DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 335 318 SP 033 200

AUTHOR	Cameron-Jones, Margot
TITLE	Training Teachers: A Practical Guide.
INSTITUTION	Scottish Council for Research in Education.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-947833-48-X
PUB DATE	91
NOTE	62p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Scottish Council for Research in Education, 15 St. John Street, Edinburgh EH8 8JR, Scotland, United Kingdom (4.50 British Pounds plus 2 pounds for postage and handling).
PUB TYPE	Guides - General (050)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Student Teacher Evaluation; *Student Teacher Supervisors; *Supervisor Qualifications; *Supervisory Methods; *Teacher Supervision
IDENTIFIERS	Scotland

ABSTRACT

The five chapters of this booklet concentrate on the practical side of teacher training. Chapter 1 describes the nature and purposes of training and placement. Chapter 2 provides information on a direct and an indirect procedure for training, guidance on blending the two procedures, and on making the best use of the time available to both trainer and trainee. Chapter 3 describes numerous training methods that can be used during either training or placement; some are based on teacher thinking and others on practice in various kinds of teaching. Chapter 4 explains the essentials of performance appraisal, outlining the three steps appraisal involves and explaining how to take these steps. Chapter 5 describes characteristics of a good trainer--competent, ethical, human, and caring. Four appendixes provide two case studies and further information on methods for evaluating training and placement, to accompany Chapter 2; an appraisal form, to accompany Chapter 4, and a comparison of appraisals made by two trainers; and a listing of background research studies. A list of references and some suggested works for further reading complete the volume. (AMH)

Practitioner Minipaper

A PRACTICAL GUIDE

Margot Cameron-Jones

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A Practical Guide

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The Scottish Council for Research in Education

SCRE Publication 108

Practitioner MiniPaper 10

First published 1991

Series editors: Wynne Harlen
Rosemary Wake

ISBN 0 947833 48 X

Printed and bound in Great Britain for the Scottish Council for Research in Education by Bell and Bain Limited, Glasgow

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Preface

This book concentrates on the practical side of teacher training. Many people are involved in that kind of training and want to do it better. Such training is not the special province of University or College staff. It is also done by the class teachers and others who train students on placements in their schools and by the school staff who train and retrain their own colleagues. It involves the people in business and industry who act as hosts to the teachers who do placements in their firms.

I have tried to make the book short enough and clear enough to be useful to all these people. I hope it is.

Margot Cameron-Jones
Moray House College
Edinburgh

This book owes a great deal to the project on training and placement which I directed at Moray House from 1986-1990 with money from CNAA. I am very grateful to CNAA for that funding.

"What can you tell them about eggs?" The Case of a Worried Trainer

The good trainer cares about trainees and works hard and well for their success. This kind of caring is not the same as over-intervention. In the piece of personal history below, one trainer asks the reader where and how to draw the line between the two.

The trainer in this history is a school teacher who has a student on placement. The student is being trained by the teacher who is speaking, some members of the school's senior staff and a college tutor who visits the student from time to time.

"I find it really difficult to know how much to suggest to the student about what she might do. How many ideas should I give her? How much can I expect from her?

It was not until after the first few days that I realised the problem. It was only then that I began to realise that I was producing all the ideas. I was producing lessons for her. I was producing whole programmes for her in great detail. I was finding it quite a strain. I kept giving her the ideas and she said she didn't fancy them. But she couldn't think up any of her own. So then I thought up some new ones. Then, she would chose one of those, but still come in the next morning without the books or anything. It seemed as though she expected to have everything handed to her. It seemed as though she thought that was normal. I began to think maybe it was normal and that it was just me that was all wrong in what to expect.

She had been seen teaching by the assistant head teacher on Thursday and it was decided as a result that she needed more practice in involving the whole class in different ways. (She had done a lot of just taking one group while the other groups did set assignments.) She also needed more practice in handling the class as one teaching group. On the Friday, I asked her what she was thinking of doing. Did she have something in mind which would go well if it were taught in that kind of way? She hadn't thought of anything so I said as it would be Easter they could be doing some work on that. Why didn't she do a special theme on Eggs? She was very unsure.

"What can you tell them about eggs?" she said, "except that you eat them?" I told her she must scout around for the information. She

could start by asking the other teachers and looking through our resources here. She could even go into the college and look around there if she liked. I had to suggest things that seemed obvious to me but didn't seem obvious to her.

For her first 'Eggs' lesson I suggested a craft follow-up but she gave the whole class six sentences, everyone the same sentences, on the board. She said it was because she thought sentences would be easier to handle than craft materials. I found that whole thing really difficult. I went into everything. I even told her in the end the titles of actual books where she could find some information. And she knew before she did it that the follow up wasn't right. In one way she was upset but in another way she didn't seem to be bothered. 'You can't expect me just to know things', she said. But I don't. I had given her the books. I had given her all sorts of stuff on content. This is content. This is teaching her what her content might be. Should I be doing that?

I find it difficult because I think that if she really was interested in the children she would read up things for them. I find the whole thing really quite difficult. And when the tutor came it really was our ideas that she was using. I feel that she does want to teach but it is almost as if somehow she cannot put the work, or the effort or even perhaps just the kindness to make the effort for them, into it. How much should I do about that?"

What would a good trainer do in this circumstance?

Source: M Cameron Jones (1982) Final report to SED on the Primary Teaching Practice Project. Moray House College. Mimeo

1

Training and Placement

Training

Good training helps people to do their jobs well. The job which teachers do is vast. It demands that teachers do a large number of things very well indeed! This book, however, concentrates on the teachers' actual teaching, since that is the part of their job in which they specialise professionally.

Most training is concerned with actions of some kind that you can see. These actions may be simple and repetitive, wrapping biscuits for example. Training in the professions, however, is concerned with more complex actions than that, such as nursing a patient, briefing a barrister, performing surgery, building a bridge or teaching a child. Tasks like this are difficult and doing them badly has drastic consequences. That is why the licence to do them at all is only given to people who are tested and qualified to perform them. Professional qualifications take time to acquire. The training and qualification of teachers, doctors, lawyers, nurses and engineers can take several years.

As well as their complexity, importance and intrinsic difficulty, there is another factor which distinguishes professional from routine actions. It is that professional actions have a theoretical basis and the person carrying them out knows what it is. This is the factor in teacher training which makes the biggest difference to the work of trainers. It means that trainers cannot merely train teachers in the observable tasks of the profession. There must also be, on the part of trainers and trainees, a proper awareness of the rationale from which professional action stems, and an acknowledgement of the fact that, in some cases, the same rationale could equally well justify many different kinds of action.

Because professional action cannot be trained for and rehearsed in a repetitive, simple way and because, even when they share an identical rationale, trainer and trainee may have different, but equally valid, ideas about the best way to achieve the effect they want, professional training must, in the way that it is done, leave room for the professional judgement both of trainer and trainee.

In fact, one of the main aims of training in all the professions, no

matter how practical the training, is to help trainees to improve their professional judgement, in order to improve the decisions they make about what to do and how to do it. Students and very new teachers sometimes need a lot of help in making these sorts of decisions, as well as in performing, confidently and well, the actions which follow from them. On the other hand, experienced teachers, if they have more professional knowledge on which to draw, may need less help in making good use of that knowledge to determine what to do and how to do it well.

In jobs such as teaching, which at the point of their performance are done by individuals who must take professional responsibility for the nature and consequences of their own actions, people must be trained as individuals. Accordingly, an individual analysis of each person's training needs is necessary. For example, suppose that the point of a training programme is that a group of teachers should minimise the lesson time they spend on the management of resources (eg distributing worksheets, checking equipment, arranging which pupil needs to share what with whom) in order to maximise the time they spend on the lesson's substantive content.

Teachers can vary widely in the proportion of administrative versus instructional time they spend while they are teaching. Therefore, before designing a training programme for any particular group of teachers, you must first know the existing ways in which the different members of the group budget for and spend their classroom time. This can be ascertained by observation (and the teachers' own self-observation), provided that you sample carefully the kinds of lessons which should be observed to yield this evidence. That done, there can then be some analysis of the reasons why (if there are differences within the group) the time expenditures of the various individuals are different. Only then is it possible to devise a good training programme, and to decide which parts of it can be common to the whole group as distinct from special to particular individual members of it.

Even a training goal as clear and limited as the one in this example, therefore, involves knowing the existing competence of each individual and analysing the reasons for differences within the group to be trained. Then you can ascertain the gap between the way things actually are, and the way they should be at the end of the programme! It is this gap which the training programme must fill.

As it happens, of course, classroom time budgeting is one of the easier examples to take because there already is some evidence

about it. Nationwide, the literature tells us that in the past teachers may have spent about 15% of their lesson time on administrative, as distinct from instructional, interaction with their pupils. So in devising a programme like the one being discussed in this example, there is at least this information to go on.

However, for aspects of teaching about which there is less information, or when new styles of teaching are asked for, the task of specifying in a precise way the gap between what teachers actually do and how a training programme should change that, is much more difficult.

Whatever the aspect of teaching the programme tackles, however, and whether the trainees are a group of students or are a school staff of experienced teachers, the job of the trainer (who may be a college tutor, a headteacher or some other person) is in broad outline much the same. Trainers must define carefully the point of the programme. They must ascertain the trainee's existing level of competence. They must set a standard of competence to be met as a result of the training programme. And they must design the training programme to meet it.

Placement

Placement is a useful part of many training programmes. Placement is any arrangement whereby, for the purpose of their training, people spend time in places of work other than their own. The professions have a high regard for, and make heavy use of, placement as a means of training.

There are two reasons for this. Firstly, for some trainees, placement is the only way they can learn some fundamental things. This is so, for example, in the case of students who, being not yet qualified, are based for much of their time in their training institution (that is, in their college or university). The only sure way in which they can observe and be trained to carry out real professional tasks, in a real working environment, in the company of qualified practitioners and in interaction with the real clients who depend on them, is through placement. Thus, medical students and student nurses must do placement in hospital wards, student teachers in schools, student engineers in power stations and student pharmacists in community pharmacies.

