M U S T E R

ti-Site Teacher Education Research Project

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e Malawi Integrated Service Teacher Education ject: an Analysis of the rriculum and its Delivery he Colleges

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Centre for International Education
University of Sussex Institute of Education

Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project (MUSTER)

MUSTER is a collaborative research project co-ordinated from the Centre for International Education at the University of Sussex Institute of Education. It has been developed in partnership with:

- The Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast, Ghana.
- The Institute of Education, The National University of Lesotho.
- The Centre for Educational Research and Training, University of Malawi.
- The Faculty of Education, University of Durban-Westville, South Africa.
- The School of Education, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine's Campus, Trinidad.

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MUSTER is focused on generating new understandings of teacher education before, during and after the point of initial qualification as a teacher. Its concerns include exploring how new teachers are identified and selected for training programmes, how they acquire the skills they need to teach effectively, and how they experience training and induction into the teaching profession. The research includes analytical concerns with the structure and organisation of teacher education, the form and substance of teacher education curriculum, the identity, roles and cultural experience of trainee teachers, and the costs and probable benefits of different types of initial teacher training.

MUSTER is designed to provide opportunities to build research and evaluation capacity in teacher education in developing countries through active engagement with the research process from design, through data collection, to analysis and joint publication. Principal researchers lead teams in each country and are supported by three Sussex faculty and three graduate researchers.

This series of discussion papers has been created to provide an early opportunity to share output from sub-studies generated within MUSTER for comment and constructive criticism. Each paper takes a theme within or across countries and offers a view of work in progress.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BTC	:	Blantyre Teachers' College
GPK	:	General Pedagogic Knowledge
GTZ	:	Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit
JCE	:	Junior Certificate of Education
MANEB	:	Malawi National Examination Board
MASTEP	:	Malawi Special Teacher Education Programme
MIITEP	:	Malawi Integrated Inservice Teacher Education Programme
MOE	:	Ministry of Education
MSCE	:	Malawi School Certificate of Education
PCK	:	Pedagogic Content Knowledge
PEA	:	Primary Education Advisor
SRM	:	Supplementary Reading Materials
TDU	:	Teacher Development Unit
TPPS	:	Teacher Preparation Programmes
TTC	:	Teacher Training Colleges
TTIS	:	Teacher Training Institutions
ZINTEC	:	Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course

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ABSTRACT

This report focuses on the MIITEP (Malawi Integrated Inservice Teacher Education Project) curriculum in Malawi. This is a crash programme designed to certify some 18,000 unqualified primary teachers over 2 years, through a combination of 4 months in a residential college and 20 months teaching under supervision while studying at a distance. It was also intended to introduce more learner-centred and interactive teaching methods in both colleges and schools.

The study describes the programme and the colleges, and analyses the curriculum documents. Observational data is used to illustrate in more detail how the curriculum was actually delivered in the four subjects of English, Maths, Science and Educational Foundation Studies. Interviews are analysed, together with some survey data, to find out how tutors and students saw the programme as a whole.

Findings include the following points. There was a clear tension between the 'progressive' aims of MITTEP and the didactic and authoritarian ways in which it was implemented. Some of the reasons include: the lack of basic teaching materials, especially for science or practical work; the failure to support the tutors; the mismatch between the curriculum and student needs, as well as cultural patterns and expectations about teaching and learning. The aims of training a large number of teachers in the shortest possible time are probably incompatible with the aim of producing and supporting innovative teachers equipped to act as change agents.

CHAPTER 1

ISSUES AND CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

This report is part of the Curriculum strand of the MUSTER project, covering Arenas 1 and 2 (Inputs and Process). It focuses on the MIITEP (Malawi Integrated Inservice Teacher Education Project) curriculum in Malawi, by studying both the documents and the delivery in colleges. The main MUSTER research question guiding the enquiry is:

> ***how do new teachers acquire the knowledge, skills and values needed for their professional career?***

The report seeks to answer this by exploring and analysing the following areas of enquiry:

- how and why the MIITEP programme emerged
- the kind of college context in which it is taught
- the structure and composition of the curriculum as set out in documents, with particular reference to aim and objectives, content, pedagogy and assessment
- how the curriculum as delivered compares with the planned curriculum and how far its aims and objectives were achieved
- how it is perceived by tutors and students.

The report will contribute to the wider comparative study of teacher education in the five MUSTER sites.

Chapter 1 sets out some of the issues relevant to that study. It describes the MIITEP programme, outlines the research methods and describes the colleges where this part of the research took place. Chapter 2 offers a descriptive analysis of the MIITEP curriculum strategy, including the aims, content, pedagogy, teaching/learning resources and assessment. Chapter 3 uses the observational data to illustrate in more detail how the curriculum was actually delivered in the four subjects of English, Maths, Science and Educational Foundation Studies. Chapter 4 summarises relevant points from the companion study on the school-based component, and discusses how the programme as a whole is seen by the tutors and the students.

1.2 Some international issues around teacher education

Teacher education has been neglected. Often perched uncomfortably between secondary and higher education, teacher training colleges have enjoyed neither the glamour of universities nor the political salience of schools. In ex-colonial countries, teacher training usually began under missionary auspices and was often the last sector to come under government control. Worldwide, the process of teacher education is under-theorised and has been under-researched compared with other sectors of education; it has also been underfunded.

However, teacher preparation and development is a key feature in any education system. Perhaps its very centrality contributes to its near invisibility: it is perforce so closely intertwined with the rest of the system - the secondary schools from which the trainees come, the primary and secondary schools to which they will go, the universities who trained the tutors and may validate the courses, the Ministry of Education that in various ways controls, deploys and remunerates the teachers - that it is very difficult to reform the Teacher Training Institutions (TTIS) except in the context of system-wide changes (South Africa being a case in point). Possibly this is one reason it has at times been ignored by international donors.

All this integration makes it difficult to study the curriculum of teacher education on its own, and equally difficult to make comparisons between countries. The professional preparation of teachers is not only related to the local school curricula but also to a much wider array of historical, political and cultural factors, including the perceived role of the teacher in society, current views of knowledge, and the level of economic development.

Currently teacher education is in transition in a number of countries, though the movements are not all in the same direction, or for the same reasons. However, some common trends can be perceived. One such derives from changing views of learning: the shift from behaviourist to constructivist assumptions and theories has now reached teacher training institutions and is particularly influential in the Americas (Avalos 2000). Related to this, the ideal of professionals who reflect on their own practice and take responsibility for continually developing and improving that practice has become a powerful image in many parts of the anglophone world (Schon 1983, 1987); this links to a new emphasis on life-long learning - but such extended professional education tends to be resource-intensive, and presupposes certain cultural assumptions about personal autonomy and responsibility.

Another trend is towards bringing theory and practice into a more powerful relationship through partnerships, using mentor teachers and school internship to complement the academic studies in university or college. Again this presupposes a certain level of both infrastructure and professional development in the school system which may not exist in less-industrialised countries.

Teacher education is a politically contested area. Central control v. devolution, bureaucratic v. professional strategies for 'raising standards' and 'quality control' - these are areas where government policies may differ widely, and draw on different ideological standpoints; this is an important part of the current discourse.

And the curriculum itself - what is it and how do we define it? Our research is beginning to show how it can exist in different forms, for example:

- on paper, as designed and documented
- in the minds of the tutors who deliver it
- as experienced by the trainees
- as perceived by external observers.

These aspects will form part of the report.

1.3 Analytical approaches used in this report

1.3.1 The Curriculum

We took as a starting point Eraut's (1976) model of curriculum design which looks at the interrelations between aims, objectives, content, teaching/learning methods and materials, and assessment. This is useful for evaluating how far the programme embodies a consistent and coherent curricular strategy.

The actual content of professional curricula, however, is a more complex matter than this model allows for, involving selection from a number of different areas, and a strategic balancing of different academic and practical components. We made use of Shulman's categorisation of the 'knowledge base of teaching' (Shulman 1987) for analysing some of the academic elements. Skill development can take very different forms, as Thiessen (2000) shows, and has to be studied both in college and in school. Finally, the theory-practice relationship is a key issue.

As has already been said, teacher preparation/development programme can only be understood in context, so we have also looked at its historical antecedents and identified some of the factors influencing its present form. The relationship of the Teacher Training Colleges to the government on the one hand, and to the school system on the other, are also relevant.

1.3.2 Theories of teaching and learning

As Avalos (1991) points out, teacher education programmes, like other curricula, are built up around various theories of learning, though these are not always made explicit. Two broad perspectives can be usefully distinguished: the 'behavioural' and the 'constructivist'. The behavioural position

> 'considers that knowledge (learning) is acquired through carefully designed processes of communication (teaching) and that its success rests on the skills, competencies or behaviours of the communicator (the teacher) …. [while] the opposite position [constructivism]… considers that knowledge acquisition is primordially an activity handled by the learner with little external guidance'. (Avalos 1991:10-11)

There are of course many intermediate positions where teachers and learners are seen to be contributing in different ways to the teaching/learning processes, which are here termed 'interactive'. (See Sutherland (1992) for a useful summary of this complex field.)

Avalos comments that 'the dominant theory of teaching [in training colleges] in many developing countries is linked to the behavioural approach to learning' (Avalos op.cit. p.11). However, under Northern/Western influence primary school curricula are being developed that require a more interactive or even constructivist approach. It would seem important that these changes should be reflected in the teacher education

programmes – indeed, some might say they should start there. Conflicting views of teaching and learning form another theme for our analysis of the MIITEP curriculum.

1.3.3 The role of the teacher

Current discourse in teacher education in anglophone countries of the North/West often makes a broad distinction between 'teacher as technician'' and 'teacher as reflective practitioner'. The technician is seen as having a restricted role, her job being to deliver the curriculum– which is prescribed at a higher level– as effectively as possible, while the reflective practitioner is expected to play a more extended role, that may include developing the curriculum to suit the context, evaluating and trying to improve her own practice, and mentoring new teachers.

In the developing countries of sub-Saharan Africa today the role of primary teachers is usually closer to that of the technician, for a variety of obvious reasons. However, the discourse of reflective practice is increasingly used in the context of reform, and if teachers are to be involved in school-based training, as in MIITEP, the teacher's role must indeed expand.

1.3.4 The authoritarian v. the dialogic stance

Perhaps a more relevant distinction to be made in the African context is that between the teacher as the unquestioned source of knowledge, and the teacher as co-enquirer. Following Tabulawa (1997), this can be seen to have two aspects, epistemological and social. In traditional societies knowledge was seen as something fixed, finite and to be handed down, rather than something to be explored, questioned and developed along new lines. The elders were respected because they had this knowledge, and could teach it to the young, whose role was to listen rather than ask questions. Tabulawa argues that these deeply rooted cultural assumptions have contributed to the resistance to educational change in African classrooms, particularly where this involves the idea of teacher and learner entering into dialogue and pursuing enquiries together. This seems pertinent to teacher education, particularly if one accepts Schon's (1983) dictum that the teacher's expertise lies less in routinely applying theoretical knowledge than in framing problems in new ways, carrying out experiments in action, and finding appropriate solutions in unique situations.

1.4 Overview of the programme

The MIITEP programme arose as an initiative of the new government elected in May 1994 in the first multi-party elections for thirty years. After the introduction of Universal Primary Education in September 1994, which led to a steep rise in primary enrolment, some 17,000 untrained teachers were recruited, given 2 weeks orientation, and posted to schools, along with 5000 retired teachers. With the support of a consortium of donors, the Ministry of Education devised a 3-year project, known as the Malawi Integrated Inservice Teacher Education Programme, or MIITEP, to train these 'temporary teachers', which began in January 1997. All other teacher education programmes were suspended, so that the six teacher training colleges could be used for MIITEP. It was planned that six cohorts, each of 3000 students, should be trained over the three years.

1.4.1 Historical antecedents of the programme

The MIITEP programme shows both continuities and discontinuities with the past. Due to the increasing pressure to produce more qualified primary teachers more quickly, Teacher Preparation Programmes (TPPS) in Malawi have undergone a number of structural changes in the last ten years, all in the direction of shortening and condensing the formal period of college-based training.

Since Independence in 1964, the 'normal' training programme has been the two-year residential college course, taking entrants with either a Junior Certificate (JC) or a Malawi School Certificate of Education (MSCE), who qualified respectively as T3 or T2 teachers. In 1987 a 'crash' one-year inservice initial course was instituted in one college, to train unqualified but experienced teachers. As this did not suffice to meet the demand, the Malawi Special Distance Teacher Education programme (MASTEP) was set up in 1989 to train teachers on the job through a combination of short residential courses, local seminars, and distance learning methods. This was discontinued after 3 years, and replaced by a programme of one year's field training followed by one year's residential course in a college (Hauya 1997).

The TPPs seem to have been always closely linked to the current Primary School Curriculum. A substantial curricular revision began in 1987, as part of the 'Second Educational Development Plan 1985-95'; in 1990 the curriculum of Primary Teacher Training was revised to ensure that teachers were trained to teach the new school subjects. How far the methods were also revised to take account of the new emphasis on pupil-centred, activity-based, and community-relevant teaching (Hauya 1997), is not clear.

In 1995 the new government entered into discussions with the World Bank and the German Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) about certifying the 'untrained temporary teachers'. Ministry of Education (MOE) personnel were sent to look at other training programmes within the region (such as Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe) to see how similar problems had been tackled. The GTZ emerged as the training partner, and a document was drawn up by the consultant Udo Bude setting out two alternative programmes, either of which GTZ was prepared to fund. The MOE accepted Plan A, which then became the MIITEP programme described below.

It is unclear how much influence was exercised by GTZ and the World Bank on the design; once the decision was taken, the programme was worked out, staffed and implemented by Malawians, with only one or two German consultants. A 'Teacher Development Unit' was set up within MOE, and the project implementation was carried out from there.

1.4.2 Structure of the course:

The course is two years long, combining residential training in college with supervised on-the-job training and distance education. When the trainees are called from their schools for training, they go first to one of the colleges for a three-month course, finishing with an examination before returning to their schools. During the next 4-5 terms they attend seminars within their local zone, and continue to study, completing a number of assignments and supported by self-study handbooks. Their

teaching is supervised and assessed in the first instance by the headteacher and the local Primary Education Advisor (PEA). They are also visited by college tutors and by a moderation team which includes staff from the Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB) and the TDU. Finally they return to college for a month to revise and write the final exams.

Table 1.1: Structure of the MIITEP Programme

Time	*Students Activities*	*Assessment*
3 months	Resident in college	Exam; TP in demonstration school, assessed by tutor
20 months	Return to previous teaching post, attend zonal seminars; study by distance materials; receive support and supervision from HT, PEAs	Projects and assignments submitted; TP assessed by HT, PEAs, visiting tutors, TDU and MANEB
1 month	Resident in college for revision	Final exam

1.4.3 Entrants

The focus of attention are those recruited under the Emergency Training programme 1994-6. Selection criteria for the first cohort were: the MSCE certificate, a minimum of two years' teaching experience (for males - one year for females), and attendance at the initial orientation course. For the second and following cohorts, a JCE certificate was accepted as an alternative, with priority given to those teaching longest. By the time of the study, the 6th cohort was beginning their training, and the others were at various stages, Cohort 1 completing in February 1999.

1.5 Data collection methods

The main methods used for this report were analysis of MIITEP documents, semi-participant observation in the colleges, semi-structured interviews with selected tutors, and student focus groups. Some data from surveys of entering and exiting students has been used for triangulation purposes. The school-based component of MIITEP has been reported separately (Kunje and Chilembo, forthcoming), but will be referred to briefly where relevant.

1.5.1 Documentary analysis

The main source was the five Student Teacher Handbooks written for MIITEP. Effectively, they structure the curriculum; the syllabuses are embedded within them and they offer suggestions for teaching, being written as a series of 1 hour 'units', covering the whole course, which include content, pedagogy, and partial assessment. The first three were designed to be used during the residential course, and the last two during the school-based training; the latter comprise self-study units and outlines for zonal seminars.

These handbooks were written in a remarkably short space of time, by teams of local educationists. From the acknowledgements in the books, the subject teams seem to have had between 5-14 members, each team having representatives from the Malawi Institute of Education, tutors from one or more TTCs, and one or two district or

regional education officers. (It is perhaps noteworthy that out of 95 writers/editors, only 20 appear to be women, 7 of whom were concentrated in the Home Economics team.) The writers were given two weeks training and a format for the units. The references show that the materials draw both on overseas sources and, quite heavily, on past curriculum documents developed in Malawi, such as the distance learning modules for the MASTEP course. Other MIITEP documents including the 'Teacher Trainers Source Book', written for orienting the tutors and other supervisors, were also used.

1.5.2 Selection of colleges and tutors for studying the residential component

We chose St. Joseph's, an all-women's college owned and run by the Catholic Church, and Blantyre Teachers' College (BTC), mixed-sex and government-owned. In each college we drew a sample of ten lecturers, taking two tutors from each of the main subject areas (Education, English, Maths, Science), one above and one below the median age, adjusting as far as possible for gender and qualifications distributions. The two remaining slots were allocated to achieve more variety or to get a better balance. We interviewed them and observed each of them teach; one tutor was not observed and another was observed teaching both English and Foundation Studies. Most of the data was collected during two weeks in November 1998 when Cohort 6 were in residence. Further brief visits were made in October 1999 when Cohort 2 returned for revision.

