

**THE TEACHING PRACTICE COMPONENT OF INITIAL
TEACHER EDUCATION: A SOCIAL JUSTICE APPROACH**

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for the degree of**

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**By
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DECLARATION

I, Kelly Ann Long, hereby declare that the work in this thesis is my own and where ideas from other writers have been used, they are acknowledged in full using referencing according to the Rhodes University Education Guide to References. I further declare that the work in this thesis has not been submitted to any university for degree purposes.

ABSTRACT

Research asserts that learner performance in South African schools is in a state of crisis. While many more learners' post-1994 in South Africa have physical access to education, very few have epistemological access. The quality of the education learners receive is polarised along socio-

economic lines. This crisis has its roots in the legacy of colonialism and apartheid, and as such, there is a need to transform the education system to ensure equal opportunity for all learners, and ultimately economic growth and security for the country. One of the explanations offered for the crisis in learner performance is the poor teacher education system. However, there is a paucity of research in teacher education generally in South Africa, and specifically in relation to pre-service teachers. Furthermore, little attention has been given to how initial teacher education could contribute to the promotion of a social justice agenda with the intention of transforming the South African schooling system.

This research seeks to understand how the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices can be utilised to promote social justice during the Teaching Practice (TP) component of initial teacher education. In answering the research question, I analyse data and literature to identify a set of key valued functionings of quality praxis that pre-service teachers ought to be provided the capability to realise, at the level of achieved functioning.

This is a qualitative case study located in the interpretive paradigm. The case under study is: quality teaching practices of pre-service teachers. This case is bound by context (initial teacher education in South Africa) and setting (the pre-service teacher in the classroom). Two South African Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) were selected through purposive sampling and their respective Teaching Practice (TP) documentation was analysed. Focus group interviews were conducted with five lecturers involved in TP at one of the HEIs. The theoretical framework of the study used to guide the analysis of the data was underpinned by a social justice perspective on quality education. Given that a social justice perspective does not have analytic tools, I view quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices as praxis and utilise the capability approach as a mechanism for identification and description of valued functionings and capabilities that contribute to quality praxis.

There are four significant findings in my research. Firstly, there is consistency with regards to the valued functionings and capabilities across the TP documentation of the two participating HEIs. In other words, the conceptions of a capable pre-service teacher are similar. Secondly, if social justice goals are to be realised, greater clarity of the valued functionings needs to be evident in the TP documentation. Thirdly, the valued functionings can be categorised into those that are foundational and those that promote a social justice agenda. Finally, in promoting a social justice

agenda, there are functionings that ought to be valued by the HEIs that are seemingly not currently valued.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANA – Annual National Assessments
 DBE – Department of Basic Education (South Africa)
 DHET – Department of Higher Education and Training (South Africa)
 EFA – Education for All
 GDP – Gross Domestic Product
 HEI – Higher Education Institution
 HEQC – Higher Education Quality Council (South Africa)
 MKO – More Knowledgeable Other
 NSES – National School Effectiveness Study
 OECD – Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
 PACT – The Performance Assessment of California Teachers
 SAQMEC – Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality
 SASA – South African Schools Act
 TP – Teaching Practice
 UN – United Nations
 UNESCO – United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
 ZPD – Zone of Proximal Development

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CHAPTER ONE

CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Quality Education is a universal concern (UN, 2015). Global organisations, such as the World Bank, United Nations Education, Scientific and Culture Organisation (UNESCO), and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), are at the forefront of establishing measures of Education Quality. The Sustainability Goals, spearheaded by the United Nations (UN), suggest that quality education is key to the eradication of poverty globally. While the UN recognises that significant gains have been made since 2000 in achieving almost universal access to primary education, concerns about the quality of this education abound (UN, 2015). This global challenge is reflected in the context of a country like South Africa.

Since the election of the first democratic government in 1994, great strides have been made in providing physical access to education. However, epistemological access which is the more recent focus of the international quality education imperative, remains a concern (Morrow, 2007; Fleisch, 2008). Many commentators (e.g. Fleisch, 2008) have referred to the South African schooling system as being in a state of crisis. Most notable in the explanations provided for this crisis in South Africa is the legacy of inequality in the schooling system, a result of the colonial and apartheid systems (Chisholm & Chilisa, 2012; Graven, 2014). While the current inequalities of the schooling system have historic roots linked to a conflict-ridden and intense history, Spaul (2013) argues that inequalities in the schooling system have been maintained and in many respects perpetuated through a bi-modal schooling system where children in more affluent communities receive quality education, but children in poor communities do not.

