

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

LEARNING TO TEACH IN THE CONTEXT OF NEW
CURRICULA: THE CASE OF PRACTICUM AT HOSSANA COLLEGE
OF TEACHERS EDUCATION

BY: ERTEMBO MISHORE



JUNE, 2006

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

LEARNING TO TEACH IN THE CONTEXT OF NEW
CURRICULA: THE CASE OF PRACTICUM AT HOSSANA COLLEGE
OF TEACHERS EDUCATION

BY: ERTEMBO MISHORE



JUNE, 2006

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

**LEARNING TO TEACH IN THE CONTEXT OF NEW
CURRICULA: THE CASE OF PRACTICUM AT HOSSANA COLLEGE
OF TEACHERS EDUCATION**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES FOR THE
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF DEGREE OF MASTER
OF ARTS IN CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION**

BY ERTEMBO MISHORE

JUNE, 2006

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

**LEARNING TO TEACH IN THE CONTEXT OF NEW
CURRICULA: THE CASE OF PRACTICUM AT HOSSANA COLLEGE OF
TEACHERS EDUCATION**

BY:
ERTEMBO MISHORE

APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS

Gizaw Tassew

Chairman, Dep. Graduate Committee

Amane Argedom

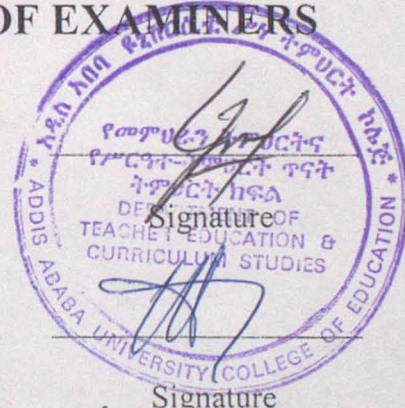
Advisor

TAYE REGASSA (Ph.D.)

External Examiner

Woubé Kassaye (Dr.)

Internal Examiner



Signature

San Regassa

Signature

July 13, 2006

Signature

Acknowledgments

First and fore most, I would like to express my heart- felt gratitude to my advisor, Amare Asgedom for his enlightened, genuine and constructive comments and suggestions.

I am also grateful to Addis Ababa University – School of Graduate studies for financial support it rendered me to complete the study.

My sincere thanks go to South, Nation Nationalities Peoples Region Education Bureau (SNNPR) and Hossana City Administration Education Office for sponsoring and helping me to join the post graduate programme.

I am very much grateful to my research participants for their willingness to share their views during the data collection and my colleagues Ato Haile Mariam Handino and Megabie Senay Mulatu Jemberu for moral and material support offered while I was writing the manuscript.

Lastly, but by no means the least, my deepest thanks go to my wife, W/ro Meaza Detu, for her tolerance and encouragement during this study.

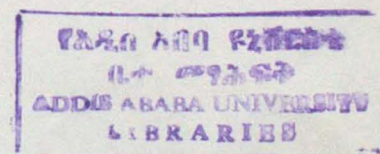
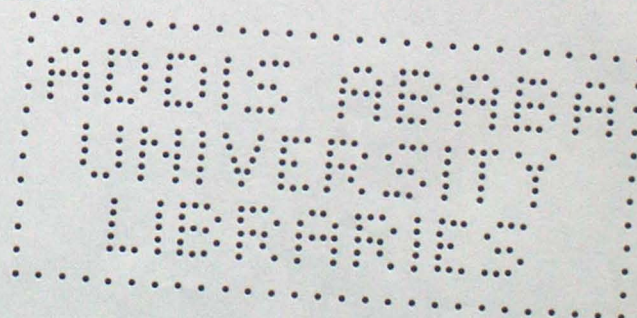


TABLE OF CONTENTS

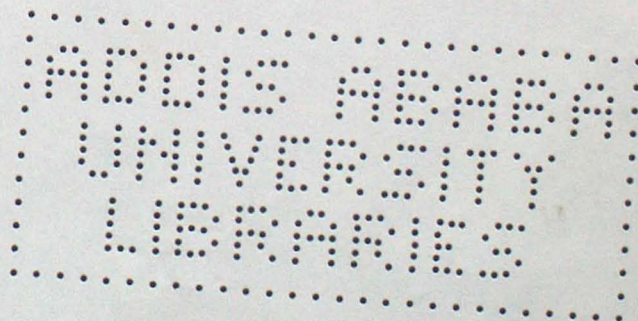
	PAGE
Acknowledgments	i
Abstract	iv
CHAPTER ONE	
1. Introduction	1
1.1. Background of the study	1
1.1.1. The Philosophical and theoretical Justifications	2
1.2. Statement of the Problem	5
1.3. The Purpose of the study	6
1.4. The significance of the study	6
1.5. Theoretical Framework.	6
CHAPTER TWO	
2. Review of Related Literature	8
2.1. An overview of education	8
2.1.1. Philosophy of education	8
2.1.2. Sociology of education	9
2.2. Teacher education program	10
2.2.1. The new curriculum reform	11
2.2.2. The perception of the curriculum innovation	13
2.3. Learning to Teach	14
2.3.1. Subject matter knowledge	15
2.3.2. Pedagogical content knowledge	16
2.3.3. Knowledge of teaching and learning	17
2.3.3.1. The concept and functions of teaching	18
2.3.3.2. Approaches to learning	19
2.4. Practicum- School Experience	20
2.4.1. Linking theory with practice	22

2.4.2. The trios interplay at the scene of practicum	24
2.4.2.1. The operations of mentoring	25
2.4.2.2. Why reflection?	27
2.4.3. Assessment and feedback	28
2.5. Evidences obtained form practical studies	30
CHAPTER THREE	
3. Methodology	32
3.1. Method	33
3.2. The research setting and participants of the study	35
3.3. Data collection process	38
3.4. Data analysis	40
CHAPTER FOUR	
4. Results and Analysis	43
4.1. Planning and collaboration	43
4.2. Participants' beliefs, understandings and practices	49
4.3 A good seed on unfertile soil	56
CHAPTER FIVE	
5. Conclusion and the Implication of the study	65
5.1. Conclusion	65
5.2. The implication of the study	67
References	68
Appendix - 1 Assessment for Practicum report (30%)	
Appendix - 2 Assessment for Portfolio Oral Presentation (70%)	
Appendix - 3 Classroom Observation Check List	



Abstract

The major purpose of this study is to develop an understanding on how the ongoing practicum is perceived and practiced by teacher educators and the trainees who are the chief agents of the implementation process. Hence, a descriptive case study was used to get an access to fully conceptualize the phenomenon under investigation from the research participants' perspective. Besides, ten teacher educators (mentors and tutors) five from each and eight candidates from 2nd and 3rd year trainees, four from each were included in the study. As a result, including one practicum unit coordinator, a total of 19 purposefully selected; and well – informed, participants were involved. The study also employed direct observation, interview and document review to secure sufficient and pertinent data collection. Moreover, interpretive analysis was predominantly used together with the reflective analysis to interpret the data. Lastly, conclusions and the implication of the study were drawn on the basis of the findings. In this regard, the findings of this research portrayed that in spite of its inherent limitations associated with implementation process, practicum is of paramount importance. However an integrated and dependable partnership/ collaboration among the involved parties was not yet established. In addition, there seems to be inadequate conceptualization of the essence of the practicum particularly the continuous assessment. It is hoped that the trainees will develop the anticipated professional competence through their reflection on their performances. Regarding this, however, the overall learning context is less supportive to the premises of the practicum.



CHAPTER ONE

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

The essence of education is to ensure the survival and development of man kind in the face of challenges and changes that are continually presented by forces of nature and man (Smith, 1961 in Yalokwu 2001: 109)

That means, education develops the individual's capacities to enable him control his environment and fulfill his responsibilities Education, in this respect, should bring a change not only in the amount of knowledge gained but in abilities to do, to think, and to acquire habits, skills, interests and attitudes which characterize a person who is socially accepted, personally adjusted and socially responsible (Aggrawall, 2002).

Although educational concerns were expressed beginning in the early 1950s, modern education in Ethiopia is a hundred years phenomenon (Gizaw, 2003). For him, modern education in our country has passed through challenges and still remains as a challenge for the development.

In fact, each nation and society has its own special problems, concerns and interests. These special qualities of the society must find a place in the educational program. In other words, to be effective, education must cater for the emerging social order (Aggrawall, 2002). This is because, as Marsh (1997) puts, curriculum content and organization is central importance but unless a reform effort is consistent with the values of the wider society it is unlikely to be successful. This could be the case why Ethiopian education has been experiencing challenges for its development. During the HaileSelasie regime, as stated by Gizaw (2003), dissatisfaction with the education system continued with reference to its inability to satisfy the aspiration of the majority of the people, parents and government officials.

In spite of its major achievement in the area of illiteracy eradication, the educational system of the Derge regime also faced similar problems in meeting the social and pedagogical demands. Society is dynamic, it grows and changes and as such these social changes must not only be reflected in education but also must affect it. This is to mean that social change can also bring



a subsequent change in the curriculum in line with the new social order.

As the result, the transitional government of Ethiopia formulated a new Education and Training Policy of 1994 to overcome major problems encountered by the former regimes such as access, relevance, quality, equity and so forth.

Unlike the previous reforms, the current policy casts a deeper light both on its content and strategies. In other words, the policy has provided opportunities for decentralized educational organization and management of education (Dereje, 2001).

In light of this, the formal educational system contains a primary education from grades 1-8, sub divided in to two cycle of basic (1-4) and general (5-8); a general secondary education of grade 9-10 and a preparatory senior secondary education of two years (11-12). The goals of the second cycle primary education are: a) to provide a graded general education that prepares the learners for the next cycle; and b) to prepare citizens who can be trained in basic vocational and technical skills and be involved in the production activities (MOE, 2002).

Education as a process of self- realization makes explicit what is implicit in us. In other worlds, education means leading out the inborn powers and potentialities and enabling the child to become what he is capable of becoming (Aggrawall, 2002). In this connection, one may argue that the recent policy is designed in such a way to cater and nurture each learner according to his/ her potential.

Helping children to achieve their maximum potential is possible though teacher training programs from which the individuals acquire the desired teaching skills. In this regard, Okafor (1988:63) pointed out that there can be no effective educational system without adequate teacher education. He added that teacher education is the soul of every modern educational system; and a nation with out good teacher education is in a moribund state.

1.1.1 The Philosophical and Theoretical Justifications

According to Reiman (1999), the philosophical and the theoretical grounds for teacher education programs come from both the liberal arts traditions and the professional arts traditions. The liberal arts tradition assumes that true education is liberal education. The idea is to develop an inquiring or reflective mind set by the college students through academic expert knowledge. It focuses on content learning and illumination through exposure to great works and great minds.

In contrary, the professional schools' model assumes that educational learning and development are connected more directly to real life problems. As described elsewhere, college based teacher training was criticised to rely much on theory or being remote from practice. This is presumably because, as McNamara (1994) notes, teaching to be 'situated knowledge' which is inextricably located with in the physical and social context of its acquisition. I think, complete dependence on one and ignoring the other doesn't help the learner to develop his potentialities to the full. Attempts should be made towards some kind of appropriate balance.

The rational and the purpose for teacher education will be influenced by: what is thought to be the nature of teaching, or being a teacher and the perception of the relationships between theory and practice (Livingstone, 2001). Inevitably, the answers to these issues will shape the processes of learning to teach the nurture of teachers. There are two divergent theoretical positions, regarding the two epistemologies (concepts of knowledge):

a) Positivist Position

This view argues that any one can teach. Previous knowledge, ability and other background characteristics are more significant in explaining successful teaching than training. It considers teaching as part of behavioral sciences and takes it amenable to scientific observation, empirical investigation and analysis (Wallace, 1991)

Teacher education according to such views is characterized by a transmission approach to teaching and learning; knowledge or facts to be deposited and stored in, mostly, passive learners. Freire (1993) calls this "the banking concept of education" in which education is suffering from narration sickness. For him, the relationship between the teacher and the student is expressed as "the narrating subject (the teacher) and the patient listening object (the students)" Practicum under this view is based on the assumption that the purpose is to put into practice the theories that have been taught in the teacher education institution.

Proponents of such views, as put by Livingstone (2001), believe that educational theory can consist of hard facts. These hard facts serve as prescriptions for classroom practice; theory could provide the necessary knowledge; in turn, awareness of that knowledge would provide a high level of certainty for deciding on the right practice. To Fish (1989), this type of approach considers learning to teach as a simple process of working in apprentice relationship to an

experienced teacher or with an overseer where the student teacher is left to learn from the practice by some unidentified form of "osmosis".

b) Constructivist Position

The limitations and criticisms behind the transmission model eventually led to the development of reflective approach which recognizes the full and active participation of the student teachers; acknowledges the support, challenge and vision of mentor and considers the art and science of teaching to be important (Wallace, 1991).

This is much broader and deeper conception of learning to teach; it is based on the view that teaching is a very complex and uncertain process. It views teaching as necessarily involving a huge range of knowledge, disposition, decision making capacities, skills and capacities of organization and management (Fish, 1989). It is within this complexity that the individual teacher can only learn to teach or improve his/ her professional practice by developing his/her own theories or principles through Schon's processes of reflection in activity (during it) and on activity (subsequent to it) (1983).

According to Schon, reflection – on – practice helps teachers make wise and principled decisions. It is about developing teachers' self – knowledge, the ability to 'see through' teaching situations and understand the meaning of what is happening in their classroom and school. In addition, reflection- on – practice is about being professionally self – critical without being destructive and overly negative (Ghaye and Ghaye, 2001).

For advocates of this view, learning to teach is not a matter of rule- bound prescriptions. There are no simple algorithms or recipes, which if followed diligently and often enough, will lead to success. Instead, learning to teach has to be practiced as situated learning (Ramsden, 2000); that is where the situation produces knowledge directly through activity. This view is based mainly on constructivist psychology and partly in philosophy.

Recently, the Ethiopian Government has called for a complete Teacher Education Systems Overhaul (TESO). In light of this, Ministry of Education has produced a framework defining strategies for the overhaul which have focused on active learning perspective that encompasses practicum. In other words, practicum bases itself on constructivist premises that knowledge is constructed by the learner. Thus, practicum is a way of making learners responsible for their own learning.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

What happens in the school curriculum is fundamental to people's lives since schools are concerned with educating the next generation through curriculum. We need to study curriculum in its social context because such studies help us to see why we have the curricula that we do. We need to understand how they come to be and get to grips with their contingent nature (Peachter, 2000). Peachter further added that in a period in which the curriculum within schools is constantly subject to change from outside, studying the impact of these changes on teachers and students is an important means through which we can see how future changes might be planned and implemented.

Currently, the new curriculum reform is under way in our country. This is due to the fact that the former curriculum was inconsistent with the wider values of societal aspirations and expectations. Hence, the Ethiopian government has launched a new Education and Training Policy (1994) that addresses the draw backs of the former curriculum.

To this effect, measures undertaken to change the curriculum has emphasized on three broad issues: a) change of curriculum and provision of educational materials; b) improvement of the ability and efficacy of teachers, c) change of educational structures (MOE, 2002). That means, the recent curriculum reform involves a complete paradigm shift from rote to active learning. This change, in fact, demands a corresponding change in the role expectations of both the teachers and the students.

In view of this, the ongoing curriculum reform needs closer observation and investigation to take informed decision from the outset. This is because, an innovation that gives new activities on the part of students will succeed or fail according to whether students actually participate in the activities (Fullan, 1991 in Peachter, 2000). To him, students participate to the extent that they understand and are motivated to try what is expected.

In addition, it is unquestionable that teachers are key persons who can make the curriculum design achieve what it was designed to achieve. However, as put by Farrat (1980), if teachers lack knowledge of the new teaching method which requires new roles and commitment, implementation will be hampered seriously. With respect to this, investigating how the involved parties understand and practice the innovation is the focus of this study.

1.3 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is:

- 1 To understand the implementation process of practicum as a component part of the new curriculum reform. .
- 2 To generate an insight into the implementation process of the new curriculum, particularly the practicum.
- 3 To pinpoint the problem area in order that further improvements can be made.

To meet these objectives, the following research questions are formulated.

1. How do the teacher educators and the trainees understand and experience (the relevance of) the practicum?
2. What is the nature of support and guidance provided for the trainees during their time of practice?
3. How is continuous assessment understood and utilized in relation to practicum?
4. How conducive is the learning context (environment) of practicum in promoting the trainees' active engagement with the learning tasks?

1.4 The Significance of the Study

This research undertaking will contribute its part by providing authentic evidence about the on going curriculum reform. That means, it will furnish information about the challenges and prospects of the practicum implementation.

To put it differently, the study will have the following significance:

- 1 It will provide the curriculum developers and policy makers with the necessary information about the implementation process of the practicum.
- 2 It benefits the teacher educators as a feedback for their performances.
- 3 Since practicum is a new input in our education system, this research study is one of its kind, in terms of methodological approach and perhaps in its outcome. As a result, it will serve as a steppingstone for further study into an area.

1.5 Theoretical Framework

School experience/ practicum has deep historical roots which grew out of the apprenticeship system and institutionalized by Joseph Lancaster in the late eighteenth century (Dent, 1971)

and it is based on the notion that a pupil teacher will model himself upon his master (Brown, 1975). Again, Fish (1989) stated that approaches to students teaching practicum have shifted from the process of imitating the old traditional and conservative notions and skills to a process of investigation and exploration. For him, this growth was associated with the emergence of constructivist philosophy and the concept of the reflective practitioner.