Table 1.2: Sample of lessons observed: by subject and by age and sex of tutor

	Younger		***Older***		
	Male	*Female*	*Male*	*Female*	**Totals**
Foundation Studies	2	-	-	2	**4**
English**	2	1	2	-	**5**
Maths	2	-	2	-	**4**
Science	-	1	1	1	**3**
Social Studies	-	-	1	-	**1**
Home Economics+	-	1	-	-	**1**
Creative Arts	-	1	1	-	**2**
Totals	**6**	**4**	**7**	**3**	**20**

* The dividing line is approximately early 40's, which appeared to be the median age.
** Most tutors teach more than one subject. The tutor we selected for Foundation Studies invited us also to observe him teaching English, his main subject.
+ The woman science tutor was teaching Home Economics

1.5.3 Interviews: (See Appendix 1 for tutor interview schedule).

In most cases we interviewed them together, Janet Stuart (JS) asking the more general questions on career patterns and perspectives, and Demis Kunje (DK) eliciting their views on MIITEP. Occasionally, for reasons of time, we interviewed separately. 16 out of the 20 were tape-recorded and transcribed; for the others, detailed notes were taken. In St. Joseph's the interviews did not reveal a great variety of views, or of practice in the classroom. In BTC the range both of views and of practice was somewhat wider, and more interviews might have revealed further variations. Overall, however, there were considerable similarities between the groups, and we have no

reason to believe that they are very different from staff in the other four colleges; several of them had in fact taught in other colleges.

1.5.4 Observations

In most cases we both sat in the classroom for the whole lesson. DK kept a standard record of what the tutor and students were doing, noting briefly the activities at the end of each minute. JS kept a more variable running commentary, trying to capture some of the dialogue and describing the teaching methods; this enabled partial lesson protocols to be reconstructed. Some examples of the lessons, with commentary, are given in Chapter 3.

1.5.5 Focus groups. (see Appendix 2 for schedule of questions)

We held four group (between 3-5 members) interviews with students, one at St. Joseph's and three at BTC. These groups were selected, from their questionnaires, to represent students with, respectively, JC and MSCE, and from more or less well-educated backgrounds. There were, however, few differences in their responses.

1.5.6 Surveys

Questionnaires covering a number of topics were administered to 171 Cohort 6 students when they entered the residential block in October 1998, and to 184 Cohort 2 students when they were revising for final exams in October 1999. Full details of these will be reported elsewhere, but this study has drawn on some of the data which related to student perception of college life and the curriculum.

1.6 Context of the Study

A brief description of the colleges and their staff will help set the study in its context. More detailed data is found in Lewin and Kunje (1999) and in a forthcoming study of college tutors' careers and perspectives.

1.6.1 Colleges

Though we deliberately chose contrasting colleges, the differences lay mainly in their history, in some physical and material aspects, and to a lesser extent in college management and staff attitudes. The delivery of the curriculum was broadly similar, and it can presumed therefore to be fairly typical of MIITEP as a whole. The findings are in line with observations made by another member of the MUSTER team, Alison Croft, in two other colleges.

Both colleges are residential. St. Joseph's is a female college founded in 1932 by the Roman Catholic Church, and now administered in partnership with government. The Principal at the time of fieldwork was a Sister. The college stands in a well-tended park-like environment 15 km. from the market town of Dedza; it has spacious brick buildings, some constructed within the last decade. There is a large assembly hall/refectory, new hostels and ample laboratory and library space. The language lab

is, however, currently used for storage. This is one of the four colleges that benefited from substantial World Bank building funds in the late 1980s.

Blantyre Teachers College (BTC) is a mixed-sex government college, originally built in 1962 as Soche Hill Teacher Training College. It stands just outside Blantyre-Limbe, Malawi's main industrial centre. The one-story buildings are laid out in quadrangular patterns, around lawns and flowerbeds, but everything appears poorly maintained. The library is small and understocked, there is a video viewing room too small for a whole class to watch in comfortably, and the laboratories and technical workshop areas are inadequate. The hostels are grossly over-crowded, with poor sanitary facilities; the water supply is erratic and when the pump eventually broke down in 1999 the college had to be temporarily closed.

The financial situation is set out in detail in Lewin and Kunje (1999): suffice it to say here that at the time of fieldwork the colleges were receiving only about 20% of their recurrent budgetary needs, and at such irregular intervals that sometimes there was a problem buying food for the students. St. Joseph's was breeding chickens to supplement the diet, which was mainly of maize and beans. There was therefore no money available for teaching and learning materials of any kind: nothing for science experiments or for home economics practicals, and even pens, exercise books and chart paper were wanting. The lack of light bulbs in BTC prevented students from studying in the evenings.

Such conditions inevitably impacted on the delivery of the curriculum. It is clear that a basic level of resourcing is a necessary though not sufficient for quality teaching and learning as envisaged in the MIITEP project.

1.6.2 Classrooms

In both colleges classrooms were furnished in traditional style, with heavy wooden desks, sometimes incorporating a seat, arranged in irregular lines facing the blackboard wall. Where classes were doubled up, students might be sharing desks and crammed uncomfortably together. Such furniture made groupwork difficult, though not impossible given time, space and muscle-power to move them around, and as rooms seemed used by the same department, different permanent arrangements could have been made. There were pinboards, but few displays, and those appeared old and tatty, with no evidence of students' work. This was not surprising, given the lack of materials, but it made the frequent exhortations of tutors to 'be creative, make your own teaching and learning aids' sound rather hollow.

Laboratories were furnished with benches, stools, and a few workstations, but the total absence of both equipment and consumables made these inoperative. At BTC electric sockets had been vandalised and the bare wires posed safety hazards. In one lab there were dusty collections of 'nature corners' and student-made models, but these seemed to hark back to a more leisurely and wealthier past.

1.6.3 Tutors

Teaching in Malawian training colleges may still carry some status, at least within the teaching profession, but it does not currently offer high rewards. The general picture

(see Lewin and Kunje 1999) is of an underqualified and ageing group, with few opportunities for promotion or professional development. Only about a quarter of tutors in post hold degrees, the rest having mainly diplomas. The majority are over 40 years of age, and early retirement is being encouraged because of costs.

Of the sample we interviewed, almost all had started their careers as primary teachers, and 9 held the Diploma in Primary Teacher Education run in the mid-80s by Chancellor College to train staff for the TTCs. Younger ones tended to have taken the Diploma for Secondary Teachers before being promoted to college lecturer. Both groups are treated, in the primary tradition, as 'generalists' rather than 'specialists' and expected to teach more than one subject. While they do have relevant experience, this goes back to a time when primary schooling was still quite selective; they do not have personal experience of the challenges of mass primary schooling, with its huge classes and lack of resources. All this should be kept in mind when discussing their attitudes and their curricular practice.

1.6.4 The Colleges as Institutions: management, administration and ethos

The colleges are under a division of the Ministry of Education and subject to bureaucratic regulation. Tutors, like teachers, are 'posted' to different colleges by the central office as and when need arises, though provision is made for eligible persons to apply directly to the principal of a specific college, who will then forward their recommendation to MOE. The principals at the time of the fieldwork seemed fully occupied trying to keep their college afloat in the face of financial crises and staff shortages. The MOE was encouraging those eligible for retirement to take it; this affected BTC so much that one department was about to close. Neither colleges nor principals seemed in a position to develop their own aims or mission statements, nor to build up an effective collegial body of staff to carry these out.

In spite of this, there were elements of collegial organisation and professional responsibility alongside the bureaucratic management style. In both colleges, tutors were organised in departments, led by a Head of Department - often acting and therefore unpaid - whose tasks included coordinating and reporting results, checking tutors' schemes of work and - at least at St. Joseph's - inducting new members of staff. Both colleges had a system for scheduling meetings at departmental, HOD and general staff level, though these appeared to take place more regularly at BTC than at St. Joseph's. On an individual level, we found tutors taking on roles such as Student Welfare Officer or Hostel Warden, and devoting time to trying to solve students' personal or academic problems. The large student numbers and the short length of the course, however, militated against building up such constructive relationships.

The timetable was similar in both colleges: six one-hour classes a day, with a 1 1/2 or 2 hour lunch-break. One morning a week was devoted to Teaching Practice in the Demonstration Schools. Students were supposed to study in the evenings, but at BTC the lack of light bulbs in the classrooms made this impossible. At St. Joseph's, by contrast, we observed many students studying, and some tutors were giving 'catch-up' lectures after supper.

Such a pressurised and crammed course allows little time for extra-curricular activities or for personal and social development. The new democratic government

insists, however, on student councils, and at St. Joseph's part of an afternoon was given over to elections. As the term was already half over, this seemed more of a symbolic gesture than a real attempt to educate students in democratic participation.

On the whole, the atmosphere was much closer to secondary than to tertiary education. Most students were in their mid- to late twenties, many married and with families, but no allowances were made for this, and in some ways they were not treated as adults. There were no telephones. Students had to ask permission to go off campus to see their families. Bureaucratic regulations, on the other hand, demanded they go to their own district to collect their monthly pay cheque. The hidden curriculum here contains messages about low status, lack of respect and little concern for welfare.

1.6.5 School-based training

For the school-based training component, conditions were far from ideal. Thirteen schools in Central and Southern Regions were chosen for study; these are likely to be typical of the country as a whole. In six of the sample schools, the student teachers outnumbered the qualified teachers, often by as much as 2:1. Classes were huge, with pupil-teacher ratios ranging from 60:1 to > 100:1. Some schools lacked sufficient classrooms, all lacked sufficient teaching/learning resources. Some of the Teacher Development Centres, where the zonal seminars were to take place, were still under construction. Those completed were functioning well, but in other places zonal seminars were conducted in ordinary school classrooms.

The training of headteachers and PEAs in supervision and mentoring methods had started somewhat after MIITEP began and not everyone was fully briefed on their role. Transport for PEAs, in the form of motor bikes, only became available in 1998, over a year after the first cohort went back to their schools.

1.6.6 Contextual issues

We can see then that MIITEP, while building on a local tradition of teacher education, was newly designed as a crash course, combining residential and on-the-job training, in response to a crisis of teacher supply. While international aid helped develop the programme and resource materials, the general environment – both college and school – was in many ways unconducive to good teaching and learning: ageing and underqualified teams of tutors, underfunded colleges, and very poorly resourced schools. Had more time been available, a stronger supporting structure could have been in place to underpin the school-based component.

The next two chapters examine the curriculum in more detail, both as it was planned and as it was delivered in practice.

CHAPTER 2

THE CURRICULUM STRATEGY

2.1 Introduction

This chapter offers a descriptive analysis of the MIITEP curriculum strategy - the aims, content, pedagogy, teaching/learning resources and assessment -, using both the documents and some of the findings from the field. While the length and structure of the curriculum have changed, scrutiny of curriculum documents from various courses since 1990 show that these seemed to have remained in many ways quite similar. However, there is some indication in some of the MIITEP documents that the new course was intended to train teachers in new styles of teaching/learning more in keeping with the aims of the revised primary school curriculum, which advocates more active and participatory learning methods. Indeed, two different strands of thinking can be traced within the course, which we have labelled for convenience 'traditional' and 'progressive'. The 'traditional' strand is teacher-centred, based on behavioural assumptions, has a closed view of knowledge, and sees the teacher as a technician; the 'progressive' strand contains some elements of interactive and constructivist thinking, is more learner-centred, less authoritarian, and expects more of the teacher. These are broad tendencies only, and should be understood as relative terms in the Malawian context.

2.2 Aims, general objectives, and underlying philosophy of MIITEP

The only broad aim set out in the MIITEP documents themselves is to produce 'an effective teacher'; implicitly, the purpose of the programme is to improve the quality of teaching and learning in primary schools by enabling unqualified teachers to undergo a training programme.

In general, MIITEP seems still to reflect the list of 24 'National Objectives for Teacher Education', drawn up for the revised curriculum in 1990 (Hauya 1997:48). These are phrased mainly in terms of 'to promote/develop/foster in the teacher' certain knowledge, skills and attitudes. It is noticeable that attitudes predominate, in that over half the listed objectives focus on such things as '*positive attitudes towards community development, appreciation of Malawi culture and moral values, the desire for continued professional growth'* etc. Broad skills are also emphasised, such as '*the professional and academic skills to enable him (sic) to teach the primary school curriculum effectively'*, leadership and managerial skills, and *'the ability to adapt to change'*. Only 5 objectives mention knowledge, the main ones being *'the basic theoretical and practical knowledge about the teaching profession'*, principles of leadership, and '*an understanding of the machinery of the government'*..

The predominant aim seems to be to produce a skilled technician, who will deliver the curriculum effectively. Educating a teacher is seen as a matter of fostering appropriate attitudes and values, along with developing skills; giving the teachers a sound knowledge base (Shulman 1987), in terms of either subject-specific or professional

understanding, is much less prominent, nor is there any mention of reflection on one's own practice. In short, they are being prepared for a 'restricted' professional role. This view is confirmed by material addressed to the students in Book 5, in a brief section on 'ethics' and 'professionalism'. There is the same emphasis on attitudes, moral qualities, and skills rather than on understanding that will inform professional judgement. For example, a good teacher is 'cooperative, honest, tolerant, responsible and trustworthy'; they can plan lessons, assess pupils and manage a class. As far as knowledge goes, they must 'know the subject matter well', and 'know the conditions of service and code of conduct expected of a teacher'.

However, there are some traces of alternative perceptions of the teacher and of their training, most clearly stated in the 'Teacher Trainer's Source Book' published by the Teacher Development Unit (TDU, 1997). This was produced as a resource for the 'trainers of trainers' .i.e. for those conducting workshops for the college tutors, Primary Education Advisors (PEAs) and headteachers.

The introduction notes that *'teaching and learning need to become much more activity-based and participatory'* in Malawi classrooms; it suggests teachers will have to become skilful *'facilitators of learning'* in spite of lack of resources, they must integrate subjects, and address equity issues. It suggests that teachers are expected to *'function as an agent of change in the classroom'* (p.2), thus imputing to them a much more 'extended' professional role.

This Trainers' book also has sections on principles of adult instruction (p.8), on action research (p.53) and on professionalism (p.58). These seem to indicate a more dialogic stance, a more interactive view of learning, and a wider professional role. Such an approach aims to take the experience of the student-teachers into account, and to address more specifically the problems found in Malawian classrooms.

By contrast, much of the material in the student teacher handbooks seems to be based on a behavioural view of learning, and on a more authoritarian view of professional knowledge as something that can be transmitted unproblematically to students. Thereafter they will have the 'right answers' to problems of teaching and learning and be able to deliver the curriculum more effectively. The 'new' philosophy seems to have become somewhat filtered as it moves downwards.

For example, the 'Introduction' to each of the Handbooks, through highlighting new approaches, implies teachers should:

- promote active learning
- use local resources
- educate pupils about population and environment issues
- be gender-sensitive
- teach about democracy and human rights
- value practical activities
- be sensitive to pupils with special needs
- teach about HIV/AIDS
- use local 'cultural capital' especially in science and technology

These seem to be drawn from the 'progressive' strand, but the specific objectives set out in the individual units seem to be drawn from the 'traditional' approach, as exemplified below. The objectives for Foundation Studies, for example, reflect very closely the objectives of the 2-year, 1-year and MASTEP foundations course, showing there has been no change of approach in this area. The English and Maths unit objectives are largely framed in terms of being able to teach specific topics and skills, while the science units are content-based. The objectives cover mainly knowledge and comprehension, with application in some subject areas and in the methods; no 'higher level' skills are mentioned.

In the main, it is the behavioural view of learning, and the restricted role of the teacher that dominates the curriculum in action as we saw it. We saw hardly any evidence of the approaches advocated in the Trainers' Book. The focus is on teaching rather than learning; the overall model of teaching is transmissive, and the discourse is all about 'imparting knowledge' by using the 'right methods'. Tutors do not themselves model a learner-centred approach, nor do they use the methods suggested as appropriate for 'adult learning'. They do as instructed, but - with one or two exceptions - do not infuse their teaching with a real understanding of the deeper aims.

More strikingly still, when we asked the lecturers in what ways the aims of MIITEP were different from those of previous programmes, most saw little difference. No one articulated the MIITEP philosophy as set out in the Trainers' Book, though three (all from BTC) mentioned the 'participatory approach' as the main difference. Most of them think they are supposed to be teaching the same things as in previous programmes, only condensed into a shorter period, and with more emphasis on methods and less on content than formerly. Several said explicitly that the new teachers would be inferior to their predecessors, because they would be less well-equipped for the classroom.

Further confirmation emerged indirectly from the tutors' and students' perceptions of the 'good teacher' and 'good teaching' as expressed in interviews. They described such a person largely in terms of traditional personal and professional characteristics, and specified many desirable skills; significantly, the 'knowledge base' needed for good teaching was mentioned much less frequently. No one described the teacher as a change agent, or mentioned a community role, and out of nearly 100 comments on this topic from the tutors in interviews, only 5 included 'active participatory learning'! Significantly, none of the students mentioned the words at all, so they clearly do not figure largely in the college discourse. The students themselves did not articulate any particular philosophy about the course. As far as they were concerned, they just wanted to get their certificate, as they felt looked down on in the school by their qualified colleagues.

An interesting and rather different discrepancy between the aims of the tutors and of the programme lies in the tutors' stress on the affective side. Most tutors in describing a good teacher refer in some way to relationships with children: the teachers should be 'interested' in learners, ready to help them, to listen and to encourage, be concerned with their problems. Another common characteristic is that a good teacher is 'dedicated', hardworking, and enthusiastic. Professional strengths include good organisation and co-operation with others. Yet the documented curriculum hardly

mentions these, and we came across no evidence that either the formal or the hidden curriculum in college addressed these important issues.