Secondly, for some trainees, placement is by far the most interesting and effective way to learn new things! This is the case, for example,

with teachers who need to change the way they think about education or to change the way they teach. Through placement to an unfamiliar workplace a teacher can listen to the ideas of a new set of people and can observe the effects which unfamiliar imperatives, rationales and goals have upon these people's practices.

Placements of this kind are becoming increasingly common for in-service teachers. Such teachers may go to other schools to spend time with fellow professionals who think and practise in unfamiliar ways or they may go on placements outside the education service altogether, perhaps in business and industry or in the Health Service.

Regardless of where placements are based, however, and whether they involve students or experienced teachers, one feature is enormously important for teacher trainers. It is this: for trainees, going on placement is not like going on a course. When people take a course, or an ordinary training programme, their trainers organise things in the service of that course or programme. Training sessions take place in special training environments (for example in a college room, or in a school staffroom after school), or in places in which it is possible to focus, even if briefly, on the needs of the trainee. This latter circumstance is the case when trainers (who may be tutors or colleagues) spend time, for the purpose of 'close up' training, in classrooms with teachers who are busy teaching pupils.

Placement is not much like this. The extremes of difference can be well illustrated by the contrast between, on the one hand, a teacher training college, and on the other, a merchant bank or any other placement base. The college is an environment for teacher training. Its course premises, while courses are running, have no other point and the trainers have no legitimate distractions. The whole organisation is set up purely to train trainees. No bank, and no other placement base, is so dedicated or has such imperatives. Placement bases exist to achieve their own goals - to make money, to heal patients, to serve customers, to manufacture components, to build roads. This makes a massive difference to trainers who host a placement, as compared with the trainers who work in training institutions.

Placement-based trainers, therefore, though they need to think within the same, broad training outline which was described earlier in this chapter (ie you must know the point of the placement, ascertain the trainee's existing level, set a goal which you will help the trainee to meet and design the placement activities to meet it)

have to be better than the ordinary trainer at matching environment and need. For placement trainers, this matching is probably the most critical thing they do. Trainers who are based in training institutions inhabit or create special environments for training. Placement-based trainers cannot do this to the same degree. Their organisations must go on making money, healing patients, serving customers, making things, building things, or, in the case of schools receiving students on placement, teaching their own pupils. Placements can only succeed to the extent that trainers can match up these purposes and activities to the trainee's needs. This means that placement-based trainers must spot the distinctive things in the placement base from which the trainee needs to learn, and must get the trainee in close and immediate touch with them.

Summary and Applications

This chapter has described the nature and purposes of training and placement. Both involve designing and running training programmes. But trainers who are based in training institutions have some freedom to manipulate the world in the service of their programmes, whereas placement trainers have to match the needs of trainees to the opportunities their organisations already have available. For people involved in training or placement, Appendix 2 gives some suggestions for evaluating how well they do their jobs.

2

Procedures for Training

Training can be direct or indirect. The differences between the direct and indirect procedures lie in the amount of direction given by the trainer, and the amount of autonomy and responsibility taken by the trainee. The similarities between direct and indirect procedures are that both include:

- an understood goal (and an understood rationale for that goal)
- the trainee taking action which is observed;

and

- feedback for the trainee on how good the action was.

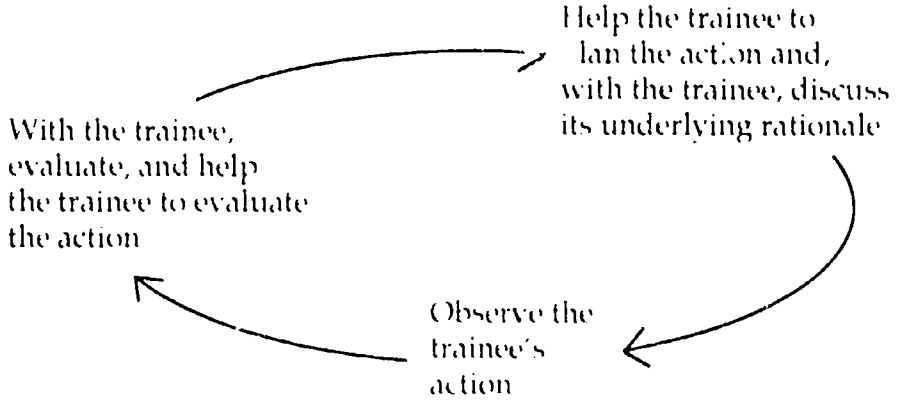
Since most trainees need more than one attempt at doing something before they reach the standard, these three components are usually arranged in sequence as a loop which forms a procedure for the training. (In practice, all training procedures are iterative.)

A Direct Procedure

Figure 1 sets out a direct training procedure. Using it, the trainer would discuss the action which the trainee needs to take (and the reasons why), help the trainee to plan the action, observe the action and, with the trainee, evaluate the action.

Figure 1: A direct (trainer-driven) training procedure

By this procedure the ***trainer*** will

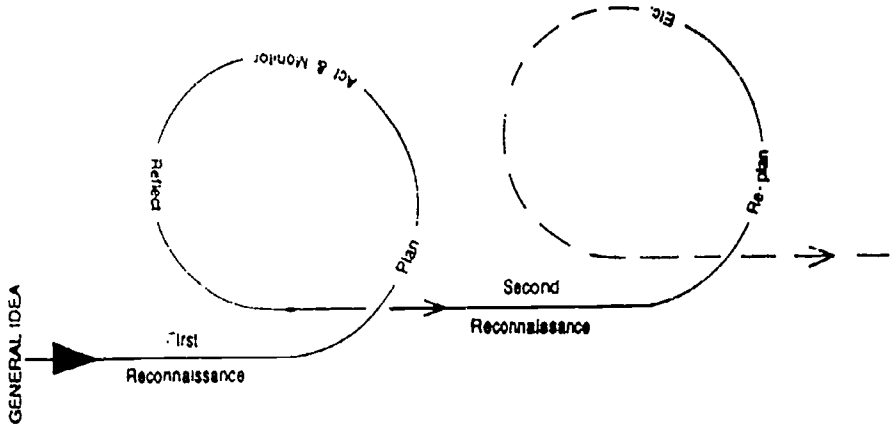


In its pure form, this procedure implies that the trainer has diagnosed and decided what the trainee needs to do, can lead the trainee to understand why, knows how to observe the trainee, and can give the trainee feedback in a skilful way. If, in the trainer's judgement, the trainee has not reached the standard, the sequence will be run again.

An Indirect Procedure

Figure 2 sets out an indirect training procedure. Using it, the trainee (rather than the trainer) would have the general idea about some improvement which seems to be needed. He or she would reconnoitre that aspect of teaching to ascertain its present state, plan some action to improve it, take the action, and monitor it. The trainee would then think over what had happened, perhaps rethinking ideas about what should be done and, now with sharper ideas and more information, move on to reconnoitre the teaching again, in a more knowledgeable way, and replan the action for improvement.

Figure 2: An indirect (trainee-driven) training procedure



In its pure form, this procedure implies that trainees themselves generate ideas about the improvement of their own teaching, have the skills to reconnoitre it, and can plan what action on their part would make it better. It also implies that the trainee has the capacity to self-monitor that action, and the resources to reflect on what has

happened, as well as the motivation to pursue, with improved understanding, self-improvement.

When teachers are trained, what usually happens is that at first their trainers lean to Figure 1 but later they encourage their trainees to Figure 2. Therefore, the people most likely to experience Figure 1 are first year undergraduate teacher training students. Final year students and in-service teachers are more likely to experience Figure 2. However, since trainers tend in practice to blend the two, some trainees may never experience either procedure in its purest form.

Blending the Procedures

Trainers can blend the procedures in two ways. They can import techniques from one to the other. Or they can import attitudes from one to the other.

In the case of techniques, it is possible to operate much of the direct procedure, but incorporate some steps from the indirect. For example, the trainer who uses the direct procedure can encourage trainees to originate their own training goals, or to monitor themselves more independently, or to initiate their own self evaluation.

In the case of attitudes, trainers sometimes favour one procedure on paper while in their hearts really believing more strongly in the other! The indirect procedure, for example, seems more respectful to teachers' professionalism and many trainers say they use this procedure. In fact, however, many trainers who espouse this procedure in theory find it difficult to adopt wholeheartedly in practice.

Which procedure? The Time Factor

Time is one factor which will weigh heavily in deciding which procedure is best for any particular training programme.

The direct procedure is helpful in limited-aim, limited-life training programmes. It helps with programmes designed to improve teachers' questioning, or some aspects of their classroom discipline, or some other specific skills which can be isolated sufficiently well for short-term programmes on them to make sense. Such programmes can be as short as two or three one-hour sessions, with

each session comprising a twenty-minute discussion, a ten-minute action, and a final twenty-minute discussion.

The indirect procedure is more like a way of life. It takes longer to use and it asks a lot more of the trainee. A teacher deciding to improve the quality of classroom discussions would find this procedure useful. In this case, the role of the trainer would be that of an invited discussant, or an invited observer, perhaps for an hour a week over a month or two, or longer.

When time is very limited indeed, partial use of one or other procedure can be useful. This can happen in the case of short-term, one-off placements. This is because during placements of that kind, trainees have to be particularly adaptable and able to seize whatever opportunities are available, no matter how brief they may be.

Time is a major factor in any training programme but the decision about whether to use one training procedure or another within a programme should not just be made on the basis of the gross amount of time available. What is also important is the way the time is used.