While there are numerous explanations offered for the perpetuation of inequality in the schooling system, Van der Berg, Spaul, Willis, Gustafsson and Kotzé (2016) identify four 'binding constraints' relating to poor learner performance and ultimately inequality in the schooling system. These include: poor functionality of the education system; the disruption caused by union activity; poor teachers' content and pedagogical content knowledge; and insufficient opportunity to learn.

My research is situated within this context; a context that is highly differentiated in terms of access to quality education. It asks questions related to addressing concerns about quality education that move us beyond explanations that remain rooted in the past. While recognising South Africa's history generally and in relation to schooling specifically, I try to ascertain how

quality education could be accessible to all. To do this, I focus on teacher education and specifically pre-service teacher education, as it is in this environment that prospective teachers' content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge is nurtured and developed. It is the future teachers of South Africa who, with quality initial teacher education programmes, have the potential to challenge the bi-modal schooling system, and offer all children, irrespective of socio-economic status, a quality education.

1.2 INEQUALITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

“There is an ongoing crisis in South African education, and ... the current system is failing the majority of South African youth” (Spaull, 2013, p. 3). Historical inequalities in South Africa have resulted in vast differences in the type and quality of education available to the wealthy and the poor (Branson & Zuze, 2012; Spaull, 2012). Spaull (2013) points out that:

Analysis of every South African dataset of educational achievement shows that there are in effect two different public school systems in South Africa. The smaller, better performing system accommodates the wealthiest 20-25 per cent of pupils who achieve much higher scores than the larger system which caters to the poorest 75-80 per cent of pupils. The performance in this latter, larger category can only be described as abysmal. These two education systems can be seen when splitting pupils by wealth, socio-economic status, geographic location and language. (p. 6)

With an income Gini coefficient¹ of 0.7, South Africa is the most unequal country in the world (World Bank, 2016). Put differently, the differential between rich and poor is immense. Furthermore, income differentials amongst the South African population is still divided along racial lines with 32% of blacks and only 1% of whites in South Africa falling below the poverty line (Sisk, 2017). As noted above, this differential is reflected in the performance of learners in schools. Learners with access to schools in affluent communities outperform learners in schools in poor communities.

Schools in South Africa are divided into five quintiles depending on the socio-economic status of the area in which the school is situated. “Quintile 1 is the group of schools in each province

¹ The Gini coefficient is a scale from 0-1. A Gini coefficient of 1 means that one person has all the income and a Gini coefficient of 0 means that everyone has the same income.

catering for the poorest 20% of learners. Quintile 2 schools cater for the next poorest 20% of schools, and so on. Quintile 5 schools are those schools that cater for the least poor 20% of learners” (DBE, 2004, p. 8). In other words, Quintile 5 schools serve the most affluent communities and Quintile 1 schools serve the poorest communities. Drawing on data from the National School Effectiveness Study (NSES), Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) and Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), Spaul (2015) provides evidence that learner performance is based on the Quintile of the school. This data “reveals the dire situation in South Africa where the vast majority (88%) of Quintile 1 – 4 learners in Grade 3 are not performing at the Grade-appropriate level” (Spaul, 2015, p. 10) this compared with only 49% of Quintile 5 learners. This disparity is further evident in the Annual National Assessments. The most recent data available are presented in the Report on the Annual National Assessment (ANA) 2014. According to the South African Department of Basic Education:

The Report on the Annual National Assessment (ANA) of 2014 presents to the South African public the performance of learners in the General Education and Training (GET) band who were assessed in Numeracy and Literacy using a nationally standardised test. During the week of 16 to 19 September 2014, more than 7, 3 million learners in Grades 1-6 and Grade 9 wrote the national assessment tests in Numeracy and Literacy. (DBE, 2014)

Results presented in this report confirmed that learners in Quintile 1 schools were underperforming compared with those in Quintile 5 schools. The national average percentage achieved by Grade 3 learners in Quintile 1 schools was 52.5% for Mathematics and 54% for Home Language while those from Quintile 5 schools achieved 68.9% and 67% respectively. In Grade 6 the disparity in achievement between the schools in affluent communities and the poor communities was even starker. Grade 6 learners in Quintile 1 schools managed a national average of only 38.1% in Mathematics and 50.8% in Home Language while those at Quintile 5 schools achieved 60.3% for mathematics and 70.9% in Home Language (DBE, 2014). The disparities in learner performance between schools in affluent communities and schools in poor communities are clearly significant and need to be addressed.