Some possible reasons for the gap between MIITEP aims and those of the tutors include:

- they were not involved in the overall creation and planning; they do not 'own' it; some helped write the Handbooks, which in some ways more closely reflect their values and beliefs than those of the trainers
- their two-week orientation was too short, and there was no follow-up; such a paradigm shift needs a much longer and more intensive period of re-training in order to be internalised. Back in the colleges they returned to their earlier ways of thinking and acting

2.3 Content

This is based on the subjects taught in the primary schools, plus 'Foundation Studies'. The table below sets out the number of units devoted to each subject, both in the college and school-based parts of the course, which gives a broad picture of the balance of the curriculum. It also shows that the proportion of time allocated at college closely matches the overall proportions, except that Teaching Practice is included, taking up one morning a week

Table 2.1: Organisation of content

Category	Subject	No. of units Coll.+SB = Total	% of whole	% at college
Core Subjects	Foundation Studies	45 + 32 = 77	16.3	16.7
	English	40 + 26 = 66	13.9	13.3
	Maths	36 + 22 = 58	12.3	10
	Science & Health Education	35 + 18 = 53	11.2	10
Category A	Social and General Studies	17 + 24 = 41	8.6	10
	Chichewa	24 + 16 = 40	8.4	6.7
	Agriculture	16 + 14 = 30	6.3	6.7
	Home Economics & Needlecraft	16 + 13 = 29	6.1	6.7
Category B	Physical Education	13 + 9 = 22	4.6	3.3
	Religious Education	12 + 9 = 21	4.4	3.3
	Music	12 + 7 = 19	4	3.3
	Creative Arts	10 + 7 = 17	3.6	3.3
	[Teaching Practice]			[6.7]
Totals:	**Twelve subjects**	**276 + 197 = 473**	**100%**	**100%**

It can be seen from this that the emphasis is on subject-related studies, and is confined to those that the trainees will have to teach, with professional studies taking up only one-sixth of the time. Teaching methods, however, form part of the subject-studies. There is no general or personal education, not even communication or study skills, although the trainees enter with relatively low school-leaving qualifications.

The curriculum content is strongly compartmentalised into subjects; there are few common themes. The topics mentioned in the objectives, such as gender, population,

HIV/Aids, democracy and human rights - are tucked away in separate units in Foundations, Science or Social Studies, and do not seem to permeate the course more generally.
Looking at the kinds of knowledge presented, considerable differences are found between subjects. The English and Maths units, for example, focus largely on curriculum and pedagogic content knowledge, and the English course is explicitly aimed at skills development, while the Science course consists almost exclusively of subject content knowledge, with minimal attention to pedagogic knowledge or skills. The Foundations course covers, rather briefly, general pedagogic knowledge and skills, knowledge of learners, of educational contexts and of educational aims and values, in that order of priority as measured by unit time. (This analysis is based on Shulman's work; see Appendix3).
The following section gives some details of the topics covered in these four subjects. The prominence given to behavioural objectives shows clearly the underlying assumptions about learning on which the course is based.

2.3.1 English

The course begins with five units on curriculum and general pedagogic knowledge (GPK); this includes how to write lesson plans, schemes of work and records for English lessons. The rest of the units during the college period are all focused on how to teach aspects of the primary school curriculum, including identifying pupil errors, testing, and remedial work. The only exceptions to this pattern are three units on 'phonology and phonetics', and three more, in Book 3, on English for Study and for Professional Purposes. These are the only units aimed at improving the students' own language competence.

The school-based units recapitulate and expand on selected topics from the college course, focusing directly on how one can use these in one's class. For example, 'oral communicative language teaching techniques' are explained again, and the student is given detailed examples of how to carry these out with the pupils. The Zonal seminars cover: making visual aids, songs and rhymes, pre-reading activities and 'wide reading'.

The specific unit objectives are almost all phrased in practical terms, stating what the students will be able to do, such as:

- teach pre-reading activities
- use dialogues/pair work/ role play etc. for language practice
- make and use phonic charts for teaching reading
- construct different types of comprehension questions
- identify errors in pupils' written work

2.3.2 Maths

Almost all the maths units concentrate on pedagogic content knowledge (PCK), here set out as how to teach the primary maths syllabus; the one exception is a unit on the history of numbers! There are no units on lesson planning or scheming; the zonal seminars are devoted to teaching and learning aids which can be bought or made. As in English, most of the school-based units are expansions of selected topics already

covered, but here new concepts are introduced, using formal language; there seems to be much emphasis on definitions and terminology that the teacher should know, and less on how to make things simple for pupils. There is nothing on the theory of 'maths education'.

Almost all the unit objectives in the college period are phrased in terms of what the student will know and be able to teach e.g.

- define subtraction; teach subtraction of numbers with regrouping.
- define cash account; teach how to enter transactions and balance the account
- define and classify geometric shapes; teach modelling, naming and drawing geometric shapes.

In the self-study units, the objectives are phrased as: 'able to teach X ....'

2.3.3 Science

The first 9 science units look at curriculum and general pedagogic knowledge in the context of teaching science; they review lesson planning and scheming, but also discuss the teaching of scientific skills and attitudes, with use of equipment and resources, and with safety measures. The rest of the units, by contrast to the other main subjects, focus entirely on content knowledge; physics and chemistry during the college period; biology and health education during the school-based period. While the science is clearly intended to be taught at college in practical ways that student teachers could later use in primary schools (if they had the resources) there are no units on aspects of science education such as children's misconceptions in science or the development of scientific concepts.

The first 9 units combine cognitive objectives with practical ones, so that as well as stating and explaining the students are expected to do something e.g. write a lesson plan, construct a nature table, improvise some apparatus. In the rest of the units, the objectives are all variations on the themes of:

explain meanings, applications of ....
state examples, factors, uses....
perform activities, on air pressure, on what forces can do.....

2.3.4 Foundations Studies

The first part of the residential course is mainly concerned with general pedagogic knowledge (GPK), comprising the technical professional skills of writing lesson plans, formulating objectives, drawing up schemes of work and keeping records, as well as introductions to different kinds of teaching methods and how to improvise and use various kinds of teaching/learning aids.

The second part focuses on knowledge of learners - child development and theories of learning - combined in some units with more GPK, for example how to handle children with different learning abilities. Then there are four units on testing.
Books 4 and 5 are more school related, focusing on more practical concerns, such as management and administration of schools, keeping records, school and community

relationships, professional ethics and conditions of service. Other units look at general pedagogic knowledge, mainly classroom management skills. Information about the classroom tends to be stronger on rhetoric than on reality i.e. saying what *should* happen in good practice, rather than focusing on problems and how to deal with them. There are no suggestions for carrying out enquiry-based work into one's own classroom.

The zonal seminars deal with administering tests, working with colleagues and policy matters; the last two take up the issues of gender and population and environment, in an apparent nod towards the general objectives.

The specific objectives for each unit are typically phrased to emphasise theoretical rather than practical knowledge, even when skills are involved. e.g. in studying learners, students shall be able to:

⇒ define	⇒ intelligence, maturation, individual difference, motivation etc.
⇒ state	⇒ how each factor of x influences y
⇒ explain	⇒ 'uses of concepts like transfer, discovery, concept learning in the learning process'
⇒ discuss	⇒ child development etc.
	⇒ how learning takes place, aspects of child development, what children at a certain stage can do, etc.
	⇒ how to handle children with learning difficulties

Only in the unit on resources are they asked actually to make things. Even the units on tests are phrased as: explain/describe the types, purposes, advantages, ways of constructing tests - rather than designing exemplars. Such objectives can all be achieved, on a formal level, through learning by rote the information given in the text. The relationship between theory and practice seems rather tenuous; it is left to the students to bring the two together.

Another issue is the relevance of the some of the theories to the local cultural context. Much of the material is drawn from western books on child psychology and presented as univeral truth. In the lessons we saw, there were no attempts to relate these theories to Malawian children generally, nor to the student teachers' own experience either at home or in school. No African research on child development was quoted. (See Foundation lessons in Chapter 3). Both tutors and students accepted the ideas uncritically. It was as though there were two parallel discourses, one developed explicitly in college, and the other, known tacitly but only articulated perhaps elsewhere if at all, concerned with the students' own experiences as learner and teacher. The two discourses were kept quite separate.

2.3.5 Some general comments on content

In all subjects we found that all tutors stayed very close to the Handbooks, using each 'unit' as a 'lesson plan'. Few introduced any ideas, examples, or activities beyond

what was given there: a science teacher demonstrated an extra experiment; an English teacher crammed in a ten-minute lecture on teaching spelling through dictation. The tutors interviewed did not express strong views on the content, which was by and large simply a condensed version of what they had been teaching before; one said it was shallow, and some regretted that important topics had been left out. Most students thought that all the topics were important, often singling out Foundation Studies and methods as particularly useful.

However, everyone said, and it was clear to us as observers, that the time allocated in this three-month residential course was not adequate to cover all the material. Lessons were time-tabled for one hour, occasionally two in some practical subjects, but many of the units contained too much material for this time. In addition, in some cases tutors were absent attending meetings or workshops which contributed to the shortage of time. Some tutors arranged to teach during the evenings or weekends to make up for the lost time. This shortage of time contributed to the mode of delivery; the tutors felt they had to teach everything in the books in the short time available, and therefore they found themselves rushing through the material.

2.4 Pedagogy

During our observations and interviews we sought to find out how the tutors utilised the handbooks. In particular we wanted to know how strongly the tutors were emphasising the new ideas from the 'progressive' strand, and how far they were training the students to move from traditional teacher-centred methods towards active learning ones. It should be remembered that the tutors had almost all gained their experience by teaching on the previous programmes and most got their only orientation to the aims and philosophy of MIITEP through a two-week training course run by the TDU trainers, which was not long enough to develop the new methods in practice. Though some had been involved in writing the Handbooks, most of them saw the MIITEP changes as being imposed on them, rather than being part of their own professional development.

It is perhaps not surprising that, overall, tutors followed the letter rather than the spirit of MIITEP, and the pedagogy reflected more of the traditional than the progressive strand. Their classroom practices were much closer to secondary schools than to tertiary or professional training institutions, as detailed in Chap. 3. The size of the teaching groups, ranging from 30 –100 plus, militated against interactive methods.

In general, the lessons followed a traditional structure, similar to those in a school, but with some weaknesses. As students often took a long time to arrive and then settle down, lessons might start up to seven minutes late. The tutor would usually review previous work, perhaps by question and answer, and then say: 'Today we are going to continue with .....' but often there was little integration of the new work with the old. These reviews and introductions were often quite lengthy - 12 minutes in one case - so that substantial time had passed before students became active. By contrast, conclusions were conspicuously brief; tutors were often caught unawares and wound up either by inviting questions that never came, saying something like: 'so now you know how to do that,' or giving tasks which might or might not be followed up in the

next lesson. Time management may well be a factor in the problems of covering all the topics.

Most classes followed a predominantly teacher-centred pattern. Usually tutors spent most of their time questioning, explaining or instructing, while the students listened, wrote, watched, and responded either individually or even in chorus. Occasionally students were told to copy lengthy notes; more frequently the tutors just wrote the main points from the textbook on the chalkboard as they went along, though as every student had a handbook, this was not really necessary. Students very seldom initiated an interchange with the tutor, either by question or comment.

There were, however, some attempts to use more interactive and participatory methods. Several tutors organised groups as directed by the Handbook. In a few cases we observed these working well, with students engaging quickly in discussion or collaborative work. In others, we felt it might have been done for the observers' benefit, as the students seemed reluctant to move, and bewildered by what they were supposed to do. While students were encouraged to 'report back' from the groups, the ideas given were almost invariably based on points from the Handbook, and the tutor would usually sum up from the text. Chapter 3 gives more details.

There were some differences between subjects. The English tutors seemed to have the widest repertoire of teaching methods, and to incorporate more activities into their classes, as befitted their skills-based syllabus. Some tutors demonstrated techniques by making the students act as primary pupils; another had the students role-playing teaching in small groups.

In Mathematics, the dominant methods were questioning and then explaining the answer which again reminds one of secondary school teaching. Occasionally the tutor would get the students practising some of the activities designed for primary pupils, such as handling coins or preparing a balance sheet.

In Science tutors would do a demonstration, which the students would then try to imitate, while the tutor supervised; the 'discussion of findings' was mainly done by the tutor just explaining the experiments. Students did not make their own written summaries and did not appear to be intellectually involved. In other words, there was nothing in the science lessons observed which suggested this teaching was different from the traditional way the subject has been taught, though at BTC students were occasionally shown a video.

2.4.1 Some issues arising from the pedagogy

Overall, there was a mismatch between the pedagogy and the professional experience of the trainees. Although offering initial qualification, MIITEP is a course for serving teachers, yet the students - most of whom had taught for 3-4 years - were treated as though they were raw school-leavers. There is a section in the Trainers' Sourcebook about adult learning principles, but even the Handbooks give little recognition to their status; the text seldom suggests students reflect on their own recent experience or use this to share ideas, air problems, or develop solutions. We rarely heard a tutor refer to their experience, and never was it taken as a serious basis for discussion.

Evidence from the interviews suggest tutors are quite antagonistic towards the schools, and in some ways out of touch with the realities faced by primary teachers. One complained these mature students are more difficult to teach than the former secondary school leavers, who used to accept the tutors' theories, saying:

> (Some of these students) .... are refuting what we try to teach them, though some of their arguments are genuine. (for example) on punishment, discussing positive and negative reinforcement, we advise them to counsel students, but they want to whip them..... when discussing groupwork, they say it doesn't work with 200 students. [what do you say?] We sympathise, it shouldn't be like that....Some say there are no teaching and learning materials, but that is the job of MOE.
> (Interview, acting Principal)

This must lead to many missed opportunities. One maths tutor we observed went right through the Unit on 'Introducing Money' as though it was entirely new, but the students told us many of them had tried it out several times in the classroom; a discussion of what problems had been encountered might have been more useful. (See Chap. 3)

A more farcical situation arose when a tutor was having some difficulty demonstrating how to unpack and use the 'Book Boxes' (sets of readers for each standard supplied in lockable storage units to primary schools). At the end of the lesson it transpired one of the students had been an acting head teacher who used them regularly, and could easily have shared her practical expertise with the class. (See Chap. 3)

Finally, we saw no evidence at all of students being inducted into the kind of 'open learning' on which much of the course was premised. There was no time to teach Study Skills. Although by the time of the research all students had Handbooks, they were seldom asked to read the next 'unit' in advance, or to prepare for the next lesson in any way. When we visited students at St. Joseph's during evening prep, we found them reading over past units, or revising their own notes. The library was closed, and no one was referring to any other sources. Few tutors gave them written exercises or directed them how to study. It seemed that they were not being properly prepared for the 20 months of independent study ahead.

2.5 Assessment

The official documentation states that candidates will be awarded a certificate if they pass:

> English, Maths, Science and Health Education, Foundation Studies and Teaching Practice, plus one other subject from Category A (General Studies, Agriculture, Chichewa and Home Economics) and one from Category B (Music, PE, Creative Arts, R.E.)

All formal written assessment is set by the Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB) and marked by tutors under their guidance. The regulations are set out below:

Table 2.2: Assessment

Timing	***Method***	***Weighting***	***Comment***
End of residential block	Written Examinations in all subjects	25%	
During school-based training	12 assignments (1 per subject) [Category B subjects: 4 projects	15% 60%]	Grades include assignments, projects and TP*
End of course	Final exams in main and Category A subjects	60%	

* A Teaching Practice grade is given during the residential block, for a lesson taught in the demonstration school, but the main TP grade is expected to be given during the field-based part of the course. A moderation team from different TTCs including staff from MANEB and TDU visit a sample of trainees to check consistency.

2.5.1 Formative assessment

Within each unit in the Handbooks, there are short questions, designed to check recall and understanding. At the end of each unit there is a 'unit assessment' which according to the writers' guidelines should comprise an activity for each of the unit objectives, though this is not carried out for all the units. No other guidance is given to tutors for checking students' on-going learning. In the self-study units there are similar short assessment exercises, with the answers given at the end; no reference is made to the MANEB- set assignments and projects to be done during this time.

In the colleges we found no assessment policy either at the department level or at the institutional level. Examinations Committees exist but under MIITEP they do not seem to function. This is an intrinsic flaw in the implementation of the course. Tutors are not required to keep any progress records for students. Individuals give exercises and test at their own discretion. Not one tutor was able to produce documentation of any kind showing there was some tracking of student's progress. In defence some said they could tell the progress by the extent to which students were participating in class but this is preposterous considering the number of students involved.

Students acknowledged that there are some individuals who give and mark exercises and even tests. They thought this was very helpful including the remarks made on these exercises. There were also reports of tutors who had never given out exercises or tests. Examination of student notebooks confirmed this disparity between departments and even within departments. Occasionally, it was said, a department will give the whole cohort a test, modeled on the end-of-residential examination. This exam is the only assessment which is formalised. Students dread it, which negatively influences their learning habits, encouraging them to demand notes, to memorise and base their studies on past examinations.

2.5.2 Summative Assessment

We carried out an analysis of the written assessment instruments, using an opportunity sample of final exam papers and project requirements for Cohort 1,

together with assignment questions for Cohort 1 and 5. As we did not have access to marking schemes or example scripts it was difficult to know exactly what kinds of answers were required. We looked at the coverage of the syllabus, the cognitive demands made, the extent to which the papers focussed on different domains of knowledge and skill, and finally tried to evaluate the relevance of the instruments to the wider aims and objectives.

2.5.3 Exams

The final exam papers followed a common pattern: one third of the questions tested subject-specific content knowledge and two thirds tested pedagogic content knowledge, focussing on methods. Most questions were variations on the short-answer format, requiring the student to write between 1-5 lines, which would be worth between 1 – 10 marks, though some subjects required short essays. The cognitive level demanded within the content section was predominantly recall of knowledge or simple comprehension, though in the pedagogic section there were more apparent examples of application, such as 'draw up a lesson plan on x'. Most of the exams were based closely on the material in the Handbooks. It appears that the end-of-residence tests followed a very similar pattern.

2.5.4 Assignments

Students complete one assignment in each of the 12 subjects during their School-based Training. The formats are identical insofar as the students have to choose one question out of three. Some subjects ask for a structured essay format in which it is indicated what should be covered and how many marks are given for each point; other subjects set out structured questions.