Because shortage of time is such an obstacle to training in the case of in-service teachers, one Scottish project investigated the influence which time had on four teachers who were using the indirect training procedure to improve their teaching. This is what was found:

> "The project compared the end-of-programme satisfaction expressed by two teachers who had been individually, for one hour a week, helped using the indirect procedure to develop their teaching every week for four weeks, and two teachers who had been individually helped, on the same conditions, every week for one school term (that is for nine weeks). All four teachers felt that they had grown professionally, but the first two teachers focussed their efforts more sharply more rapidly, and they also expressed less anxiety about time. The project can suggest then that the time issue should not be construed grossly in terms of the amounts of time needed for staff development of this kind, but in terms which state that even an hour a week spent on its facilitation for a month, provided that what is done is precisely focussed, will promote professional growth." (Cameron-Jones, 1988)

Summary and Applications

This chapter has described two training procedures which can be used to serve a training programme or a placement. In practice, most trainers blend the procedures, though some set store by using a procedure in its purest form. When trainers and trainees choose a procedure, time is likely to influence their choice. However, there is some evidence that even when they opt for the longer-term procedure (ie the indirect one) the gross amount of time trainers and trainees spend together is less important than precisely how focussed their interaction is when they do have time to meet. So, provided the procedure is compatible with the programme and suits the dispositions of the people using it, trainers and trainees can make even small amounts of time work for them in an effective way, whichever procedure they decide to use.

3

Training Methods

The trainer's choice of training method depends on the purpose of the programme. The choice is also influenced by other factors such as the time available and the dispositions of trainer and trainee. However, one point is important in all professional programmes, whatever their differences: in all the professions, training methods are concerned with thought as well as action. They must improve the trainees' professional thinking, as well as the trainees' professional performance. In the paragraphs below, methods which, at the moment of their use, are mostly concerned with trainees' thinking are described first. Then, methods which ask trainees for some kind of teaching performance are described. Thought-oriented methods are used in teacher training programmes not as an end in themselves but in order to improve trainees' subsequent performance.

Thought-oriented Methods

The trainer can cultivate trainees' thinking, judgements and decisions about their teaching in a number of ways.

1. Explaining the culture and explaining actions

This method is a vital element of placement. 'Explaining the culture' means explaining the goals, values and imperatives of the host organisation, in order that the trainee will understand why things and people work there as they do. This kind of explaining is hard to do well, especially if the trainers are themselves inhabitants of the culture. Everyone knows the proverb 'The fish will be the last to discover water'. In that respect, placement hosts who explain their organisation's culture often feel a bit like fish, because they are so surrounded by their taken-for-granted environment that it is difficult to explain its *rationale* in a clear way to an outside person. However, unless the trainee can understand this rationale, the *observable* aspects of the organisation will be imperfectly understood, and much of the value of the placement will be lost.

A good example of the need for trainees to understand the

rationale of an organisation is that of in-service teachers who go on business and industrial placements. The main point of these placements is that the teachers learn new ideas, in order to make use of these ideas in their teaching and in the way they handle their pupils' orientation to employment.

'Explaining one's actions' is also difficult for trainers to do but also essential as a placement training method. Among the placement hosts who do this particularly well are class teachers who have students on placement in their classrooms. Such teachers, when they are being observed by their students, may manage five or six times in an hour to explain briefly to the student why they are doing what they are doing, why they treat one child differently from another and so on. These explanations are essential for student understanding. Without them, students lack intellectual tools with which to appraise their own actions and, perhaps, change them in the future.

2. *Providing a model*

The point of any training is to change trainees. This change can be to make them better at doing something, or to help them do something differently. Models assist in this and are of two kinds.

Perceptual models are ones you can see in action. A perceptual model shows you someone else actually doing the things you are learning to do. A teacher who successfully uses a new style of teaching is a good perceptual model for other teachers who are hesitant to use that style. By observing the successful model in action, the hesitant teachers gain in confidence and skill. Similarly, people who work in placement bases can be successful working models of business, industrial or personnel practice. One example of this is the personnel officer of an engineering firm whom teachers on placement see, kindly but successfully, making sure that the school's naive and scatter brained former pupils accept that punctuality and attention to detail are important in work if you expect to be paid for it! Sometimes trainers themselves act as models. This is common in pre-service training. Sometimes they do not.

Perceptual models can be presented live or on video but symbolic models are presented in diagrams or in words. Symbolic models describe and explain the actions being taken, but they do not actually show you someone physically taking these actions. A

diagram of a new way of organising resources in an infant classroom is a symbolic model. A verbal description of a teacher running a software design class in a high school in Germany is a symbolic model. Like perceptual models, symbolic ones give trainees food for thought and suggest alternative (and desirable) ways of doing things.

3. Organising the opportunity to shadow

Shadowing is the method by which a trainee shadows other people in order to understand their role. In-service teachers on industrial placement may act as the shadow of the managing director of a firm, or of a new entrant to the firm, or of a staff member recruiting new entrants. Shadows follow their people about, usually without a break, for a period of time which, depending on the point of the shadowing, may be as short as an hour or as long as a month. (Shadowing someone making or closing a deal could take a month. Shadowing someone who runs pre-selection interviews for employment might only take an hour.)

Shadowing can be systematic or open-ended, depending on its purpose. Systematic shadowing involves the trainee in making notes about specific things at pre-determined time intervals. A student shadowing a child in a nursery school might note which activities the child chooses to do and might make these notes every three minutes or so, in order to build up a picture of the child's day at school. An in-service teacher shadowing a managing director would make different notes and might do so at different time intervals.

Finally, shadows may or may not engage with the person being shadowed. Non-engagement means that the person being shadowed treats the shadow as invisible. Engagement means that, from time to time, there will be discussion between them about what is going on.

4. Providing case studies and case examples

Case studies are written down, full, thorough and analysed accounts of a slice of a teacher's or an organisation's history. Some case studies are as big as a book. An example of a major case study is that of a teacher who, after years of teaching pupils in a 'good' neighbourhood school, was compulsorily transferred to another area and needed to adopt a different teaching repertoire. The study

describes and analyses the changes made by that teacher in his thought and practice over the first year of his transfer. Another example is the study of a school which transformed its pedagogy by using classroom equipment in a totally different way. Briefer and are less closely analysed studies are sometimes described as case examples. They often describe happenings, events or incidents (sometimes 'critical' incidents, ie ones which had a critical impact) in a teacher's experience. As with case studies, the point of them is to provide food for thought and material for discussion. The 'worried trainer' who opened this book and the episodes described in Appendix 1 are case examples.

5. *Presenting scripts for completion*

Giving trainees scripts for completion is useful when the training programme is concerned with a specific teaching skill or strategy. Depending on what the training is about, the script may be written in outline or may be given in detail word for word. Scripts are particularly useful when trainees are preparing to use new teaching styles. For example, a script might follow a class of pupils, of given characteristics, coming down the corridor, and arriving at the door of a classroom with given resources, in order to be taught for a given time period. The trainee is told the objective which the teaching must achieve and, in outline or word for word, then scripts the teaching to achieve it. Teachers planning to change from demonstration-based to experiment-based science teaching are often helped by script completion exercises.

6. *Providing real, simulated or scripted performances for trainee redirection and improvement*

By this method a teaching performance is provided for trainees. It may be real (video or live), simulated (using actors and actresses), or scripted. It is documented, ie there are supporting papers describing its objectives, constraints and context. It is complete, ie it goes from the start to the finish of the relevant teaching episode. The purpose of the exercise is for trainees to suggest ways to improve the teaching which is presented to them. Thus, the trainee's task begins with error analysis. That means identifying the moment when the critical error was made in the performance. The task then consists of the trainee suggesting how, from that point in time, the performance should be redirected in order to be

improved. The moment of error may occur during the period of the teacher's planning, preparation, pupil entry to the classroom, teaching, or at the close of the lesson. This means that trainees must make a comprehensive analysis of the whole episode of teaching, and that the analysis may need to be a fine one. A very fine analysis is needed, for example, when the performance being presented loses its grip and quality very suddenly, as a result of one small verbal error on the teacher's part. For example, a scripted performance used in one training programme on the loss and retrieval of class control was from an economics lesson. A high school pupil was asked to read to the others in the class the assignment instructions being written by the teacher on the blackboard. Throughout, the teacher wrote down, and the pupil read out, the Public Services (Health, Education etc) as Pubic. In the script, class control disintegrated at that point, and the trainees using the script are asked to re-write it so that control is regained.

7. Posing dilemmas

When trainers pose dilemmas as a means of training they do so in a structured way. The typical form of such an exercise is that a curriculum decision or a classroom event is presented. The presentation may be oral, video or scripted. Usually the teacher in the case is portrayed as being under enormous pressure of time. Trainees are presented with the teacher's problem in the form of a dilemma. That is, there are two solutions given to it. The task of the trainee is to choose one of these as the right course of action for the circumstance. The trainee is then asked to make explicit the rationale for this choice, and to trace the path of its pedagogic consequences. This done, the trainee's decision and predictions of its consequences are questioned, challenged and discussed by other trainees in the group and by the trainer.

One programme which uses this method presents the case of a new teacher who, at the last minute, discovers a fundamental error in the physics worksheet which the examination class are using at home for their final revision. Another instance is the dilemma of a teacher with precarious control of a class generally thought in the school to be extremely difficult. One pupil accuses another in the class of stealing money from his pocket and then threatens the accused pupil, and everyone else in the lab, with a dissecting blade. Trainees are presented with two solutions to each of these problems, and are asked to choose and to defend one of them.

8. Discussion

Many of the methods described above depend on discussion if they are to be effective. Discussion is one of the most difficult methods to use, not least because people in education are supposed to be, and we all think we are, so good at it.

Yet many of us are not that good! However, we can be better if we remember two basic rules. They are that, in a discussion, both or all parties' views are respected; and that no single party dominates the other(s) by sheer overtalk. Remembering these rules makes it more likely that discussions about teaching - its rationales, decisions, judgements and quality - can be fruitful, interesting and effective whether the discussions are one-to-one of trainer and trainee, or whether the methods are being used with groups.