In the context of Ethiopia, as stated by MOE (2003), teacher education and training is marked by a concentration on the theoretical aspects and subject knowledge. These situations have produced teachers who, although well enough grounded in their individual subject knowledge, are not necessarily good at teaching in schools using active learning methods. The new practicum is, therefore, designed to ensure that student teachers have as much supported experience as possible, before they enter the classroom as qualified teachers (Ibid)

In light of this, support and advice offered to trainees is given a considerable place in the practicum. Because, as noted by Schon in Ghaye and Ghaye (2001) challenges with support are the hallmarks of learning for reflection on practice; challenge without support can be destructive. Besides, Fullan stated that effective implementation of innovation requires time, personal interaction and contacts. Thus, for implementation of a program to occur, changes must be made in the behaviors of all affected parties. Teachers, for example, must be clear about the purpose, the nature and the benefits of the innovation (Derebssa, 2001: 177).

In addition, for Karmel (1973), effectiveness of innovation is dependent on the extent to which the people concerned perceive a problem, are knowledgeable about a range of alternative solutions and feel themselves to be in a congenial climate.

In this case, the following issues are considered to be the framework of this research study. How clear are the new role expectations for involved parties in terms of what will be done when, and how? In other words, the teaching practice, student learning, assessment procedures and the nature of support offered and partnership exhibited at the scene of the practicum are some of the issues to be stressed.

CHAPTER TWO

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1 An Overview of Education

Formerly the term “education” implied a process of “filling the mind with information. That is, individual differences were not at all recognized and all the pupils were treated alike. But, today our conception of education is entirely new. According to this new concept, every child grows spontaneously. Education, then, must aim to make this spontaneous growth harmonious and progressive.

This is because education in a fundamental sense, ought to be intended to enabling man develop his potentialities to the full (Benaars et. al 1994). For them, the fundamental nature of man is crucial to any process of education. It is on the basis of understanding this nature that opportunities for acquiring knowledge and the various skills in education, are provided. If the nature that is proper to man is missed out in education, then the latter loses its meaning, direction and purpose.

According to Gizaw (2003) modern education in Ethiopia is a hundred years phenomenon. It is evident that education is an instrument for overall development of the society. Thus the level of development of the country, which could not step up from subsistence life, is also the reflection of educational development.

The quality of education in a society dictated the over all quality of the society. This is to mean that if education is successful and produces good citizens, then the society will be strong and good. However, the failure of education yields a failed society as well, a society that is weak and whose workings are undermined (Ellis et al 1991).

2.1.1 Philosophy of Education

It is difficult to locate a precise conceptualization of philosophy. However, philosophy endeavors to understand all that comes within the bound of human experience. It is concerned with critical examination of the fundamental notions and assumption in any field that falls within human experience (Chaube and Chaube, 2002). These assumptions, as indicated in Benaars et al (1994) are used in interpreting explaining, and translating educational theory and practice.

To Derebssa (2004), philosophy gives meaning to our decisions and actions. He further adds philosophy is an important foundation of curriculum because the philosophy advocated or reflected by a particular school and its officials influences its goals or aims and contents, as well as the organization of its curriculum. Studying philosophy helps us to deal with our own personal systems of beliefs and values.

It is because philosophy acquaints us with values in life and education tells us how those values can be realized. These values are nothing but a philosophy of education which, in ultimate analysis, is a philosophy of life (Chaube and Chaube 2002; Derebssa, 2004).

According to Ellis et al (1991), a teacher's personal philosophy generally has a significant impact up on the educational philosophy he/she adopts. For example, how a teacher interacts with people in general will likely affect the way in which he/she chooses to interact with children and fellow colleagues in the teaching learning environment. Likewise, what the teacher values will affect the value pattern he/she models in the classroom.

2.1.2 Sociology of Education

People's intellectual abilities and inclinations their attitudes and moral tendencies and expectations, are usually developed within a given social framework. That is there is a social element in any growth which determines the direction of such development. Social perspective, in this case, postulates that human social behavior is conditioned by his/her membership in social groups (Benars et al 1994).

Social learning theory as outlined by Bandura and Walters (1969) refers to the importance of modeling through a process of behavioral observation and imitation (Tuliusdottir, 2002). By the same taken, Piaget and Vygotsky have made a profound contribution to thinking about the way in which we learn with others. They believe that individuals construct knowledge as a result of social interaction, cooperative efforts to learn, understand and solve social problems.

In addition Vygotsky argued that individual intellectual development could not be understood without reference to the social context in which the person was embedded. Because individual's cognitive development is a product of social activity; guided by others who structure and model appropriate solutions to problems (ibid).

To this end, for Yeomans (1992), collaboration is an essential part of the primary teacher's role since a child's education is shared between many teachers as the child passes through a school. Therefore, teacher educators acting in facilitating role can then help student teachers to develop insight into the nature and cultures of groups and what these mean for primary staff membership (ibid).

It is argued that successful living is often largely dependent on interpersonal intelligence that enables us to understand and communicate with others and note differences in moods, temperaments, motivations, and skills. During this time, conflict is brought out in to the open. There is a great deal of team building, diverse groups working together, and intense communication and information sharing (Fullan, 1999).

"It is true dialogue in which people engage with each other, not to be in control but to provoke and be provoked, to learn and contribute to the learning of others, to change their own minds as well as the minds of others (Stacey, 1966; as quoted in Fullan, 1999)".

2.2. Teacher Education Program

The major function of higher education in initial teacher training is to provide teachers with a window in to academic scholarship and research, and to foster the appreciation that to be a teacher in a full professional sense and to be an informed expert in the field of education as well as an effective practitioner in a classroom (Moore, 1994).

However, education schools have been variously criticized as ineffective in preparing teachers for their work, unresponsive to new demands, remote from practice, and barriers to the recruitment of bright college students into teaching (Darling-Hammond 1999: 13). Chauahan (1990) also noted that teachers' training programmes have failed to develop desirable teaching skills in prospective teachers.

Frazier (1999: 137), on the other hand, pointed out that any consideration of institutional accountability for teacher education quality must recognize the conflict in the two worlds. The external world speaks one language. The college/university culture speaks another. Teacher educators and their students are caught in the middle. Thus, to make certain that college graduates are prepared to meet societies' demands needs a detailed research and investigation (ibid).

Surprisingly, Holmes Group (1995) has pointed out that problem with today's teacher education is simply that the wrong students are studying the wrong things in the wrong places with the wrong people. Consequently, what seem to be called for are improvements in each component of the teacher education programs- the curriculum, the faculty, the site, the students, pedagogy, and partners (Murray, 1999: 69).

Deiz (1999: 226) argues that effective preparation of teachers requires a set of components that can best be delivered through a college or university program linked to local schools, including a clear conceptualization of what teachers need to know and be able to do, a coherent curriculum based on conceptualization, performance assessment used to support candidate. So, the move to school- based training is explicitly justified in terms of an attack on theory

In spite of the fact that current programs are criticized for their failure to develop needed capacities, teacher education exists to prepare teachers in the most effective way to meet the demands of schooling (Sykes, 1999).

2.2.1 The New Curriculum Reform

With the change of government in Ethiopia, the Ethiopian education and training policy has undergone drastic educational reform which touches upon every aspect of the education system. The change ranges from alternation of curricular material to major shift in philosophical orientation and mission.

As indicated in MOE (2003), one of the Ethiopian teacher education program mission statements is that the Ethiopian teacher education is committed to producing competent teaching staff who have the desired academic knowledge, sufficient professional skill, appropriate citizenship, attitudes and skill, and those ethical values enshrined in the Ethiopian constitution. To realize this mission, in the light of stated educational objectives, extensive measures have been taken so far. Apart, providing opportunities for a decentralized educational organization and management the New Education and Training Policy (1994) casts deeper light both on its contents and strategies.

According to Dawit (2001), the contents of the curriculum and the way they are organized have a bearing on the instructional practice, teachers and students role, as well as student achievement. In this case, the Education and Training Policy of 1994 has been one of the

major interventions undertaken to redress past educational problems of access, equity, quality, relevance and efficiency (Dereje, 2001).

More recently, with the view of paradigm shift- from rote to active learning; Teacher Education Systems Overhaul (TESO) document has been developed and brought in to use (MOE, 2003) That means, the new document was formulated after a series of meetings involving teachers from all over the country offered comments which reinforce the findings of the studies. Some of the major points arising out of these were: a) the professional competence of the teachers is deficient, b) the content knowledge of students is unsatisfactory, c) teachers do not match up the standards and expectations of their profession, d) there is a mismatch between teacher education and school education, e) the quality of courses and methods are theoretical and teacher centered (MOE, 2003).

To address these problems, one of the objectives stated in the document is: to produce teachers who are academically qualified, professionally skilled, attitudinally and ethically committed to their profession.

It is, however, argued that evolution of the notion of professional competence is dependent on the structure of education, the academic setting and the infrastructure of the program. Carefully selected practice agencies and appropriate tools of assessment are also central (Skovholt and Ronnest, 1993 in Tulliusdottir et al 2002).

To Chhen et al (2000), on the other hand, specific competencies that student teachers should demonstrate at secondary school level, are set out in five main areas; **subject knowledge**; **subject application**; **class management**; **assessment and recording of pupils' progress**; further **professional development**. Apart, giving emphasis on **ethical issues**, similar areas of competences are indicated in the TESO document as well.

According to Fidler and McCulloch (1994: 169), a competence based model is based upon output criteria which seek to identify the minimum level of skills and knowledge acceptable in a newly qualified teacher. More specifically, **competence** (tacit knowledge) is what a person knows and can do under ideal circumstances while **performance** (explicit knowledge) is what is actually done under existing circumstances (McCulloch and Fidler, 1994: 131; McNiff, 1993: 27). It seems that one's competence is judged in terms of the performance.

Competent professional, as described by Gonezi et al, 1990 in Marsh (1997), possesses a set of relevant attributes (knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes) necessary for job performance to appropriate standards. Besides, which list constitutes the minimum acceptable level of skills and knowledge that a newly qualified teacher needs to possess seems questionable. In this respect, there is little consensus about what might be identified as the competences specifically linked to the award of qualified teacher status (Whitty and Willmott; 1991 in Mc Culloch, 1994: 135)

2.2.2 The Perception of the Curriculum Innovation

No reform can be expected to succeed unless it is fully understood, fully embraced, and effectively implemented by teachers (Goble and Porter, 1977). Fullan (1991) quoted in Evans et al (1994) identifies that the fate of innovation is ultimately determined by the attitudes of its potential users which in turn, reflect their perceptions. By the same taken, it is stated that the individual teacher has a 'make' or 'break' role in the innovation process (Kelly, 1982).

This is because innovations are rarely neutral. They tend to advance or enhance the position of certain groups and disadvantage or damage the position of others. Innovations can threaten the self-interest of participants by undermining established identities, by deskilling and therefore reducing job satisfaction. By introducing new working practices which replace established and cherished ways of working, they threaten individual self concepts. The career prospects of individuals or groups may also be curtailed or fundamentally diverted (Pechter, 2000).

In this regard, Fullan (1991) quoted in Evans et al (1994) had identified four criteria which influence teachers' perceptions and assessments of a given change: its potential for addressing a need; clarity in terms of what the change involves for teachers; its likely effects on teachers in terms of such things as time, energy, skill, sense of excitement, competence and interference with existing priorities; and likely rewards in terms of interaction with peers and others.

Besides, how teachers perceive educational reform or innovation is influenced by their experience of how it is introduced and implemented. 'What matters is not just whether the particular model is valid or not, but how it connects to a teacher's overall sense of purpose in the particular situation in which he or/she is working (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1992 in McCulloch, 1994:164; Evans et al, 1994). Overall, the research studies suggest that the

primary teachers are neither passive victims of imposed change nor openly resistant to educational reform (Osborn et al, 2000).

Furthermore, Rudduck (1991) in McCulloch (1994: 166) suggests that:

'In our efforts at change I think we have underestimated the power of existing culture of the school to accommodate absorb or expel innovations that are at odds with the dominant structures and values that hold habits in place'. In other words it is not just the political but the cultural context which is crucial in change. We need . . . 'to see change not simply as a technical problem but as a cultural problem that requires attention to context and to the creation of shared meaning with in working groups'.

Then, how do students react to changes in the curriculum?

According to Des (1987c) cited in Evans et al (1994), the curriculum must serve to develop the pupil as an individual, as a member of society and as a future adult member of the community, with a range of personal and social opportunities and responsibilities. An innovation that requires new activities on the part of students will succeed or fail according to whether students actually participate in these activities. Students participate to the extent that they understand and are motivated to try (Fullan, 1991; as cited in Peachter, 2000) Goble and Porter (1977: 65) also added that what the student does, and how he will perceive what he does, react to it and change through doing it, is the only educational reality. If that reality is different from the intent, then all philosophy, all theory and all planning will be vain and meaningless.

Most of the time, however, students focused on the credentials they believe will help them in the future and they are therefore likely to give priority to conforming to the requirements of higher status subjects where these clash with the expectations of those considered less important. Besides, students do not passively receive the curriculum; they are active both in its construction and its resistance (Fullan, 1991 in Peachter, 2000).

2.3 Learning to Teach

Learning to teach is very complex. One of the most difficult and important tasks you will encounter as a student of teaching is learning how to make thoughtful, reasoned decisions as an ongoing part of your professional practice (Meisels et al 2002).

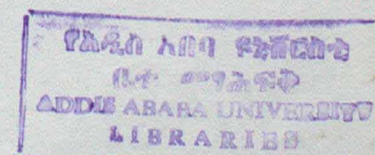
However, beginning teachers typically do not conceive of teaching as a complex activity; they view themselves as ready to teach (Weinstein, 1988, 1989; as quoted in Ashton, 1999: 213). He asserted that this naive optimism is a barrier to their professional development. Believing that they already know how to teach, these prospective teachers do not understand the importance of the activities their instructors have designed to engage them in the analysis of teaching. If novice do not conceive of teaching as a complex problem, they are unlikely to become seriously engaged in the preparation process.

As pointed out by Ashton (1999), many prospective teachers view knowledge as certain rather than uncertain. They view their job is to transmit their knowledge directly to their students. He also stated that powerful interventions are needed to enable prospective teachers to overcome their naive optimism and absolutist views of knowledge that lead them to under estimate the difficulties of teaching (P. 214). In addition, to Ramsden (2000) success in learning how to improve your own teaching is related to the extent to which you are prepared to conceptualize your teaching as a process of helping students to change their understanding of the subject matter you teach them.

2.3.1 Subject Matter Knowledge

According to Darling-Hammond (1999: 14), central to any discussion of teacher preparation is a judgment about what teachers need to know and be able to do. If teachers are viewed primarily as purveyors of information for students, one could argue that they need little more than basic content knowledge and the ability to string together comprehensible lectures in order to do an adequate job. But if teachers need to be able to ensure successful learning for students who learn in different ways and encounter a variety of difficulties, then teachers need to be diagnosticians and planners who know a great deal about the learning process and have a repertoire of tools at their disposal.

As the knowledge base has grown, fundamental conceptions of teaching, learning, learners, and subject matter have changed. Traditional views of teacher education also have been dramatically-altered (Barnes,1989).Therefore, as our understanding of what teaching requires has broadened, our understanding of what teachers need to know and how they learn has deepened.



Then, what do teachers need to know to teach all students in the way new standards suggest?

First of all, teachers need to understand subject matter in ways that allow them to organize it so that students can create useful cognitive maps of the terrain. They need more than formulaic or procedural understanding of the core idea in a discipline and how these help to structure knowledge, how they relate to one another, and how they can be tested, evaluated, and extended. Teachers also need to see ways that ideas connect across fields, and to every day life, so that they can select and use examples, problems, and applications (Darling-Hammond, 1999:14)

Otherwise, as Grossman et al (1989: 28) put, teaching unfamiliar material is difficult and teachers use a variety of tactics to cope with this task. Some teachers try to avoid teaching material they don't know well. When teachers can not avoid teaching the unfamiliar, they may rely heavily on the text book to provide necessary knowledge. Besides, Carlsen (1988) also stated that teachers may choose to lecture rather than soliciting students' questions, which could lead them in to unknown territory. Thus, knowledge or lack of knowledge, of the content can affect how teachers critique text books, how they select material to teach, how they structure their courses and how they conduct instruction (Anderson et al, 1989).

To Barnes (1989), however, developing teacher education programs that foster deep understanding of subject matter knowledge and also deep understandings of issues involved in providing equal access to subject matter knowledge for all learners is extra ordinary difficult and will undoubtedly require major changes in current education practice.

2.3.2 Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Knowledge of content-no matter how complete- is not enough, however; it is a necessary but not sufficient condition for effective instruction (Kauchak and Eggen 2003). Grossman, et al (1989) also noted that knowledge of the subject matter occupies a central place in the knowledge base of teaching. However, to them, one of the first challenges facing beginning teachers concerns the transformation of their disciplinary knowledge into a form of knowledge that is appropriate for students and specific to the tasks of teaching. Besides, the concept of pedagogical content knowledge is related to Dewey's notion of the need to "Psychologize"

subject matter for students in which teachers serve as mediators between the world of the discipline, on one side, and the world of students on the other (Grossman, 1991: 209).

Teaching involves a wide range of activities that relate more or less closely to the essential purpose of helping others understand. When teachers plan, for instance, one of their greatest challenges is to figure out ways of making abstract topics understandable (Anderson et al 1989). In this regard, Wise (1999: 158) pointed out that pedagogical content knowledge becomes a discussion of the appropriate ways of organizing information and knowledge. That means, it is the search for ways of representing the subject matter, analogies and metaphors, that will take each pupil well beyond what can be held together spatially through rote memorization.

No matter how clearly teachers present material in class, students understand that material based on their prior assumptions and understandings. To construct sound pedagogical interventions, teachers must possess accurate knowledge of student beliefs about a subject since students' prior knowledge and beliefs powerfully influence the way they make sense of new ideas. Teachers, therefore, must be able to view the subject matter through the eyes of the learners, as well as interpreting the learner's comments, questions, and activities through the lenses of the subject (Anderson et al ,1989:194) .