All the topics are covered in the Handbooks, usually but not always in Books 4 and 5; in some subjects all the needed information is given in the units, so that the student only has to copy or paraphrase the text; in others they need to look more widely through the handbooks and/or consult documents relating to the primary school curriculum; occasionally they would need other library sources. In most subjects the focus is on content rather than pedagogic knowledge. Overall the cognitive demands appear to be low, requiring students to find and report information at a fairly simple level of comprehension, with some application where pedagogical knowledge is being tested.

2.5.5 Projects

In four subjects–Creative Arts, Music, Physical Education and Religious Education–the terminal exam is replaced by a project, carried out during the School-based Training period. These projects follow a similar format: students choose one option out of three and write an 8-10 page report on it, following detailed guidelines on both content and structure.

Analysis produced some rather unexpected results. In some ways, these appear far more demanding than the terminal exams, requiring a wide variety of physical and cognitive skills. Examples are: to learn to drum, or to make clay models; to develop a personal programme to enhance football or netball skills, or to organise a community

service project; to carry out local research into traditional dances, or 'spirit possession' – most of which seem to require a wide range of cognitive, personal and professional skills, including research, for which the college syllabus provides little or no training. There are some anomalies: none of the tasks are directly related to the students' work in the classroom, and they are assessed merely by written report, with no apparent requirement to produce artefacts, or demonstrate acquired skills.

For both assignment and projects, it was noticeable the three questions often differed considerably within a paper both in cognitive demand and with regard to the domain of knowledge, so that students who chose different options were being assessed on different things. When only one assignment/project is done during the course, this must reduce not only the validity and reliability of the instrument, but also equity as far as the students are concerned.

Although there is uniformity in instrument format across subjects, this hides some substantial discrepancies in content validity, coverage of domains of knowledge, and level of cognitive demand. Below we give some examples of differences between subjects, which are in some ways related to the different approaches outlined earlier.

2.5.6 Foundation Studies

The exam was different from the others in that it used Multiple-Choice Questions, 'true/false' items, and 'filling in blanks', as well as a short essay. This format allowed it to cover the syllabus widely, but apart from the essay the cognitive demands were very low – over 75% demanded only recall of knowledge - the quality of the test items were very poor, and the relevance of many of the items to the teacher's professional understanding and competence was very questionable.

For the assignments, there were remarkable differences between those set for Cohort 1, which required students to bring together ideas from several sections of the syllabus and apply them in new ways to their own or an imaginary school, and those set for Cohort 5, which could have been answered simply by referring to specific units in the Handbooks. We have no idea why this should have been so; other subject assignments do not appear to have changed their approach so radically between the two cohorts.

2.5.7 English

The exam papers attempted in the content section to test students' own knowledge of English, though this is hardly touched on in the Handbooks; some of it may have been quite challenging to these students. The questions did not cover much of the syllabus, but the items were well constructed and relevant to the classroom. Some of the questions appeared to require both real understanding and application, but others could have been answered by reference to examples given in specific Units.

Some assignment questions required the students to work with the pupil textbooks and teachers' guides. Though many of the questions appear to have practical relevance, students were not asked them to apply the ideas to their own classrooms and report back, which would have been a much more valid test of their skill than simply describing 'the steps taken to teach x.'

2.5.8 Maths

The exam paper had reasonably good coverage, and the quality of the items was judged good. The cognitive demands appeared quite high, and in some items the level of mathematical understanding went beyond what had been taught in the Handbook. In both the assignment and the exam paper, some attention was given to testing students' knowledge of learners with respect to mathematics, e.g. an understanding of common misconceptions, which increases the relevance of these tests. However, these instruments, like the maths syllabus, use complex language about maths, which may increase the level of difficulty for students with poor linguistic skills. Many students reported problems with maths.

2.5.9 Science

Here the imposed exam format was particularly unfortunate, as most of the science syllabus is about content, yet two thirds of the exam questions had to be on pedagogy. Therefore coverage was poor. The cognitive level demanded was mainly recall, particularly as the items apparently requiring comprehension or application often used examples from the Handbooks, which could well have been simply remembered. Similarly the assignment items could all be answered by summarising or paraphrasing information from the Handbooks.

In sum, this analysis suggests that the current MIITEP assessment instruments test only a narrow range of subject specific objectives, rather than the general aims and objectives of the programme as a whole. It is obvious that written exams are poor vehicles for testing broad competences, but the school-based assignments and projects could have offered opportunities for real application and for assessing the students' ability to integrate theory and practice. Instead, they were used simply to test the knowledge contained in the self-study Handbooks, as in traditional distance education, and in some cases the instruments were technically defective. While the projects are interesting, they do not seem very suitable for assessing professional practice. The analysis shows particularly how compartmentalised the course is; at no point do the students have to bring together their knowledge in an integrated and holistic way. The assessment may be closely matched to the content and to the teaching materials, but they are ill-suited to evaluating whether this programme is turning out 'effective' teachers, according to the broader criteria given in the aims.

2.6 Teaching and Learning materials

In most cases tutors use the Handbooks exclusively as a source book and a teacher's guide, saying they value them highly. A few used other teaching materials, often from the previous course. For some topics such as child psychology and phonetics the information available is said to be inadequate and therefore students are referred to other books either in the college library or departmental libraries.

Students were seen to rely heavily on the Handbooks, always using them for study purposes and for classroom work. There were very few students who used other materials, not even the ones in the references. They would depend also on notes given

by tutors. Some students complained that tutors did not give them notes; they deplored being told to go and read on their own and make their own notes saying there was too little time available.

Library facilities were unsatisfactory and even what was there were not well used. In St. Joseph's the library was said to contain 17,000 volumes, but there was no catalogue. The books on the open shelves were mostly donated from overseas, some had little relevance to Malawi, and few had ever been taken out. The fiction shelves, which had been used, were in total confusion. There was a 'reserve' section which contained those books students might find useful, including primary school syllabuses and textbooks. Nonetheless a look at the number of students who visited the library was testimony that they did not value it very much. Only 58 students out of 380 students had visited the library half way into the term. In BTC, which was even less well resourced, those who visited the library were only interested in past examination papers to prepare for their end of residential examinations. Sometime students went to the library to consult dictionaries because they did not have any. Some students indicated they had not been taught how to use the library.

This general reluctance to use reference materials may be partly attributed to the design of the course itself. The Handbooks appear to have been designed to be self-sufficient. They contain everything, from detailed content to answers to exercises. They do not provide opportunity for further exploration by students. Project designers may have thought that other reference materials would not be readily available and that some students with poor academic backgrounds would not cope.

The Handbooks instruct readers to use locally available materials for teaching and learning aids. In general there was lack of commercially acquired consumables or perishables for class work mainly due to lack of funding. One science department had only two cracked beakers. In such cases tutors resorted to demonstrations to save on the materials needed for experiments, or used their own financial resources to enable them carry out meaningful lessons. Students were sometimes required to procure their own materials in subjects such as Home Economics and Needlework.

College equipment for teaching and learning purposes was often out of order due to lack of maintenance. It would appear that lack of funding is at the root of the problem. One question to ask is if these materials were available would it have changed the way MIITEP was being implemented? Another question is whether MIITEP handbooks and the course as whole would have been designed differently if teaching and learning materials were not a problem? Ironically there was also equipment which was lying idle because MIITEP did not require its use; for example the language lab and video cameras are not used at all, perhaps for lack of time.

2.7 Teaching Practice

Teaching practice is given two hours every week. Students go to the nearby demonstration school(s) to practise teaching and at BTC pupils also come to the college to learn. The number of students is so big that it is not possible to practice teaching more than once during the term.

Students are organised in groups of 10. Each student is given one 30 minutes period to teach throughout the entire three months. Teaching practice is allowed only from std 1 to std 7. Std 8 is an examination class and school authorities are reluctant to let students handle this class for fear of disturbing the pupils.

Tutors give each student a topic in a given subject in a particular Standard to prepare. The student then consults the teacher in charge of that Standard to organise teaching and learning materials such as teacher's guides and textbooks. Each group of students visits a classroom and observe their colleagues teach. The tutor responsible for each group is supposed to supervise at most four students in one session of two hours. So at the end of the teaching practice each student will have observed at least nine colleagues teach different subjects in different standards.

At the end of the session each group discusses together with their tutor the strong points and the weak points of each lesson. The tutor awards a grade to each of the students who taught. The assessment instrument uses a traditional form with 25 different skills or aspects of the lesson to mark on a range of 0-4. The marks are then converted into grades A to E, where A is the highest and E is the lowest grade, but most students get high grades mostly above B. Only very few get grades below C-, which is designated as 'fair'.

Teaching practice at the college is fraught with problems. First the schools and college calendars are not synchronized, which cuts the number of weeks available. This means that a student is given a grade from one teaching session only. Sometimes these grades are given by school teachers who are not trained to do so. Tutors agree that this practice is ineffective because there is no micro-teaching or peer teaching to adequately prepare the students for the task. In addition the classes used in the schools are small and have adequate equipment while in reality the students will teach overcrowded classes with a few teaching/learning aids.

The grade given during this teaching practice does not carry much weight towards the final grade of the student. It is only used in the event of a student failing teaching practice during school based training. As a result this activity is not taken seriously and hence some tutors decide to leave the task of supervising to school teachers.

There is one consolation to the whole process. Discussions after each practice session provide opportunity for students to look critically at their own practice. In addition each student observes nine other students teach providing opportunity to learn from others. However the discussions that follow are said to be rather low key with very little participation from most students. Tutors need to be motivated enough to make this exercise worthwhile and get students to realise the importance of discussions after practice. Feedback from students indicate nevertheless that they value these opportunities to teach in a supportive and supervised atmosphere.

2.8 The curriculum strategy and its coherence

- In some ways the different elements of the curriculum strategy are consistent with one another. The Handbooks are a central feature: they set out the objectives, contain most of the content, structure the pedagogy and constitute the main

teaching/learning resource. The academic assessment, in the form of terminal exams, is based on material in the Handbooks.

- There is, however, a major discrepancy between the progressive philosophy expressed in some of the general aims, and the more traditional approach that comes through in many of the units. Overall, MIITEP advocates student-centred and participatory learning methods that should produce an innovative, 'progressive' and professional teacher. This contrasts with the tight behavioural objectives, the closed, didactic nature of much of the material, and the transmission mode of teaching that predominates in class.

- The place of subject content knowledge in this programme is ambiguous. There is little in the general aims and objectives about teachers having a good understanding of their subject, yet students clearly need upgrading in order to feel confident in the classroom. Analysis shows up important differences between subject areas in this respect. In English students are taught a series of pedagogic skills fitted around the primary English syllabus, while in science they are taught straight subject content, and in maths the two are taught together. Only a third of the exam items test content, yet most of the assignments do. There is confusion here.

- The formal assessment methods are consistent with some aspects of the curriculum and not with others. The written exams and assignments are closely matched to the contents of the Handbooks and set up to test the same kinds of lower level skills mentioned in the specific objectives set out therein. In effect, the exams test mainly recall, since many of the comprehension and application questions could be passed by memorising the examples given in the Handbooks.

- On the other hand the aims and general objectives which set out the 'progressive vision' of MIITEP are poorly reflected in the assessment patterns as a whole. The emphasis on innovation and on learner-centred attitudes and skills is ignored, in spite of the 20 months school-based training which could have been used to develop and assess these through different kinds of project and portfolio work. The Teaching Practice grades form an almost invisible part of the assessment, being subsumed within the 15% of marks given to coursework. The 'new approaches' mentioned as general objectives appear only in the written exams, so there is no assessment of whether the new teachers can or do use these ideas effectively in their teaching. It seems paradoxical that the exams attempt to test pedagogic knowledge and skills, while the school-based assignments test subject content knowledge: the reverse would seem more appropriate.

- Looking at the wider context, other mismatches can be noted. One concerns its appropriateness for the current students. The course was designed for MSCE holders and has not been adapted to the needs of those with only JC. In view of the school-based period, when assignments have to be done at a distance, students should have been prepared extensively for self-study and independent learning, but this is not built into any part of the course.

- The curriculum differs very little from that formerly taught in the colleges to school-leavers with no teaching experience, yet the MITTEP students have all

taught for at least 2-3 years. The curriculum makes very little use of this, and tutors often seem to be treating the students as 'empty vessels' into which knowledge must be poured. By the same token, the course tries to cover nearly as much material as formerly, much of it during the 3-month residential block. The need to cram so much into too short a time reinforces the didactic mode of teaching and leaves both students and tutors dissatisfied.

- The minor subjects were not analysed in detail, but it was clear there were unrealistic expectations in some of the practical subjects, given the short time allocated to them. One unit on 'carving' in Creative Arts would have needed a week-long workshop rather than a one hour class! It also appeared that the projects for the four practical subjects required some degree of enquiry and interpersonal communication skills, which students did not seem to be taught while at college.

- Another mismatch is between the resources needed for the kind of student-centred learning envisaged by the course designers on the one hand, and the reality of poorly resourced colleges and schools on the other.

- Finally, the change to school-based training remains at the level of rhetoric. Significantly, the colleges have tried to retain an element of the traditional 'teaching practice' within the residential block, even though time is so limited that this gives little opportunity for real skill development. A recurrent lament in tutor interviews was that they were unable to complete their training role by visiting and supervising their students in schools. In a school-based course, this aspect should be handled entirely at the school level, yet such a shift of emphasis is not reflected in the curriculum as a whole, especially in the assessment weighting. As the study of the school-based component shows, there is little confidence among any of the stakeholders that the schools can yet deliver effective training.

Chapter 4 will take up these themes again.

CHAPTER 3

THE TEACHER EDUCATION CLASSROOM

3.1 Introduction

This chapter offers some illustrations of how the curriculum was actually delivered, based on observations of lessons in four core subjects. It shows how tutors used the textbook, exemplifies typical interaction sequences, and highlights some aspects of teaching and learning in the colleges.

3.2 English

All the English Units in Handbook focus on teaching the students methods and skills: the HOW TO rather than the WHAT. In Shulman's terms, there is little knowledge base involved, apart from some knowledge of the primary school curriculum. The Units are structured around teaching these skills: the pedagogy involves explanation, discussion, demonstration, role-play, and other student activities, usually in groups. The classroom interaction is almost all oral; there is very little reading or writing either suggested or carried out.

The tutors commonly started with a recap of the previous lesson, but none reviewed the current lesson at the end, nor used the short exercises in the Handbook to check students' learning. Most lessons ended abruptly without summaries, and without guidance for preparing for the next lesson. There was no evaluation; we wondered how much students had actually absorbed, whether they understood the rationale behind the methods, and whether they would be able to apply them in a real classroom. Students were seldom invited to link the activities to their own recent teaching experience.

We selected four English tutors for observation, two from each college. At St. Joseph's we were invited to observe a further English lesson, making five in all.

3.2.1 Supplementary Reading Materials

Fortuitously, we observed two tutors teaching the same Unit on 'Using Supplementary Reading Materials' (SRMs), which enabled a detailed comparison to be made. These lessons illustrate the following points, which are confirmed by the other lessons we saw:

1. Different tutors can and do interpret the Handbooks differently, but within quite narrow limits
2. Very few resources other than the handbooks are used, even when easily available
3. The Handbook sometimes sets unrealistic objectives in the light of a) time constraints b) the academic level of the trainees.

The Handbook set two objectives for this one-hour unit:
(1) Students will be able to use supplementary reading materials effectively

(2) they will produce their own supplementary reading materials
It is clear that even (1) would be difficult to achieve in a one-hour session, and that (2) would require much more time and support. Suggested teaching/learning resources included: examples of stories, poems, plays, folktales, commercially produced readers, newspapers, magazines, book boxes. Of these, only a book box was produced.

The Handbook offered the following lesson structure:

Fig. 3.1: Unit 26, Using Supplementary Reading Materials - handbook version

Discussion	Discuss what SRMs are why they are used in Stds. 3-8 how to acquire SRMs
Demonstration	Tutor demonstrates how to use the Std. 5'book box' supplied to schools, following 5 steps, from displaying contents to answering questions on books after reading them
Discussion	Discussion of demonstration
Student activity	Students in groups practice using such readers with Std. 4 book box

Neither tutor achieved the set objectives; there was not enough time and the hour was not used to best advantage. Neither tutor brought in all the required materials, but they emphasised different activities. The figures below show how the lessons were structured.

Fig. 3.2: Unit 26, as taught by Ms. D, BTC

No. of Minutes	***Activity***	***Description***
2	Late start	Students still entering, furniture already arranged in groups
6	Recap of last lesson	Student invited to dramatise a poem as in previous unit
12	Discussion	Q & A covering what counts as SRM, and why they are used. Tutor shows the book boxes; tells students to bring a folktale from home next week.
25	Demonstration	Tutor organises all students through the 5 steps as though they were a class, circulating while they are reading; finishes with asking one student to summarise what she has read.
3	Discussion	Tutor gives brief advice on how to organise the process
10+	Video	Class goes off to watch video of a book box being used, which continues into lunch hour.

Fig. 3.3: Unit 26, as taught by Mr. A, St.Joseph's

No. of Minutes	*Activity*	*Description*
3	Recap	Students sit in untidy rows. Tutor gives brief resume of an earlier lesson
26	Discussion	Q & A session on what are SRM, what are their advantages, and how to get pupils to produce them; suggests the students all bring their own 'tomorrow'. Tutor writes student answers on the board, often paraphrasing them into the words of the handbook.
23	Demonstration	Tutor shows the boxes, how to lock them, how to put books on a table, how to use the register. Invites 6 students to select a book; registers their names; they return the books without reading them.
5	Discussion	[after bell] 3 students asked practical questions about how to use these e.g. with large classes, etc.