Methods which Require Trainees to do some Teaching

Described below are methods which require trainees to do some teaching. In some ways this makes these methods easier to use than those described above. For a start, teaching is real. The thought-oriented methods, even though they use real material and models, and true events, do not always have the same intense reality. In contrast, trainees' own teaching is always an intense event for them. Further, the point of many of the methods given below is to make the trainee's experience even more intensely experienced and analysed than, in the course of day-to-day work in school, such experience can ever be.

In all the methods described below the trainer must, skilfully and intelligently, focus the trainee on the task in hand, help with the trainee's understanding of it, provide opportunities for the trainee to practise it, organise observation or trainee self-observation of it, and arrange follow-up feedback and discussion in a helpful way.

1. Isolating one skill, strategy or style of teaching

The essence of this and many other training methods is to keep tasks small and so ensure success. Teaching is a vast job. Much of the training for it has multiple and enormous goals. Pre-service and in-service teachers can be overwhelmed by the sheer size of what they have to achieve by the end of a training programme. Further, the aspects of teaching in which they are trained all feel interconnected.

It can be hard for trainees to see which specific aspect of teaching to focus on.

By the method of isolation, the trainer's job is to begin by partitioning off one aspect of teaching and ensuring trainee success in that one before tackling the others one by one. Partitioning off is hard to do because even though aspects of teaching are clearly distinguishable conceptually, they link together in practice. Nonetheless, *for the purpose of training*, it is possible to isolate and focus on one single skill, strategy or style. The kind of skill focussed on might be that of questioning, or structuring explanations tightly, or using non-verbal ways to encourage reticent pupils to take part in class activities. The kind of strategies focussed on might be those of establishing clear rules about what pupils must do if they finish assignments early, how to ensure and monitor pupils' safety when they use practical and potentially dangerous equipment, or ways of grouping pupils so that they are maximally productive while working in class. The kind of styles focussed on might be teaching by discussion, ways of teaching by means of pupils' practical research and experiment, or teaching in the manner of an authentic pupil seminar. Appendix 1 gives two case examples of this method of training in use.

2. *Scaling-down the task*

By this method, the trainer organises a scaled-down version of the eventual teaching task. The scaling-down can be done by reducing the class size, reducing the amount of time the trainee has to teach, reducing the amount of lesson content the trainee has to handle, or reducing the aspects of teaching which the trainee is to practise. The method works well for in-service teachers who may launch a new style of teaching with half the class while the other pupils are doing something different elsewhere. The method also works for pre-service teachers who, with every possible aspect of the task scaled-down, may practise teaching a tiny group of pupils in a corner of the regular teacher's classroom.

In the 1960's, microteaching, which was a form of scaling-down, had great popularity with trainers and trainees. Sometimes it was indistinguishable from ordinary scaling-down, but sometimes trainees were video-recorded while they taught, so that they and their trainer could watch the video during subsequent feedback discussion and use it when planning teaching the next time round.

3. Shallow to deep ending

This method of training is sometimes called "the shallow-ended approach". The method is based on comparing the work of the teacher trainer with the work of a swimming coach who must help an inexperienced or nervous client to feel confident in the water. Such a coach must start training the client gently at the shallow end of the pool, rather than expecting the client to jump straight in at the deep end and begin to swim magnificently! Similarly, the teacher trainer who uses this method does so by starting the training programme gently. The trainer helps the trainee to choose a task in which the trainee does not feel threatened. The trainer then helps the trainee to practise this and similar tasks in which failure, even if it does happen, is not catastrophic. Very gradually and carefully the trainer leads the trainee up to the deeper and more difficult bits of the job. Eventually, therefore, the trainee can cope confidently at the "deep end" of the job and does not panic, sink or drown even when the water gets rough!

This method can be used to structure training sessions as short as one hour. It is also used to structure very major programmes, including the degree programmes for initial teachers which may be three or four years long.

4. Devising mini experiments

By this method, the trainer devises a small, one-variable classroom experiment which is relevant to the aspect of teaching which the trainee needs to learn. The trainee carries out the experiment and its effects are used to guide the trainee's subsequent action.

An example comes from a programme designed to raise teaching standards in respect of pupils with special needs in mainstream classrooms. It is important that such pupils take a full part in classroom life and make full use of language (listening, speaking, writing and so on). Part of the programme tackled strategies of teaching which encourage pupil use of spoken language. One of the mini experiments in the programme concerned teachers' 'wait-time', ie the time teachers wait for pupils to answer questions in the classroom. The rationale for this focus was the strange fact that teachers will often wait longer for able pupils to express their ideas in words than for pupils who find this difficult. The mini experiment asked teachers to concentrate for a very short period of time (ten to thirty minutes) on consciously lengthening their wait-time for

pupils with language difficulties. The effects of this on the dynamics of their classrooms were observed closely by the teachers themselves as they carried out their experiments, and were reported in detail to the trainer and other trainees afterwards, with the purpose of helping the teachers to improve their language treatment of pupils with special needs.

5. *Setting up paired support and joint opportunities*

The method of paired support is a variation of 'buddy' methods or methods which employ 'critical friends'. 'Buddies' or 'critical friends' support one another in professional development, often in a general, long term way. Rather similarly, 'mentors', who are usually senior respected colleagues, give general support to trainees' long term growth and career development.

The method of paired support, however, is more specific and more short term. By this method, for the period and the purpose of the training programme, the trainer pairs the trainee with a congenial fellow trainee who has similar training needs. The two help each other with mini experiments, skill rehearsal and other training tasks, usually observing each other's performance of the various tasks in each other's classrooms, and taking part together in the subsequent discussions with the trainer.

6. *Organ ing peer teaching*

Peer teaching is a kind of role playing. It is sometimes rejected by trainers as a method because it is less 'real' than some of the others. In fact, however, it can be helpful as a rehearsal method if the purpose of the exercise is clear and if the session is not prolonged once its point has been achieved.

Peer teaching involves trainees teaching their colleagues rather than their pupils. It is used when trainees need to generate and rehearse a new teaching performance. It takes the form of the trainee going through the new performance while fellow trainees are in the position of being taught. The method worked well in the case of one programme for teachers who had to change the way they positioned, managed, and planned classroom group traffic around resources, because of a new requirement to share resources among neighbouring teachers. This meant considerable reorganisation. Scripting and rehearsing the new system with peers before trying it with pupils was a concrete help to the trainee involved. The peer

teaching also yielded peer comment on other aspects of resourcing and this was helpful to all concerned.

7. Providing role-taking opportunities

Peer teaching is a role-taking opportunity. Other role-taking methods are more demanding than peer teaching. One example is the method by which the trainee is in reality given the full role of someone else for a period of time. Most teachers remember this from their student days when, at the end of their course, they finally took on the full role of the teacher and were appraised at that standard, rather than at the standard of a complete novice.

In-service teachers can be trained by being given a similar opportunity, their performance in the new role being given, as in a student's case, in the presence of their trainer. This method works well for teachers who will soon be teaching different pupils, for example a different age group. The upper primary teacher transferring to an infant class, or the teacher who has previously taught sixth year pupils taking on a timetable of new first year work, can be trained by practising the role, in advance, through replacing a colleague in a system which is already working smoothly. By this method, the dynamics and the working machinery to sustain the role have been attended to by the real post-holder, leaving the trainee to focus closely, for the period of the exercise, on the new role itself and the different demands it makes.

8. Using exchange schemes

Exchange schemes are an extended kind of role-taking. They are typically longer than the normal role-taking (since they last about a year) and often they do not include much formal training. The essence of such schemes is that teachers exchange jobs, each doing the job of the other, with a view to learning, among other things, new and different kinds of teaching.

Summary and Applications

This chapter has described numerous training methods which can be used in ordinary training programmes and during placements. Some of the methods are concerned with teachers' thinking. They aim to deepen and focus that thinking, so that the teachers' subsequent performance in the classroom is improved. Using these

methods well, depends on trainers using authentic and relevant material and being highly skilled in its discussion. The other kind of methods provide practice in various kinds of teaching. The effective use of these methods depends on trainers providing opportunities for practice which is properly understood by the trainee, which is carefully observed and appraised, and which is used intelligently to improve the trainee's teaching next time. Both kinds of methods work. The kind you choose has to depend on what you want to achieve and the situation you are in. If there is an ideal system, it is probably to arrange some thought-oriented sessions first, and then to run some sessions which include trainee performance.

4

The Appraisal of Performance

To appraise anybody's performance when they do anything at all you need:

- *Criteria:* the points which define what the performance should consist of: these points are what the appraiser looks for and what count as making up the performance.
- *Standards:* the definitions which state what an acceptable performance is: these are the definitions which the appraiser uses to judge whether the performance being observed is of an acceptable standard.
- *Good Judgement:* the full understanding of the criteria: the ability to spot behaviour relating to them in action and the steadiness to judge that behaviour in relation to the standards.

These are the basic essentials for the appraisal of teaching performance.

The appraisal of teaching performance is the evaluation of its quality. Done systematically, appraisal is a skilled and demanding business. At present, systematic appraisals of teaching are more frequent in pre-service than in-service teacher training. A student teacher on a four-year training course may experience twenty-one such appraisals or even more. Once qualified, however, most teachers experience fewer appraisals than that during their whole forty years in the profession! Of course, colleagues, pupils and pupils' parents do indeed appraise the teaching of teachers who are employed in schools, but they do not often do so in a systematic way.

For the purposes of training, however, systematic appraisal of teaching is needed to avoid the waste of training time and effort. Such appraisal is necessary at two points. First, it is necessary before training begins, in order to have information on the training needs of the teacher. This first appraisal is a precondition of any training, since everyone involved in a training programme must know what goal it should achieve based on what is found to be needed. Secondly, appraisal is necessary when some or all of the training has taken place. This is because the people involved in the training need to know the extent to which it has been a success so

far. If the training has successfully reached its goal, the programme is over. If it has not, the programme should go on.

Appraisal before training, and during or after it, depends on three steps—it has to be planned; it has to be carried out; it has to be reported to the people entitled to know about it. The paragraphs below describe each of these three steps.