A variety of large-scale international economics studies suggest that level of education directly affects a persons’ future opportunity to earn (Branson & Zuze, 2012; Robeyns, 2013; Benos & Zotou, 2014). Benos and Zotou draw attention to the impact of education on the economic potential of the individual stating that “education plays a predominant role in determining who is employed, and the earnings they receive” (2014, p. 69). Carnevale, Rose and Cheah examine

“lifetime earnings for all education levels and earnings” (2013, p. 1). They state that “the data are clear: a university degree is key to economic opportunity, conferring substantially higher earnings on those with credentials than those without ... lifetime earnings rise steadily for workers with increasing educational attainment” (Carnevale et al., 2013, p. 3). Benos and Zotou (2014) offer evidence which indicates that education has the power to make a significant contribution not only to individual earning potential but also to the economic growth of a nation. In their study, Benos and Zotou analyse “57 studies ... and show that there is ... a positive impact of education on growth” (2014, p. 669). According to Stromquist and Monkman (2014):

Education is enjoying greater salience than it has in previous decades because the burgeoning global embrace of competitiveness has forced education to become intimately linked to ... economic development. Education is now considered an indisputable pathway to increased social mobility and works in the global imaginary as key to economic competitiveness of countries. (p. 8)

Education then holds the key to individual, national and global economic welfare. Uneven physical and epistemological access to education increases inequality, inhibits opportunity, and limits economic growth. If South Africa is to be competitive in the global marketplace, inequality in educational opportunity must be addressed.

From a social justice perspective, a key role of education, as articulated in post-1994 curriculum (SA.DoE, 1997; SA.DoE, 2002, SA.DBE, 2011) is to reduce the inequalities of the past and present, ensuring that every member of society is empowered through education, to equal opportunity. Guttman draws attention to the powerful link between education and poverty reduction, going as far as to state that “education is key to beating poverty” (2005, p. 49). Branson and Zuze insist that education has the power to redress inequality, enabling the poverty cycle to be broken, but they are careful to point out that education can also be a vehicle whereby “inequality is recycled and the stark differences in incomes between the rich and the poor ... are reinforced” (2012, p. 69). Sherry and Draper discuss the ‘cycle of poverty’ putting forward the thesis that a pattern of poverty exists in which “parents who fail to reach their educational and economic potential will provide similar high-risk environments for their children” (2012, pp. 1293-1294). This viewpoint is poignant in the vastly inequitable context of South Africa. Branson and Zuze refer to an ‘inequality cycle’ going as far as to state that “education plays an important role in promoting inequality in South Africa” (2012, p. 69). To achieve a stable economic and social future for South Africa, there is a clear and urgent need for education

research which can contribute to a meaningful understanding of how a social reconstructionist education system might be conceptualised in order to ensure equitable opportunities for all.

1.3 QUALITY FOCUS IN EDUCATION RESEARCH IN SOUTH AFRICA

Transformation has been high on the South African agenda since the end of apartheid and the country's first free and fair elections in 1994. In 1996 the South African Schools Act was signed into legislation. According to the South African Department of Basic Education 2014 Country Progress Report: "The South African Schools Act (SASA), 1996 (Act 84 of 1996), is aimed at ensuring that all learners have the right of access to quality education without discrimination, and makes schooling compulsory for children aged 7 to 15" (2014, p. 8). While the SASA does include reference to the term 'quality', implementation bore out a focus on issues of physical access in the early years of democracy. It is only recently that issues of quality in schooling have become part of the national discourse (Tikly, 2010; Branson & Zuze, 2012; Spaul, 2013; Spaul, 2015). In 2005, "SASA was amended by the Education Laws Amendment Act, 2005 (Act 24 of 2005), which authorises the declaration of schools in poverty-stricken areas as 'no-fee schools'" (DBE, 2014b, p.8). By 2007 "94% of youth aged seven to 18 were involved in education programmes" (DBE, 2010, p. 22). The establishment of no-fee paying public schools in South Africa and focus on access in the early years of democracy, has succeeded in significantly increasing physical access over the past 20 years, though this has not resulted in equity with regards to educational opportunity. According to the DBE "access remains very unequal in terms of quality, inefficient in terms of learning outcomes, and still shaped strongly by the apartheid legacy" (2010, p. 22).