Ms. D's lesson was more in keeping with the spirit of the curriculum, in that students were more involved; it went beyond the suggested activities by including a video. The tutor chose to make the overview very brief, and then to demonstrate the use of one particular type of SRM by making the students act the part of pupils, using the boxes, before taking them to see a video. The students were involved in six different activities, either individually or in groups, and thus were active for most of the time (although one can query whether just reading a Std. 5 book rather than discussing its use with pupils was the best use of time). The video provided examples of real classroom practice, but unfortunately there was no time to discuss what they saw and relate it to their own experience.

Mr. A spent more time going through the different kinds of materials - though without showing any of them - in a whole-class question-and-answer routine. For more than half the time the students were just sitting and watching the tutor. The demonstration of the book box only involved 6 students, and time was wasted finding out how the locks worked. Only at the end did it transpire that some of the students had already used such boxes during their time in school!

However, it was clearly impossible to get the students to produce their own materials in such a short time. Both tutors mentioned this briefly, exhorting them: 'Bring a folktale from home next week!' 'Bring your poems tomorrow' but students would have needed detailed guidelines and much support to write anything suitable.

Fig. 3.4 shows in graph form how the tutor and student activity differed. Ms. D was attempting to work in the new MIITEP spirit, managing and supervising student learning rather than spending her time in direct instruction, while Mr. A followed a much more traditional approach. It is relevant to note that Ms. D had studied outside of Malawi and had taught in other countries in the region; she brought a wide experience and knowledge of other methods, although she professed herself happy with the Handbook approach.

Fig.3.4 (a): Unit 26, Supplementary Reading Materials - Tutors' Activity Pattern

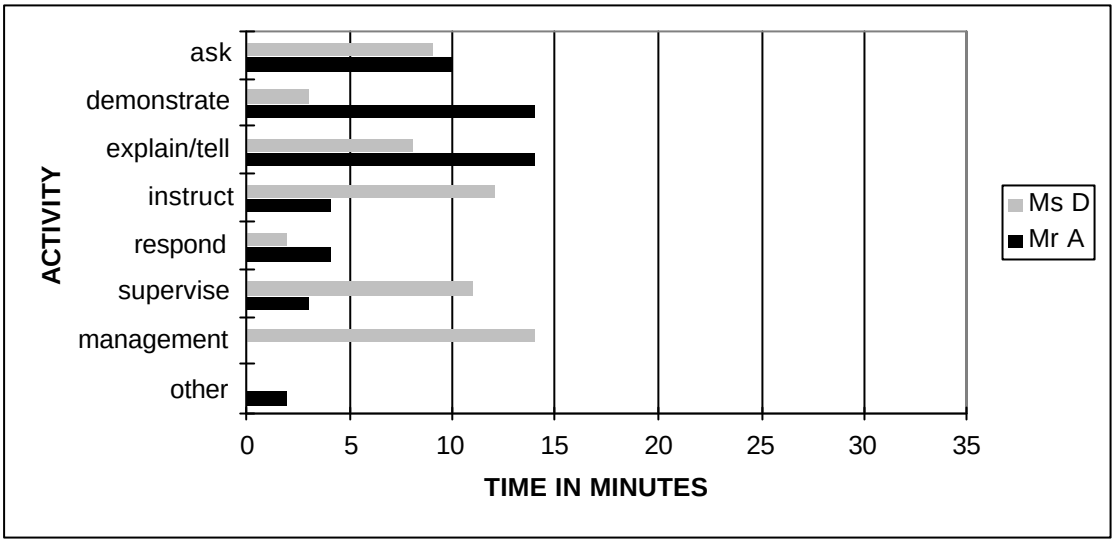
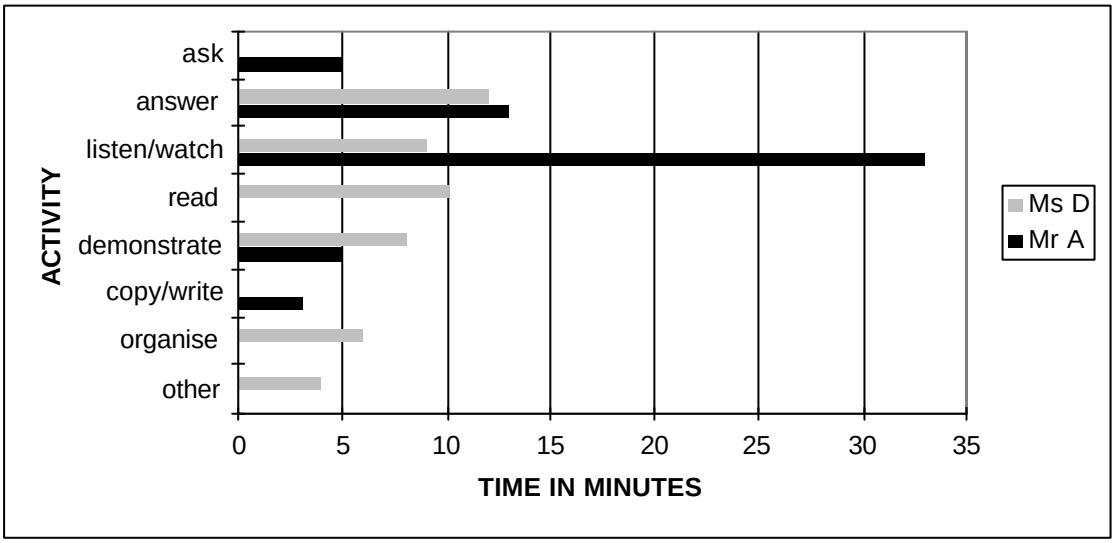


Fig.3.4 (b): Unit 26, Supplementary Reading Materials - Students' Activity Pattern



3.2.3 Different kinds of questions

Mr. B's lesson at St. Joseph's on 'Different kinds of questioning' was the only lesson we saw where the tutor had made the students prepare beforehand; he also departed from the text more than most. After an introductory session reviewing 'comprehension questions' as given in the Handbook, two groups performed short role-plays demonstrating the use of different kinds of questions to a primary class.

The extract below gives a flavour of the dialogue; it is typical in many ways of the teaching style we saw in other lessons and other subjects as well:

Fig.3.5: Unit 23, 'Different kinds of questioning' taught by Mr. B., St. Joseph's

Time	Tutor	Students
8.42	*[Lesson begins with a brief recap of the last lesson, in which two groups of students had apparently demonstrated asking 'pre-questions']*	
	Today we shall add: asking	
	comprehension questions	
	Give me one variety of questions	WH questions
	1. WH	
	How are they framed?	*[many hands up, various students called on to answer]*
		What, which, who, whose, when how, where
	Another type?	Yes/No
	2. Yes/No	
	What kind are these? give example	Is your father a teacher?
	Pupils responses are just yes/no	
	3. Multiple Choice questions	
	What type are these?	*[some hands; a mumbled answer]*
		4-5 [in chorus]
	Teacher gives options. How many?	A/B
	Another type?	Where you choose one or the other
	4. A/B questions. What are they?	Statement with question tag
	[expands on the answer]	
	Any other?	[*give several examples]*
8.50	**Statement with question-tag**	*[silence]*
	What rule must you adhere to?	
	Can you tell me the rule?	
	We use auxiliary verbs. How do we choose them? We use the same auxiliary. If the stem has no auxiliary?	didn't he *[chorus*]
	James went to town	did, does
	We take part of the verb to do	past
	What tense?	
	All right? Any questions?	
	[he moves on after 2-3 seconds]	
8.54	We also have true/false questions	
	[sums up what they should do: put pupils in groups, ask pre-questions before silent reading, include comprehension questions, which must be clear and grammatically correct. Make lessons lively; even in a class of 100, try to satisfy everyone.]	
	Move into groups of 8 for the demonstration	*[although this activity was prepared, they are slow to move]*
	Those observing should note any weaknesses and suggest improvements	

NB: **bold** indicates words/phrases written on the board by the tutor, *[italic square brackets indicate observer's comments]*

The tutor then spent the last ten minutes explaining a structured way of 'teaching spelling and dictation'. He told the students although it was not in the Handbook it was a useful strategy; unfortunately he had to go very fast and although it provoked some questions from students there was no time to discuss them. Mr. B had been a tutor for many years, and probably both the role-play and this last topic came from his own repertoire of teaching approaches.

3.2.4 Teaching Reading Skills in Stds. 3-8,

For this lesson at BTC four classes were combined in a large hall because of staff shortages, forming a group of over a hundred. Having listed the six reading skills given in the Handbook, Mr. C demonstrated three of them, playing a teacher's role and calling on the students act as the pupils. Pupil textbooks were handed out, one between 5-6 students. The lesson was fast-paced, delivered in a lively, humorous manner which kept students' attention; a good number responded, sometimes in chorus, and the tutor tried to alternate between male and female. (In spite of the majority being women, more men than women made individual responses). The lesson was focused entirely on methods, and the implication was that this is the only right way to do it; there was no discussion of the rationale behind these skills. Again, one hour is not long enough for students to comprehend and practice teaching such complex skills.

3.2.5 Pre-Reading Activities

The Handbook showed, with full illustrations, six different kinds of pre-reading activities - matching and copying shapes, jigsaws, etc. - and suggested students should discuss these and then do certain activities from Teacher's Guide for Std. 1. However, at St. Joseph's Mr. N. interpreted these suggestions in a traditional transmission style. The lesson as delivered consisted almost entirely of the tutor talking, writing definitions, purposes and examples on the board, while the students mainly listened, watched and copied. There were about 25 student responses during the lesson, mainly one word or phrase. The tutor distributed some copies of the Teacher's Guide, but no opportunity was given for students to practise or even talk about the activities. Five minutes was spent explaining the concept of making a jigsaw, using a large picture of a housefly (apparently a biology teaching aid, too valuable to cut up), but we felt the students needed concrete examples to handle before they understood the concept of a jigsaw puzzle.

3.3 Maths

In maths classes the tutors observed followed the Handbooks closely, trying to combine as suggested the content knowledge with the pedagogic content knowledge. We felt that neither were satisfactorily achieved.

3.3.1 Introducing Money

Mr. G's lesson at St. Joseph's on 'Introducing Money' in an infant class illustrates many key aspects of the way the curriculum was being delivered.

Most of the lesson was a kind of demonstration, whereby he taught them as though they were pupils. The dominant mode of interaction was question and (closed) answer, with students giving just one-word responses, though he also gave them a few coins to handle. Twice he put them briefly into groups to carry out some of the pupil activities, such as writing down all the coins that could make up 50 Tambala, or doing 'brass rubbings' of coins to show the pictures. The only mention of pedagogy came in

short comments from the tutor, one of which seems to sum up his own theory of teaching:

> Put pupils into groups to write the amounts until you are convinced they can do it. If you demonstrate first, the pupils will be able to do it.

In a similar way, he apparently believed that through his demonstrations, the student teachers were learning to teach the topic.

By treating the students as 'empty vessels' he was modelling for them a similar approach to pupils. Most of the students there must have taught this topic from the primary curriculum, but he took them straight through the whole unit, without asking them about how they had done it, nor what problems they had encountered. Equally, he did not suggest how they might find out whether the pupils were used to handling coins - which is likely at least in urban areas.

The lesson also showed how knowledge is 'packaged' into different subjects; the exercises involved writing as well as addition, but no link was made to language arts development, though there were units in English about matching and recognising patterns which were relevant to this topic.

The final exchange, in the last minutes of the lesson, illustrates two further points. Firstly, it raises issues about the way the problematic area of values education is handled. The cartoon was intended to stimulate a debate on materialism, but the tutor did not use it in this way. Secondly, it demonstrates very clearly the shared assumption that there is only one right way to teach something - a view often reflected in interviews with both staff and students - and that mere telling is sufficient for students to pick it up.

Fig. 3.6: Unit 17, Introducing Money, Mr. G., St. Joseph's

Tutor	**Students**
[indicates a cartoon in the text which has the slogan 'Some people think money is the most important thing in the world']	*[most answer in chorus]*
Why is money important?	It makes people happy
To be healthy you need?	Money
To have job satisfaction as a teacher you need?	Money
For a baby to grow you need?	Money
People say money is the most important thing there is. Is that true?	Yes
Are you sure?	Yes
[*lesson conclusion follows directly*]	
In what order will you teach this topic [introducing money]?	Recognition, identification, writing, expresssing value *[this has been written on the board earlier]*
Yes, you will do it this way. Thank you.	

3.3.2 Cash Accounts

The two lessons we saw on 'Cash Accounts' demonstrated some of the limits and opportunities of the text in the hands of teachers with different approaches. We

observed two tutors teaching the same unit and using very different strategies, as shown in Fig. 3.7 below.

At St. Joseph's, Mr. E's lesson was very teacher-centred; he spent almost half the time explaining and for most of the remainder he was writing on the board, reading from the Handbook, or posing questions to which there was an expected right answer. Student activity was limited to responding - either individually or in chorus - copying from the board or looking at the text.

By contrast, at BTC Mr. F's lesson was more varied and involved the students much more; at four different stages they were asked to write or discuss something, thus ensuring a degree of activity, while he circulated, watching, listening and supervising. His questioning encouraged the students to produce non-standard responses - such as 'begging, stealing' for ways of getting money - which were then discussed. He dissuaded them from getting answers from the Handbook, though they did look in them occasionally; he used the textbook example for the exercise, however. He was one of the few tutors to address students by name.

Fig. 3.7 (a): Unit 19, Cash Accounts - Tutors' Activity Pattern

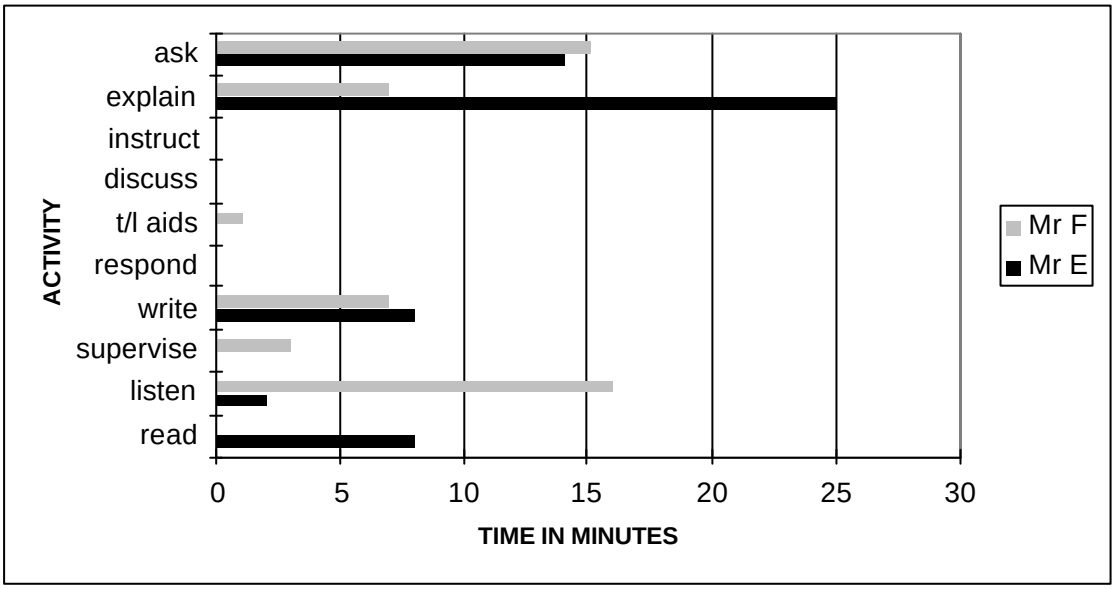
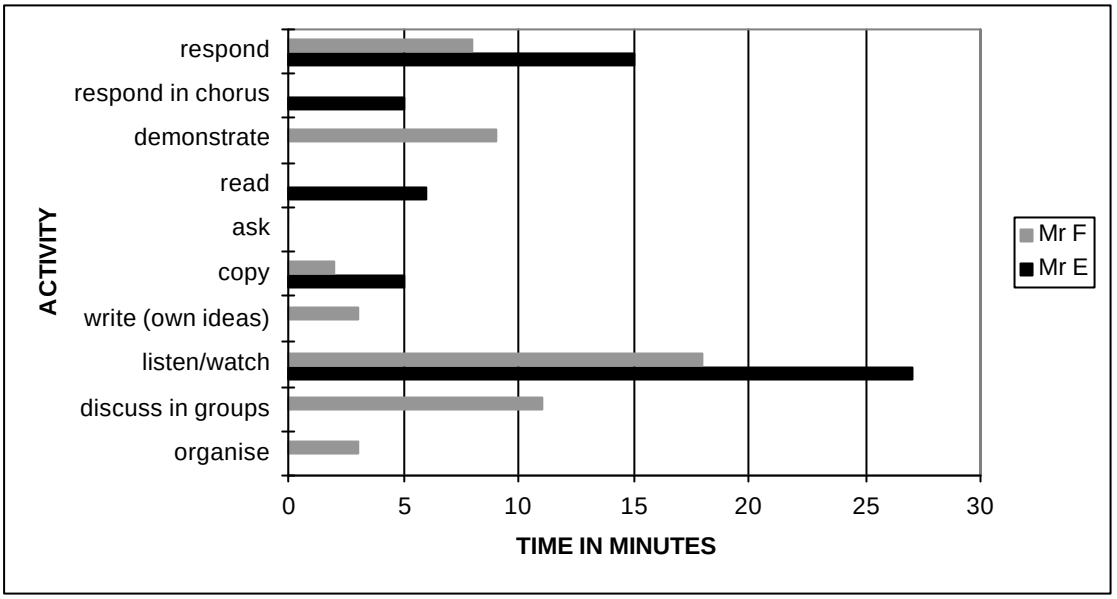


Fig. 3.7 (b): Unit 19, Cash Accounts – Students' Activity Pattern



The extract below shows something of the interactive style achieved in this lesson:

Fig. 3.8: Unit 19, Cash Accounts, Mr. F, BTC

Time	Tutor	Students
10.14	Which standard is this for? Anyone taught Std. 7? There won't be any demonstration! How do people get money? Write down your ideas. *[circulates]*	Std. 7 *[No one]* [*rustling papers, writing*]
10.17	Not an essay, a phrase. Yes? Another way? Is it good? No, but true	M by selling farm produce M by working for companies M by selling things W begging *[no]* M stealing W waiter
10.20	Same as employment. Now, if we get money we have an interest in controlling it. Write a definition of cash account without using the Handbooks and give it to a friend. *[circulates]* Who's ready? Give it to a friend to read	*[write]*
10.21	*[writes their answers on board]* Anything different? What have you got? Don't copy these. Read .... When teaching, find out what they know, then put them in groups, so get into groups	W record of cash W record of a **business book** W Book for **record of cash** - **Record of transactions** - **record of receipts and payments**
10.25	Quickly discuss the reasons why people keep accounts *[circulates]* OK, 1,2, or 3 points	[*get quickly into groups and start talking]*
10.26	Who is ready? Let's stop, come to the front and let's listen	*[two points given, unclear. Students are still talking]*

	Next group [writes on board] Mr. X, just read new ones *[writes]* Thank you, I hadn't written that. Any different ones? *[conducts a brief discussion about whether this is the same as a previous point]* What do you mean by accountability? Mr.Y? Can we dispute it? Let's go over this.	W For **accountability, future plans, as source of information,, for decision-making** *[these are in book]* M to **find out if you are making a profit or a loss** M to have a plan how I can gain [*murmurs from others]* M To have records about profit or loss *[long, inaudible]*

[W=woman, M=man; **bold**=tutor wrote these answers on the board]

After he had demonstrated the two main parts of a cash account, with students providing both oral and written examples, he placed them in groups as suggested in the handbook, moving the desks to create proper circles, to produce their own set of accounts. There was a task-oriented buzz and almost everyone was involved, but there was only time for one group to present their work before the bell went.