Planning an Appraisal

There are many aspects of a teacher's performance which might be appraised. Teachers must work well with parents. They must, in the interests of pupils, sometimes work closely with members of other professions such as social workers or doctors. However, since this book is about training in teaching, this chapter's examples will be about that.

When its purpose is that of training, appraisal may be planned for one of two reasons. Either the teacher needs to fulfil some totally new pedagogic demand, or the teacher's existing pedagogic repertoire (or some particular part of it) may be thought to need attention. Either way, valid evidence on the teacher's present teaching is needed. The appraisal should be planned to yield that evidence.

The scope of the evidence needed is an important planning factor. The appraisal of the whole of a teacher's repertoire of teaching requires more complex planning, and takes longer, than the appraisal of just a part of the repertoire. Also, it is much harder to make sure that the means used for a comprehensive appraisal of teaching are valid , that is, that they yield the evidence they are supposed to yield, than is the case for a partial appraisal. This is because a comprehensive appraisal of teaching requires a list of criteria which reflect the full teaching repertoire. The kind of analysis needed to make a full list like this is more prone to error than a partial one.

Criteria for the full appraisal of teaching are familiar to many teachers from their student days when comprehensive checklists of criteria were used on them by their tutors. Such ready-made lists of criteria, however, do not suit every purpose. If the trainer is interested, for example, in what the teacher does to raise levels of pupil participation in foreign language lessons, then even the most excellent, comprehensive, ready-made list of criteria is less useful than one which has been tailor-made for that particular purpose.

The standard of performance which can be accepted is the next

thing to think about and plan for. Clearly, the standard of teaching which is acceptable from a new, probationer teacher is different from that which is expected from an experienced, senior or master teacher. Therefore, a decision is needed about what standard of performance will be appropriate for each particular appraisal.

That decision made, the appraiser must then plan for whether the appraisal will result in a pass/fail judgement, in grades of some kind, or in comments. Pass/Fail judgements merely say whether the teaching which was observed was good enough or not. Grades say more precisely *how* good it was. Often grades are given on a scale of A to E, where A, B, C and D all indicate various kinds of acceptable performance, and E indicates an unacceptable performance. Comments are different again. They do indeed indicate the standard of the teaching but, if they are of the diagnostic and advisory type, they also suggest the reasons why the teaching is of the standard it is, and offer advice on how to make the teaching better.

Whether the instrument to be used for the appraisal is comprehensive or limited in scope, and whether it is ready-made or tailor-made, and whether it has space for grades or comments, it must be capable of reliable use and used in a reliable way. If an appraisal instrument is used reliably, what happens when it is used is that the same piece of teaching is judged in the same way no matter who is doing the judging or when. If it is not being used reliably, the same teaching is judged differently, according to who is doing the judging, or when. Trainers can check their own reliability as users of an appraisal instrument by comparing their own use of it against the practice of a definitive, model user. (The practice of such a user is usually described in writing or provided on video.) In addition, trainers can check that their use of the instrument is the same as that of colleagues who also use it. Also they can check that their own use of the instrument is consistent over time, rather than drifting about within a period of observation, or varying from one observation occasion to another.

After planning for the scope and quality of the information to be sought, the next major planning factor to consider is that of sample size. As part of planning the scope of the appraisal, and ensuring the quality of the information it will yield, some decision will have been made about what to look at in the teaching, and in what circumstances to look at it. But how much of the teaching will it be necessary to see in order to make a judgement about it? The answer

to this question needs careful planning. A general impression of the training needs of a teacher can be gained if the trainer observes the teacher during a single lesson which lasts one hour or even less. A trainer who observes a teacher at work for one hour in the relevant classroom circumstances can certainly get an impression of the more urgent and obvious training needs of that teacher. For example, if the teacher has shaky class control and is observed for one hour with a "difficult" class, then the trainer's impression of the need for helpful training on discipline and control is very strong.

A one-hour sample of teaching is, however, not enough for the trainer who wants to make a diagnosis of the teacher's less obvious, but nonetheless professionally important, training needs. To do a diagnostic appraisal of this kind, the trainer needs a larger sample of behaviour. Three hours of observation in total, in relevant classroom circumstances and spaced over a period of one month, gives the trainer the chance to make a diagnosis. Such a diagnosis will yield a proper training plan, rather than merely a general impression of the more obvious things which need to be done. Diagnostic appraisals, however, do not only need larger samples of teacher performance than appraisals which give a general impression. They are also more analytical. This means that they involve the trainer in taking more detailed notes about the teacher's teaching, and in writing out a much more thorough and detailed training plan. In consequence, the trainer has to handle a greater flow of paper and the time needed to cope with that paper must be planned for.

Analytical appraisals, if they are comprehensive, usually take longer to do and their consequences take longer to manage than appraisals which aim to yield a general impression of a teacher's teaching. However, the scope and purpose of the appraisal, rather than worries about the time it will take, must always be the deciding factor in its planning. Analytical appraisals break down the teaching point by point. An appraisal which yields a general impression combines a number of points. An analytical appraisal might, for example, distinguish between the way the teacher questions pupils, explains things, discusses things and sets assignments, and responds to pupils' answers, activities, behaviour and ideas. A general impression might group these points all together into the one factor of teacher-pupil interaction. It is such differences in levels of detail which can mean that analytical appraisals take longer to do. However, if, for the purposes of training, you need this level of

detail, then you have no alternative but to spend the necessary time on getting it.

Finally, will the appraisal be handl . in a formal or informal way? This will depend on its purpose, on the relationship between the people involved and on their particular dispositions. Many people's snap choice in the matter would be for the informal style, but it would be a mistake to decide the matter on a snap decision. Being formal does not mean being hostile or unfriendly. It can mean being merely business-like. And when roles and procedures are defined in a clear business-like way, this can often be less stressful for everyone involved than the uncertainties of informality.

The teachers to be appraised will have advice for trainers on this matter. Also, of course, they will have been involved at every stage of planning their own appraisals. Their involvement in the whole business of their own appraisal is important. It is not ethical and, frankly, it is just not useful, to plan to appraise people for the purpose of professional training, without their knowledge, involvement and consent.

Carrying-out an Appraisal

The appraisal of teaching depends on the observation of teaching. Whether the appraisal is a formal or an informal exercise, the observation has to be unobtrusive so as not to disrupt and change the teaching. The observation must be skilled and should also be courteous.

The observation of teaching is a demanding task. It may not be possible to do it in a concentrated way for more than thirty to forty minutes, depending on the scope and frequency of the things to be observed. Appraisers of teaching, however, often remain in classrooms longer than that in order to give themselves and everyone else time to settle, and also in order to orientate themselves and to set their focus.

Observation demands preparation. But even well prepared observers encounter hazards when they observe teaching for the purpose of appraising it. One hazard is the halo effect. This effect is at work when observers see the teacher they are appraising in a generally positive (or generally negative) light. This causes inaccurate observation because it pushes all the observations made of the teaching in an undeserved positive (or negative) direction. An additional example of halo effect at work is when the teachers

being appraised seem to the observer to be good (or poor) at one particular thing, and their good (or poor) performance on this one aspect of teaching leads the trainer into appraising other, unrelated, aspects of their teaching as good (or poor) as well. Another hazard is the error of leniency. This can occur when observers are appraising the teaching of someone to whom they feel protective (for example a young teacher or a vulnerable colleague). Not wishing to harm or destroy the confidence of the teacher, the observer is over-lenient. Thus errors of leniency result in appraisals which are unwarrantedly favourable. One further hazard is the error of restriction of range. This can distort appraisals in the following way. When a range of grades is available (for example, very good/good/satisfactory/poor/very poor - which gives a range of five grades) observers can get into the habit of using only a narrow part of the range. They may make all their grades unjustifiably high, or they may make them all unjustifiably low or they may over-use the middle grades. When observers do this they can see their appraisals clustering unjustifiably around their favoured point.

Whenever you are observing, the only way to avoid all of these hazards is to keep at the front of your mind a clear idea of what you are looking for and keep clear in your head the standards of performance which you must apply.

Finally, when the observation of the teaching is over and you have your notes in front of you and the observation itself clear in your mind, it is important to take enough time to interpret the evidence properly. This means keeping a clear view on the purpose of the appraisal and therefore on different types of standard – those set by the self, by specific criteria, or by a norm.

If the purpose of the appraisal is simply to ascertain an individual teacher's strengths and weaknesses in teaching, then the evidence should be interpreted in that light. This kind of judgement is sometimes called ipsative because it is based on the standards of the individual's previous performance. However, if the purpose of the exercise is to ascertain that the teacher has performed at a certain standard, then, all you are interested in is that the standard was reached on all the relevant criteria. This is an example of criterion-referenced judgement. That is, its intention is to ascertain that a teacher does the necessary things well enough in relation to some set standard. Norm-referenced judgement is different. It involves comparing one teacher's performance with that of others. A trainer would need a norm-referenced judgement to choose, for example,

which teachers in a school most need to go on a training programme. To reach a decision like this, teachers have to be compared with other teachers in the school.

All judgements about teaching are hard to make since no matter how carefully the appraisal has been planned, no matter how competently the observation is done and no matter how carefully the evidence is considered, its interpretation is always subject to some uncertainty. This is simply because all interpretations by human beings are prone to human error. In particular, all interpretations of evidence about teaching are prey to false positives and false negatives. Therefore, appraisers must take care to act ethically with respect to them. A false positive is when you say yes and you should have said no. A false negative is when you say no and you should have said yes. For example, a false positive happens when, faced with uncertain evidence, you are unsure whether a teacher's performance was up to the standard, and you decide that it was (but it was not). A false negative happens if, in similar circumstances, you decide that the performance was not up to the standard (but actually it was). In the world of teaching, whenever your uncertainty is as great as this, only one factor should sway your final decision. That factor is the criticality of the judgement to be made. For critical things (for example, when a teacher just perhaps may be strict to the point of vindictiveness with nursery children) you should risk false negatives. For less important things (for example, when a teacher just perhaps may be unpunctual releasing sixth year pupils for the next class) you should risk false positives.