Beginning teachers are, therefore, expected to develop an appropriate repertoire of representation for the subjects they teach- to help build bridges for their pupils. In other words, to develop, select and use appropriate representations, teachers must understand the content they are representing, the ways of thinking and knowing associated with this content, and the pupils they are teaching. Unfortunately, considerable evidence suggests that many prospective teachers, both elementary and secondary, do not understand their subjects in depth (Barens, 1989).

2.3.3. Knowledge of Teaching and Learning

According to Ramsden (2000), teaching and student learning are parts of the same whole; understanding students' ways of thinking about the subject matter is essential to effective instruction. Nevertheless, learning to teach not only involves understanding content and how to translate that subject matter in to an understandable form. It also requires knowledge about the process of teaching and learning (Kauckak and Eggen, 2003)

2.3.3.1 The concept and functions of Teaching

Since teaching is a complex activity, varying out wardly from one situation to another, so that it is not easy to explain or define its nature with precision, hence much of disagreement (Curzon, 1993:15). In philosophical terms, 'teaching' is a task word like 'hunting' or 'fishing' not an achievement word like 'Winning' (Ryle, 1949; Smith, 1969a in Brown, 1975). Chauhan (1990) also states that teaching is manifested in various acts that a teacher carries out in congruence to certain professional rules and principles in a way to bring about learning.

On the other hand, teaching, as conventionally understood by a traditional teacher, is the act of disseminating information to the learners in the classroom. In this case, teaching is viewed in terms of content of education; its assumption is that there is a given content to be disseminated by the learners. In this case teaching basically involves telling, informing, giving or investing the content of learning. Philosophers in favor of this representation of teaching generally defend the maxim, "we teach the subject and not children" (Benaars et al 1994: 56).

They also argue that the point and purpose of teaching is not only that education should be intelligibly appropriately and meaningfully assimilated, it is also that certain specific abilities of learners should be developed. These include, among many, imagination, comprehension, rationality and creativity. Those philosophers who are inclined to wards this representation of teaching generally defend the maxim, "we teach children and not subjects."

In this respect, teaching should not only provide opportunities for the learners, but should also enable them to be the transforming agents of their own circumstances. This is possible when teaching involves finding out students' misconceptions, intervening to change them, and creating a context of learning which encourages students actively to engage with the subject matter (Ramsden, 2000).

With the new conception to teaching the teacher's responsibility goes far beyond the transmission of knowledge to that of mediating, advising, guiding and motivating learning (Benaars et al, 1994). In this regard, Posner (2005) forwarded a remarkable idea that, concern with maintaining our role as teacher should not blind us to the ways in which the learner learners best. Like wise, concern for covering the subject matter should not blind us to the needs of the learners; and concern for the learner's feelings should not obscure the communities expectation and the value of learning the subject matter. For him, neither the

learner nor the physical and social context, nor our own needs as teachers should be allowed to dominate. All features must be coordinated to achieve a balance.

2.3.3.2. Approaches to Learning

According to Wang and Palincsar (1989: 71), one of the recurring themes in the history of school reform is that "effective" schooling enables every student to become an active learner: one who assumes responsibility for acquiring knowledge and skills and sustains a pattern of self-directed, life long learning. It is also stated that the quality of our students understanding is immediately related to the quality of their engagement with the learning tasks; which in turn is influenced by learning context (Ramsden 2000). This is to mean that context has a substantial effect upon the students learning.

Posner (2005), for instance, views context as all the constraints, facilities or otherwise influences what teachers and learners do with the subject matter Context, therefore includes the immediate physical and social environment of the classroom. But it also includes the administration of the school, parent influences, governmental regulations, the background of the learners and teachers, the money available to finance education, and the time available for teaching.

As indicated by Ramsden (2000:46), context influences approaches to learning, which are not something a student has rather they represent what a learning task or set of tasks is for the learner. For him, approaches to learning has two aspects: deep approach (intention to understand) and surface approach (intention only to complete task requirements) are responses to the educational environment in which students learn. He also stated that the educational environment or context of learning is created through students' experience of our curricula, teaching method, and assessment procedures. This is to mean that students respond to the situation they perceive and it is not necessarily the same situation that we have defined.

In trying to change approaches we are not trying to change students, but to change students' experiences, perceptions or conceptions of something. Thus recognizing students' perceptions of these issues are of great significance as the context of learning is an ever present influence on students' activities. For instance, perception of assessment requirements, of work load of the effectiveness of teaching and the commitment of teachers, and of the amount of control students might exert over their own learning influence the development of different

approaches, which are very clearly adaptive responses to the educational environments defined by the teachers and courses (Ramsden, 2000: 39-47).

Besides, students' approaches are influenced partly on their previous experience, the nature of their interest in the task in hand the knowledge base they have. For example, deep approaches are closely related to a students' interest in the task for its own sake. Deep approaches are also associated with a well developed base of knowledge in the field of study. If there are gaps in one's understanding of basic concepts, his/her attempts to understand new material will be frustrated. A learner may then resort to strategies requiring minimum of interaction with the task. Moreover, one has to notice that we can not train students to use deep approaches when the educational environment is giving them the message that surface ones are rewarded. In such circumstance, as to Ramsden, the quality of student learning can be enhanced by changing the curricula we construct, the teaching methods we use, and the ways in which we assess our students(ibid).

2.4. Practicum-School Experience

Historically, school experiences grew out of apprenticeship, the teaching method in which a student works for a master who is skilled in a craft, and it is based upon the notion that a pupil teacher will model himself upon his master (Brown, 1975; Ellis et. al, 1991) .With time it grows and becomes more comprehensive. For example, Fish (1989) states that approaches to student teaching practicum have shifted from the process of imitating old, traditional and conservative notions and skills to a process of investigation and exploration.

Practicum includes experience of and teaching in a real school/ classroom environment and the reflection and discussion based on the experience students have gained. As a result, Practicum is considered to be the most essential element of teaching qualifications. During this course student teachers will be given the opportunity to explore and gain understanding of the teaching learning process, to see how school students behave and observe the realities of being a teacher (MOE, 2003)

This is because, as put by Ashcroft(1992), teaching is an essentially practical activity and should be learned on the job. In this regard, the purpose of practicum is not only to ensure trainee's ability in putting learning skill of teaching into practice, but also to give background knowledge about realities of existing school (ICDR,1999).

Gold (1999) also suggests that new teachers are acquiring the knowledge base from their university preparation, and are receiving more experience in learning how it can be applied in the classroom. To ICDR (1999), subject matter knowledge alone fails short to equip the trainees to become efficient classroom practitioners. This is because a single course isolated from practice is incomplete of developing a perspective that requires learning a new way to analyze, reason, and make judgments. As the result, one of the objectives of teaching practice is to apply theory in to practice.

In the Ethiopian context, however, the history of teacher education and training is marked by a concentration on the theoretical aspects and subject knowledge. This has produced teachers, who although well enough grounded in their individual subject knowledge, are not necessarily good at teaching in schools using active learning methods (MOE, 2003). Moreover, teaching practice is done for a short period, usually for a month (including a week of observation of a class in procession under a teacher and three weeks for independent actual teaching) (ICDR,1999).

Contrary to this, the practicum, the teaching method and professional studies have now been prioritized and given sufficient time to enable them to be taught in a way which is inline with current ideas on learning. Besides, new practicum is designed to ensure that the would be teachers have much supported experience as possible, before they enter the classroom as a qualified teacher. It is designed with the assumption that learning takes place when the learners have to make sense of things that confront them- the idea that development comes through the individual's construction of or invention of knowledge (MOE,2003).

Besides, to be effective, the students need to have the following: a) an early opportunity to observe the school environment; the behavior of school students, their level of performance, learning capacity, and receptivity, teaching methods used in schools, etc with guidance with their tutors, b) the chance to explore teaching methods and practices for themselves through micro teaching and direct experience of school teaching, c) the opportunity to select on their experience, on their own, with peers, and with teachers in the school community and from their education institutions (Ibid).



I think it would be reasonable to consider microteaching to some extent. Micro teaching is one of the most recent innovations which is exclusively meant to improve teacher education programs (Chauhan, 1990). According to Wragg (1999), one of the biggest problems facing those who train new teachers is the sheer complexity of teaching in a busy classroom. The purpose of micro teaching in its many forms is to reduce this complexity.

In this respect, micro teaching has been described as a scaled down teaching encounter designed to develop new skills and refine old ones (Mc knight, 1971; as cited in Brown 1975). A trainee (Student or teacher) teaches a small group of pupil for five to ten or twenty minutes. The lesson is usually video recorded and subsequently observed and analyzed. By so doing, it enables the trainee to get feedback from his/her supervisors or peers after teaching (Brown, 1975; ICDR, 1999; Chauhan, 1990). In addition, micro teaching seemed to have demonstrable effectiveness in improving the teacher's "**knowledge how**" (Gage, 1978)

However, peer teaching and micro teaching are hardly functional in teacher training institutes. Besides, the process of the preparation of teachers starting from the recruitment right through the whole process of training is unsatisfactory (ICDR, 1999)

2.4.1. Linking theory with Practice

According to Gage (1978), the theory takes the form of a hierarchically structured set of beliefs about the proper ends and means of teaching, the characteristics of students, the modes of learning, and the ways in which all of these interact to govern the teachers behavior at any given moment. The test of good theory is whether it can guide practice. In reverse, good practice is based on theory. By practice, we mean the methods, and skills that apply to the working world, when a person is on the job and actively involved in his or her profession (Ornstein, 1991: 64)

As indicated by McNiff (1993: 39), the traditional approach to teacher education sees theory as an input that influences practice, and that practice is seen as the end product, and outcome of a theory successfully implemented. **Theory → practice**. By the same taken, however, Whitehead viewed theory as an outcome of practice, and is part of an overall strategy of theorizing which is a form of practice.

Practice → theory → re-formed practice → reformed theory

Process of theorizing

This process of theorizing in which practice and theory fuse and interchange, is the foundation of a certain practice which is an aspect of the creative pattern of life an aware, critical person who is concerned to improve the quality of life for herself and for the people in her care (Ibid).

In line with this, Ashton (1999) describes that the ability to examine problems of practice from a variety of theoretical perspectives provides teachers with a powerful tool with which to evaluate and modify their practice. Furthermore Gage (1978) asserted that we are not so much concerned with the teacher's "knowing that" as with his/her "knowing how" for example, we may know that re-enforcers strengthen responses but not know how to reinforce a pupil so as to strengthen the child's tendency to participate in class discussion. He further adds much of teacher education program is given over to proceeding teachers with a great deal of knowledge that (propositional) certain things are true: in the subjects to be taught.

According to Ashton (1999: 214), however, propositional knowledge learned in a context isolated from practice can not be expected to transfer to the classroom. Curzon (1993) further extended that if practice is the 'how', theory is the 'why', successful practitioners in any field will be the better equipped for their task if they understand both the 'how' and the 'why'. In addition for him, theory and practice often go hand in hand; indeed, theory is generally 'distilled practice'.

Thus, when it comes to providing prospective or already employed teachers with **Knowledge how**, we know that practice is required (Roland 1961; as quoted in Gage 1978). As to Roland, it is this realization of the need for practice that had led from the very beginning to inclusion in teacher education programs of opportunities for practice teaching. Diez (1999) also adds the field experiences are designed to promote the constant interrelating of knowing and doing.

On the other hand, Michael Oakeshott Claim that all human activities involve two kinds of knowledge: **Technical** and **Practical**.

- *Technical knowledge:* is a knowledge of rules techniques and principles that can be formulated comprehensively in propositions which can be learned, remembered and put in to practice.
- *Practical knowledge:* exists only in use which is not reflective and can not be formulated in rules. Its normal expression is in a practice of some sort, in a customer or traditional way of doing things. For him, this two kinds of knowledge are distinguishable but inseparable, both being involved in every concrete activity. Together they make any skill or act what it is (Hirts,1983).

2.4.2 The trios interplay at the scene of practicum

Teaching practice is a joint venture of a teacher education institute and cooperating schools (ICDR, 1999). The involvement of schools in the implementation of this program has led to the strengthening of ties between the college and schools, instilling the feeling of collective responsibility and ownership. On line < <http://www.uum.edu.my/fskp/BIr/m.htm>.

The nature of the partnership between teacher educators in the university and school sharing a view of what each is best placed to do depends upon the achievement of a shared model of teacher preparation which recognizes the distinct and valuable contribution each party has to make to the education of intending teachers (Fidler and McCulloch, 1994:173). They argue that time having been spent in debate, argument and reflection for it is neither self evident nor rooted in research evidence that teachers and tutors will have a shareable view of what constitutes the most effective form of teacher preparation.

Darling-Hamond (1999) also suggests that teachers need to understand how interaction among students can be structured to allow more powerful shared meaning to occur. They need to understand how to collaborate with others to plan, assess, and improve learning with and across the school, as well as how to work with parents to learn more about their students and to shape supportive experience at school.

Preparation for partnership is the real challenge. Nevertheless, as put by Fidler and McCulloch (1994), a more integrated partnership between schools and HEIs and tutors is almost certainly part of the process of improving the preparation of these new professionals. For them, the real difficulties for this transition involve:

a) resources in addition to those currently available, b) the need to involve sufficient good schools and teachers , and c) how to help HEI tutors and school mentors to play their respective parts in this new enterprise.

Evidence has shown that the best way to educate teachers is to give them real experience of school and students very near the beginning of their course, so that this can inform their further learning. The practicum, as indicated in the TESO document, has three part structure: **preparation in college, activity in school and reflection and analysis in college.**

Practicum is scheduled in such a way that in the first year student teachers will have two hours in each month to prepare and reflect, and half a day each month in the placement school besides black teaching time. During practicum I, student teachers will have a chance to experience each grade level (5-8) at the same placement school. Time will be spent, before and after each school experience, with tutor for reflection and discussion of essential teaching skills. Tutors and student teachers will work together during this time to determine the objectives of each shift spent in school. Student teachers will produce a school experience portfolio during the year, recording their observation, teaching experiences, relevant information, ideas, lesson plans, and materials developed.

In the second year, student teachers will continue to work with small groups and progress to teaching practice with whole class. The contact hour will be two in both the first and the second years. During first semester (practicum III), student teachers, supported by colleagues, will take on more responsibilities in the school and class room (including planning lessons). The school experience will include a 2 week block of teaching where they will teach classes in their academic stream subject areas for grade 5-8. Tutors and school contacts (Mentors) will evaluate the student teachers through out the three years.(MOE,2003)

With this in mind, let us consider how tutors, mentors and the trainees collaborate to achieve the desired end. Because learning rooted in experience is more likely to be reflected in collaborative behavior (Yeomans, 1992).

2.4.2.1. The operation of mentoring

According to Dormer (1994), the term 'mentor' is used to describe the differing roles of supervisory teachers in a variety of school based schemes for Initial Teacher Education. Besides, for wragg (1999) the word 'mentor' is a generic term referring to any one who

influences the development of some one else's mind, so it can equally be used for a tutor from a training institution.

Besides, being a model of good teaching practice, the mentor has a significant role to play in the student teacher's development as a reflective practitioner. Thus, the mentor acts as a support for the student teacher; motivating, raising awareness, providing feed back and advice, reviewing sessions and guiding future planning, acting as a 'critical friend' - un threatening source of student-teacher improvement, and acting as a link person between the school and the college (Chhen et al 2000).

In fact, these are difficult to achieve without knowing the individual student well and having been involved in their development and progress over a lengthy period 'of time' Moreover, investigations have paid too little attention to considering whether and to what extent the information, advice and support which it is assumed mentors and tutors provide actually informs student teachers' preparation for practice and subsequent teaching (McNamara, 1994).

However, the success of the use of competences or developing and assessing student teachers' achievements relies on the sensitive support given to the student in the school by the mentor and in the institution of higher education by the appropriate tutor (Chhen et al 2000). In line with this, Murray (1999:74) asserted that mentors should know enough to be fully responsive to all the demands of the class room calling in expert help only in rare instances when a problem exceeds their level of training and skill. Likewise, as stated by Goble and porter (1977:147) a teacher tutor needs to know how to help, to diagnose and to prescribe to observe, but not to impose. They also added that a teacher educator needs to have the capacity to learn from the student teacher's own learning, both outside and inside school.

From this, it can be recognized that both mentors and tutors are equally important to promote the trainees' professional development McIntyne (1994), in this respect, puts a concluding remark by saying that with out a high level of commitment, understanding and investment of energies by school teachers, a move towards more school-based teacher education will bring no benefit. He also says for mentors to be effective teacher educators, they need to become co-planners of the program in which they are working, and to do that effectively they also need to become co-theorists about teacher education.

2.4.2.2. *Why reflection?*

A good teacher is one who matches instruction to the needs of students. This teacher spends much time evaluating the implications of one's teaching occasions in the classroom. This is the mark of a reflective practitioner. Such self reflection leads to greater knowledge about the students, about the subject being taught, and about the act of teaching (Campbele, et al 1995; as quoted in Wandberg and Rohower, 2003).

In his attempt to analyze professional activity, Schon (1983) in Fidler (1994: 20) has devised two alternative models: **technical rationality** and **reflection-in -action**.

Technical rationality assumes that professionals have theoretical knowledge (generated in research centers /universities) which is applied to particular situations or at schools which are worlds of practice. In this case, the teachers' task is seen as applying this theoretical knowledge. However, as indicated in Ghaye and Ghaye (2001), Schon noted that this application of theory to practice devalues the knowledge that teachers develop about and through their teaching. For him, teachers are viewed as technicians because they never question the value that underpin their practice and make them the kind of teacher they are. He also added that teachers never question the context in which they are teaching and how this liberates and constrains what they do.