Standardised test results (as referenced in 1.1) establish that improved access to education has not resulted in improved educational outcomes for South African youth (Branson & Zuze, 2012; Hoadley, 2013; Spaul, 2013; Graven, 2014). Hoadley (2013) comments that "whilst access to school has improved ... the quality of learning remains a serious issue, especially as measured in educational outcomes" (p. 72). Spaul adds to this concern noting that with regards to "educational outcomes, South Africa has the worst education system of all middle-income countries that participate in cross-national assessments of educational achievement." (2013, p. 3). In addition, Branson and Zuze state that despite South Africa achieving almost "universal enrolment until Grade 9 ... [this] has not translated into substantial increases in school completion rates among the poor" (2012, p. 70).

Spaull and Taylor agree that recently there has been a shift in focus from access to quality, stating that, “what started out as an almost single-minded focus on access ... has slowly developed into a more nuanced concept of quality education” (2015, p. 133). They note that “recent education scholarship ... has begun to draw attention to the increasing disconnect between schooling (quantity) and learning (quality) in developing countries” (Spaull & Taylor, 2015, p. 133). In other words, there has been a recent shift in focus from physical access to quality in education research. This can be attributed to the realisation that to measure only the number of children in the system is not a sufficient gauge of the successes or failures of a nations’ education system. It is quality education which results in epistemological access and acceptable levels of educational achievement (Graven, 2014; Spaull & Taylor, 2015).

As discussed in 1.1, the quality of educational opportunities afforded differing socio-economic groups in South Africa is vastly unequal (Frempong, Reddy, & Kanjee, 2011; Hoadley, 2013; Graven, 2014). The South African Child Gauge 2015 highlights that inequality in South Africa is reinforced by the current schooling system as a result of differentials in the quality of educational offerings going as far as to state that; “low-quality education in South Africa is a key mechanism in the reproduction of inequality” (Spaull, p. 34). To achieve a reduction in underachievement, commitment should be made to realising quality education in all schools across South Africa. As summarised by Alexander, “education for all cannot reasonably mean quality for some” (2007, p. 2). It is for these reasons that there is a need to understand, through informed research, what supports quality education in the South African schooling context.

1.4 THE ROLE OF TEACHERS’ TEACHING PRACTICES IN PROMOTING QUALITY EDUCATION

Hoadley (2012) summarises international trends in classroom based research, concluding that such research has generally been limited to school effectiveness studies where the focus is on learner attainment, access to schooling, learner home background, as well as management and leadership issues influencing learning. Hoadley points out that “many studies ... have, as yet, not been able to distinguish between school and classroom level factors and their effect on student performance. For this reason, what exactly makes the difference ... especially in classrooms remains elusive” (2012, p. 191). Alexander elaborates suggesting that “we need to engage much more directly with what lies at the core of the educational endeavour, that is to say, with

pedagogy” (2007, p. 2). Alexander also notes that “pedagogy is palpably the missing ingredient in the international debate about educational quality, and it is so obviously vital to student retention and progress and to learning outcomes, that we have no alternative but to find ways of remedying the deficiency” (2007, p. 22) – after all, as Alexander notes “without pedagogy discussion of quality makes little sense” (2015, p. 251).

Both Hoadley (2012) and Graven (2014) discuss bodies of research which indicate that, amongst other factors, poor teaching practices pose significant challenges in the South African education system. Learner attainment statistics discussed in section 1.1 of this thesis, indicate that the current situation is not limited to individual teachers, specific teacher training institutions or even particular schools, but is a national, systemic problem. As such, Hoadley suggests that “gaining deeper and more robust understandings of instructional practices is critical to understanding why and in what ways schooling in South African primary schools continues to fail the vast majority of learners” (2012, p. 198).