In all your interpretations of evidence about teaching, however, the teachers whom you have observed will play a helpful part, if there is opportunity for discussion.

Reporting an Appraisal

Reporting an appraisal happens when trainers, having observed evidence of the teacher's performance, and having interpreted the evidence, communicate their appraisals in the form of a report. In such reports, it is important to cover everything which the report ought to include. It is important to keep to the point. It is important to be clear. It is important to say only what the evidence and a competent interpretation of it bear. Three things make a difference to the way this kind of reporting should be done: whether the report

is made to the trainee or to other people, whether it is oral or written, and at what point in the training programme the report is given.

It makes a big difference to reports if you are producing them for trainees or for other people. The trainee, having done the teaching which has been observed for the appraisal is, logically, well placed to know some important things about it. For example, only the trainee knows in detail why he or she planned the teaching in that particular way, or changed plan in the middle of the teaching, or reacted in a way which was critical to the quality of the lesson. The trainer's reports to the trainee should acknowledge this. Almost invariably, and in terms of the benefit to the trainee this is the best situation of all, there will be a proper opportunity for trainer and trainee to discuss the different interpretations of the evidence in an appraisal, and the different conclusions which can be drawn from it. Reporting appraisals to other people, however, cannot be like this. Such reports cannot have the same share basis of experience and usually also they have different goals. Headteachers, for example, usually want appraisal reports in order to know what resources for training are likely to be needed by a teacher or a school staff in the future. In contrast, the concerns of the trainees themselves are likely to be much more personal and sensitive than this.

Secondly, oral reports are different from written reports. Oral reports are given to people who are visible and present, with all the help which that gives to clear communication. Oral reports to trainees let trainers amplify the key points which will help their trainees to improve their teaching in the future. Oral reports allow any explanations needed to be given on the spot. Oral reports can avert misunderstanding. Written reports are not like this. Their clarity to the trainee or to any other people entitled to have them is an absolute imperative. Proof reading them is a matter of ethics not just a matter of courtesy. Trainers should sign reports and any reports you produce should feel to you to be worthy of your name.

Finally, reports made before training, or at an interim point in a training programme, are different from those made when the training planned is over. In initial and interim reports, trainers should say what the trainee's next step in training needs to be, and how they will help the trainee to achieve it. However, if the training which was planned is over, and it has not been a success, trainers are obliged to explain why, and, if asked, to offer good advice to remedy the situation.

The Ethics of Appraisal

Even a practical book like this cannot ignore the ethics of the matter. It is important that trainers do their appraisals with genuinely educational intentions. It is important that appraisals do not waste other people's efforts or tread on their good faith. It is important that appraisals are useful. It is important that they give good value for other people's time. It is important that appraisals are true and clear. The ethics of appraisal therefore demand hard work from teacher trainers. These ethics ask trainers to put time and effort into learning the job and doing it to high standards. Were trainers to do less than that then they would be not only ineffective but also morally wrong.

Summary and Applications

This chapter has explained the essentials of appraisals. It has outlined the three steps which appraisal involves and described how, when they are training teachers, trainers can take these steps. Trainers grow more expert as appraisers by practising and rehearsing these steps in their minds, as well as by building up their skill through experience of them. One particular issue in appraisal (the issue of reliability) involves, in addition to practice, rehearsal and experience, some technical matters also. These are taken further in Appendix 3.

5

Why we need Good Trainers

Everyone wants teachers to be well trained. Nowadays, this means three things for their trainers. Firstly, the public is interested in what trainers can do for teachers, because there is so much discussion about quality and standards in education. Secondly, people inside education emphasise teaching's human as well as its technical aspects because they know that the job of teaching is deeper than it looks. Thirdly, the public see links between the work of teachers and the country's economy and wealth, because those links are now so obvious.

Quality and Standards

No-one can avoid the public's interest in the quality of teachers. The standards of teaching which are set for people who want to qualify and work as teachers are more widely discussed now than they have ever been, filling pages in the popular press as well as generating vast quantities of professional writing.

In Scotland, the General Teaching Council points to what the teaching profession itself wants to find in its new entrants (GTC, 1990). The profession looks for the kind of teaching which is well tuned to the aims of the curriculum; which is stimulating, interesting and productive; which gets pupils thinking, participating and involved in what they do at school. In the rest of Britain, similar documents emphasise what good teaching and what good teachers are expected to be like. In the past, statements like this came mostly from the teacher training institutions who needed them to define what would count as a 'pass' at the end of training courses. Now, such statements come also from elsewhere. In 1989, the Department of Education and Science published regulations on what people had to be like, and what they had to be able to do, in order to be recognised as teachers if they had not been through the usual kinds of training. (DES, 1989). These people were to have most of their training not in the usual way at all but by means of experience as teachers working in a school. To 'pass' as licensed teachers, however, they must still demonstrate the personal qualities which have

always been expected in a teacher, and they must still show that they are competent with pupils in the classroom.

In Europe, committees have worried for years about what standards to set in order to make sure that European teachers are good enough. Teachers moving from one country to work in another will have to show not just that they have a qualification to teach in their own country, but also that they have taught there professionally in a recognised way and that they are people 'of good character and repute'. (EC, 1989). In the USA, the effort to specify standards has produced quantities of technical and professional literature. Early in 1990, a National Board was set up to work out standards for American teachers and to develop methods for appraising teachers in the light of them (Baratz-Snowden, 1990). Some of the criteria are very general (for example, 'teachers are members of learning communities') but some are directly about practical teaching and are similar to their parallels in the British proforma shown in Appendix 3.

As the demands on teachers become more clearly defined and more widely advertised, the demands on their trainers escalate to match. In these circumstances, the effectiveness of trainers depends on their rising proficiency in training and appraisal—but it also depends on their humanity, on their commitment to, and skill with, trainees as human beings.

Humanity

Teaching and training are human jobs and arts. Research which illustrates this point investigated the standards and criteria set for students who train as teachers in the Scottish colleges of education (Cameron-Jones *and* O'Hara 1990a). These students have to 'pass' on twelve criteria. There are two kinds of criteria: one is about the practice of teaching, the other covers qualities which are personal and human. The study found that employers wanted both kinds of qualities in their teachers, that is, they wanted their teachers to be high-grade human beings as well as competent practitioners in the classroom. Parallel with this finding was that the employers wanted the trainers to provide not just a list of the students' formal final grades on the various courses but also to write reports which included comments about the students. The employers wanted to know and to learn from the human insights and judgements which trainers can provide by means of perceptive, human reports, and

whose nuances cannot be conveyed in a formal, letter grade.

This study, and the changes being introduced in arrangements for teacher training, put a premium not just on the practical skill of trainers but also on skills and obligations of a human kind. Such obligations have always mattered in education and now they have come to matter even more. We see everywhere in teacher training now the move to shorter courses; to courses which take place in schools rather than in specialist training institutions; to the greater frequency of teacher placements in organisations other than those in the education service. The long, exclusive control over trainees which trainers exercised in the past is coming to an end. In the past, trainer and trainee might have three or more years to work closely and to succeed together. In contrast, the trainers of the present and the future may have to achieve their effects in as many months, or weeks, or days.

Placement hosts may be better fitted than other trainers to adapt to the implications of these changes. Placement hosts already know that they must establish personal, human relationships with trainees very rapidly if brief placements are ever to succeed. Now, and increasingly in future, ordinary trainers too will need this kind of human skill. In addition to *being* proficient, optimistic and committed to trainee success, trainers in the new circumstances will need to *show* these things unmistakeably to all involved—and to do so in what is often the very brief time allowed.

All this is demanding—but a climate favourable to training and public perception of its relationship to wealth helps trainers to succeed.

Wealth

Every nation wants to be prosperous, even if its people do not always agree on what to do with the national wealth. In the past, when national wealth was defined by most people as natural resources such as coal and oil, it was common to see education and training as a kind of luxury. This view, however, is no longer widely held and in every country there is urgent discussion of the need to train, develop and educate the people and the workforce if that country is to have the means for prosperity. This gives a place in the sun for trainers of all kinds, including teacher trainers. In the growing view which sees *people* (as well as coal and oil etc) as the wealth-creators in every country, and hence a large factor in deciding

a country's economic and general standing in the world, teachers have a massive role. In Britain, they carry the education of children from aged 3 to 16 years. They, therefore, hold in their hands much of the new wealth of the nation and their trainers' skill in helping them in their task has become a matter of enormous national interest.

Conclusion

This chapter is easily concluded. The good trainer is competent at training and appraisal. The good trainer acts ethically. The good trainer cares in a human way. These things have always applied to the job of teacher training. They apply now. They will continue to do so in the future with even greater force and urgency.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Experience and Success for Teachers in Training — two case examples.

Chapter 2 described two general procedures for training and Chapter 3 summarised numerous training methods. This appendix gives two case examples of these. The trainees in these examples were in–service teachers who trained to improve their classroom teaching. In both cases the indirect training procedure was used, the method of training was that of isolating one strategy of teaching, the training took place in the school itself, and the programme lasted four weeks. Both trainees rehearsed and carried out the improvements to their teaching in their own normal classrooms but each also met the trainer for one hour per week outside the classroom to discuss progress and to be coached in the strategy of teaching each was trying to adopt.

Case One

The trainee in this case taught infants. She had done so for many years, having initially trained as a primary teacher several years before. She felt that her teaching undervalued the art and craft area of the curriculum in comparison with other areas, especially mathematics and language. She wanted to develop a strategy of teaching which would rebalance her pupils' curriculum.