The objectives given for this unit in the Handbook include pedagogic ones: e.g. students will be able to 'Teach how to enter transactions in cash account columns' and 'Teach how to balance cash account'. Although both tutors did mention pupils several times, there was no explicit pedagogic content knowledge given, apart from the experience of doing the exercises themselves. Mr. E. concluded with a vague: 'This way you are guiding the pupils'. Mr. F. was a little more precise, advising them: 'In Standard 7... give the pupils opportunities to present their work to the class, discuss it with them, then give them more practice.' To some extent he had modelled this. However, without further practice themselves it seems doubtful whether they had understood the topic well enough to be able to teach it, nor was there any discussion of problems primary students might have with the material.

When interviewed, Mr. F. displayed a great interest in the new methods being developed by the Primary Community Schools Project, for which he had been a trainer. He talked about how he and his students tried to find Chichewa ways of expressing various mathematical concepts. He seemed to be someone looking for new ideas, but his application for an overseas scholarship had been rejected and he found little support locally for his own professional development.

3.3.3 Geometrical Figures

The most 'traditional' lesson was on geometrical figures, where Mr. H followed the traditional methods of asking, explaining, writing on the board, and waiting for the students to complete copying. It was a typical lecture with virtually no student input; there were approximately 14 student responses, mostly one word, in the course of the hour. One problem was that he tried to cover the properties of triangles, quadrilaterals and finally the circle, in one period - such rushing through the material inevitably leads to transmission methods, though the text of the Handbook here was suggesting a much more participatory approach.

The text gave the definitions and then focussed on how to teach the shapes to pupils using sticks as well as paper and pencil, and how to use the environment to identify shapes. The tutor did not give the students any activities, but just talked his way through all the examples. He showed one teaching aid, a square made of strips of paper as suggested in the text and mentioned the primary curriculum several times. He added in some maths that was not in the Unit e.g. how to measure angles with a protractor because Std. 7 pupils have to do this, and asked them to remember their own Form 1 and 2 geometry for the names of the angles.

After describing various kinds of angles in quadrilaterals he ended the lesson with some advice: 'Pupils have to be helped to understand these terms. We haven't got time to look at different types. Look at the Teachers' Guide for Std. 5. Go through the test papers and the Handbook.'

It is interesting that Mr. H. had studied Maths Education in UK, but his didactic teaching style reflected the dominant tradition in Malawi.

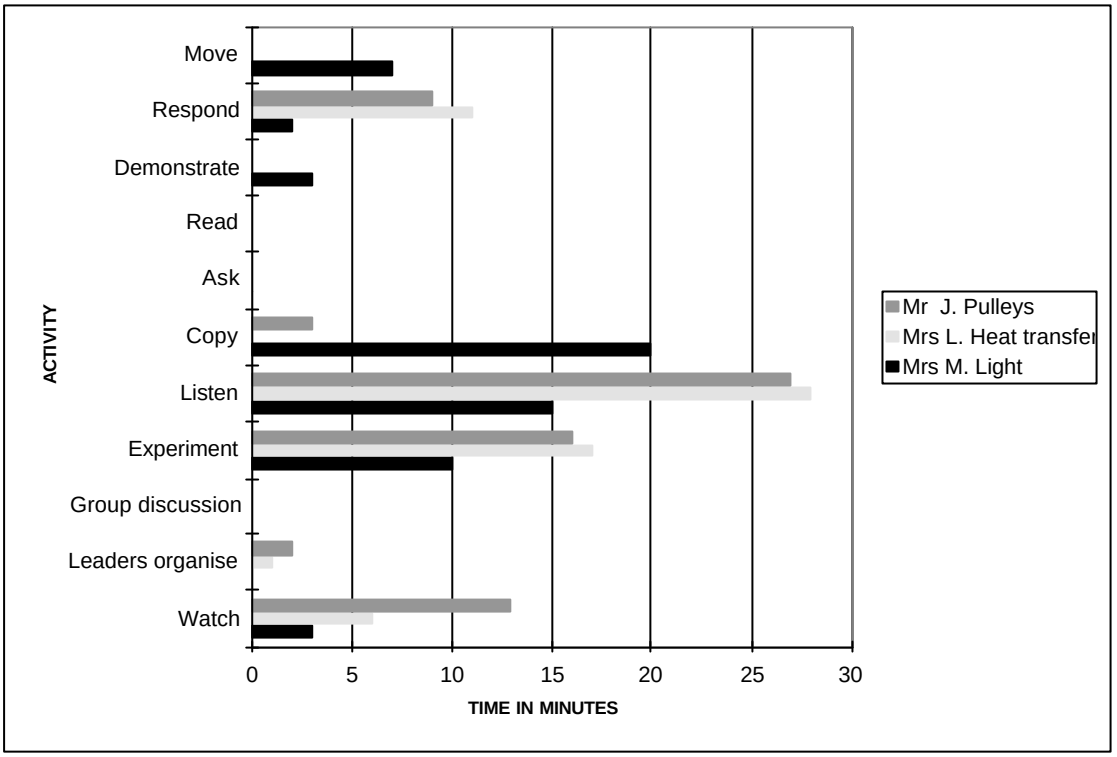
3.4 Science

We observed three physics lessons and one home economics lesson, which was taught by a member of the science department at St. Joseph's.

3.4.1 Physics

In the physics lessons, which were broadly similar, the students were mainly involved in watching the demonstrations, carrying out experiments and listening to explanations. Considerable time was also spent on just moving about the laboratories or waiting for tutors to set up apparatus. Of concern was the absence of discussion amongst the students in the groups on what they were doing. Fig.3.9 below shows the three classes in which the students followed a similar pattern of activity. Tutors set up activities for students but the mode of teaching was predominantly transmissive. Typically, the students participate but do not initiate any debate or activity and nor is opportunity for debate provided by the tutors. The learning situation demands little mental involvement. The tutor explains and instructs. The students listen, do what they are told and wait when they are not engaged. It may be that Science tutors have not learned other ways of teaching Science.

Fig. 3.9: Science Lessons - Students' Activity Patterns



The physics lessons - on heat transfer, pulleys and light - all followed the outline given in the Handbooks as closely as they could, given the lack of equipment. In the lesson on pulleys, at St. Joseph's, there were sufficient materials for four groups of students to carry out one experiment. At BTC, the experiments on heat transfer were mostly demonstrated by the tutor; even when she set up groupwork, there were only two beakers and burners among 50 students, so most had to watch passively. It was even doubtful whether they could all see what was happening. There was no lab technician to prepare materials, most of which came from the tutor's home!

On the plus side, the tutor included an experiment which was not in the book, which aroused a lot of interest. The lesson was lively, and most of the students seemed to understand the main ideas, though they were not asked to write down their own summaries of the experiments. On the other hand, one of the Handbook activities done by the students involved a misconception that the tutor did not challenge. The students had to pass a board-duster from one to another, to demonstrate how energy is passed on from one molecule to another. In such a model the molecule which initially had energy would be left with no energy after the transfer, but the tutor did not question this.

As mentioned earlier, the science units were aimed simply at teaching scientific knowledge, rather than showing the students how to teach primary science. The tutors did mention in passing certain aspects of classroom practice, such as safety measures, or how to involve a school class, but there was no deliberate preparation for science teaching, either through practising of skills or through discussion of how children learn science.

3.4.2 Cleaning Rooms

The home economics lesson, while not strictly 'science', took place within the same department at St.Joseph's and offered something of a contrast, as it modelled how such practical lessons might be taught in primary school. It was a double period on 'how to clean rooms' with the first hour given to theory and the second to practice. Though the classroom was much too small for the group, the pinboard was covered with pictures and diagrams.

The lesson was based to a large degree on students' own knowledge and the Handbook was not used. The pace was lively, and the interchanges brisk. After about 20 minutes of question-and-answer, the students were randomly divided into groups and sent outside to discuss, which they did enthusiastically, reporting back in their own words. The lesson was notable for providing a few examples of students initiating questions and comments on other groups' reports. Doubtless this class of women students felt on familiar ground when talking about housework, and when encouraged by an energetic and sympathetic tutor - she was also the Student Counsellor - showed there was indeed potential for such kinds of student-centred teaching.

3.5 Foundation Studies

We observed four lessons, two in each college. Although they covered different topics, they all used groupwork in different ways, and can be compared pedagogically.

This part of the Foundation Studies syllabus focuses on 'knowledge of learners and their characteristics'. The suggested pedagogy includes group and class discussions; occasionally students are asked to write their own notes. The units are structured around topics, which mainly comprise lists of definitions and theoretical facts; in spite of the rhetoric about eliciting students' ideas, the Handbook assumptions here seems to reflect a transmission style. One tutor, however, was able to adapt the material to a more participatory approach.

3.5.1 Childhood and Adolescence

At St. Joseph's Mr. N.'s lesson was part of a series of units on child development: The objective was phrased as:

students will be able to discuss what children are able to do during childhood and adolescence stages. Suggested teaching aids included: charts, video, OHP, diagrams of stages of development. None of these were used, although the college did possess the relevant equipment.

The text of the unit comprised lists of 'characteristics and achievements' for each of three stages of child development (see Fig.3.10). The implied pedagogy was to elicit specific pre-determined answers from the students. There was no suggestion of groupwork or any student activity other than class discussion.

Fig.3.10: Unit 29, Childhood and Adolescence - structure given in handbook

Focus	*Activity*
Early childhood (2-6 years)	Let students suggest characteristics/achievements of the young child; discuss the results and summarise them as follows:
Middle childhood (7-12 years)	Ask students to list characteristics/achievements …….. They should come up with the following:
Adolescence (12-16 years)	Discuss with your students ..... They should come up with the following:

Rather than asking students to come up with their own ideas before referring to the text, the tutor went through the text with the students, explaining the points. But when he wrote on the board he labelled the stages differently from the headings in the book, which may have confused students; adolescence was not touched on. As can be seen from Fig.3.11, the first half of the lesson was dominated by the teacher, while students became more involved in the second half. The tutor, however, continued his 'telling' style even during the report-back. (As groupwork was not suggested by the text; he may have done it to impress the observers.)

Fig. 3.11: Unit 29, Childhood and Adolescence, as taught by Mr. N, St. Joseph's

No. of Minutes	*Focus*	*Activity*
[6]	*[late start]*	*[students entering]*
3	recap of last lesson	question and answer
5	introduction	explanation with some questions
10	early childhood	referring to Handbook, tutor explains, calling on some students to answer questions; they also use the book. There is a brief discussion about a point in the text whose meaning is obscure to all (including the observers)
6	middle childhood 5-7	referring to points under early childhood, labelled 5-7 years, he explains what the implications are for teachers.
15	late childhood 7-12	puts students in groups to discuss 'implications for teachers' of the points listed in the SHT under 'middle childhood'.
13	report-back	group leaders report; tutor asks, expands, paraphrases, explains

The task: to discuss 'the implications for teachers of the characteristics of middle childhood' was quite high-level. The students did not appear used to working in groups, and the group observed - apparently the weakest - did not 'discuss'; they did not fully understand either the task or the text, and spent time reading sentences from the book and explaining them to each other, sometimes in the vernacular. The observer's attempts to explain the task were unsuccessful. Other groups came up with conventional answers about good teaching, rather than linking this to the child's development. Thus it cannot be said that the objective was achieved.

This lesson illustrated well the tutor's apparent reluctance to draw on the students' own lived experience and practical knowledge, and the consequent divorce of theory from practice, as well as the cultural gap mentioned earlier. Talking about young children, he said at one point: 'You as mothers know...' but then he told them what in theory they should know rather than eliciting their own practical knowledge. He

followed the text in asserting that the young child 'is ego-centric, engages in solitary play' without enquiring how far this Western finding applies to Malawian children living in different kinds of communities. 'Children ask a lot of questions' also passed without comment - yet many African cultures discourage children from questioning adults, and this might have formed a good starting point for discussing interactive child-centred pedagogy and its relevance to modern schooling in Africa.

It is hard to escape the conclusion that in this lesson theory was being taught for its own sake, quite divorced from the real world of the classroom. The important question is whether the students manage to bridge the gap in any useful way, and this requires further research.

3.5.2 Handling Children with intellectual learning difficulties

Mrs.Q. at BTC produced a rather different kind of lesson, albeit on a more practical topic, with the objective: to 'identify and discuss different kinds of intellectual learning difficulties; describe how to handle such children'.

The unit itself was well-focused and short enough to be covered in an hour; the lesson followed the structure suggested in the Handbook quite closely, including groupwork. The class appeared familiar with groupwork and participated well in the discussion. During the group leaders reports, the tutor probed, and encouraged other students to reply, leading to cross-group discussion. This lesson was the closest that we observed to the 'participatory' mode espoused by the Handbook.

Fig. 3.12: Unit 36, handling children with intellectual learning difficulties, Mrs. Q, BTC

Minutes	Focus	Activity
[12]	*[unobserved]*	
4	characteristics of children with learning difficulties	Tutor Q. & A., a few responses
20	how to handle such children	groupwork; tutor circulates; students participate freely in most groups
22	ditto	reports from group leaders; tutor responds mainly by asking probing questions; calls on others to contribute; some explanations given; she corrects pronunciation
1	closure	tutor thanks class for participating.

As Fig. 3.13 shows, Mrs Q.'s lesson was less didactic than Mr. N'; the actual numbers for tutor's 'listening' may be small, but are significant in a context where this rarely happens. The observer's notes show clearly that the quality of discussion was much higher.