It is the teacher who shapes the possibility of pedagogy to succeed and, as such, is the most significant factor influencing learner outcomes (Adler, 2005). The quality of the teachers, however, is directly related to the quality of teacher education programmes they participated in. In other words, teacher education is an essential contributor to quality education (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Rusznyak, 2012; Lotz-Sisitka, 2015). For Kemmis, it is the “initial and continuing teacher education which form and shape teachers’ practices” (2011, p. 3).

1.5 THE ROLE OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN PROMOTING QUALITY EDUCATION

Teacher education in South Africa is currently facing challenges which have been acknowledged by the South African Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). The DHET has attempted to address some of these challenges through recent policy changes. One such change is the introduction of the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (MRTEQ) policy document (2010). This document lists findings from the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) 2009 review which found that:

Not all teacher education programmes seemed sufficiently aware of the extent and depth of the problems facing education in the country at large. It is expected that all teacher education programmes should take more tangible steps to urgently address what the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development referred to as the

critical challenges for education in South Africa today, including the legacies of apartheid, the poor content and conceptual knowledge among teachers and the acute shortage of qualified teachers, and learners' poor academic performance. In order to address these challenges, teacher education programmes must incorporate situational and contextual elements that assist teachers to develop competences to enable them to deal with diversity and transformation. (SA. HEQC, 2010, p. 6)

In other words, teacher education programmes have a responsibility to ensure that curricula take into account the specific context and situation of the SA schooling system in order to prepare beginner teachers who have the competencies to begin to address issues of diversity and in so doing, promote a transformatory agenda.

1.6 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Since 1994, the focus of the state has been physical access as opposed to epistemological access and though issues of physical access have to a large extent been addressed in the South African context, this has as discussed in sections 1.1 and 1.2, not resulted in improved educational achievement. As outlined in sections 1.3 and 1.4, more recently, research has begun to focus on quality education and, within this area of focus, on the impact of teachers on quality education delivery. The emphasis of this recent research has been on in-service teachers. There is currently a paucity of research within the quality debate that considers the field of initial teacher education. The intention of this study is to contribute to a body of knowledge that examines quality in initial teacher education. Specifically, I consider how quality might be identified and assessed with reference to pre-service teachers' teaching practices within primary school teacher education programmes in South Africa.

1.6.1 Research goals

The research has three goals:

- That it contributes to the development of a rich understanding of quality pre-service teaching practices through an exploration of teaching practices considered best in promoting learners' learning;
- That it contributes to a body of knowledge in teacher education, specifically in relation to quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices and how quality teaching practices might be identified, assessed and scaffolded; and

- That it offers guidelines of quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices with the view to promoting social justice and redress of historical and present inequalities in schooling in South Africa.

1.6.2 Main research question

- *How can the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices be utilised to promote a social reconstructionist agenda during the Teaching Practice component of initial teacher education? (Phase 3)*

1.6.2.1 Sub questions

- *What functionings and capabilities are valued as indicative of quality teaching practice within Teacher Education programmes? (Phase 1)*
- *How do the valued functionings and capabilities identified support a social reconstructionist agenda? (Phase 2)*
- *What valued functionings and capabilities are necessary to support a social reconstructionist agenda? (Phase 2)*

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The research seeks to contribute to two bodies of knowledge that are under-researched in South Africa. The first is within the field of teacher education, and in particular, the teaching practice experiences of primary pre-service teachers. The second is quality teaching and teacher education practices. Through this research, indicators of quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices will be developed.

1.8 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

There are seven chapters in this thesis. Chapter One makes the argument for the research by considering the context of the study with specific reference to: the current crisis in South African education; the central nature of quality in this crisis; the impact of teaching practices on quality teaching and learning; and finally, the need for research into how social reconstructionist ideals might be conceptualised within initial teacher education programmes in order to ensure more equitable opportunities for all.

Chapter Two outlines the conceptual framework for the study. Guided by a focus on the concept of quality, this chapter conceptualises quality education, quality teaching practices, and quality pre-service teacher education practices. The latter focuses on the teaching practice component of primary pre-service teacher education courses.