Reflection- in -action acknowledges the need for basic knowledge but also recognizes the need of professionals to create their own framework to conceptualize their own practice (Fidler, 1994: 21). To Schone, reflection on practice is a creative process. It is a complex process and much more than "just thinking about what you do. It is about being professionally self- critical with out being destructive and overly negative. That is, a reflective practitioner is a teacher who is operating much beyond the technician level.

In this respect, teachers need to be able to analyze and reflect on their practice, to assess the effects of their teaching and to refine and improve their instruction. As stated by Moore (1994), reality is always more complex than theory. Theory illuminates reality in particular, partial way, but never exhausts it. In connection with this, Barens (1989) stated that most theories throw the implicit assumptions of established practices in to sharp relief revealing their taken for granted principles and underlying their theoretical status. Therefore, novice practitioners are encouraged to question, criticize, and reformulate assumptions about the

nature of their work through what Schon (1987) calls “a reflective conversation with the situation”. He further notes such rationality comes from deep understandings of the nature, purposes, and conditions of teaching as professional work.

Hence, the move from the older teaching to the newer one, demands teachers to think about what they do? and how and why they do it? Reflective practice allows them to consider such questions as:

- Which teaching model am I using?
- How does it apply in specific learning situation?
- How well is it working? On line < <http://www.nc/rc.org/essentials/whateach/reflect.htm>.

‘All reflective thoughts arise out of real problems present in immediate experiences’ (Mead, 1934 cited in Reiman, 1999). In light of this, reflection on one’s class room practices encourages growth. In other words, experience + reflection = growth. In connection with this, Dewey further elaborated that we do not actually learn from experience as much as we learn from reflection on experience (Wandberg and Rohower, 2003; Posner, 2005). Again, Goethals and Howard (2000) cited in Windber and Rohower (2003), considered learning to teach well to be a result of reflective practice. By the same taken, it is stated that as teachers engage in instruction and then reflect on it, the process offers insight in to various dimensions of teaching and learning that can lead to better teaching (Schon, 1987).

To this end, acquiring new knowledge, whether about pedagogy or about subject matter, requires, among other things, the ability to reflect on and learn from experience. However, as teacher educators, it is questionable to assume whether our students have developed this skill (Grossman, et al 1989). In fact, there could be various reasons for these doubts. To McIntyne (1994), student teachers’ learning was not generally conscious or deliberate, it may be suggested, because learning was not the primary goal for them on teaching practice. Meeting the requirements of supervising teachers and visiting tutors and winning the confidence of pupils, or at least gaining control over them, were for most the priority needs.

2.4.3. Assessment and feedback

Assessment refers to the process of collecting, interpreting, and synthesizing information to aid in decision making: It includes information gathering on pupils, instruction, and classroom climate. Or it is the way of gathering information about how much and how well their students

are learning. Assessment is again concerned with diagnosing specific misunderstandings in order to help students to learn more specifically (ICDR, 1999; Wanderberg and Rohower, 2003; Ramsden, 2000). 'If we wish to discover the truth about an educational system, we must look in to its assessment procedures' (Rowntree, 1987; as requested in Ramsden 2000).

In addition, Ramsden (2000) notes that the methods we use to assess are one of the most critical of all influences on students learning. For him, a view of assessment as being primarily about the allocation of rewards and punishments to students through the grading process is part of undeveloped theory of teaching in which students tend to learn strategies which help them to earn high grades at the cost of understanding material. It seems that a good deal of student 'learning is not in fact about understanding but about adapting to the requirements of teachers.

The major purpose of using continuous assessment is to continuously follow students learning progress so as to identify those students who have and who have not mastered a particular knowledge and skills and respond quickly and effectively to students' real or perceived learning problems and hence improve their learning (Murphy, 1995 in Capper, 1996) In substantiating this, Airasian (1997) stated that students learn more in classes where assessment is an integral part of instruction than in those where it is not; and brief assessment that provide frequent feed back about learning progress are more effective than infrequent ones.

For example, if assessment of students is above all about understanding the process and outcomes of student learning, the important things that a student has mastered should be apparent in works he can exhibit and in things he can make, compose, and design. It should be evident in the real and personally significant problems he can solve, in the stories he can tell and write, and so forth (Murray, 1999). Thus learning entails not only what students know but what they can do with what they know (Wandberg and Rohower, 2003).

Besides, it is stated that a new assessment program can succeed only if teachers accept it. If teachers do not accept the basic philosophy of a program, one can hardly expect that it will be properly implemented (Nitko, 1996). In Ethiopian context, Teshome (2001) has evidenced that teachers must understand the assessment process, feel secure about it and accept it as their own for its effective implementation. Nevertheless, the implementation of the assessment process is considered to be a difficult and controversial task, both in terms of What criteria to

apply and which parts of the performance of students should be assessed (Tuliusdottir et al 2002).

As stated earlier, the areas of competence have already been identified by the TESO document, however, the appropriate criteria to assess such specified competences seem not well articulated /developed. To this end, McCulloch (1994) says it is more likely that teaching and learning process will be guided by the definition of competencies adapted and by specific competencies identified for assessment. He also stated that the implication for teacher education is the need to identify and describe in measurable ways the knowledge and skills which permit competencies to be observed through performance in ways which permit the higher order competence to be deduced (P. 133).

In this regard, the problem is that there is no clear consensus about what constitutes a good practice. In addition, competencies are expected to meet national as opposed to local standards (Norris, 1991 in McCulloch, 1994). To Hextall et al (1991), however, the quality of reflectivity can be formulated as a series of competencies which can be observed, developed and monitored (Ibid).

Another component part of assessment to be considered here is the feedback. According to Ornstein (1991), teachers appreciate feedback process where by they can improve their teaching, if the processes are honest and fair and are professionally planned and administered; if teachers are permitted to make mistakes; and if more than one model of effectiveness is considered so that teachers can adopt recommended behaviors and methods that fit their own personality and philosophy. To this effect, as precisely put by Rowntree (1987), feedback or knowledge of results has been considered as the 'life blood'.

2.5 Evidences Obtained from Practical Studies

Since the practicum is recently introduced phenomenon in to our education system, research works are not yet fully undertaken. Even though this is the case, I was hunting a lot to obtain available literature. Fortunately, I came across three research findings which are presented as follows:

Mulugeta (2002) conducted a research on "Perceptions of Teaching practice in Bahir Dar University" and came up with the following findings:

a) the length (duration) of the time assigned for teaching practice was not enough; even it was regarded as too short to meet its objectives, to learn the skills, attitudes of a competent and effective teacher. Accordingly, to self evaluate and discover the strengths and weaknesses, b) the time table had not allowed sufficient time for them to do all what was expected, c) dependable attention was not given to practicum by both university and cooperating schools; rather it was very inadequate, d) for many of respondents, current teaching practice was more of a matter of evaluation for the course, but others felt it was more a matter of real practice.

Another similar research was conducted by Reda (2001). On "Conceptions of Constructivist Teaching Approaches in Higher Institutions" particularly at Bahr-Dar University.

The research finding revealed that the Bahir Dar University instructors encouraged student autonomy and initiative, designed lessons in terms of behavioral objectives, and helped students synthesize and evaluate ideas during the instructional process. In short, the instructors internalized the new model of teaching and learning so that the instructors go beyond providing (delivering) a good lecture.

Betoret et al (2004) also conducted a research on "Trainee Teachers' Conceptions of Teaching and Learning, Classroom Layout and Exam Design."

The finding supports that train teachers have more idealistic and altruistic values as regards to education than qualified teachers. When it comes to actually teaching, the novice teacher will begin to review her/his attitudes and ideals in order to adapt them to the 'rough and harsh reality of the classroom' that Veenman talks about (1984)

CHAPTER THREE ✓

3. Methodology

Research methodology undertaken maybe influenced to a large extent by the epistemology to which an individual adheres. By epistemology, we mean, the branch of philosophy that is concerned with the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated.

According to Best and Kahn (1993:183), research methodologies can be viewed in a dichotomized way: logical positivism and phenomenological inquiry. The former dominates educational research and is based on the assumption of the natural sciences while the latter uses a variety of interpretive research methodologies such as ethnographic, case study, phenomenology and grounded theory.

Positivists view the world as being "out there", and available for study in a more or less static form. The task of positivistic scientific inquiry, then is, to reduce bias, make free observations of the natural and social world "out there". For them, physical and social reality are independent of those who observe them and that observation of these realities if unbiased constitute scientific knowledge (Gall, 1996: 18)

An opposing epistemological position to positivism is based on the assumption that social reality is constructed by the individuals who participate in it. These "constructions" take the form of interpretations, that is, the ascription of meanings to the social environment. The researchers here stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. Such researchers seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning. (ibid)

The dominant methodology in qualitative research is, therefore, to "invent" these meanings and interpretations in natural settings and subjecting the resulting data to analytic induction (Best and Kahn, 1993: 186; Gall et al, 1996:18).

In my opinion, there are several possible ways to conceptualize and approach qualitative research, but the words of Silverman (1995:23-24) in Amare (2004) characterize it by

providing such criteria as:-

- seeing through the subject's perspective; or taking the subject's perspective,
- describing the mundane detail of every day settings,
- understanding actions and meanings in their social context,
- emphasizing time and process,
- favoring open and relatively unstructured research design,
- avoiding concepts and theories at early stage,

In short, qualitative research implies an emphasis on the qualities of entities and on process and meanings that are not experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003 in Amare, 2004).

3.1 Method

A precise meaning of a research design is given by Powell (1999:22) in Solomon (2004) as follows: "Research design is a sequence of events which connects the procedures for collecting the empirical data to the initial research questions on the one hand, and to the subsequent data collection, analysis and conclusions on the other."

My intention to select qualitative method for the issue under investigation is closely linked with what Berg (2004) has stated: "Qualitative techniques allow the researchers to share in the understandings and perceptions of others and to explore how people structure and give meaning to their daily lives. Researchers using qualitative technique examine how people learn and make sense of themselves and others"

It is obvious that the research method used can vary with respect to the researcher's epistemological position and the nature of the research questions. In this regard, Solomon (2004) puts, if we need to know "how" or "why" the curriculum had worked or not worked, we could necessarily lean towards a qualitative case study.

To this end, I have employed a descriptive case study method with the assumption that it enables me collect in depth shared meanings that the individuals have about the phenomenon under study. In light of this, Best and Kahn (1993) expound that the in depth and detailed description of events, interviews and others make qualitative research very powerful. The

richness of data permits a fuller understanding of what is being studied than could be driven from experimental or survey research.

According to Gall et al (2005), researchers conduct case studies in order to *describe, explain, or evaluate* particular social phenomenon. For them, the purpose of description, in many case studies, is to depict and conceptualize an educational phenomenon clearly. It provides clear description of phenomena, that is, a set of statements that re-create the situation and give readers a sense of meanings and interactions inherent in that situation. In addition, they considered the case study to have the following key characteristics:

1. *The study of particular instances:* A case study is conducted to shed light on a particular phenomenon, that is, a set of processes, events, individuals, or other things of interest to the researcher.
2. *In depth study of the case:* A case study involves collection of a substantial amount of data about the specific case or cases, selected to separate the phenomena. Data typically are collected over an extended period of time, with several methods of data collection.
3. *Study of phenomenon in its natural context:* Case study typically involves field work, in which the researcher interacts with research participants in their natural settings.
4. *Representation of both the Emic and Etic perspectives:* A case study seeks to develop an understanding of a complex phenomenon as experienced by its participants or it attempts to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. As put by Gall et al (1996: 548), the participants' view point is called the **emic perspective**.

Typically, the researchers obtain the emic perspective through informal conversations with the case study participants, and by directly observing them as they behave naturally in the field. Case study researchers also generally maintain their own perspective as investigators of the phenomenon. Their view point as outsiders is called the **etic perspective**. This helps them make conceptual and theoretical sense of the case, and to report the findings so that their contribution to the literature is clear (Gall et al, 1996).

Besides, the reason why a case study is more appropriate to investigate curricular issues is described in precise and concise words as: A crucial aspect, among the advantages of using a

"case study" strategy, the distinctive one is its strength to get answers when a "how" or "why" questions are asked about contemporary events like *an implementation process of a new curriculum*, over which the investigator has little or no control on the curriculum as well as on the implementers (Yin, 2003 in Solomon, 2004).

To Solomon, some of the applications of case study strategy pertinent to curriculum implementation process are to:

- explain the presumed causal links in real life interventions that are too complex for the survey of experimental strategies. In other words, the explanations would link curriculum implementation with curriculum effect.
- describe the process of implementation and the real-life context in which it occurred. In short, the available literature revealed that a descriptive case study is feasible to guide my research undertaking and its subsequent completion.

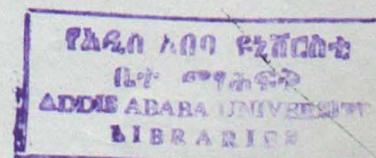
3.2 The Research Setting and the Participants of the Study

i) The research setting

This research was undertaken at Hoassana College of Teachers Education which is located in South Nation Nationalities Peoples' Region (SNNPR) just at 230 kms away from Addis Ababa. It is one of the newly established junior colleges in the region. However, it started functioning as a teacher training institute on December 01, 1994 (E.C) aiming at certifying teachers for primary first cycle. Later, in October 01, 1996 (E.C) it was empowered and upgraded its standard to diploma level.

The College is broad based and currently runs three main programs, the regular (full time program), the evening-extension program (part time) and summer extension (in -service program) - all of which qualify graduates for teaching in the second cycle primary schools (i.e. grade 5-8).

In addition, the College runs a TTI (both extension and regular) program. The TTI regular program is provided (taken up) on request by certain zones which did not yet fulfill their demands through extension graduates.



The 10+3 diploma program consists of five streams. Each stream contains three subjects but with no major and minor areas of courses. Student teachers are expected to follow one of five academic streams: Natural sciences; social Sciences; Language; Aesthetics and Physical Education; and Mathematics, Basic Science and Civics and Ethical Education, as specified in the Teacher Education Systems Overhaul (TESO) (MOE, 2003).

Because of inadequacy of facilities, the Aesthetics stream was transferred to Awassa College of Teacher Education. The Hossana College is, therefore, offering courses in the remaining four streams aiming to: train competent teachers for the second cycle primary school by relating the curriculum with local realities to meet the academic standard of the cycle as designed in the new Education and Training Policy (The College Manual (n.d)).

With regard to the qualification status, the college is, now, running its program by engaging 74 teaching staff- of whom 70 are males and 4 are females. Among these, 20 teachers are post graduates, 48 are first degree graduates and the remaining 6 are diploma holders.

Currently, the total student teachers enrollment is 1261 (Male) and 657 (Female) for regular trainees whereas the total number of (first and second year) extension trainees is 597 (Male) and 155 (Female). That means, including 1003 TTI students a total of 3673 trainees are expected to take their school experience with in 14 placement schools around the Hossana town.

Moreover, the trainees use a small library equipped with fairly enough references, text books, Journals, etc but which couldn't suffice the customers need at the moment (because of its size). Hence, the cafeteria had been allowed to render additional service.

The physical condition of the classroom seems appropriate to conduct the teaching learning process in the way the new model demands. Because each class is provided with sufficient armchairs and in most cases accommodates 50 students /trainees on average. However, this is quite contradictory to what prevails in the placement schools.

In connection with this, the rationale for selecting the research setting was based on the selection of the research topic. That means, the research methodology course which I took last year (as a graduate student) inspired me to write my masters thesis on qualitative research perspective. Hence, I had to select an appropriate topic which could be better treated by

qualitative means. Therefore, the research setting was preferred because of its accessibility and familiarity to the researcher so that it facilitated the research work than other wise it would be.

ii) The research participants

The research participants were mainly **mentors, tutors and trainees**. The term mentor and tutor may be used for any one who influences the development of some one else's mind. In this particular case, however, mentors and tutors refer to cooperating school and college teacher educators respectively.

Therefore, the study included one practicum unit coordinator, ten tutors and mentors (five from each), and eight trainees from 2nd and 3rd year (four from each). Among the teacher educators, all the mentors were diploma holders; except one who was postgraduate, other tutors were degree holders (graduates). In other words, the study involved a total of 19 purposefully selected participants.

I considered this number reasonably fair because, as precisely put by Brookfield (1990), "The phenomenological truth of an insight does not depend on the number of people who report its occurrence. Aspects of many teachers' experiences can be embedded in one teacher's actions." Moreover, the selection of teacher educators was mainly based on their awareness on the issue under study. That is, I made formal and informal talks with administrative bodies and the teacher educators themselves in such a way to select the individuals with adequate understanding.

In my opinion, there are two major concerns awaiting the trainees: acquiring theoretical knowledge (from the college) and applying it (at placement schools). With this in mind, one informed tutor was selected from each academic stream and one more tutor from professional studies so as to obtain a holistic idea about the two inseparable entities. Like wise, mentors were selected from five cooperating schools at which frequent observations have been made. In the first semester of this academic year, practicum was not scheduled for the first year trainees rather postponed to the next semester. Hence, the selection of candidates was made from second and third year trainees by considering class participation, expressiveness and academic concerns.

3.3 Data Collection Process

As already discussed, the determination of which data gathering technique to use is necessarily linked to the type of research questions being posed. In light of this, in depth, semi-structured interview, direct observation and written documents were primarily used along with field notes. As described by Pressle and Diane (1991) in Solomon (2004), field notes typically consist of records of observations and a commentary on what was observed, how it was observed, and what it might mean.

1. Direct Observation

Many researchers believe that there is no a more obvious approach to research on teaching than direct observation of teachers while they teach and pupils while they learn.