Her method of organising the work in her classroom was to have four groups of children. Each group covered the core areas of the curriculum each day through being assigned four tasks. These tasks were written up ready for the children every morning on an assignment chart. Usually there were three traditional, cognitive tasks (one each in mathematics, language and environmental studies) and one expressive task (usually in art or craft or something similar). The children had to do most of the tasks independently of the teacher but some tasks had a star beside them. The star meant that pupils were not allowed to begin that task until they were called together by the teacher for direct teaching with her and for close work with her.

The general idea the teacher had was of the need to rebalance her curriculum and to raise the quality of the art and craft work to the level pupils attained in other areas of the curriculum. Her reconnaissance of her own teaching examined four aspects of it:

- the way she presented the different tasks on the assignment chart.
- the way she presented the different tasks verbally to the children, before they began to work on them.
- her physical proximity to the children as they went about the different tasks
- the comments she made about the children's performance of the different tasks when she discussed the children's work with them once they had completed it.

During her reconnaissance she tried to make herself more than usually aware of these aspects of her teaching, keeping a mental note of her performance in all of them, including roughly, the amount of time she was in touch with each task. She also used a tape–recorder to record her discussions with the children about the work and used a notebook to keep notes on herself.

She discovered a number of interesting things about her existing performance. Firstly, she noticed that the assignment chart always put the art and craft tasks last. Secondly, she noticed that her tone of voice, and the length of time she spent discussing tasks, greatly favoured the three traditional tasks at the expense of the art/craft task. Thirdly, she noted that she spent a great deal more time in personal touch with children when they were doing traditional cognitive tasks, standing nearer to them and taking more manifest interest in their work, than she did when they were doing the art and craft task. Fourthly, she noticed that the quality of the discussion between herself and the children on their achievements varied enormously. In the three subjects she regarded as 'core' subjects she noted that she was very careful to praise, correct, encourage, and demand a good standard from each child according to his or her ability. In contrast, although praise was indeed given in art and craft subjects, the children's achievements and their work were not fully discussed or developed.

In her analysis of her own performance it seemed clear to her that 'starring' a task had some kind of domino effect on the curriculum. The teacher described this as a kind of chain effect, which meant that when a task was 'starred' it featured strongly in the verbal presentation of the children's work to them in the morning, and it became the subject of much teacher interest and involvement with it. Finally, it was also emphasised during subsequent assessment discussions held about the children's achievement on that task.

The teacher concluded that starring the art and craft task would

change the balance of the curriculum in her classroom in the way she wished. Although this change would be very small, it would be critical. Its implications would be enormous, especially as she was firmly resolved that no child would lose ground in any of the other areas of the curriculum. Accordingly, she worked out the following strategy: There would be four groups in the class as normal but each group would get one starred art and craft task every four days. The teacher–time diverted to these newly starred tasks would be taken from the reserve of time which had, up until then, been spent by the teacher on consolidation work with the children.

With the basic reconnaissance and analysis completed, the teacher changed her teaching strategy. She rehearsed the new strategy for a little while, then put the change into effect, as planned, for real. She monitored the effects of the change by monitoring her own performance (to make sure that she was sticking to the new strategy) and also by appraising the pupils' standard of the work done in the various curriculum areas. After a period of this monitoring, she was satisfied that the standard of art and craft work was indeed higher, and that the standard of work in other areas had not dropped.

She therefore resolved to change her teaching strategy permanently. After many years of using her previous strategy, the new strategy felt very strange to her at first, but she wished to use it, and was able to do so successfully as the monitoring of her performance had shown. She concluded her description of the programme by saying that she hoped that as the days passed the new strategy would become second nature to her.

Reference: M Mackinnon *and* M Cameron-Jones (1985) *Curriculum Balance and the Frills*, Moray House. Mimeo.

Case Two

In the case of this trainee, the point of the training programme was to improve the quality of her classroom discussions. The trainee's general idea was to learn a strategy of teaching which actively encouraged pupils to develop the content of their discussions themselves, so that instead of merely processing information given by the teacher or a text, they would relate it to their own experiences, feelings and opinions, and formulate their own hypotheses, deductions and explanations. The teacher wanted to develop a strategy of teaching which would help pupils to do this.

To start herself off, she decided to concentrate at first on short discussions with a group of pupils whose language work was not good, and who would be working with a shared text. She used a tape–recorder to reconnoitre her teaching and to find out whether her attempts to change it were working. She did a detailed analysis of the recordings, appraising them for conceptual and other qualities, and using a timer to compare whether, in terms of the sheer amount of talking done during a discussion, she or her pupils 'had the floor' the most.

From this reconnaissance, the teacher noticed that if a pupil hesitated in answering she would herself talk through the silence, and try to simplify or rephrase the question. She noticed that the pupils did formulate some of their own ideas and opinions but not as much as she wanted. To improve on this, she isolated one strategy of her teaching for change. She would reduce her verbal prompts and encouragements to pupils who were expressing ideas, and replace verbal prompts and encouragements by non–verbal equivalents in order to increase pupils' chances of contributing to the discussion without interruption from the teacher. To monitor the change, once again tape–recording was used.

The tape of the discussion where she made this change showed that the new strategy did not work with every pupil. But it did work sometimes, and encouragingly so: for example, the teacher noted:

"Listening back to the tape, the non–verbal encouragement certainly seemed to work. The pupils began to take more time to explain themselves. I had thought that if I let the children go on talking until they had finished they could go off on a tangent and go on about things that were not really relevant. However, I was proved wrong when one boy started talking about his garden in Sighthill. We were discussing whether a flowerbed should be in the middle or at the side of a lawn. There had been a lively exchange of views as to which would be the best place. One pupil began to tell a story which normally I would have interrupted as, at first, it did not seem entirely relevant and he does like to tell stories that go on and on. But at the end of his story he drew a conclusion from it and gave his own opinion on the matter which the story had been intended to illustrate. So if I had in fact stopped him earlier, he would not have been able to draw his own conclusion."

Encouraged, she concluded that, "apart from the difficulties, which I was much more aware of than the pupils, the discussion certainly appeared to have improved. I was really surprised at the

difference that the slight change had made."

Accordingly, she planned another discussion, deciding to continue with and consolidate the new strategy. Again, she made a tape recording of the discussion which took place. Her appraisal of events again was positive.

Reference: H. Smith *and* M. Cameron-Jones (1985) *Beyond the information Given.* Moray House College. Mimeo.

APPENDIX 2: Methods for Evaluating Training and Placement

The best indicator of the success of a training programme or a placement is the difference it makes to a teacher's teaching. Trainee satisfaction with a programme or a placement is, however, another very important indicator to trainers about their own success. Institutions which employ full–time teacher trainers and which specialise in teacher training have banks of items relevant to both kinds of indicator and have staff to handle the analysis of this kind of information. Other trainers often devise evaluation methods of their own. Even simple evaluations, if they are relevant to the point of the training, can be helpful in improving training programmes in their later stages or the next time they are run.

This appendix gives two examples. Each can be used for single trainees or groups. Each takes five to ten minutes to fill in. Each trainee should have his or her own copy of the sheet to fill in. The first example (2A) is a straight–forward list of questions which can be adapted to the content of any training programme. It gives trainers a *general* picture of trainee satisfaction. The second example (2B) is a scale which can be used after any placement. It gives trainers a picture of how trainees felt about a placement. Using the scale, the trainee puts a tick in the space which best represents his or her own feeling about placement. One tick is needed from each trainee on each line. Trainees who feel strongly put their ticks in the spaces nearest to the word. Trainees who are undecided use the middle spaces. The trainer can draw up responses of an individual trainee, or the average responses of a group of trainees, in the form of a profile. A profile is shown in 2C.

Another way of handling the information is to score the trainee's responses numerically. You score them 1 to 7, or 7 to 1 on the lines where the good/bad items are reversed. Doing this for a number of placements shows that, in trainees' eyes, some placements are much more satisfactory than others.

The information can be broken down even further. This is because the scale contains two sub–scales. One sub–scale tells how valuable the trainee felt the placement was. The other sub–scale tells how well organised the placement felt to the trainee. 2E tells the reader which words are part of which sub–scale. Usually, trainees give their placements better ratings for value than for

organisation. However, placement probably feels, in the words of the organisation sub-scale, so 'fragmented', 'confused' and 'variable' to trainees, not because placements are particularly badly administered, but because trainees feel them as a culture shock. Chapter 3 gives advice to trainers on the use of training methods which will help to avoid this kind of shock happening to their trainees.

2A: Examples of questions to evaluate trainee satisfaction after a training programme

As a result of this programme on *x* :-
(x can be any teaching skill (such as 'asking stimulating questions') or any teaching strategy (such as 'teaching by means of discussion') with which a training programme is concerned.)

		Yes	No
1.	Did you learn more about *x* ?	☐	☐
2.	Do you now think more deeply about the rationale for using *x* in teaching ?	☐	☐
3.	Do you feel clearer about deciding when to use *x* in your own teaching?	☐	☐
4.	Were the examples of other teachers using *x* (live or on video) useful to you?	☐	☐
5.	Did you learn more about how to appraise a teacher's use of *x* ?	☐	☐
6.	Were the printed materials (or video clips) on which you practised such appraisal helpful to you ?	☐	☐
7.	Do you feel more able to appraise other teachers' use of *x* ?	☐	☐
8.	Do you feel more able to self-appraise your use of *x* in your own teaching?	☐	☐
9.	Was it helpful to practise, with the observer present, your use of *x* with your own pupils ?	☐	☐

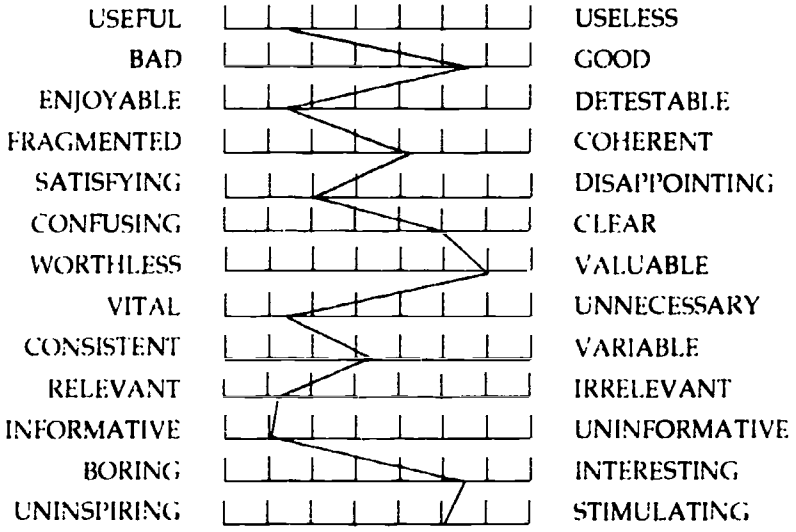
		Ready to move on	Prefer to consolidate
10.	In yourself, do you now feel ready to move on from the *x* section of this programme or would you prefer to consolidate the *x* section?	☐	☐

2B A scale for evaluating placements

For me, the placement was...