Chapter Three provides the theoretical framework for the study which is underpinned by a social justice perspective on quality education. The chapter outlines the view of quality teaching practices taken in this thesis in terms of praxis and operationalises the social justice perspective through the capability approach.

Chapter Four covers the methodology of the study. This is a qualitative case study situated in the interpretive paradigm utilising document analysis and focus group interviews as data generation tools. Data is then presented and analysed, using a capabilities approach, in Chapter Five.

Chapter Six examines the extent to which the valued functionings are indicative of a social reconstructionist agenda, and considers how the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teaching practices may be aligned more closely with a social justice perspective.

Finally, Chapter Seven examines the limitations of the study and makes recommendations for future research.

1.9 NOTES FOR THE READER

From the particular theoretical perspective of this study, the ultimate goal of teaching is to promote learners' learning through quality teaching practices, informed by a social reconstructionist agenda. While the focus of this research is on the pre-service teacher and their own learning, taking into account this ultimate goal of education, the research must also focus on the child and his/her learning. This research is thus conducted on two levels.

The first is at the higher education level and is interested in the type and quality of initial teacher education, in relation to pre-service teachers' teaching practices as enacted during TP. The second is at the school level and is interested in the type and quality of teaching practices which best promote learners' learning and are aligned with a social reconstructionist agenda. This creates a complexity within the thesis requiring an explanation of terminology used. I acknowledge that

the term *learner* could be understood to refer either to children in a school classroom or to pre-service teachers themselves. In order to avoid confusion, when referring to children being taught in a primary school classroom I use the term *learner* (this term is not used to refer to pre-service teachers themselves at any point in the thesis). I use the terms *pre-service teacher* and *student* interchangeably when referring to those studying at Higher Education Institutes toward a teaching qualification.

In the case of this study, the term *pre-service teacher* is used to refer to students enrolled in tertiary education institutions studying toward a qualification in primary school education in South Africa. The term *initial teacher education* refers to the work of Higher Education Institutions in the preparation of students to become qualified teachers. In other words, initial teacher education refers to tertiary education designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, skills and attitudes required to perform the task of teaching professionally and effectively.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

My research seeks to examine how the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers during the Teaching Practice component of their initial teacher education, can promote a social reconstructionist agenda. As such, I locate my work within three fields: quality education, teachers' teaching practices and teacher education. In the previous chapter I provided a rationale for my study. I argued that the current crisis with regards to learner underperformance, bears testament to a schooling system that is not producing quality educational outcomes. Notable is that access to quality education is polarised along socio-economic lines. I argue that there is an urgent need for transformation of the education system, if South Africa is to ensure equal opportunity for all and the economic growth and security of the country as a whole. The teacher is central to the provision of quality education, and as argued in Chapter One, it is the quality of the teacher education system that significantly impacts on the extent to which the teacher is enabled to promote quality teaching practices. I point out both the need for, and paucity of, research in teacher education and suggest that such research has potential to unveil ways in which initial teacher education could contribute to the promotion of a social reconstructionist agenda in the South African schooling system.

This chapter reviews selected literature related to the three fields in which I locate my work: quality education, teaching practices and teacher education. I begin this chapter with a focus on quality education literature and in particular three perspectives on quality education that is: Human Capital, Human Rights and social justice. Exploration of these three perspectives on quality education ultimately provides the overarching framework for the study, which is underpinned by a social justice perspective. Having examined the education quality literature, I focus specifically on the classroom, and in particular teachers' teaching practices which, as noted in Chapter One, are crucial in ensuring quality education. To do this, I consider various learning theories, as it is theories of learning, and specifically how learners learn, that impact on how teachers teach (or their teaching practices). In this way, I base my exploration of the literature on an assumption that the ultimate goal of teaching is to promote learning and that there is a direct link between learning and quality teaching practices. In other words, quality teaching

practices best promote learning, and teachers driven by this goal ought to value quality teaching practices. In keeping with the goal of my research, which is to develop guidelines for quality teaching practices, I move on to review what literature can tell us about how initial teacher education programmes currently guide, view and assess the teaching practices of pre-service educators.