Judging the quality or effectiveness of what happens in a classroom is not, however, a simple or one-dimensional matter (Wragg, 1999). The same author also says, judgment about professional competence nowadays, when a wider range of teaching styles is accepted than might have formerly been the case, is often founded on different criteria. Those who prefer quantitative approaches might look at test scores obtained by children, but others operating to a different agenda might appraise what they see as the quality of learning taking place, without necessarily measuring it.

It should be noted that classroom observation was undertaken at both the **college and the cooperating schools**. First, I and the second year trainees observed regular teachers while teaching (at cooperating schools) to see classroom practices whether they facilitate or impede what was intended.

Then, at the college, I tried to observe the trainees' portfolio presentation- that was compiled on the basis of experiences and knowledge gained during their school visit. At an other time, the third year trainees were also observed while teaching in the cooperating schools substituting the regular teachers.

Since individuals attach different meaning to a particular observed phenomenon, obtaining objective data does not escape from criticism of subjective bias. However, Amare (2004) precisely described this by saying, "The independent observer doesn't really exist". By the

same taken, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) argued that there are no objective observations, only observations socially situated in the world of -and between- the observer and the observed.

To reduce the bias, if not totally possible to eradicate, frequent classroom observations was made focusing on *conducting lessons, engaging students in learning activities and managing classroom* by using observation instrument (checklist) adapted from a format available at Addis Ababa University. One of the problems researchers encounter is that of participants' report of activities and beliefs may not match their observed interactions. Thus participant observation is a check, enabling the researchers to verify that individuals are doing what they believe they are doing (Lecompte and Pressle, 1993).

2. The Interview

The interview is an especially effective method of collecting information particularly when investigators interested in understanding the perceptions of participants or learning how participants come to attach certain meanings to phenomena or events (Tylor and Bogdan, 1998 in Berg, 2004).

To this stand point, semi-structured interview was administered to the **trainees and teacher educators** (mentors and tutors) including the **practicum coordinator** in the form of person to person encounter. As pointed out by Solomon (2004), the questions to be asked are not necessarily predetermined rather they could be context driven. Thus semi-structured interview was simply used as a stepping stone in such a way to conduct discussion and elicit new questions and perspectives for further discussion. By so doing, the interview was recorded based on the assent and consent of the participants. Then, transcribed carefully before it was translated in to English.

3. Written documents and field notes

Written documents and field notes were also used to substantiate the relevance of the evidence obtained through observation and interview. Especially, written documents were included as a data gathering technique during the ongoing interview when trainees expressed their suspicion that the portfolio assessment was a neglected part of their learning. Therefore, I tried to analyze the **portfolios** that were compiled on the basis of the trainees' actual school experience and collected in the practicum unit coordinator's office. It is gratifying to note that by

combining several lines of sight, researchers obtain a better, more substantive picture of reality or simply by triangulation (Berg, 2004)

To sum up, I stayed, exactly, three months (December 23-March 24, 2006) in the research site to collect the data for the study. It took me such a long time because, for one thing, there are many parties to be involved in the practicum (the college and placement schools). This demanded me extra time to conceptualize practicum as perceived/ experienced by research participants.

The other reason was, practicum was scheduled at different times for different year trainees (2nd and 3rd in this particular case); and sometimes, there was a programming inconvenience to accomplish the task as intended.

During this extended period of field work, the researcher's major role was as a data collecting "instrument" and expected to be sensitive observer, story teller and descriptive writer through recording as faithfully as possible the phenomena that were seen, heard and felt. This is because, as pointed out by Solomon (2004), the process of data collection and analysis in a qualitative case study that focuses on process could uncover the secrets of the process if and only if it is recursive and dynamic.

3.4 Data Analysis

In qualitative research, data gathering and its subsequent analysis go hand in hand. This is because, as put by Solomon (2004), data collection and analysis are mandatory because one does not know whom to interview, what to ask, or where to look next without analyzing data as they are collected. In fact, the challenge is to make sense of massive amount of data, reduce the volume of information, identify significant patterns and construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal (Best and Kahn, 1993:203).

In this regard, Stake (1995) advocates four forms of data analysis and interpretation in case study research. These are:

- (1) categorical aggregation the researcher seeks a collection of instances from the data, hoping that issues or relevant meanings will emerge;
- (2) direct interpretation - case study researcher looks at a single instance and draws meaning from without looking for multiple instances;

- (3) establishing patterns-looking for a correspondence between two or more categories; and
- (4) develop naturalistic generalization - generalizations that help people learn from the case either for themselves or for applying it to a population of cases.

Tesch (1990) in Gall et al (1996), on the other hand, classified the approaches used in case study analysis into three types; *structural, reflective, and interpretational* analysis.

Structural analysis is the process of examining case study data for the purpose of identifying patterns inherent in discourse, text, events or other phenomena with little inferential meaning.

Reflective analysis is a process in which the researcher relies primarily on intuition and judgment in order to portray or evaluate the phenomena being studied.

Her explanation of *interpretive analysis* appeared in a more comprehensive way in Gall et al (2005). That is, it involves a systematic set of procedures to code and classify qualitative data to ensure that the important construct, themes, and patterns emerge in a way to describe and explain the phenomenon being studied.

Moreover, the steps of interpretational analysis are presented as follows:

- 1 preparing a database containing all the data (field notes, documents, transcripts, records, etc);
- 2 numbering each line of text sequentially and then dividing the text into meaningful segments (e.g. in the analysis of interview data, each question plus the participants response might be a separate segment;)
- 3 developing meaningful categories to code the data;
- 4 coding each segment by and all categories that apply to it;
- 5 cumulating all the segments that have been coded by a given category; and
- 6 generating constructs that emerge from the categories (Ibid).

It seems that there are no clear cut mechanical procedures to follow qualitative data analysis. However, *interpretive analysis* was predominantly used, in this particular case study, in harmony with *reflective analysis* through which the researcher invested his own intuition and personal judgment to get the complete picture of what the data was all about.

In other words, I have thoroughly rehearsed all the available data in order to conceptualize and identify significant phenomenon that have some attributes in common. This helped me to

develop appropriate categories that can adequately encompass and summarize the data. To Gall et al (1996: 564), a category is a construct/ a concept that refers to a certain type of phenomenon mentioned in the database.

After a series of attempts and revision three categories came to emerge. Using a single case analysis strategy, each segment in the data at hand was coded into appropriate category where it fits. Then, the data were presented in the form of narratives and vignettes. The interpretation of the data has also included my own personal understanding and reflection.

Ethical issues

Unless properly handled, data collection techniques may pose various ethical problems. Best and Kahn (1993) explained ethics as any set of rules or guidance's or human discretions on the part of the researcher that directs the appropriate treatment of person participated in the research.

In order to secure sufficient and pertinent data gathering, therefore, due attention was given to ethical issues before, during and after data collection. In short, to make feel free about any possible risk, the researcher openly negotiated with research participants and their views were audio taped accordingly.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. Results and Analysis

This section is devoted to presentation and interpretation of the data. Hence, the data were presented and analyzed in the form of narratives and vignettes under three categories. To ensure **confidentiality** and **anonymity**, **pseudo names** are used in all of the cases. If by chance any of the names used in the case descriptions refer to some one else, it is just mere coincidence.

4.1 Planning and Collaboration

The diploma (10+3) programme has three components: the practicum, academic subject streams and shared professional courses. These components appear inseparable and interdependent. For instance, the success in practicum partly or fully depends on overall success of the other components. In addition to focusing on practicum, therefore, the study incorporates some aspects of the remaining components of the program.

Muluken (a tutor) explained that the program has been designed with the assumption that students who successfully complete academic courses in their high schools become competent enough to teach primary second cycle (5-8). To realize this, the first year courses mainly stressed on revising academic disciplines of grade 9 and 10 courses. In the second and third consecutive years, almost equivalent to preparatory (1 and 2) courses are delivered in such a way to equip the trainees with the necessary theoretical knowledge along with providing a ground for practicing it.

However, he also added his doubts that if the trainees come to join the college without successfully completing their high school courses, the stated assumption will be questionable.

Muluken forwarded the following evidence for his doubts.

Natural science stream includes primarily Physics, Chemistry and Biology courses which are merely designed on the basis of what the graduates of this stream are supposed to teach in the upper primary schools. As a result, the exclusion of Mathematics from this stream has created strong debate and complaining within the teaching and learning encounter (MF, 16/03/2006).

In light of this, Mesele (a candidate) bitterly expressed:

"A teacher who is knowledgeable in physics is a cripple unless he/ she has adequate knowledge of mathematics. For example, if a student asks him/her to elaborate the derivative of $KE = \frac{1}{2} MV^2$, then, the teacher needs to apply his/her mathematical knowledge" (MG, 23/2/06).

Through negotiation with concerned bodies, (particularly regional Education Bureau) however, the problem is now resolved by including mathematics into natural science stream as a common course. But, third year students have already lost this chance.

Girum (a tutor) also gave similar comment. To him, courses offered at college and cooperating schools are related but there are still areas that need further improvement. He mentioned that algebra and geometry were presented together to be treated one by one. As there is no sufficient time to cover both, the geometry part mostly remains untouched. In this connection, the teacher expressed his fear that trainees may face difficulty in handling geometry in grade seven Mathematics.

Biruk (a tutor) pointed out more critical idea that:

"A teacher is expected to know beyond what he/she is supposed to teach. This is possible when training provides enough opportunities to learn courses in some more depth. However, the current training approach emphasized on methodology (teaching science) at the expense of understanding the subject matter. In this case, the inadequacy of subject matter understanding was witnessed during the time of teaching practice when some of the trainees were unable to treat certain concepts as they should. At the same time, the learners in the classroom were asking questions that could be answered by the teacher's exposure to some additional course or further reading" (BM, 20/03/2006)

In light of this, Grossman (1991) says, without more explicit knowledge of the subject matter, teachers find it difficult to explain the material to students.

Almost all the research partners (mentors and tutors) were of the opinion that trainees were better equipped with the teaching methodology as compared to subject matter knowledge understanding. However, trainees' response was quite different from what has been justified by teacher educators regarding subject matter understanding.

Except one, all of the interviewed trainees were convinced that they have acquired adequate subject matter knowledge and feel confident to successfully accomplish what is expected of them. This is consistent with what has been stated by Weinstein, (1988: 1989) in Ashton (1999) beginning teachers typically do not conceive of teaching as a complex activity; they

view themselves as ready to teach. To Weinstein, unless the trainees conceive of teaching as a complex problem they are unlikely to become seriously engaged in the preparation process.

Welendo (a trainee), on the other hand, explained his belief that in the pretext of student centered methodology, much of the work has been left for learners at the college. For him, those who didn't invest considerably enough time and energy will suffer a lot in tackling the teaching challenges. Besides, some trainees considered Teaching Stream Subject (TSS) to be unnecessary repetition of concepts that are already addressed through professional courses. They described that the course was unclear for them including their instructors. In contrary, Teshale (a candidate) explained:

"Teaching stream subject is a 3rd year course and it is among the most important courses to which we have been introduced recently. It acquaints us with teaching our subjects by taking it in to account learner's prior experience, level of understanding, etc. Or, it is simply the course that helps us to present the subject matter knowledge as can be understood by the learner" (TW, 23/02/2006).

Muluken (a tutor) on the other hand, has the following to say:

"Of course, there is one integrated module for each stream that focuses on the issues of teaching stream subjects. I do not entirely depend on it as a text book. I often use it as a guide. Presumably there can be a case where different teachers of the same stream interchangeably use it as a text book (MF, 10/03/2006)

According to Biruk (a tutor), learners criticism on teaching stream subject may have arisen from the fact that either the learners didn't understand the underlying assumption behind the course or it was not delivered in the way it was intended. To substantiate this with valid evidence, I looked at TSS module designed for natural science stream for the first semester. List of contents in the module were not specific to Biology, Chemistry or Physics rather they were more of general. Since the courses are not integrated, each course needs its own subject specific teaching method. The failure to do this may be related to what Daniel (2004) has pointed out: Lack of adequate staff in terms of qualification, pedagogical training and experience is the challenge that the newly emerging higher education institutions face.

On the other hand, effective implementation requires careful planning which focuses on three factors: people, program and organization. From practical point of view, it seems that schools will fail to implement their programs if they give due attention to one factor at the expense of the others (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1998).

In view of this, the college initially conducted a workshop for placement school directors to create the necessary awareness on practicum implementation. However, it was not fruitful in helping to achieve what was intended. This is due to the fact that as Oliva (1997) notes, effective innovation should embrace teachers, students, parents and other members of the community. It is the teacher who translates the intentions framed in the curriculum into actions through a multitude of activities occurring both inside and outside the classroom.

According to Adila (a 3rd year candidate), during the first year school visit, many placement school teachers considered the trainees to have had some kind of supervisory function and thereby showed reluctance to offer the desired help. Elfinesh (a candidate), on the other hand, noted:

"During my school visit, I have encountered teachers who are conscious of their work and responsive for those who seek help. At another time, I faced teachers who seem not only careless but also lack proper orientation to give the needed help and show direction" (EM, 10/03/2006).

In this regard, Farrat (1980) has the following to say: if teachers lack knowledge of the new teaching method which requires new roles and commitment, implementation will be hampered seriously. Furthermore, teachers can only whole- heartedly support reforms if they understand the need for it and know that they will be supported. This can only happen if the management of the school has vision, encourages the involvement of the teacher through extensive training (Squazzin and Graan, 1998)

Regarding this, mentors were convinced that for the last two years, there was no meaningful collaboration among the cooperating schools and the college. Sometimes, even, both mentors and tutors puzzled what measures to take to exercise the innovation.

In connection with this, Asrat (a mentor), described the situation as follows:

"A large number of trainees frequently come to us seeking help or at least some kind of guidance. Last year, for example, over sixty trainees came for classroom observation at a time and distributed in the available classes that were already over crowded and lacked extra chairs to sit on. Accordingly, the trainees were forced to sit or stand at any place possible and tried to observe what teaching and learning appears to be. Under such circumstance it would be naïve to consider the trainees could fulfill their wishes (AW, 23/02/2006).

In this regard, Ghaye, and Ghaye (2001) noted that schools can be very different as contexts for teaching and learning. Some of these contexts will be encouraging, stimulating and rewarding, while others will be much less so.

Currently, however, many of the research participants pointed out that conditions are getting better because of the awareness created through the workshops that are occasionally conducted at the College in such a way to involve all the parties. Besides, two buses are now rendering service to facilitate the field work which was a serious problem in the previous years.

But Fullan (1991) in McCulloch (1994) warns that 'most changes, even the big re-structuring ones have a pacifier effect because they give the appearance that something substantial is happening when it is not'. Nevertheless, there were indicators of events that require concerted efforts of both involved parties in such a way to narrow the existing communication break.

Tekabe (a tutor), for instance, stressed that program inconvenience was among the most prevalent problems that teachers ever face. This was evident when the trainees' field work overlaps with cooperating schools' test or any incidental program alternation. In fact, the researcher has also witnessed such a program clash at three placement schools at different times. As a result, the researcher's and the trainees' intention to observe the classroom dynamics was blocked. It seems that the practicum coordinating unit lacked appropriate evidence or the desired competence to make the corresponding change in advance.

In addition, Biruk (a tutor) claimed that he was unable to help the trainees as he should because of inadequate understanding what to do in subsequent phases of each practicum. Sometimes, as described by Biruk, the guideline was handed just on the way to placement schools so that the instructor faced difficulty in guiding his trainees.

On the other hand, Teferi (the practicum coordinator) explained his view points as follows:

"In spite of huge responsibilities that the practicum unit has been doing, there are no enough personnel to make our efforts successful. Nevertheless, attempts have been made to enhance the involvement of both involved parties. For example, higher proportion of budget has been consumed by conducting workshops, organizing cooperating schools in clusters and providing them with material support such as computers, duplicators, type writers and stationeries" (TC, 20 / 03/ 2006)

Teferi, however, didn't deny the problems associated with practicum. He pointed out that the participation of college teachers in the workshop was inadequate. Because teachers were busy with extension classes during week ends at which workshops were conducted. To Plass (1998), for implementing new instructional approach, teachers need short time training, a forum, workshops, etc. In such occasions, teachers need to be able to debate, discuss, investigate and above all learn to articulate their beliefs. *Teferi also described:*

"Although many college teachers cooperate with their colleagues in their work, there are still teachers who viewed collaboration as leader- subordinate relationship (TC, 20/ 03/ 2006).

To Teferi, such teachers seem bored with practicum and considered it to be an extra- official assignment. Young (1989) in Marsh (1997) noted that not all teachers find collaborative activities attractive. For some teachers, opportunities for cooperative discussion making are unwanted and rejected. It can be argued that people are the key to any implementation effort but not always are ready to accept change. As Farrat (1980) describes, some teachers resist change when they either do not know about the innovation at all or they have little information about it.

According to Lobe (a tutor), although workshops were conducted and materials were issued for placement schools, a significant collaboration was not yet established. His justification was grounded on the fact that almost all the responsibilities were shouldered on the college alone.

In light of this, Boyd (1988) in Marsh (1997) maintains that "changing school is like punching on pillow. They absorb innovative thrusts and resume their original shape. As Yeomans (1992) argued learning rooted in experience is more likely to be reflected in collaborative behavior. In this regard, however, one may argue that teacher educators are inclined towards compliance rather than collaboration.

For some teachers, for instance, practicum was not accepted as part of their daily task. I was encountered the instructor who viewed practicum nothing more than taking trainees to the placement schools and back to the college. Again, some others who were overloaded by routine and / or additional office assignments were unable to support the trainees as they should.

Still, few teachers went beyond responding on request (when trainees seek help) to monitoring how well the trainees were engaged in learning tasks. By substantiating this, Tulusdottir et al (2002) asserted that learning takes place when it can be extended beyond the current level of understanding with assistance from other more capable peers or teachers.