Fig. 3.13 (a): Foundation Studies Lessons - Tutors' Activity Patterns

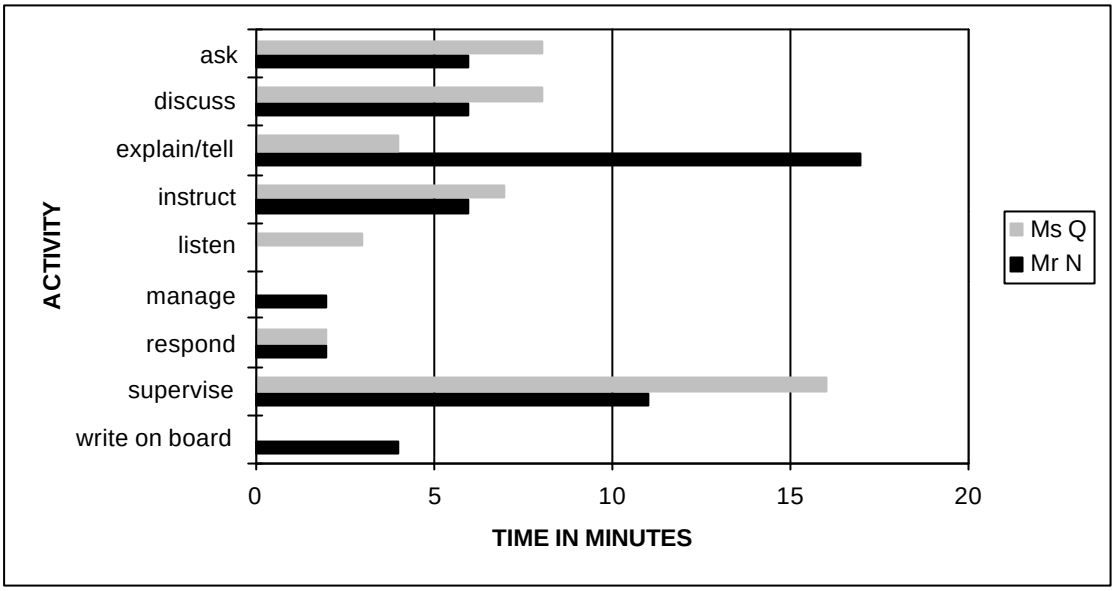
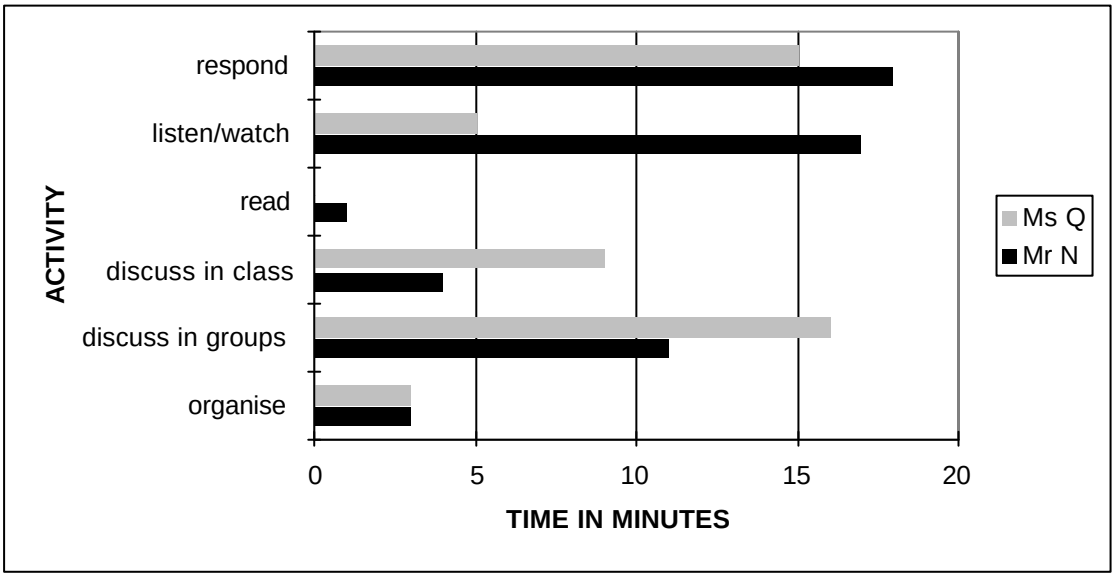


Fig. 3.13 (b): Foundation Studies Lessons - Students' Activity Patterns



3.5.3 Handling Gifted Children

At St. Joseph's we saw Sr. P. teach a lesson on 'Handling Gifted Children'. For this unit, the Handbook simply suggested students should sit in groups to discuss how to handle such children. However, the tutor divided the lesson into five stages:

1) a recap of the previous unit about defining and describing gifted children;
2) discussion in groups;
3) group reports;
4) copying the summaries from the board;
5) discussion of problems with such children, based on their own experience.

The tutor had recently joined the college, having been head of a primary school. She stuck closely to the text, in that while acknowledging all student answers, only those from the Handbook were written up on the board. This produced, for example, a very positive image of 'the gifted child'.

Stage 5 was probably due to observer influence; while students were writing the notes the tutor was asked whether she drew on their prior experience in school, so she began to question them about it. The descriptions of the 'gifted child' thrown up in this question and answer session were quite different from that in the Handbook - such as 'noisy, quarrelsome, asking irrelevant questions, correcting the teacher's spelling' - but there was not time to explore them fully. The final few minutes of the lesson went as follows:

Fig. 3.14: Unit 40, handling gifted children, Sr. P., St. Joseph's

Tutor	**Students**
What do you do when they challenge the teacher?	Give a harder exercise
What do you do when he asks a question you can't answer?	
What do you do when they don't want to help?	Tell him you'll answer next day
	[silence]
If you want them to help others you put them in a group	keep them busy?
Is there any questions?	
It seems most of you did not know about what the gifted child is, or how to handle them	*[silence]*
[gives some more advice]	
Can you tell us about a gifted child you came across?	
[summarises] Now you are going to know who are gifted children and how to handle them.	*[silence]*
Any other questions?	
Punish the rudeness. What kind of punishment?	How do you deal with rudeness?
Tell him first why.	Tell him to sweep
How long?	Keep him standing
Only a few minutes	The whole period
Tell the Headteacher	What if the problem persists?
Any other questions?	
	What do you do if the gifted child disturbs others?
Arrange groups according to the relationship among the children	
[Bell goes]	

At the very end of the lesson, the students were beginning to talk about their own experience, and to ask questions based on it, which shows that with different handling, a dialogue might be established.

3.6 Discussion Points

- From the observations we can see that while the subjects are taught very much as set out in the Handbooks, individual tutors can and do adapt the 'units' to their own personal practice and style. They seldom depart far from the actual content - even when it is shallow or misleading - but some make more effort to get closer to the espoused interactive approach than others. Although there were no striking differences between colleges, tutors at BTC seemed in general more aware of new

ideas than those at St. Joseph's, and the lessons closest to the participatory model all occurred there.

- The classroom's eye view raises some new questions concerning the way teaching was organised. Certainly there is too much material to cover, but it was disturbing to find up to 15-20% of lesson time being wasted. Many classes were doubled up; how far was this really necessary in the light of average teaching loads of 12-13 periods per week? Smaller classes would have made interactive teaching easier. Where students had been told to prepare, the lesson was much livelier; there was certainly scope for training students to read ahead in the Handbooks and to come to class prepared to participate in debate and discussion.

- The overall resemblance to traditional secondary school teaching was noticeable, and may reflect many tutors' training and/or experience. Methods used were mainly exposition by the tutor intermingled with question-and-answer sessions, with some rudimentary groupwork. Questions were generally l ow level and often closed; students would answer in one word, sometimes in chorus. Some tutors gave students notes. Continuous assessment, such as it was, took the form of exercises or tests rather than essay or project work. Much of the teaching appeared exam-driven, with students and tutors evidencing more concern about passing these hurdles than about teaching better when they returned to school.

- The whole course seemed to be about transmitting knowledge, rather than facilitating professional learning through reflection on theory and practice. It reinforced the authoritarian rather than the dialogic approach, since there was no encouragement for students to argue or challenge. The knowledge accorded high status was that found in books or given by tutors, while personal practical knowledge, such as that possessed by the students through their experience as pupils, teachers and even as parents, was devalued. Both tutors and students shared this view, so to that extent there was consistency of expectations.

CHAPTER 4

EVALUATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will summarise some of the views of the participants about MIITEP about the residential block, describe briefly what happens in the remainder of the programme, and then draw out some of the implications of the findings. It should be borne in mind that the course has been subject to monitoring by TDU and some modifications have been made, so our findings relate only to the periods of data collection.

4.2 Tutors' views

In our interviews it was clear that many tutors were dissatisfied both with student achievement on the course and with aspects of the course itself, but that these were both linked to other factors.

Tutors in general felt that while the course looked good on paper, it had been fraught with implementation problems, which they attributed to lack of planning by TDU and lack of financial support from the MOE. They praised the Handbooks, but criticised the college period as far too short, resulting in a 'crash course' with far too much to be covered in a short time. In particular, they regretted that there were so few opportunities for the students to practise teaching skills at the college, which they perceive as the most important element in training teachers.

They were particularly angry disappointed that they had not been given time to visit their students in the field. Supervising teaching practice used to be both professionally and financially rewarding for them but now that role was confined to rushed visits for terminal assessment, in which they did not even visit their own students. They knew that for various reasons the school-based training had started late, and they mistrusted the ability of Heads and PEAs to supervise student teachers effectively.

Tutors complained both about the students' academic background and their perceived attitudes. Only those with MSCE - mainly participating in Cohorts 1 and 3 - they said, were capable of following the programme successfully. Students were considered to have poor communication abilities, to show little interest, and thought to be shy or lazy. Some were said to have given up; others frequently absented themselves. Their English language skills were seen as too poor; they were unable to study on their own and 'expected to be spoon-fed'. One tutor thought their maturity made them less biddable, while another thought it was an asset.

In sum, tutors were comparing both the programme and the students negatively with their earlier professional experiences. They were expecting to produce outcomes similar to those they had achieved in past years, and were disappointed and frustrated

at being unable to achieve them. They believed the programme would not turn out an 'effective teacher' by their definition, and they felt powerless to improve the situation.

4.3 Students' views

We drew on different sets of data and from different cohorts: firstly focus group interviews with Cohort 6, supplemented by parts of the 'entry' questionnaire administered to them early in the residential block; secondly, parts of the 'exit' questionnaire given to Cohort 2 during the revision period were scanned for preliminary impressions, pending more detailed analysis.

Interviewed midway through the residential block, Cohort 6 were relatively positive about the course, though this may have been a function of the focus group situation and the status of the interviewer. With two exceptions, they said all the material was new, and singled out Foundations, together with methods for English and Maths, as the most important. They agreed they had 'changed' since coming on the course, but a number added: 'we need to learn more'. Though no one admitted to feeling confident yet, some thought they could now perform better in class, and had acquired new methods. They felt they had learnt the 'right ways' of doing things, especially how to plan lessons and to write schemes of work, skills like introducing a lesson, managing the class, and differentiating between pupils of different abilities. As one summed it up:

> We are learning a lot and all the things are important. The experience we have gained here will make us be good teachers so that the children will be able to understand what we will teach them.[Woman, MSCE, St. Joseph's trainee]

However, none volunteered that they had learnt about active and participatory learning, gender or equity issues, how to manage large classes, language issues, or how to improvise their own teaching/learning materials.

There were some differences between the categories of students. Those with MSCE generally thought the course was fair, and could discriminate between the topics they found useful or not, while those with JC were finding it very tough, yet insisting all the topics were very important to them. However, even an MSCE student admitted:

> We are learning so many things, but there is too much work; it is difficult to grasp.[Woman, MSCE, BTC trainee]

All relied heavily on the Handbooks, and said they needed tutors' notes because other teaching and learning materials were not available, and that it was not easy to follow the Handbooks on their own. All felt the course was too short, and focussed on preparing for the examinations.

The 'entry' questionnaire included two open-ended questions on how life in college was, respectively, 'good' and 'difficult'. Three main positive themes emerged. On the cognitive side, they agreed they were gaining 'new knowledge and skills which will improve our teaching'. From a professional perspective, more than half celebrated the opportunities to 'share ideas and learn from fellow teachers' – few mentioned tutors in that light. And a large proportion also mentioned the social benefits of making new

friends and learning to work with people from other tribes and areas. These last two can be termed part of the 'hidden curriculum' and show the importance of bringing isolated and inexperienced teachers together in an environment, whatever its shortcomings, where they can study 'away from the pressures of home', as some put it.

On the negative side the material environment predominated. Half the sample mentioned the poor diet as a major problem, and many of the BTC group complained about shortages of electricity, water and sanitation. Another theme was the short, crammed nature of the course: 'we have to learn in 3 months what took other teachers two years'. Problems in living together also appeared, such as students who quarrelled or disturbed others, but these came mainly from St. Joseph's and were rare compared to the positive comments.

It was apparent that students did not rate their tutors very highly. There were considerably more negative remarks, especially at BTC, than positive ones, the main complaints being absent or too busy to teach. Another group wrote more enigmatically about 'learning not going well'. Overall, St. Joseph's students seemed more satisfied with their teaching/learning, but a substantial group (20% of the sample) from this college wanted to be treated with more respect and consideration. As one wrote: 'We are married women but they treat us like children'.

At this early stage of the course, students were happy that at last they had the chance to gain new knowledge and skills from tutors, but felt they were not treated with the respect they deserved. In contrast, they enjoyed the professional and social opportunities for informal learning from colleagues. They looked forward to 'certification', when they would feel equal to their colleagues in school.

4.4 Rest of the course

For the sake of completeness we will here summarise what happened after the residential block. For further details on the school-based component see the report by Kunje and Chirembo (Discussion paper 12).

4.4.1 School-based component

The school-based training component of MIITEP got off to a very slow start but by September 1999, when the research was carried out in schools, it was supposed to be fully functioning. However, it was clear that the level and quality of support in most schools was low. Heads and deputies were supervising students much less frequently than they were supposed to do, apparently from a mixture of lack of time, inadequate training, and disinclination to undertake this extra work for no pay. However, students found their advice helpful and wanted more of it. Support from qualified teachers was also sparse, and often depended on chance or an individual's goodwill. It was rare that the Head made formal arrangements for them to help the trainees, even where there were sufficient qualified teachers to do so. The latter also lacked training, and did not see it as part of their role.

External supervision also happened less in reality than in the design. Most PEAs visited infrequently, and combined supervision with assessment, in order to cover as many students as possible, rather than giving structured support towards defined goals. There was, however, one example of good practice where the PEAs visited the same student three times, and were thus able to build on what had gone before.

College tutors were not sent out to supervise any students until five cohorts had done the residential component. They were then given four weeks to cover both Cohorts 1 and 2, which meant at best one visit per student, used just for assessment. In some cases they were able to see only part of a lesson, and some students were not seen at all.

Students were able to complete most of their projects and assignments, but reported severe struggles to find the necessary time and resources, since the schools could offer little help. They found the zonal seminars very useful, particularly as it gave a chance to meet fellow-trainees and share experiences, just as they had done in college. Unfortunately, no district had managed to hold a complete series of seminars, due to lack of funding, so a number of topics were not covered.

In effect, the students continued learning much as they had before, through an informal apprenticeship, although with somewhat more supervision, and with the assignments as a 'continual reminder', as one put it, that they were students. They could at least now feel that attention had been paid to them, and that they were on the road to becoming qualified. Whether they were teaching more effectively is still an open question, to be addressed by another study.

4.4.2 Final Revision block

During this four-week period the timetable and organisation was similar to that during the first residential block. Departments drew up lists of topics they considered needed revision, based partly on what had not been fully covered earlier. Since few zonal seminars had taken place with Cohort 2, there was too much to cover in the allotted time. The internal Teaching Practice at the demonstration schools continued to take place one morning a week; this was for students who had not been given a TP grade while in the schools.

It should be noted that the female students who had babies were particularly disadvantaged because they were not allowed to live in the hostels. They had to find lodging outside, and commute to and from college. These added burdens consumed part of their revision time. In Cohort 2, some 30-40 women were in this position. The message about equal opportunities did not seem to have reached the college administration.

4.5 The college blocks in retrospect

The survey data collected from Cohort 2 during the revision period included questions relating to the residential periods at college and some of their views will be summarised here.

Looking back over their two and a half years of training, there was an overwhelming call for more time in college, and for more time to study all topics under the tutors' guidance. This confirmed our observations in college that they found it difficult to study on their own. The clearest call was for more time on content in all the main subjects, with maths emerging as the subject they found most difficult. Only half said they had 'learnt what they wanted' from college, and only a quarter said they felt well-prepared to teach, with a large group indicating particular subjects which gave them problems in class. It seems the course has not given them the necessary grounding in their subject matter to teach it with confidence.

In spite of the long period in school, this group still felt they also needed more time on teaching methods. They seemed to rate quite highly the college-based Teaching Practice, in spite of its limitations; at least it enabled them to observe each other and discuss lessons with the guidance of an experienced supervisor. This strongly suggests that Cohort 2 had not been given adequate supervision and support in schools to help them improve their practical teaching, though this may be improving for later cohorts.

The survey confirmed that students did not, overall, rate the college teaching or their tutors particularly highly. In a data set where students tended to give very positive answers to everything, their comments sound relatively luke-warm: teaching is rated good or average rather than excellent, tutors are not seen as particularly caring or helpful, and some are thought to mark unfairly. However, the survey was administered when the students were under stress preparing for the final exam, which may well have biased their answers towards being critical of their tutors.

4.6 How far has MIITEP succeeded in its curricular aims?

This is difficult to answer precisely because, as shown in Chapter 2, the aims are not altogether clear, and different stakeholders interpret them differently in line with their own agendas. The MIE and donors had in mind a programme that would not only train the unqualified teachers, but would also prepare them to bring new methods into schools. The tutors still thought in terms of previous programmes, and had not materially changed their views about teaching and learning. The trainees hoped to learn useful knowledge and skills, but their main concern was to acquire a qualification.

One clear finding concerns the tension between the 'traditional' and the 'progressive' tendencies, with the former still predominating. At the level of rhetoric, there was certainly an awareness among some tutors of the need for more interactive approaches, at least in relation to practice in the primary classroom. Students cited 'groupwork' and 'communicative methodology in English' as 'new things' they had learnt about at college. On the other hand, it seemed the tutors themselves continued to base their own practice on the assumptions of the behavioural paradigm as described in Chap. 1, with an emphasis on teaching rather than learning, on skills and behaviours, and on recall of knowledge. This was reinforced by some of the materials and by the assessment methods.

Overall, a technical rather than a reflective view of training emerges, along the lines of: 'we tell the students what to do, we show them, let them practise, and then they

will be able to do it.' There was no talk of reflective practice, or of preparing the teachers for an extended professional role. They are simply expected to become more efficient deliverers of the curriculum.

This is congruent with the authoritarian stance towards professional knowledge – both in the Handbooks and among the tutors - and a reluctance to listen to the students' experiences. 'Participatory learning' usually meant that students would be given some activities to do or allowed to talk about some ideas; they were still, however, expected to arrive at the 'one right answer'. Tutors and students shared this view: one tutor said: 'Students should teach the way I taught them', and several students commented to the effect that: 'At school we did it the wrong way; here we are being taught the right methods'. There was no discussion of why something that worked well in one context might have to be adapted by the teacher in another.

Changes to such deep-seated assumptions and practices are always difficult to bring about and slow to take root. In this particular case we can point to some practical constraints involving the tutors, the students, the level of resourcing, and external organisational aspects, all of which contributed to the lack of movement.