2.2 CONCEPTIONS OF QUALITY EDUCATION

As discussed in Chapter One of this thesis, global interest around issues related to quality in education is relatively new. Ross and Genevois point out that the “transformation of the world has happened relatively recently and in a short period of time” (2006, p. 25). Since the 1980s there has been a global focus on quality education which has come to be seen as “the key to maximising individual well-being, reducing poverty, and increasing economic growth” (Ross & Genevois, 2006, p. 25). Growing interest in quality education can be aligned with the formation and development of the global economy (Tikly, 2010; Taylor, 2011; Spaul, 2013). A global economy foregrounds the necessity not only for broader access to education, but also for comparative education systems able to produce citizens who are well prepared to contribute to the national and global workforce (Ross & Genevois, 2006). This demand for a global and competitive workforce has meant that, “standards for learning are now higher than they have ever been before, as citizens and workers need great knowledge and skill to survive and succeed” (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 300).

Early thinking on how quality education can be viewed and evaluated, was dominated by Human Capital and Human Rights perspectives (Tikly, 2011) and has included more recently a social justice perspective. Each of these perspectives make a relevant contribution to analysis of the education system. These perspectives are nuanced and contested, so it is necessary to state that I draw primarily, in this thesis, on the work of Tikly (2011) and Robeyns (2006) in explaining these three perspectives.

From a Human Capital perspective, the role of education in society is to alleviate poverty by equipping the population with specific skills required for economic growth and stability. Robeyns iterates this stating that, “Human Capital theory considers education relevant in so far as education creates skills and helps to acquire knowledge that serves as an investment in the productivity of the human being as ... a worker” (2013, p. 72). The Human Capital perspective

asserts that quality education can be measured through analysis of learner achievement in standardised national and cross-national tests, number of years of education completed and through-put into meaningful employment (Tikly, 2011). More recently, the Human Capital perspective shifted from a focus on access and number of years of education as key indicators of the health of education systems and began to take an interest in the quality debate when “recent trends linking education with economic growth” (Tikly, 2011, p. 88) became apparent. This is when it was acknowledged that it is not quantity (the number of children in school), but quality of education which leads to economic growth and therefore a successful education system. A Human Capital perspective provides market-led solutions to the challenges of quality, such as performance related pay for teachers and creating greater choice and thereby greater competition between schools (Tikly, 2011).

A Human Capital perspective on quality also promotes the analysis of economic input/output. In other words, increased expenditure on education should result in improved learner performance and ultimately economic growth. The fundamental role of education is “providing the necessary human capital required by industry” (Tikly, 2013, p. 5). Benos and Zotou state that, “education is considered as one of the most significant human capital investments. It plays a vital role in the process of economic growth” (2014, p. 69). From this perspective, it is quality education which enables the general population to make significant contributions to a country’s Gross Domestic Product (Ross & Genevois, 2006; Benos & Zotou, 2014). Benos and Zotou (2014) note that there are:

different mechanisms through which education affects economic growth. First, education increases the human capital of the labour force, which increases labour productivity and transitional growth toward a higher ... output level. Second ... education increases the innovative capacity of the economy, knowledge of new technologies, products and processes, and thus promotes growth. (p. 669)

In other words, education affects the economy firstly, by increasing the number of people with the qualifications needed to be able to work and be productive members of society. In turn, this increase in productivity contributes to economic growth. Secondly, education has a direct impact on citizens’ capacity to be creative and innovative which also contributes to economic growth. Government’s investment in their education systems should, from this economically-driven point of view, result in an adequate return in the form of a labour force able to contribute toward the national economy. According to the most recent statistics available from the World Bank, South Africa spent 19.5% of its national budget on education in 2013 which represented 6.6% of the

country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This in comparison with the international average of 14.1% of national budget and just 4.6% of GDP. Analysis of the South African education system from this input/output perspective, highlights the current crisis. As evidenced through learner underperformance statistics (Chapter One), despite significant and internationally disproportionate expenditure, the South African education system is failing to produce a proportionately acceptable number of 'graduates' equipped to contribute to the economy. Spaul (2013) provides further evidence of this poor quality 'output' in his review of the South African education system from 1994 to 2011 which was commissioned by the Centre for Development and Enterprise. He summarises underperformance as follows:

