implications of classroom management leading to behaviour management.

- Small focus groups will be used to discuss various scenarios used to illustrate different aspects of behaviour management which relate specifically to the subject specialism or professional aspect.
Appendix 9

SSM Training and Development
Overview of process and documentation

2012 -13

Subject Specific Mentoring (SSM) (2012 – 2013)
Process
Documents
All SSM’s contacted and asked to complete the SSM Profile form to ensure that the SSM has the experience and subject specificity to effectively support the EHU partnership trainee. Electronic issue to the placement of **mentor profile form** with specified return date.

Checking of returned forms to ensure quality of SSM prior to allocation. Completed documents used to input data onto the **PCET Partnership SSM Spreadsheet**.

**Trainee Tracking Database (TTD)** set up by PCET Administrative Team Leader, to indicate SSM name, date and year of training & subject specialism.

SSM training event/s – from September and throughout the academic year to reflect programme intake dates of September, January and April, with hard copies of **Partnership Handbook** and **SSM Handbook and related documentation** issued, in addition to being sent electronically. Training resources updated annually. Collect **SSM Training Evaluation Forms**. SSM training team to complete **SSM evaluation summary** document.

**Report** run from TTD – all trainee teachers with SSM who have received training and completed an evaluation form (updated and checked monthly). Instigate immediate follow up to any untrained SSM or gap in the TTD –SSM training team.

Ensure that the **Partnership SSM Spreadsheet** is accurate regarding SSM’s who have completed SSM training and evaluation.
Interim Meeting between Trainee Teacher, SSM and Personal Tutor at the mid-point of the trainee’s professional placement. The **Interim Report Form** used for this purpose can be found in the SSM Handbook. Trainee teachers complete the report and give a copy to their SSM and Personal Tutor prior to the meeting. The Interim Grade agreed during the meeting is entered onto the TTDB by the Personal Tutor.

Joint observation of trainee teacher by the SSM with Personal Tutor early in each trainee teacher’s professional placement using SSM **observation feedback sheet**. Personal tutor to check the feedback sheet to ensure that effective subject related comments and smart targets have been produced by the SSM. Any concerns to be passed to SSM Training Team as a matter of urgency.

Further Observations of Trainee teacher undertaken – evenly distributed throughout the trainee teacher’s professional practice. A total of 8 formal observations must be completed by the end of the programme. SSM’s MUST provide feedback to the trainee as soon as possible following the observation. The trainee teacher informs their personal tutor of the grade and targets received from the SSM for updating the TTD. Electronic copies are distributed on pen-drives to every SSM during training sessions. Personal Tutors also provide SSMs with copies as required.
SSM Conference (SSM training, development and enhancement) (May 2013) for all trained SSM’s. All SSM’s attending the conference will be required to complete the SSM Conference Evaluation Documents on the day for further development of the event. Pilot of subject-focused workshops in identified subject areas. SSM Conference Evaluative Summary completed by SSM Training Team.

Summative meeting between Trainee Teacher, SSM and Supervising Tutor (towards the end of the trainee’s professional placement). Summative Report Form used for this purpose can be found in the SSM Handbook. Summative Grade entered into the TTDB by Personal Tutor.

SSM evaluation of effectiveness of placement for quality trainee teacher experience, and trainee teacher evaluation of placement (at end of professional placement). Documents used for this purpose can be found in the SSH for the SSM, and in e-portfolio for trainee teachers.

Placement feedback presented at the ITT Partnership Board (June 2013) and the PCET Evaluation Board / Partnership Board - all SSM evaluative feedback presented by SSM Team and Franchise Centres.

Enhancements to provision include the PCET Mentor Newsletters (which are distributed by email and uploaded onto the SSM Wiki three times per academic year in November, February and June), Subject-Specific Workshops for trainee teachers and the Subject Specific Mentor Partnership Development Group (SSMPDG) which was formed in 2012. The SSMPDG meets three times an academic year (January, April and July for 11/12). The group decided that it would be more beneficial to meet earlier in the academic year, so the timetable for 2012/13 is November, March and July. Membership of the group is drawn from EHU staff and SSMs across the partnership.