In this respect, Muluken (a tutor) described his role in the way stated below:

"The nature of support offered to trainees and their level of engagement could vary in relation to what extent the teacher educators (both mentors and tutors) are conscious of the program and strive for its success. At the same time, learners must have positive attitude and readiness for the planned instruction" (MF, 16/03/2006).

Amare (2000), for example, argued that students learn more when they have "internal commitment" and the "will" to learn as the process of learning is an active process and not a passive one. Nevertheless, the trainees' involvement in practicum seems to be instrumental. Adila (a candidate), for instance, explained his feeling as:

"I don't give less attention to practicum. But rather my ambition is to earn a good grade since the failure to do well in this course does not guarantee me for graduation" (AT, 27/02/2006).

This is the same as saying: when asked why must one go to school? Young people what ever their background, reply: 'you have to work in order to get a good job? Thus, they see preparation for a carrier as the main function of education (UNESCO, 1972)

4.2 Participants' Beliefs, Understandings and Practices

The teacher education exists to prepare teachers in the most effective way to meet the objectives of schooling. However, it has been criticized as ineffective in preparing teachers for their work and remote from practice. Hence, practicum is now getting much emphasis in the new approach to training in which a college or university program is linked to local schools.

To this end, as Moore (1994) notes, the move to school based training is explicitly justified in terms of an attack on theory. This is to mean that theoretical knowledge acquired in the higher institutions is assumed to be verified and refined in the world of experience (the schools). With this in mind, this section is devoted to entertain in how practicum is perceived and practiced by all the involved parties.

Tekabe (a tutor) described that practicum is theoretically good despite it is entangled with several practical problems. To another tutor Muluken, with its all faults practicum is of paramount importance. Muluken further elaborated his idea as follows: "If we think of our past experience, there was no opportunity for the trainees to realize how the context impacts learning. In such a case, a trainee teacher equipped with theoretical knowledge could be seen staggering to teach learners whom he/she didn't know much." He also added,

"Nowadays, trainees are becoming fully exposed to what is going on outside and inside the classroom through actual school experience. Accordingly, they develop unshakable confidence to confront teaching challenges that await them" (MF, 16/03/2006).

In light of this, research findings confirm that it is during the practicum that trainees are encouraged to develop, practice and refine their competence as teachers. Teshale (a candidate) also described practicum in the following way:

"Practicum helped me to conceptualize the teaching learning process in the existing classroom situation. That is, it helped me to identify the problems in advance and initiated an inquiry mind to solve them. As the result, I strive not only to acquire subject matter knowledge but also to make it explicit for learners while teaching" (TW, 10/03/2006).

Another trainee (Elfinesh) critically explained her views by saying:

"Although we are now and then preached to make our selves responsible for learning, many of the students are not ready to play their expected role. Instead, they often try to use various strategies to pass through the system without developing the needed competence" (EM, 10/03/2006).

Elfinesh's comment implied that students take shallow approaches to learning rather than being fully responsible for their own learning. To Weimar (2002), transforming passive students to autonomous learners is most challenging and exasperating task. Nevertheless, an innovation that requires new activities on the part of students will succeed or fail according to whether students actually participate in these activities. Students participate to the extent that they understand and are motivated to try what is expected (Fullan, 1991 in Peachter, 2000).

To Melaku (a candidate), practicum is the 'key instrument' through which one gets authentic evidence about the school (learners, learning and teaching), parents and the community at large. Another trainee (Mesele) perceived practicum as a 'lens' that magnifies what teaching learning is all about. He explained that the practicum acquaints the trainees first, with the school environment and then, with classroom events and obstacles that interfere smooth schooling.

In this regard, the purpose of practicum is not only to ensure trainees ability in putting learning skills of teaching into practice, but also to give background knowledge about the realities of the existing school (ICDR, 1999). It seems that practicum has a dual purpose: providing an opportunity for linking theory with practice and creating an awareness about how schools function. For Welendo (a candidate), practicum is considered as a "get way to effective teaching". He described his perspective as follows:

"Practicum created for me an exposure to understand how teachers treat and teach their students. I also recognized that using appropriate teaching aid makes teaching simpler and facilitates learning for understanding. In addition, I appreciated the teacher's expertise in handling classroom disciplinary problems and its impacts on students' learning" (WL, 14/03/2006).

Welendo's explanation reminds us an aspect of social learning theory. Amare (2000) elaborated this by saying, students imitate more of what they see than that of what they hear and read. They imitate the action of their instructors and exercise selectively on what their instructors tell them to do. To Tulusdottir (2002), students on placement schools learn through immersion in routines and agency work practices.

Similarly, Lemma (a mentor) explained his feeling by saying:

"School is a miniature of society. Thus school experience gives the learners the access to develop fresh understandings about societal aspirations and expectations, and the context at which the school is functioning to fulfill these demands. To him, practicum is considered as an alternative way to produce competent professionals" (LW, 28/02/2006).

Like many other research participants, he was of the opinion that the trainees' better performance (success) in the teaching methodology was attributed to school experience. Ornstein (1991), in this regard says, true knowledge of teaching is achieved by practice and experience. Lemma also extended his expectation that the trainees would start their work as experienced practitioners rather than in experienced beginners.

"Apart its inherent limitations associated with implementation, the necessity of practicum is unquestionable" said Biruk, a tutor. For him, first year trainees show favorable attitude towards practicum. As they pass to the second year, however, their interest gradually declines. Because the learning tasks scheduled for each year are not this much different. In addition, the trainees complained the practicum to have been crowded by repetition of ideas and questions to the extent that they could induce boredom in both involved parties.

The researcher on his part noticed that the practicum guideline contained several overlapping issues that would signify more effort on the part of learners. However, the trainees were seen devoted to answering such prescriptions without due attention to the why of the tasks implicitly provided.

Although both student teachers and teacher educators consider teaching practice / school experience the most valuable aspect of pre- service preparation, it is also widely regarded as a problematic area associated with its duration, timing, requirements, the type and the intensity of supervision (Cochran – Smith, 1991 in Mulugeta 2002).

Girum's (a tutor) explanation was an indicative of his understanding on the current conception of practicum. He confidently expressed:

"It is a prerequisite to take a practical experience for a nurse before engaging oneself in the actual work. The same holds true for a person who is becoming a teacher". (GM, 15/03/2006)

Girum also added one more example to make his analogy more clear: "untrained/ unskilled nurse may hurt a patient but untrained/ unskilled teacher may rather kill a generation"

In line with this, "the conception of practicum owes much to Schon's (1983: 1987) works on the reflective practitioner" which assumes that theory and practice are not separate. In the transmissive model, practicum will come near the end, after the theories are "mastered". In the reflective/theorizing model, however, the practicum must occur at several points to enable repetition of the cycle inherent in the approach. In this context, the learners construct their own principles or theories based on direct experiences and reflection. In view of this, Tekabe (a tutor) noted that:

"One of the shortcomings in the current model of instruction is the unfamiliarity of the teachers with active learning approach. In fact, some kind of exposure was created about the new model through workshops. However, the old still persists to the extent it could interfere the rudimentary attempts made by the teachers to exercise active learning. The problem is more intense in teachers having long teaching experience" (TD, 17/03/2006).

This explanation seems quite contradictory to what the findings of Reda (2001) suggests: Bahir Dar University instructors internalized the new model of teaching and learning so that the instructors go beyond providing(delivering) a good lecture.

Tekabe further noted that some teachers equate learner centered methodology with simply using group work in their classes regardless of the nature of the topic and other conditions. In connection with this, Mutassa and Wills (1995) explained that instructional methods by themselves can not do much to improve learning, and thus, their value lies on the professional skill of the teacher in using or handling them. They extended their argument by saying that there is nothing so dangerous as a method one can't use well. Indeed, it is better to use a 'poor' method which one can handle well rather than a 'good' method clumsily done.

According to Tekabe's explanation, teachers faced not only inadequate awareness to the new model but also their own belief and established value system is a potential source of challenge. In other words, the new practicum occurs over against a system already in place. In this regard, it should be noted that the teachers' beliefs and values which guide, define and inform professional behavior are deeply held and not easily altered. That means, the idea system are powerful; they control the way teachers view themselves, their students, and what it means to teach. Furthermore, as stated by Rudduck (1991) in McCulloch (1994), the culture of the organization is the real focus for change and this, of course, is the most difficult thing to affect. The aspiration to wards a shared commitment to change is ambitious in the sense that the habits and structures that hold traditional values in place are not easily dismantled.

It is evident that this fundamentally new concept of practicum demands new role expectations for both the teachers and the learners. To this end, the new education policy advocates learning to be the activity of the learners. Therefore, creating the opportunities for the learners to involve them in the learning tasks is mandatory. However, the field work revealed that due to several problems such as large class size, text book shortage, inadequate training, etc active learning was seldom practiced by cooperating school. In other words, learner centered approach which encourages the deep approach to learning happens deemphasized.

Therefore, one can not undermine the influence of cooperating schools on trainees' practice. In light of this, Ghaye and Ghaye (2001) maintain that the context in which students find themselves is critical and affects how they approach their school experience, how they make sense of what it means to be an effective teacher and what they learn from the experience. They further noted contexts often range from the very supportive, collegial environments, where the student teacher and class teacher work alongside one another and learn from one another, to

less supportive, even hostile environments, when student teachers feel uncomfortable in their class teacher's presence and unwell come in the school.

By consolidating this, Adila (a trainee) explained his encounter as follows:

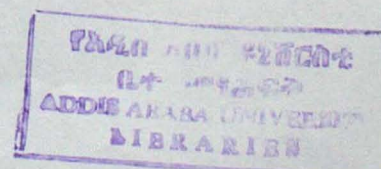
"During the teaching practice at cooperating school, I came to recognize 'men of two worlds'- One group, the trainees who are exercising the new model of teaching and the other group with the vestiges of the traditional model. It is not as such difficult to speculate why teachers who adhere to traditional model neglect to exercise active learning strategies in the existing classroom. It seems that such teachers lacked not only the required awareness but also motivation. So, I fear our attempts would be engulfed" (AT, 14/03/2006).

Adila's comments revealed the extent to which the delivery of curriculum reform was facilitated or impeded by the work place culture and the teachers' own established value system. The research findings in favor of Adila's fear pointed out that trainee teachers' have more idealistic and altruistic values as regards to education than qualified teachers. When it comes to actually teaching, the novice teacher will begin to review her/ his attitudes and ideas in order to adapt the 'rough and harsh' reality of the classroom (Veen Man, 1984 in Betoret and Artiga 2004).

As put by Ghaye and Ghaye (2001), school culture serves to liberate and constrain us; it provides opportunities for achieving satisfaction, personal renewal and collective regeneration. It can also stifle, suffocate, marginalize and silence us. For them, critical reflection was considered as possible remedy to question and challenge these things that disempowered and demoralize us.

As stipulated in the Teacher Education Systems Overhaul (TESO) document, the skill and knowledge required in the practicum will be demonstrated in all subject and professional courses. This is presumably because the curriculum provides opportunities for students to explore, reflect, interact and communicate with other students and adults. To this stand point, Muluken (a tutor) has the following to say:

"Courses offered at our college are mostly organized by the college instructors on the bases of already provided course outline. We haven't yet developed the required expertise to organize courses in a way to facilitate active learning. Currently, however, we are getting some kind of awareness through on going higher diploma program (HDP). Now, we have realized that we need not wait for anybody else to come and do it. It is our responsibility to make the necessary change and improvement as much as possible" (MF, 16/03/2006).



Muluken's explanation was an indicative of his suspicion that subject (matter) qualification alone does not guarantee some one to organize the course in the way the new model demands. In this regard, whether the subject and professional courses adequately prepare the trainees to succeed in practicum and vice versa seems questionable.

The TESO document also stresses, to be effective, the student teachers need to have the chance to explore teaching methods and practices for themselves through micro and peer teaching and direct experiences of school teaching. With respect to this, the interview data obtained from trainees and tutors confirm that peer teaching was occasionally undertaken in all streams. Besides, some trainees considered it to be the major source of confidence and success for their teaching at placement schools.

According to Tulusdottir (2002), one educational assumption is that students learn best from experts. There is increasing evidence that students also learn from their peers. Muluken, (a tutor), in this case, explained his experience as indicated below:

"First, units that can easily be treated by trainees are selected and assigned to be discussed in groups by considering each learner will have his own part to present. And then, each learner prepares the lesson plan and teaching aid and teaches his/her classmates in the given time. Meanwhile, using the criteria already prepared for this purpose, one of the groups evaluates the other. Eventually, I compare the group's evaluation score against my own and assign the average value" (MF, 16/03/2006).

In doing so, he claimed, bias might be reduced and learners could exercise self- assessment, in addition to, practicing specific teaching skills. Here, peer teaching happens to be not a haphazard undertaking but it is well structured and purposeful activity .

Contrary to this, trainees do not seem possessed proper conception of microteaching. For some of them, micro teaching mean any group or project work assigned to be accomplished in certain groups and presented by any one of the group members. However, microteaching assumed to have demonstrable effectiveness in improving the teacher's "knowledge how" (Gage, 1978).

In light of this, it can be regarded that the practice teaching experience is assigned to smooth transition from the role of students to that of teacher. To this end, Brown and Nacino- Brown (1990) discuss different reasons for teaching practice, such as i) to gain confidence, ii) to put theories in to practice, ii) to learn the skills and attitudes of a competent and effective teacher,

iv) to learn about children in real life, v) to improve knowledge of subject matter vi) to gain from the benefits of constructive criticism, vii) to self evaluate and to discover strength and weakness, and viii) for the teaching institute, to evaluate it self (Mulugeta, 2002).

4.3 A good seed on unfertile soil

Assessment gives essential information about what our students are learning and about the extent to which we are meeting our teaching goals. It should also assist learners in diagnosing their own learning. For this to happen, as Montague (1987) noted, assessment could be done before the commencement of a lesson, to know the readiness of the learners; and in the process of instruction, to check the understanding of learners; and at the end of instruction, to make decisions of instructional effectiveness.

To this end, the type and the way how assessment is employed could be an indicative of the nature of practicum implementation. For instance, Melaku (a trainee) pointed out that the way instructors assess their students vary considerably. He said that "Some instructors use authentic assessment strategies and are reasonable in their decision making. But some do the opposite and still others fall in between the two extremes."

Tekabe (a tutor), on the other hand, says: "Though practicum is a collective / joint activity, each trainee is expected to produce portfolio of his own on the bases of one's own understanding. However, a substantial number of trainees copy from one another and present as their own. This makes the assessment process very difficult and challenging."

According to Fina (1992), Portfolios are systematic, purposeful, and meaningful compilation of students' work. Portfolios should be on going so that they show the students' efforts, progress, and achievements over a period of time. In light of this, Tutors claimed that although portfolios appear almost similar to one another, attempts have been made to discriminate one's work from the other during presentation. But, how this could be done seems vague.

For instance, Dagne (a tutor) says: "Even if there was no enough time for each trainee to present his/ her work, I tried to identify who did what? by using my own strategies and tactics." Another tutor (Girum) described: "After one or two weeks of each observation, the trainees prepare portfolios and present in the scheduled time. Meanwhile, each presenter's work is evaluated. Then, portfolios with written comments are given to them to be re-

submitted at the end of the semester. Biruk's (a tutor) experience seems a bit different. He described as:

Following each observation, the trainees write portfolios and submit them to me. And then, I comment and give them back. By taking in to account the improvements made, evaluation is undertaken. Then, the trainees will be informed of their results that account 70% (BM, 20/03/2006).

Muluken, still another tutor, says:

"No matter how challenging and time consuming the portfolio may be I believe it should be marked and be given to the trainees. The extra work load and the large number of trainees, however, interfered me to accomplish my responsibilities"(MF, 16/03/2006).

In consolidating the problem associated with assessment, Meiregnesh (a candidate) described the following:

"Some students never worry about understanding the purpose behind the practicum. Their primary concern is, by any means possible earning a good grade or at least 'C'. Since much of the practicum performance is covered by continuous assessment, it will not be difficult for them to get the required information. Once, the information is obtained, they thoroughly rehearse it for presentation. Besides, presentation is not devoted adequate time to distinguish each presenter's performance from the other (MM, 14/03/2006).

Another trainee (Elfinesh) added that continuous assessment benefits all students if every learner is encouraged to participate in the learning tasks. Otherwise, its disadvantage overweighs the advantage. Still, another trainee (Geleta) considered continuous assessment as the killer of the learners. Because, for him, it creates an easy access to copy from one another and obtain best grades with minimal effort. It seems that trainees developed unfavorable understanding on continuous assessment.

In the TESO document (MOE, 2003) the assessment of practicum is outlined to consist of:

i) continuous assessment (micro teaching, presentations written assignments, preparation of materials) that accounts 25%, ii) period of block teaching 50% - half by TEI educators, half by school teachers, ii) portfolio (file of all activities and experiences) 25%. (However, by taking in to account the problem exhibited at the time of evaluation, the college has made the following changes: portfolio presentation was assigned 70% and the remaining 30% was left for marking the materials (items) contained in the portfolio.)

In this case, there, was no any room left for school teachers (mentors) to evaluate 1st and 2nd year trainees. Because teaching practice was scheduled in the 3rd year so that cooperative school teachers are expected to evaluate and contribute 10% of the total points particularly in the first semester. But, the TESO document suggests the assessment to be the responsibility of the mentors and tutors throughout the three years.

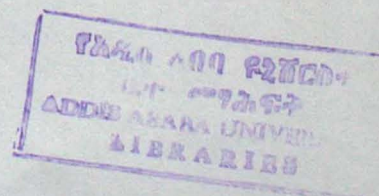
It happens that teacher educators' role was confined to evaluating finalized works rather than assessing the over all growth of the trainees through practicum. In this respect, it can be argued that continuous assessment was not properly understood and practiced.