Firstly, the tutors were unprepared for the change. They still thought in terms of the traditional 'good teacher' rather than acknowledging that the new Malawian dispensation required different cultural and political attitudes. They were mostly under-qualified for their work and their own professional education had not equipped them to take on the role of curriculum developer. They were given effectively no in-service to help them understand the new paradigm of teaching and learning. In addition, their morale was already low for other reasons, and the task of teaching six cohorts in a row, with no leave and an ever-increasing marking load of field-based assignments, was not conducive to experimentation. (A later paper will deal with the tutors' perspectives in more detail.)

Secondly, the student were also unprepared, in several ways. The majority were JC holders with poor language skills, struggling to cope with the material. Like MSCE holders they were used to didactic teaching/learning methods in their own schoooling, and would need to be taught how to learn in new ways. Yet the course did not include either study skills nor remedial English; in this sense it was badly matched to the entrants' needs.

Thirdly, a new curriculum, especially one requiring new classroom methods, requires a basic level of resourcing in the form of books, equipment, consumables, materials for making visual aids, etc. as a necessary if not sufficient condition for its proper implementation. These were not available in enough quantities.

Underlying all this was the poor organisation by TDU and the MOE. The design of the course required a lot of people and agencies to act in concert. To synchronise the activities of the key players, all supporters and implementers needed to have their inputs - human and financial - ready at the outset. Late deliveries and unkept promises promoted scepticism, and all this militated against the successful implementation of MIITEP.

But perhaps the key problem lies further back, in the dual role that MIITEP was expected to perform. It was designed in the first place to train a large number of teachers in a short time to cope with the influx of primary students; this would involve giving them a basic practical survival course to enable them to function in the schools as they are at present. But at the same time, it aspired to produce innovative teachers ready and able to move the primary schools towards more 'progressive' methods. This seems unrealistic: it is virtually impossible for new young teachers to act as change agents in schools which by their very nature are hierarchical institutions constrained by authority and community expectations. Until and unless the schools themselves are persuaded of the value of such changes, the new teachers will be powerless to effect them.

4.7 Discussion of ways forward

The Malawi situation is a very difficult one and the Ministry faces a number of dilemmas. Many more teachers have to be trained but the quality of applicants is below previously acceptable academic standards and there is neither time nor money to put trainees through a conventional 2-3 year training course. The schools – over-crowded, poorly staffed and under-resourced – are not conducive training environments. MIITEP tried to square the circle, and it is hardly surprising that its first attempts should fall below initial expectations. It seems inevitable that for the foreseeable future initial training will have to be done on the job, within the structural constraints created by the need to train large numbers over short periods of time. In the following discussion, we focus on what we see as the key factors which influence the realisation of MIITEP – the overall timing and structure, the curriculum, the students, tutors and the colleges – and make some preliminary suggestions.

4.7.1 The Structure

Everyone says the residential parts of the course should be longer. Given the low entry qualifications of the students, and the fact they are being trained to teach 12 subjects, there is indeed too much to cover. Comparable courses usually have more time (ZINTEC in Zimbabwe had 8 months in college). Costs may preclude a conventional three-year residential course, but consideration should be given to extending one or both blocks by 2-3 months. There are personal and professional benefits to students from the 'hidden curriculum' of the collegial experience. At the same time, it would be necessary to make both college-based and school-based training more effective, and to revise the content of the curriculum so as to ensure adequate coverage of the key training components.

The system obtaining in 1996-8, with cohorts following each other end-on, laid huge burdens on staff, with consequent diminution in morale and teaching effectiveness. There needs to be a sufficient gap between the residential blocks for tutors to carry out their other duties, such as visiting schools, marking exams and the assignments sent in from the field, attending in-service workshops – and taking some leave (some of our interviewees had not taken a holiday in the last two years, apparently commuting their leave allowance into a cash payment!).

4.7.2 The Teacher Educators

The key to the whole process is the college tutors, and their neglect at the inception of MIITEP was a major weakness. Although some took part in writing the Handbooks, as a group they were not part of the decision-making process, and the two-week orientation they were given by TDU, unsupported by any follow-up, was woefully inadequate. They do not appear to feel much ownership of MIITEP, nor do they seem fully to understand the innovatory aspects of its mission; indeed, many resent the new approaches and feel uncomfortable with them. They felt they were doing a good job before, and that MIITEP forces them to lower their standards. In their hands it is not – and cannot be – a 'new' course, but rather a watered-down version of an old Malawian model.

As many tutors have retired or are nearing retiring age, there is a window of opportunity to engage a new group with a fresh attitude to school-based training, who have experience of the new developments taking place in the primary schools. All tutors, new and in post, should be offered professional development programmes that will enable them to upgrade their qualifications to at least B.Ed. level, with appropriate focus on new developments in both subject content, pedagogy and learning theory. This applies particularly to the Foundation Studies staff, who need to be aware of current international changes in the relevant disciplines, but who are also prepared to consider how these can best be adapted and made appropriate to the local educational and cultural context – no small task! Maths and Science departments should also be given priority.

Even after academic upgrading, tutors will need some regular professional development activities. Some of these might be channelled through departments; the Head of Departments already seem to carry responsibilities for induction of new staff, and developing their role, with remuneration, might be an incentive to keep them within the profession. There is need for a comprehensive strategy for career development of this small but essential cadre of staff; the new Planning and Investment Framework may provide a starting point.

The kinds of changes envisaged in the 'progressive' strand of MIITEP will take a long time to implement system-wide. A necessary, though not sufficient, prerequisite is that college staff fully understand and adopt these ideas in their own teaching, so that the concepts permeate the college experience for the trainees. It is of course also necessary that these are reinforced by the school experience, and that the colleges work closely with the school-based trainers, a topic discussed more fully by Kunje and Chirembo (op.cit.). It is essential that there are exemplars, in both college and schools, of the new approaches in action to inspire the new generation of teachers.

4.7.3 The Curriculum

This was drawn up in haste and perhaps the curriculum developers were not able to be 'radical' enough, in the sense of making root and branch changes. The programme is essentially a condensed version of previous courses, predicated on college-based rather than school-based training, and written with MSCE students in mind. It appears to contain a number of contradictions and mismatches, perhaps because there was no

time to pilot either methods or materials. Many students have found it difficult, and emerging evidence suggests it has not met its main objectives.

The production of the Student-Teacher Handbooks was a substantial achievement and they have given a very useful structure to the course. There are, however, considerable differences in the way subjects are treated. It seems imperative for the TDU, colleges and all subject panels hold a wide-ranging review about how far the students can be upgraded in their subject and how much time should be devoted to teaching methods, given the experience the students bring with them, and the (hopefully improving) support and coaching in the schools. Maths appears to present particular problems and the syllabus may need substantial revision.

There are also discrepancies within the Handbook texts: for example, there is often confusion about whether the tutor or the students are being addressed and the didactic content is often at odds with the espoused emphasis on open and participatory learning. The two self-study books follow the same format as those used in college and make little use of the school environment. The Handbooks need revising to cover the above points; they could perhaps address themselves specifically to the cooperating teachers and the PEAs as well as the students, and to offer a structure for classroom-based activities.

The curriculum is mismatched in several ways to the needs of these in-service teachers. Firstly, many come with inadequate educational preparation, so the curriculum should include remedial or bridging components, particularly in English language skills but probably also in Maths. Secondly, they need to 'learn how to learn' – a course on Study Skills should form part of the first month's teaching, reinforced by practice in using the texts, finding information, and writing reports throughout the college block, so they are better prepared for the School-based Training component.

At the same time, it is important for both curriculum developers and tutors to recognise that although they have poor academic qualifications these students have considerable and valuable practice experience that should be built upon. Not only have they all taught for several years, but many of the students have children and therefore some informal experience of child development and of teaching. The Handbooks need to acknowledge this more explicitly and open up possibilities for using it, which should then be followed up by the tutors and reflected in the assessment system.

The assessment instruments use a narrow range of question types and appear to test only low level skills. It should be possible to develop different ways of assessing higher cognitive levels in both content and pedagogy, especially during the school-based training period; this needs to be closely matched to the Study Skills practice. The teaching and learning are at present exam-driven, and the 'backwash' effects are often detrimental to good professional practice among both tutors and students. It is critical that the assessment should reflect the more interactive assumptions about learning.

4.7.4 Teaching Processes and College Management

In spite of all the constraints on the colleges, some aspects of the teaching process could be improved, not only through the professional development of the tutors as indicated above, but also through better college management and by improved departmental procedures.

One problem is the lack of departmental assessment policies within the colleges. Students are given very little formative assessment, and therefore do not get sufficient feedback and reinforcement. If tutors did not have to mark field-based work during the residential block, they could concentrate on setting and marking regular tests and assignments, which would better prepare the students for their period of distance learning. There may also be scope for peer assessment techniques, which would help develop critical skills.

Large teaching groups are inevitable given the numbers involved, but good professional training needs opportunities for intimate discussion. Given a full complement of teaching staff, it should be possible to organise teaching in a more varied manner: for example, for one tutor to give an introductory key lecture to several groups at a time, allowing other members of the department to hold follow-up sessions with the class groups. The college-based TP is handled in groups of ten; these might be turned into more regular 'tutor-group' seminars; where cross-curricular issues, like those set out in the general aims and objectives, could be discussed, which might help the trainees develop a more integrated and holistic understanding of the teacher's role. Our evidence suggests the students are keen to share ideas with their peers, and that many of the tutors have a professional commitment to developing their students as teachers; these positive attitudes could be built on.

Such changes would mean tutors no longer followed rigidly the format of the current Handbooks; it would allow the Handbooks to be more explicitly directed to students, while tutors devised their own lectures using the Handbooks as resources. A prerequisite for this is the further professional development of the tutors as discussed above.

4.7.5 The Students and the informal curriculum

Given the small numbers currently completing secondary education, it is likely that primary teachers will continue to be drawn from those with only JCE or low MSCE marks. As gaining MSCE raises their salary levels, perhaps they should be encouraged to study at a distance for these exams after their training, and the MIITEP syllabus be designed as complementary to that of the MSCE, particularly in Maths and Science, where the subject upgrading is most needed. English, however, need to be treated specially due to its importance as a teaching medium.

Few of the students in our samples claimed to be able to teach in languages other than English and Chichewa. Yet if infant classes are to be taught even partially in their mother tongue, more students may need to be recruited from minority language groups.

It seems very important that the age, experience and maturity of the students be recognised and used positively. This might help develop those professional attitudes and characteristics which are frequently mentioned by both tutors and students, but which do not form any part of the formal curriculum. The average age is mid- to late twenties; presumably these people normally act in socially responsible ways towards their friends and kin – if not, they should not be on the programme – and it seems anomalous to treat them in college like school children. The feeling of 'not being respected' clearly lowers morale. Different styles of management should be developed, and a more adult-oriented set of rules and responsibilities be negotiated with the Student Representative Councils. This is in keeping with Malawi's current wider societal and political goals, and would encourage a more professional atmosphere during training, through the informal rather than the formal curriculum.

There are gender issues here. MIITEP is bringing more women into teaching but the current organisation of training does not seem to recognise women's dual roles. Two examples are their need to visit their families during the residential block – though this also affects men - and the difficulties faced by those with young babies at particular stages of the course. Gender-friendly solutions need to be found.

4.8 Conclusion

To conclude, we should acknowledge the considerable achievement of all involved so far. MIITEP was set up within a relatively short time, and to date some 15,000 teachers have progressed partly or wholly through the course. Whether they are as 'effective' as they were intended to be is of course the important question. If this report focuses on the problems, it is because we hope it will be of use to those trying to solve them. The eventual success of this project depends on how much planners and implementers in both colleges and schools are capable of looking back, reflecting on the way the project has gone so far, accepting that other ways of doing it are possible and making efforts to correct things where they did not produce the outcomes that are valued. When this is done MIITEP stands a better chance of being accepted by planners, implementers and the students as a sustainable mode for the future.

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Appendix 1: Interview Schedule for Training College Lecturers:

[used as a guide, but freely adapted to fit the circumstances; the order of the questions were changed, and the questions were shared between the two interviewers in different ways]]

1.Patterns of career development
- Can you tell me how you came to be a tutor at this college?
[probes:- were you previously a teacher at primary, secondary?
- why did you go into teaching in the first place? any of your family teachers?
- why did you move to teacher education?
- can you remember anyone who was particularly influential in your career decisions?
- [I see there are x males and y females at this college] is this a better career for men or for women?
[probe: is it equally easy for women to get promoted?]

2. Training for the job
- Have you had any training for the job of teacher educator?
[probes:- when you first started as a lecturer, how did you know what to do?
- was there anyone who showed you, or acted as a role-model for you?
- were you able to draw on skills learnt elsewhere?
- have you attended any inservice courses, workshops or other programmes of study?
- What kinds of in-service training, or professional development, would be most helpful to you?

3. Perception of their job
:- What do you find most rewarding about your work here?
[Probe: can you give me an example of something that made you feel satisfied?]
- What do you find most difficult?
[Probe: can you give me a recent example that you found upsetting or frustrating?]
- If you were given a second chance, would you choose a different career?
[Probes: why, or why not?]

4. Perceptions of 'good teaching' and the 'good teacher'
- Can you describe the best teacher who taught you?
[Probe:- what made him/her so good?]
- And the worst teacher you remember?
[probe: what made him/her so bad?]
- what do you think a person needs in order to be a good teacher?

5. Perceptions of trainees
- What do you think motivates young people to go into teaching nowadays?
[probes:- Is it mainly a job for women or for men?
- do you think the motivation is different? Why?
- are women as likely to be promoted as men?]
- Can you describe the best student-teacher you have ever taught?
[probe: can you say what it was that made him/her so good?]

- What do you think prevents all your students from achieving such a high standard?
[probes:- motivation? academic level? course too difficult? teachers born not made?]

6. their own personal and/or espoused theories of teaching/teacher training
- How does being a teacher educator compare with being a classroom teacher:
[probes:- do you find it easier, more difficult?
- in what ways do student teachers differ from, say, high school students?]
-What do you think is most useful in helping a student to learn to teach?
- content or 'methods' course?
- the 'theory courses' (educational foundations, professional studies etc.)
- what about the teaching practice?]
- what is the most interesting book or article you've read recently about teacher training?
[probe: encourage them to say what was in it, why it was interesting, if they have used the ideas]
- What are the three most important things a young teacher needs to learn?
-How far does MIITEP help them learn these things?
[Probe: which parts of the course are most useful to them?]

7. How they deliver their part of the curriculum
- Can you describe a typical day in your life at the college? Say, a day last week?
[probes: check details such as:
- the workload: contact hours and other duties
- teaching styles/methods: lectures, seminars, tutorials, practicals
- what resources they have available, what they use]

8. Perceptions of changes
- In what ways do you consider MIITEP is different from former programmes?
[Probe: does it have a different philosophy? What sort of teacher will it produce?
- What changes would you like to see made in the MIITEP programme?
- How do you think the College will have changed in ten years' time
[probe:- how might your job change?
- Where do you hope to be ten years from now?
- what is the most interesting book or article you've read recently about teacher training?
[probe: encourage them to say what was in it, why it was interesting, if they have used the ideas]
- If you had K100,000 to spend on the college, what would you buy with it?

Appendix 2: schedule of questions for focus group discussions with student teachers during residential training.

1. Why did you take up teaching?

2. Do you think people in Malawi respect teachers? Why/why not? [status? Pay?]

3. Are you happy here or would you rather do a different course?

4. So far, what is the most interesting part of the programme?
   - are there any parts which you feel are a waste of time?
   - which parts do you think are most important?
   -
5. How has your previous experience helped you in the course?
   - are you using that experience in any way?
   - Do lecturers ask you about your experience as an untrained teacher?

6. How often do you have assignments?
   -in what ways are they helpful?

7. How often do you write tests?
   – do you get feedback? Of what kind?

8. Do you miss many lectures?
   - is it you or the lecturers who are absent?
   - How is this compensated for?

9. Are there enough materials, books and equipment for you to use?

10. How useful is the library to you?
    – how many times do you visit it?

11. Do you uses the laboratories?
    - do you carry out experiments your selves or do you just watch demonstrations?

12.What do you do in your free time?

13 So what do you like most about this college?
   - and what do you hate most about the course?

14. What do you feel are the major impediments to your training here at the college?
    -In schools?

15. Do you think you have changed since you came here? How?
    - your thinking, your attitude, your feeling about yourself?
    - Do you feel like a teacher yet?

Appendix 3: Shulman's Categories of the Knowledge Base for Teaching

- Content Knowledge.
- General Pedagogical Knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation that appear to transcend subject matter.
- Curriculum Knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and progammes that serve as 'tools of the trade' for teachers.
- Pedagogical Content Knowledge, that special amalgam of c ontent and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding.
- Knowledge of Learners and their characteristics.
- Knowledge of Educational Contexts, ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures.
- Knowledge of Educational Ends, Purposes and Values, and their philosophical and historical grounds.

From: Lee S. Shulman (1987) 'Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform' in *Harvard Educational Review,* **57** (1) [p.8]

Appendix 4: A Methodological Note on the Classroom Observations

Quantitative Analysis of Activities

The observer tried to note down what tutor and students were doing at one minute intervals. After being typed up, these were studied, and the descriptions reduced to the following basic categories:

Tutors

Asking
explaining/telling
instructing (students to do something)
discussing (interactive dialogue)
using/referring to t/l aids (other than handbook)
responding to students
writing on board
distributing apparatus or t/l aids
demonstrating
supervising i.e. watching, listening to groups, circulating, checking
dictating notes

Students

responding individually
responding in chorus
demonstrating
reading
asking
copying/writing from the book
listening/watching
experimenting
group discussions
leaders organising groups

These are 'high inference' categories, as it was not always clear what the students were doing. On the tutor side, the individual's style influenced whether the activities were coded as e.g. 'explaining' or 'instructing'. Other activities may have slipped through the net as they occurred in between observations.

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