USEFUL		USELESS
BAD		GOOD
ENJOYABLE		DETESTABLE
FRAGMENTED		COHERENT
SATISFYING		DISAPPOINTING
CONFUSING		CLEAR
WORTHLESS		VALUABLE
VITAL		UNNECESSARY
CONSISTENT		VARIABLE
RELEVANT		IRRELEVANT
INFORMATIVE		UNINFORMATIVE
BORING		INTERESTING
UNINSPIRING		STIMULATING

2C Profile (mean scores) of the responses of 1,262 people who evaluated placements they had done



Source: M. Cameron-Jones *and* P. O'Hara (1990) *Improving Training* Edinburgh: Moray House College. (ISBN 0 901580 29 5).

2D The items which make up the two sub-scales

The pairs of adjectives which contribute to the score for 'value' (minimum score = 10, maximum score = 70)

Useful/Useless
Bad/Good (reversed scoring)
Enjoyable/Detestable
Satisfying/Disappointing
Worthless/Valuable (reversed scoring)
Vital/Unnecessary
Relevant/Irrelevant
Informative/Uninformative
Boring/Interesting (reversed scoring)
Uninspiring/Stimulating (reversed scoring)

The pairs of adjectives which contribute to the score for 'organisation' (minimum score = 3, maximum score = 21)

Fragmented/Coherent (reversed scoring)
Confusing/Clear (reversed scoring)
Consistent/Variable

APPENDIX 3: An Appraisal Proforma and its Reliability

Chapter 4 described how, when teaching is appraised, the criteria may be few or many. The standards which are applied will vary according to the purpose of the appraisal. The judgements made may be expressed as pass/fail statements, as grades or as various kinds of comments. Making decisions about all of these things demands professional expertise. None of these matters can be reduced to mere technicalities. However, some aspects of the reliability of appraisers when they make judgements can be helped by exploration of a technical kind. This appendix includes a typical appraisal instrument of the type often used on teachers. It gives ten criteria of performance, four grades and includes space for comments.

The judgements made by two trainers (Mrs A and Mr B) after having observed the same teacher at the same time are listed. The really important thing these two people should do is to look at the points on which they differed, to decide and discuss why they differed, and to seek a resolution. In addition, they will probably decide to have some practice sessions together, and to work together more closely in future. If they want to quantify their agreement with each other, they can do this for this one session by simply putting their judgements side by side. Inspection shows that they agreed with each other on 8 out of 10 points. Alternatively, they might decide to arrange their judgements in the form of a grid (as shown at the end of this appendix) since a grid like this can be used to sum up their consistency over a number of occasions. (They would want to quantify their overall agreement over a number of occasions if they were involved together in appraising large numbers of teachers, for example, since the number of single occasions involved would make inspection an unwieldy tool for exploration of agreement).

3A: A typical appraisal instrument

Focus	*Target*
1. The teacher's knowledge of the subject.	A sound knowledge of content was evident in every aspect/phase of the teaching.
2. The way the teacher structured the information.	The content was structured and sequenced appropriately for pupils, within and between the successive phases of teaching and learning.
3. The way the teacher explained and presented the content.	The explanations given were clear. Examples, illustrations and tasks presented to pupils were valid for the underlying principles/concepts of the content and for the skills to be learned by the pupils.
4. The teacher's questioning and other elicitation of pupil responses.	The elicitation methods used (verbal including questioning, and also non-verbal) were appropriate for the facilitation and progression of learning.
5. The teacher's responsiveness and rapport with the pupils.	The responses given to pupils' work/ideas/activities/selves were valid and encouraging.
6. The way the teacher resourced the lesson.	The resources for teaching, learning etc. were suitably deployed.
7. The teacher's timing and pacing of the lesson.	The timing and pacing of successive activities were positively responsive to the pace and nature of the pupils' learning.
8. The teacher's organisation of the lesson.	The teaching and learning were organised to provide a balanced and varied sequence of work for pupils. When grouped for learning the pupils were grouped helpfully, considering their individual differences and their need for access to resources etc.
9. The teacher's management and control of the pupils.	There was unobtrusive but appropriate monitoring of all pupil activity (whether the pupils were working as a class, in groups or as individuals) to ensure the positive engagement of them all in their learning. Care was taken over safety. Directions given were clear. Rebukes when given were prompt and clear.
10. The teacher's skill at assessing pupil learning.	A due variety of assesment procedures was used (non-verbal, spoken, written, aesthetic modes as appropriate) and feedback given to facilitate/encourage further learning, and enjoyment of learning.

Grade	Comments
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	

3B: Examining the reliability of two appraisers

		Trainer A's appraisal	*Trainer B's appraisal*
1.	The teacher's knowledge of the subject.	Excellent	Satisfactory
2.	The way the teacher structured the information.	Satisfactory	Satisfactory
3.	The way the teacher explained and presented the content.	Satisfactory	Satisfactory
4.	The teacher's questioning and other elicitation of pupils response.	Satisfactory	Satisfactory
5.	The teacher's rapport with the pupils.	Excellent	Excellent
6.	The way the teacher resourced the lesson.	Excellent	Excellent
7.	The teacher's timing and pacing of the lesson.	Seriously in need of training	Seriously in need of training
8.	The teacher's organisation of the lesson.	Satisfactory	Should have more training
9.	The teacher's management and control of the pupils.	Satisfactory	Satisfactory
10.	The teacher's skill at assessing pupil learning.	Should have more training	Should have more training

The first thing to do, faced with results like this, would be for the two trainers to discuss the similarities and differences in their appraisals line by line, and to discuss possible reasons for them.

To measure their overall reliability, they would go on and first of all summarise, like this, how many of each kind of appraisal each had given:-

		Mr B's appraisals				
		Excellent	*Satisfactory*	*Should have more training*	*Seriously in need of training*	TOTAL
Mrs A's appraisals	*Excellent*	2	1	0	0	3
	Satisfactory	0	4	1	0	5
	Should have more training	0	0	1	0	1
	Seriously in need of training	0	0	0	1	1
	TOTALS	2	5	2	1	10

Then, to get the simple measure of their agreement, they would add the numbers of items they agree on (along the diagonal) and divide by the total number of points they have appraised.

Simple agreement = (2 + 4 + 1 +1) / 10 = 8/10
= 0.80 (ie 80 per cent agreement)

Source: Adapted from M. Cameron-Jones (1988) *The Assessment of Professional Practice*. Moray House College. Mimeo.

APPENDIX 4: The Research Background

This booklet draws on a number of research projects. More detailed discussion of specific aspects of training can be found in their various publications as follows—

Chapter 1 — Training and Placement

Cameron–Jones, M. (1985) "Placement and Reform" in G. Kirk ed. *Moray House and Professional Education 1835—1985*. Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.

Cameron–Jones, M. *and* O'Hara, Paul (1990) "Placement as Part of Higher Education", *Higher Education* 19, pp 341 — 349.

Cameron–Jones, M. *and* O'Hara, P. (forthcoming 1991) "Making Placement more Successful", *Management Education and Development.*

Chapter 2 — Procedures for Training

Cameron–Jones, M. (1988) "Teaching Better in Primary Schools", *Scottish Educational Review, Special Edition on the Quality of Teaching*, pp. 27 — 38.

Chapter 3 — Training Methods

Cameron–Jones, M. (1987) "Improving Professional Practice in the Primary School" *in* S. Delamont ed. *The Primary School Teacher*, Falmer Press.

Chapter 4 — The Appraisal of Performance

Cameron–Jones, M. (1988) "Looking for Quality and Competence in Teaching" *in* R. Ellis ed. *Professional Competence and Quality Assurance in the Caring Professions* , Croom Helm.

Cameron–Jones, M. *and* O'Hara, Paul (1989) "Getting the Measure of New Teachers in Scotland. Does the System Work?" in *Scottish Educational Review* 22. 1. pp 38 — 44.

Chapter 5 — Why We Need Good Trainers

Cameron–Jones, M. (1989) "Unsung Heroes — Teacher Mentors", *Times Scottish Education Supplement*, 13.10.89, p16.

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ISBN
0 947833 48 X

SCRE Practitioner Papers have a practical slant. They present research findings and issues clearly and succinctly to help teachers and others take account of educational research in improving education. The series includes reports, edited collections round a theme, reviews of research and guides to doing small-scale investigative studies.

This booklet concentrates on the practical side of training. Solidly based on the author's considerable research and practical experience, it presents clear guidelines for being 'a good trainer'. The aim is to help the many people who find themselves involved in training teachers or in hosting placements as well as those with more formal responsibility in colleges.

Chapters on –
- **Training for placement**
- **Procedures for Training**
- **Training Methods**
- **Appraisal of Performance**
- **The Good Trainer**

are supplemented by case-examples.

This succinct and stimulating summary will be useful also to teachers and trainees on staff development courses and to the many organisations involved in the placement and trainir ɜ of their own staff as well as of teachers.

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