In substantiating this, Teferi (a coordinator) noted that teachers are expected to undertake continuous assessment but they are rarely utilizing it. To him, in this case, a large gap was witnessed to inexperienced teachers. He also added that professional courses teachers have rather less opportunity to monitor their students' progress through continuous assessment for they enter relatively more classes due to low credit hour courses in the stream.

Besides, the researcher also encountered a tutor who considered a number of characteristics in the evaluation check list to be equated with continuous assessment. To Capper (1996), continuous assessment does not mean testing often; rather it means communicating with the students often to find out whether they are truly learning or not. On the other hand, Teshome (2001) stressed that teachers must understand the assessment process, feel secure about it and accept it as their own for its effective implementation.

Unlike the traditional model, in the new assessment students are asked to write essays, solve open ended problems, communicate the reasons for their answers, report their findings etc. Such a kind of assessment addresses higher order thinking rather than memorizing facts. This is possible when the teacher facilitates the learning process. In light of this, Meisels et al (2002) argued that teachers' ability to foster meaningful learning in students is influenced by the materials they use, the tasks they design, the context they establish within the classroom, and their own understanding of each student as a learner.

In this respect, favorable opportunities were not created for the trainees to engage them in active learning. That means, learners were not encouraged to go beyond recalling information. For instance, the field work revealed that the presentation of portfolios was undertaken under



considerable time pressure. Questions were seldom posed either by the instructor or the audience. It was a kind of one way communication. No comment was given on individual bases. If present, comments were quite general and offered at the end of the presentation.

I asked why this was so? One of the tutors replied me that if comments were given on individual bases after each presentation, the next presenter could get an advantage over the preceding one. The teacher's response implied that earning better grade was emphasized than learning for understanding. This implies that the teacher is not yet empowered and liberated from the influence of traditional assessment.

On the other hand, Teferi (a coordinator) explained his opinion as: "what matters is not the shortage of time but the way how teachers skillfully use it." He further added his own experience by saying:

"I have evaluated 42 trainees presentations. But I have never tried it to accomplish all at once. Teachers experience the problem of time pressure because they were not properly using the time allotted for the course. As a result, I personally believe that the trainees were not given enough time to present their work" (TC, 20/03/2006)

In line with this, TESO document describes, time will be spent, before and after each school experience, with tutor for reflection and discussion of essential teaching skills (MOE, 2003). In spite of few teachers who claimed that they were performing their tasks as they should, many others didn't provide the opportunity for discussion from which one can learn from the others and his own mistakes. By strengthening this, Fina (1992) asserts all portfolio evaluators should be available for conferencing and clarification because students can not become reflective if they do not have opportunities to discuss their work. Individually portfolio assessment partners are the "mirrors" by which students become reflective. In connection with this, Tekabe (a tutor) has the following to say:

"Portfolio assessment is a challenging task, especially for untrained and in experienced teachers. The problem is aggravated by a large size of trainees and the similarity of their work (portfolios) that blurred teachers' attempt to identify who did what? Sometimes, there are no clearly stated criteria to mark the portfolio and discriminate accordingly. Besides, reflection means different thing for different people. I don't think trainees reflect on their practice and develop the anticipated competence and skill under circumstances in which teachers lack clear understanding of what reflection is (TD, 17/03/2006).

In this case, it is mandatory to consider the link between the practicum and that of reflection. The concept of practicum is rooted in Schon's idea of the reflective practitioner. Learning to teach well is considered to be the result of reflective practice. In light of this, Schon (1987) in Windberg and Rohwer (2003) stated that as teachers engage in instruction and then reflect on it the process offers it, insight into various dimensions of teaching and learning that can lead to better teaching.

Furthermore, Ghaye and Ghaye (2001) noted that becoming a teacher and teaching in a confident, competent, creative and ethical manner is a challenging and complex learning process. Central to this process is our **ability to reflect constructively and critically on our teaching intentions**, the ends we have in mind and the means we might use to achieve them. In short, reflections is considered as looking back and making sense of your practice, learning from this and using this learning to affect your future action (Ibid).

Surprisingly, an issue of feedback was a major source of debate and suspicion that was apparent during field work. The trainees bitterly expressed their feeling that the portfolio feedback was a neglected part of their assessment. This suspicion emanated from the fact that after each oral presentation, the portfolio was compiled and submitted to the instructor. But feedback was rarely given. To this end, Meirgnesh (a candidate) explained her feeling as:

"If I am not provided with feedback at the right time, how can I learn from my own mistakes for the next time. I do remember the time during which I asked my instructor the reason why my performance was 83% yet I earned an "A". She replied me that my absentism was a factor. It was a convincing reason that we communicated each other (MM, 14/03/2006).

In this regard, Farrat (1980) says practice is greatly improved by receiving feedback. Again, feedback or knowledge of results has been considered as the 'life blood' of learning (Rowntree, 1987).

Another candidate Welendo, expressed his doubts that: "teachers experience the problem of marking portfolio because it needs sufficient time and patience to go through it. Thus, sometimes, the practicum grade was awarded by estimating the relative position of the learner in other academic subjects and/ or even by acquaintance. This is so because such teachers lacked adequate evidence about each learner to make authentic judgment/ decision". Today, as Kochhar (2001) asserts, a teacher has to know all about a Child's body, background, capabilities and handicaps to do justice to the difficulties of teaching. To ensure this, teachers

need to have enough contact with their learners. Unfortunately, this is not an easy task to accomplish under the 'existing' condition.

To verify the trainees' doubts on portfolio marking, the document has been reviewed. As described earlier the portfolio oral presentation accounts 70% and its marking is supposed to consist of 30 points. With this in mind, I have reviewed as many portfolios as I could. The document review revealed that almost all the portfolios have had a superficial marking. Even if both grammatical and conceptual errors were available simply, a (✓) mark was put nearly on each page. Neither a fraction of marks out of 30 points nor any written comment was given.

Regarding this, the portfolio assessment criteria contained six areas of competence. At the same time, the format has included a check list that contains four alternatives ranging from poor to excellent (see appendix 1). Therefore, the stated assessment criteria seem reasonable but not properly utilized.

Furthermore, similar problems were witnessed during the portfolio presentation. For example, one of the issues of presentation was "commenting on involving all sense organs in teaching – learning." The trainees were expected to comment on the bases of Chinese proverb which was stated as: "I hear and I forget; I see and I understand; I do and I remember".

Basically, the proverb was stated wrongly unless the two underlined words are exchanged. At the same time, the trainees' presentation was indicative of the fact that they were not clear with the implicit meaning of the proverb. Because most of the presenters focused on explaining the mere functions of the five sense organs rather than elaborating the core idea behind involving a variety of sense organs while teaching.

Portfolio oral presentation has also five specified areas of competence for assessment. In each case, the trainees' performance is assessed against a check list having four options ranging from poor to excellent. (see appendix 2). For instance, one of the five areas of the assessment is stated as 'reflection and analysis'. In the context of time pressure, however, one could hardly treat this crucial area of practicum. Because reflection demands fairly enough time to debate discuss and share ideas. The assessment process undertaken, therefore, implies that other than the time constrain teacher educators seem do not possess appropriate conception of the new program.

In this respect, Fina (1992) notes that teachers must be educated to understand that the portfolio assessment can be an empowering agent. In addition, as Ghaye and Ghaye (2001) described evidence in the form of observations of practice will create the chance to learn if the new teacher reflects on this evidence in a creative and critically reflective manner. This implies that unless trainees reflect on practice, they do not understand what is happening in the classroom simply because they frequently visit the schools.

From what has been discussed so far, it can be recognized that reflection on practice is a complex process for the trainees to comprehend and exercise under the prevailing circumstances. By strengthening this, Mesele (a third year trainee) says:

"We took a 5 credit practicum course within two weeks of the first semester. The first week was arranged for class observation and the second was scheduled to undertake evaluation while teaching replacing the formal class teacher" (MG, 23/02/2006).

For him, only a week of observation was not enough, especially, for those trainees who teach subjects having small contact hours to make sufficient observation and prepare oneself and teach accordingly. In other words, Mesele's idea implied that there was inadequacy of time for self reflection that leads to greater knowledge about the teaching learning process. Grossman et al (1989) also asserted that acquiring new knowledge, whether about pedagogy or subject matter, requires, among other things, the ability to reflect and learn from experience.

Nevertheless, one strong point evident during teaching practice was the trainees attempt to use group works/ activities as a major strategy of teaching their students. This was a good beginning that needs further improvement.

In contrary, evaluating trainees against qualification and supervising two trainees within 40 minutes by a single instructor were among the problems occasionally exhibited during teaching practice. In the former case, for example, Amharic graduate evaluates any of the subjects taught in that particular stream. The same is true for other streams.

With regard to the latter, instructors claimed that they were supposed to evaluate many trainees (at least about 40). In addition, they had to finish and report the results on the arranged time schedule. In line with this, Biruk (a tutor) expressed that:

"How can I afford to evaluate all the way through 1-6 periods. Perhaps I can do better the first two or three classes supervision. Hence, I do not see this is a fair evaluation simply because it is performed as planned" (BM, 20/03/2006).

In connection with a large class size, Amare (1998) explains, overcrowdness of classroom is one of the two highly observed critical problems of education in Ethiopian context. This problem has hindered student follow up, student participation, teacher-student communication and feedback in the classroom.

Another tutor (Muluken) came up with the following analogy to the same issue.

"A sport journalist does not necessarily need to watch the whole 90 minutes soccer to estimate the players' status. He or she can judge it with in a few minutes of this time. An experienced teacher can do the same to evaluate, if not possible to estimate, how well he/she is doing within ten or twenty minutes"(MF, 16/03/2006).

In spite of such problems, the practicum unit (that is formed by each stream heads) considered 3rd year trainees to have been successful in their teaching practice. As pointed out by the practicum coordinator, the committee decided 50% of the trainees to be awarded an 'A' and for the remaining half 'B' and 'C' grades. He also added that all the trainees earned an 'A' and 'B' grades; however, those who earned 'B' were still complaining.

Biruk (a tutor), in this connection angrily expressed his views that: "The overall things that we do not give proper care inhibit the practicum from being internalized with us. What is my role then, if at all, I am not responsible to decide on the information that I have collected over the course of time." Biruk's criticism indicated that the unfair decision made by the committee not only disempowered the teachers' autonomous right but also created unnecessary complaining for grades.

In the context of such assessment, students perhaps tend to develop surface approach to learning rather than deep approach in which learners construct their own meaning and understanding. This is because the quality of our student's understanding is closely related to the quality of their engagement in the learning tasks. This is in turn influenced by the learner's characteristics and learning context we create.

To Ramsden (2000), the context of learning is created through students' experience of our curricula, teaching method and assessment procedures. For him, the quality of students'

learning can be enhanced by changing the curricula we construct, the teaching methods we use, and the ways in which we assess our students.

It is undeniable fact that teachers are change agents who directly involve in the implementation of curriculum reforms and ensure their success or failure. Hence, the best educational practice is unlikely to fulfill its promises in the hands of poorly committed or unmotivated teachers. To sum up, the fate of the continuous assessment and reflection which are the integral part of practicum appear to have been a good seed on unfertile soil.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. Conclusion and the Implication of the study

5.1 Conclusion

The main purpose of this study is to develop an understanding of how the ongoing practicum is perceived and practiced by the teacher educators and the trainees who are the chief agents of the implementation process. To this end, substantial attempts have been made to identify, describe and analyze the data as presented in the preceding chapters. Accordingly, the following conclusions are made.

In spite of its inherent problems manifested during the implementation, practicum is of paramount importance to developing competent professionals. Because it helps to relate theory with practice; gives chance to analyze weakness and strength, and develops confidence. Thus, the trainees' better teaching repertoire (skills) exhibited at the time of teaching practice was attributed to practicum.

Attempts have been made by the college to enhance the involved parties' engagement in the implementation process. But, dependable collaboration was not yet established. In other words, the roles and responsibilities were not properly shared by all concerned bodies. It seemed that a kind of compliance dominates at the scene of practicum rather than collaboration.

It is evident that the quality of forthcoming teaching will depend crucially upon the quality of the information and help offered. Apart from being a model of good teaching practice, the mentors have a significant role in the trainees overall development.

In this regard, the mentors' role was, however, mainly restricted to answering questions that were posed by the trainees and supervising particularly 3rd year trainees while engaged in teaching. In other words, their support was more of reactive rather than proactive.

Although the kind and quality of support and guidance offered was not satisfactory, it has been apparent that a large part of training responsibilities were fallen on the shoulder of the tutors.

It is obvious that teachers try to put their values into practice. Currently, however, teachers are utilizing the new model over against already established beliefs and value system. In other

words, teachers are not empowered or liberated from the traditional conception of teaching and learning which has still persisted to interfere with the rudimentary attempts made by the teachers in exercising the new role.

Even if workshop opportunities were created for teachers, they were unable to challenge and alter teachers' deeply held beliefs. At the same time, especially, college teachers' involvement was found to be low. Likewise, trainees' preconception on teaching and learning process has contributed to hindrance of active involvement in learning tasks.

Besides, professional competence is indispensable to design courses that are feasible to enhance active learning. In this case, there was a gap in the design and delivery of Teaching Stream Subjects (TSS).

Practicum relies much on the trainees' ability to reflect on practice. Thus, periods of time have to be set aside for observation, discussion and reflection on the learners' progress. In addition, formal assessment procedures (both formative and summative) need to be followed. However, the reality dictated the opposite. That means, the portfolio presentation was mainly done by the mere rehearsal of collected information or observed events under a considerable time pressure. There was no access for group debates and discussion from which trainees could learn from one another and from their own mistakes.

In this regard, mentors including tutors must possess the qualities and capabilities of critical reflection applied to education. Unfortunately, the research finding portrayed that teacher educators were handicapped for this crucial aspect of practicum. Besides, the research participants lacked proper conceptions of continuous assessment.

The context can liberate or constrain what we do since practice is context related. In other words, context can influence the trainees' approach to learning. The overall context of learning was less supportive in facilitating trainees' engagement in the learning tasks. This is to mean that regardless of the other courses which are not the focus of this study, practicum which encourages the deep approach where learners construct their own meaning and understanding was seldom practiced at both the college and cooperating schools. Instead, the surface approach happens to dominate.

In short, the implementation of the practicum has faced serious problems of: time pressure, inadequate awareness, low commitment and de-motivation, lack of clearly stated criteria for assessment, rather large number of trainees, inadequate management of the program.

No educational program is, however, entirely free of problems. I personally believe that if we want something badly enough, and work hard enough, we usually will get it. It is our intentionality that is at the base that can transform our potentiality into actuality.

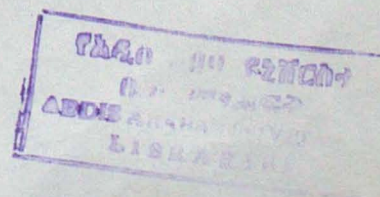
5.2 The Implication of the Study

The implication of this research finding is that the research participants' reaction to the new curriculum reform, particularly the practicum, happens to be a blend of resistance and responsiveness. This calls for possible immediate interventions to suppress the former and encourage the latter. Among the others, for instance, the need for the recent innovation should be open for discussion in such away to challenge and alter the beliefs and values inherent to the traditional model of education.

This is because our beliefs and values determine what we do and the kind of teachers who we are. In my opinion, the desired professional commitment and devotion are sandwiched by our own beliefs and value systems.

REFERENCES

- Abraham Hagos and et al (Editors) (1999) **Teacher Education Handbook**. Addis Ababa: ICDR
- Aggarwall (2002). **Theory and Principles of Education: Philosophical and Sociological Bases of Education**. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing house PVT.
- Airasin, P. W. (1997) **Classroom Assessment** (3rd ed) New York: McGraw- Hill Inc.
- Amare Asgedom (1998). "Teachers Perception of Educational Problems in Ethiopia" in **Quality Education in Ethiopia: Vision for 21st century**. Addis Ababa: IER.
- _____ (2000). **Communication and Media Studies in Curriculum Studies: A Study Guide**, AAU.
- _____ (2004). Debates in Research Paradigms in Qualitative Research in Higher Education. **The Ethiopian Journal of Education**. Vol.1, No. 1.
- Anderson, C. G. W. McDiarmid and D. Ball (1989) Why Staying Chapter Ahead Doesn't Really work: Subject Specific Pedagogy **Knowledge Base for the Beginning Teacher**. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Ashcroft, K: (1992). Working Together: Developing Reflective Student Teachers. **Working and Learning together for Change** Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Ashton, P. (1999) Integrating Educational Psychology in to Professional Studies: Linking theory in to Practice **The Role of the University in the Preparation of Teachers**. Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Taylor and Francis.
- Barens, H (1989). Structuring Knowledge for Beginning Teaching **Knowledge Base for the Beginning Teacher**. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Benaars, G. A. J. Otiende and R. Biosvert (ed) (1994). **Theory and Practice of Education**. Kenya: East African Educational Publishers Ltd.
- Berg, B. (2004). **Qualitative Research Methods For the Social Science**. New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Best, J. and J. Kahn (1993). **Research in Education**, (7th ed). New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Private Limited.



- Betoret, D. F and G. A. Artiga (2004). Trainee Teachers' Conceptions of Teaching and learning, Classroom lay out exam design. **Educational Studies**. Vol. 30, No 4.
- Brook Field, S. (1990). **The Skillful Teacher**. USA: Jossey- Boss Inc, Publishers
- Brown, G. (1975). **Micro Teaching: A Program of Teaching Skills**. London: Methuen & Co. Ltd.
- Capper, J. (1996). **Testing to Learn Learning to Testing**. Washington D.C Academy for Education Development.
- Chaube, S. P. and A. Chaube (2002). **Foundations of Education** (2nd ed.). New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House PVT LTD.
- Chauhan, S.S. (1990). **Innovations in Teaching- Learning Process**. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House PVT. LTD.
- Chhen. L. L. Manion and K. Morrison (2000). **A Guide to Teaching Practice** (4th ed.). London: Routledge
- Curzon, L. B. (1993). **Teaching in Further Education: An Outline of Principles and practices** (4th ed.) London: Cassell Educational Limited.
- Daniel Desta (2004). Observations and reflections of the Higher Education Teachers on the Quality of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education in Ethiopia. **The Ethiopian Journal of Education** Vol. 1 No. 1
- Darling- Hammond, L. (1999). The Case for University Based Teacher Education **The Role of the University in the Preparation of Teachers**. Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Taylor and Francis
- Dawit Mekonnen (2001). The Impact of the New Primary School Curricula on Teaching Practice, Role Relationship of Students and Teachers, and Students'. Learning Behaviors: Teachers and Students' Views **Quality of Primary Education in Ethiopia**. AAU, IER.
- Derebssa Dufera (2001). Factors Affecting the implementation of the Current Curriculum in Ethiopian Primary Schools: Implication for Quality. **Quality of Primary Education in Ethiopia**. AAU, IER.
- _____ (2004). **Fundamentals of Curriculum Development** AAU.

- Dereje Terefe (2001). Ethiopian Primary School Curriculum Reform and Implementation: **Quality Primary Education in Ethiopia** (ed). AAU, IER
- Diez , M.E. (1999). Critical Components in the Preparation of Teachers. **The Role of the University in the preparation of Teachers**. Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Taylor and Francis.
- Dormer, F. (1994). The Role of the Mentor in Secondary School **Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training**. London: Kogan Page
- Ellis, A. J. Cogan and K. Howey (1991). **Introduction to the Foundations of Education**. USA: Allyn and Bacon
- Evans, L. Packwood, Nill and J. Campbell (1994). **The Meaning of Infant Teachers Work**. London: Rutledge.
- Fidler, B. (1994). Partnership in Teacher Education: Partnership, Integration and Funding Implications. **Improving Initial Teacher Training: New Roles for Teachers, Schools and Higher Education**. Great Britain: Longman.
- Fidler, B. and M. McCulloch (1994). Improving Initial Teacher Training. **Improving Initial Teacher Training: New Roles for Teachers, Schools and Higher Education** Great Britain: Longman.
- Fina, A. (1992) **Portfolio Assessment** . USA: scholastic Inc.
- Fish, D. (1989). **Learning Through Practice: Initial Teacher Training**. London: Kogan Page.
- Faratt J. (1980) **Principles and Practices of Education**. Singapore: London, Press
- FKSP (2005) Cactulity of Cognitive Science and Teaching On line <<http://www.uum.edu.my/fskp/BIr/m.htm>.
- Frazier, C. (1999) University Responsibility for a Public Purpose: Institutional Accountability and Teacher Education **The Role of the University in the Preparation of Teachers**. Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Taylor and Francis
- Freire, P. (1993). **Pedagogy of the Oppressed**. New York: The Continuum Publishing Company.
- Fullan, M. (1999) **Change Forces: The Squd**. Hong Kong: Falmer Press.

- Gage, N. L. (1978). **The Scientific Basis of the Art of Teaching**. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gall, J. M. Gall and W. Borg (2005). **Applying Educational Research: A Practical Guide**. New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- _____ (1996) **Educational Research (ed): An Introduction**. London: Longman Publisher.
- Ghaye, A. and K. Ghaye (2001). **Teaching and Learning Through Critical Reflective Practice**. Great Britain: David Fulton Publishers Ltd.
- Gizaw Tassisa (2003) **Situational Analysis of Ethiopian Education**. IER Flambeau Vol. 10, No. 2.
- Goble and Porter (1977). **The Changing Role of the Teacher: International Perspective** _ UNESCO NFER Publishing Co. Ltd.
- Gold, Y. (1999) The Psychological Dimensions of Teacher Education: The Role of the University **The Role of the University in the Preparation of Teachers**. Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Taylor and Francis.
- Grossman, P. (1991). Mapping the Terrain: Knowledge Growth in Teaching **Effective Teaching Current Research**. USA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.
- Grossman, P. S. Wilson and L. Shulman (1989) Teachers of Substance: Subject matter knowledge for Teaching **Knowledge Base for the Beginning Teacher** New York: Pergamon Press.
- Hirst, P (ed) (1983). **Educational Theory and Its Foundation Disciplines**. London: Routledge and Kogan Paul Ltd.
- Karmel, P. (1973) **Schools in Australia**. Cambera: Australian Government Printing Service.
- Kauchak and Eggen (2003) **Learning and Teaching Research Based**. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing house PVT.
- Kochhar, S.K. (2001). **Methods and Techniques of Teaching**. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt, Ltd.
- Lecompte, M. D. and J. Preissle (1993). **Ethnography and Qualitative Design in Educational Research** (2nd ed.) London: Academic Press.

- Livingstone, G. (2001). **The Practicum in Teacher Education: Its Nature and Nurture of Teachers**. London: Routledge.
- McCulloch, M. (1994). Integrating Mentorship in Higher Education Institutions: Implementation Issues **Improving Initial Teacher Training: New Roles for Teachers, Schools and Higher Education**. Great Britain: Longman.
- McIntyne, D. (1994). Classrooms as Learning Environments for Becoming Teachers **Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training** London: Kogan Page.
- McNamara, D (1994) The Influence of Tutors and Mentors Up on primary student Teachers' Classroom Practice **Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training**. London: Kogan page.
- McNiff, J. (1993). **Teaching as Learning: An Action Research** London: Approach. Routledge.
- Marsh, C. (1997) **Perspectives: Key concepts for Understanding Curriculum** London: Flamer Press:
- Meisels, S. Harrington, H. Mohon, P. Dichtelmiller, M. Jablon, J. (2002). **Thinking Like a Teacher: Using Observational Assessment to Improving Teaching and Learning**. London: Allyn and Bacon.
- MOE (2003). **A National Curriculum Guideline for Pre- Service Teacher Education Programmes**. Addis Ababa :MOE
- _____ (2002). **The Eduction and Training Policy and its Implementation**. Addis Ababa: MOE.
- Montague, C.S. (1987). **Fundamentals of Secondary Classroom Instruction**. USA: Mrril Publishing Company
- Moore, R. (1994) Professionalism, Expertise and Control in Teacher Training **Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training**. London: Kogan Page.
- Mulugeta Teka (2002). **Educators' Perceptions of Teaching Practice in Bahir Dar University**. IER Flambeau Vol. 9, No. 2.

- Murray, F. B. (1999). **The Challenges Teacher Education Present for Higher Education in The Role of the University in Preparation of Teachers.** Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Taylor and Francis.
- Mutassa, N. G and G. M. Willis (1995). **Modern Practice in Education and Science.** Botswana: Gaborone.
- Nitko, J. A. (1996) **Educational Assessment of Students** (2nd ed) Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Okafor, F. C. (1988) **Nigeria Teacher Education: A Search for New Direction.** Nigeria: Fourth Dimension Publishing co. Ltd.
- Oliva, F. (1997). **Developing the Curriculum** (4th ed). New York: London, Inc.
- Ornstein, A. C and H. Hunkins (1998) **Curriculum Foundations: Principles and Issues.** New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Ornstein, A. C. (1991). **Teacher Effectiveness Research: Theoretical Considerations Effective Teaching Current Research.** USA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.
- Osborn, M. E. McNess and P. Broadfoot (2000). **What Teachers Do? Changing Policy and Practice in Primary Education.** London: Continuum.
- Peachter, C. (2000). **Changing School Subjects: Power, Gender and Curriculum:** Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- PLass, H. (1997). **"The learner Centered Classroom."** Quality of Education in Ethiopia: Vision for 21st Century AAU: IER
- Posner, G. (2005). **Field Experience: A Guide to Reflective Teaching.** New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Ramsden, P. (2000). **Learning to Teach in the Higher Education:** New York: Rutledge.
- Reda Darge (2001). **Conceptions of Constructivist Teaching Approaches in High Education: A Case Study.** IER Flambeau. Vol. 9, No. 1.
- Reiman, A. J. (1999). **The Role of the University in Teacher Learning and Development: Present work and Future Possibilities. The Roles of the University in the Preparation of Teachers.** Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Tylor and Francis

- Rowntree, D. (1987). **Assessing Students: How Shall We know them?** London: Nichols Publishing Company.
- Schon, D. (1983). **The Reflective Practitioner. Basic Books.** New York: McMillan.
- Solomon Areaya (2004). **Qualitative Research: beyond a Number Game.** IER Flambeau Vol. 11, No. 2.
- Squazzin, T. and Graan, M. V. (eds.) (1998). **"Educational Innovations in Namibia: How Best can Changes in Classroom Practice be Implemented and Supported"** Proceedings from the 1998 NIED Educational Conference Okahandja, 13-16 October, Namibia.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). **The Art of Case Study Research.** Thousands Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Sykers, G (1999) No standards or New Standards? The Future of Teacher Certification in **The Role of the University in the Preparation of Teachers.** Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Taylor and Francis.
- Teshome Demissie (2001). Assessment of Pupils' Achievements in the Teaching of English: Testing and Practice in Focus **The Ethiopian Journal of Education.** 21 (1), 25-47
- Tuliusdottir, S. S. Hrafnadottir and B. Krist Janasdottir (2002) Student Practice Placements as Gatekeeper to the Profession. **Learning to Practice: Social Work,** London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- UNESCO (1972). **The School and Continuing Education: For Studies.** Paris: Joffre Dumazedier.
- Wallace, M. (1991). **Training Foreign Language Teacher: A Reflective Approach.** Cambridge Cup.
- Wandberg, R. and J. Rohwer (2003). **Teaching to the Standards of Effective practice: A Guide to Becoming Successful Teacher.** New York: Stephen D. Dragin.
- Wang, M. and A. Plincsar (1989). Teaching Students to Assume an Active Role in their Learning **Knowledge Base for the Beginning Teacher** New York: Pergamon press.
- Weimer, M (2002) **Learner Centered Teaching:** San Francisco: Jossay Bass

Wise, A. (1999). Moving Toward Performance- based Accreditation System for Teaching Profession in **The Role of the University in the Preparation of Teachers**. Hong Kong: Flamer Press, Taylor and Francis.

Wragg, E.C. (1999). **An Introduction to Classroom Observation** (2nd ed.) London: Routledge Falmer.

Yalokwu, P. (2001) Quality Primary Education in Ethiopia in the 21st Century: Issues, Problems and Strategies for Improvement **Quality Primary Education in Ethiopia**, AAU: IER

Yeomans, R. (1992).Preparing for School staff Membership: Students in Primary Teacher Education **Working and Learning Together For Change** Philadelphia: Open University Press.

On line <http://www.nc/rc.org/essentias/whatteach/reflect.htm>

APPENDIX -1

AREA	Assessment for Practicum Report (30%)				Teacher Ass. (1-4)
Organization	Information is very organized with well-constructed paragraphs and subheadings.	Information is organized with well-constructed paragraphs.	Information is organized, but paragraphs are not well-constructed.	The information appears to be disorganized.	
Quality of Information	Information clearly relates to the main topic. It includes several supporting details and/or examples.	Information clearly relates to the main topic. It provides 1-2 supporting details and/or examples.	Information clearly relates to the main topic. No details and/or examples are given.	Information has little or nothing to do with the main topic.	
Mechanics Paragraph Construction	No grammatical, spelling or punctuation errors. All paragraphs include introductory sentence, explanations or details, and concluding sentence.	Almost no grammatical, spelling or punctuation errors. Most paragraphs include introductory sentence, explanations or details, and concluding sentence.	A few grammatical spelling or punctuation errors. Paragraphs included related information but were typically not constructed well.	Many grammatical, spelling, or punctuation errors. Paragraphing structure was not clear and sentences were not typically related within the paragraphs.	
Overall quality of Portfolio	All work is completed to a high standard; quality of performance is very high in all areas	Most work is completed; good progress in improving quality of overall performance; few areas still need improving	Some work is completed; shows some progress in improving quality of work; some sections could be improved	Work is not completed; poor quality of work & little effort; can do much better	
Clarity	~ Very legible hand writing ~ Easy to understand ~ Very good & correct use of vocabulary/scientific terms	~ Legible handwriting ~ Understandable ~ Good & correct use of vocabulary	~ Somewhat legible ~ Understandable to some extent ~ At least some correct vocabularies are used.	~ Illegible ~ Difficult to understand ~ Used wrongly use of vocabulary	
Reflective Diary	Well developed reflection, critical ability and self analysis; all reflective activities completed	Good ability to reflect and to criticize; most reflective activities completed	Some reflection; some longer comments; some reflective activities completed	Little reflection; very brief comments; not all reflective activities completed	
TOTALS	Excellent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)	Teacher Ass'ment
Recommendation for improvement:					/24 %
Evaluation Result of 100%: _____					
Supervisor/Advisor name and signature: _____					

Appendix -1

APPENDIX-2

HOSSANA COLLEGE OF TEACHER EDUCATION Practicum Rubric

Assessment for Oral Presentation (70 %)

AREA	Student Teacher Name: _____		ID No.: _____		Stream: _____		Teacher Ass. (1-4)
	Name of Cooperating School: _____				Date: _____		
Organization	Information is very organized with well-constructed paragraphs and subheadings.	Information is organized with well-constructed paragraphs.	Information is organized, but paragraphs are not well-constructed.	The information appears to be disorganized.			
Content	Shows a full understanding of the topic. Presentation is fully relevant to the specific practicum objectives.	Shows a good understanding of the topic. Presentation is relevant to the specific practicum objectives, but at time presenter is off topic.	Shows a good understanding of parts of the topic. Presentation is fairly relevant to the specific objectives of the practicum, and most of the time is off topic	Does not seem to understand the topic very well. Presentation is completely off topic.			
Speaks Clearly	Speaks clearly and loudly 90% of the time, and mispronounces only a few words.	Speaks clearly and loudly 75% of the time, and mispronounces several words.	Speaks clearly and loudly 50% of the time. Mispronounces many words.	Often mumbles or can not be understood and mispronounces the majority of the words.			
Reflection and Analysis	Able to identify the problem areas, and suggest concrete solutions. Understand the goals of the practicum and state what they have learned.	Able to identify some of the problem areas and suggest concrete solutions. Partial understand the practicum goals and state what they have learned.	Partially identify some of the problem areas and suggest few solutions. Partial understand the practicum goals, did not reflect on learning experience	Student has difficulty identifying problems areas and solutions. Did not seem to understand the goals of the practicum, lack of reflection.			
Creativity	~ Attractive presentation ~ Preparing and using very relevant teaching aids	~ Good presentation ~ Preparing using teaching aids	~ The presentation is not attractive, but understandable ~ The teaching aid is not visible & not understandable.	~ The presentation is boring & not understandable ~ No teaching aid.			
TOTALS	Excellent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)		Teacher Ass'ment	
Recommendation for improvement:							_____/20 _____%

Appendix-2

APPENDIX - 3

Classroom Observation Check List

Part I Preliminary Information

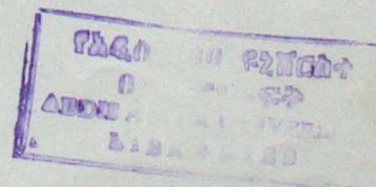
1. School _____ Date _____
2. Teacher's Name _____ Gender M ☐ F ☐
3. Grade and section _____
4. Class size _____ learners
5. Subject Observed _____
6. Teacher's qualification _____
7. Years of experience, teaching upper primary (circle)
A. 1 - 3 Years B. 4 - 6 years C. 7- 10 years D. More than Years 10

Part II Policy and Procedures

1. How do teachers and students conform to school rules and regulations?
2. How is the lesson plan prepared and used in the classroom?

Part III Classroom Management

1. What does the physical arrangement in the classroom look like?
2. How is the availability of teaching and learning resources?
3. The classroom has learning material displayed on the wall (check all that apply)
 - a. The classroom has no displays
 - b. Printing material
 - c. Teacher made materials
 - d. Learner - made materials
4. How does the teacher manage the class? (check all that apply).
 - a. The teacher directs questions to all learners
 - b. The teacher requests specific learners to answer questions
 - c. Learners shout answers out
 - d. The atmosphere in the class permits all learners to learn
 - e. Specify if any _____



5. Teacher attitude (tick which applies)

- a. Teacher has a friendly attitude to the learners
- b. Teacher shows respect for the learner
- c. Teacher knows the learner's names
- d. Teacher seems to be motivated
- e. The teacher praises the learners for good attempts
- f. The teacher encourages learners' less successful attempts.

Part IV Learner focused instruction

1. Teaching strategies used a (check all that apply)

- a. Interactive group work
- b. Interactive pair work
- c. Individual assignments
- d. Teacher monitors group / individual/ pair work
- e. The teacher ask open ended questions
- f. Teacher gives frequent and appropriate feedback
- g. Relate lesson to learner experience and knowledge
- h. Boys and girls get opportunities to participate in learning activities.

2. Indicators that learners are actively engaged (check all that apply)

- a. Learners "talk and act" more than "sit" and listen" in class
- b. Learners initiate questions and comments
- c. Learners are presenting information to others (in groups) pair/ individually)
- d. Questions and activities move around the class (front/ back, side, boys /girls)
- e. learners appear to be animated and interested

3. Teacher uses relevant teaching aids (check all that apply)

- a. Textbooks
- b. Chalk board
- c. Printed materials
- d. Drawings.
- e. Teacher made materials
- f. Learner made materials from the environment (seeds, pebbles. bottles etc)
- G. Specify if any _____