2011 tests, in agreement with most other available evidence, showed that the vast majority of pupils in South Africa are seriously underperforming relative to the curriculum ... In the most recent round of SACMEQ (2007), South African pupils ranked 10th of the 14 education systems for reading and 8th for mathematics, behind much poorer countries such as Tanzania, Kenya and Swaziland. (p. 4)

The Human Capital perspective has been highly criticised for its linear and generalised approach to analysis of education systems (Tikly, 2011). It is argued that this approach fails to consider the more social and contextual issues which impact the system. This perspective also fails to take into account the social and individual benefits of education which may not have any direct impact on the economy but should, none the less, be valued. Tikly warns that "the danger with [a Human Capital] model ... is that it presents a one size fits all approach to quality that is insensitive to the learning needs of different groups of learners and to diverse learning environments" (2011, p. 88).

The Human Rights perspective attempts to address the social aspects of education not addressed by the economically-driven Human Capital perspective. From a Human Rights perspective, the role of education in society is not simply to contribute to the economic growth and stability of a nation, but is rather to enable the realisation of fundamental rights through education. Human Rights theory sees quality as a right in and of itself and education as a "human right that should be guaranteed to all" (Robeyns, 2013, p. 75). Put differently, this perspective views education as both a fundamental and enabling right. It is through education that individuals are enabled to claim and protect their rights.

According to the Special Rapporteur of the United Nations Human Rights Office of High Commission:

Education is both a human right in itself and an indispensable means of realising other human rights. As an empowerment right, education is the primary vehicle by which economically and socially marginalised adults and children can lift themselves out of poverty and obtain the means to participate fully in their communities (2008, no page number).

From this perspective, governments have an intrinsic responsibility to guarantee the economic and political support structures necessary, to ensure every citizen has access to quality education.

In contrast to the Human Capital perspective, Robeyns argues that “the rights-based framework submits that every human being is entitled to decent education, even when one cannot be sure that this education will pay off in human capital terms” (2013, p. 75). For example, from the Human Rights perspective, children who experience intrinsic barriers to learning should have access to quality education, even if it is unlikely that he/she will ever be able to contribute to the national economy. Key indicators of quality education from this perspective are access (both physical and epistemological), adequate infrastructure and learner-centred teaching (Robeyns, 2013).

The influence of a Human Rights perspective on quality education is apparent in many of the policy decisions made since democracy in South Africa. For example, the rights based view of quality teaching practices as learner centred has had an influence on post-1994 curricula. For example, the first post-1994 curriculum, Curriculum 2005, had both an epistemological and reconstructionist agenda (Naidoo & Parker, 2005) and “was driven by a strong pedagogical project. Learner-centeredness was the corner stone of this new project” (Hoadley, 2011. p. 146). The influence of this agenda in the South African government’s efforts to ensure increased physical access to education for all since 1994 and as well as in legislation such as Education White Paper 6 outlining policy regarding Inclusive Education, intended to ensure equal access to education for mentally and physically disabled children.

Human Rights perspectives have been criticised for a focus on government and policy as the “locus for change” (Tikly, 2011, p. 90). In other words, Human Rights perspectives are criticised for focussing too heavily on policy making as an end in itself or the realisation of rights through policy with little emphasis on implementation or policy in action. Katsui warns that: “when the

HRBA (Human Rights Based Approach) is narrowly conceptualised as the legal formalisation ... formalisation becomes the end in itself and not means After the law ... making particularly at international level, no change might follow in practice when making of policy itself becomes the aspiration” (2008, p. 10). While policy makers and government institutions do have responsibilities in relation to creating social change, it is argued that “civil society also has a critical role to play in advocacy and in mobilising for change” (Tikly, 2011, p. 90).

The influence of both Human Capital and Human Rights perspectives is clear in the goals set in the *World Declaration on Education for All* adopted by 155 countries at the United Nations Organization for Education, Science and Culture (UNESCO): World Conference on Education for All (EFA) in 1990. The declaration affirms:

the notion of education as a fundamental human right and urged countries to intensify efforts to address the basic learning needs of all. The *Framework for Action to Meet the Basic Learning Needs* defined targets and strategies to meet the basic learning needs of all by the year 2000. The goals included; universal access to learning; emphasis on learning outcomes and; enhancing the environment for learning. (UNESCO, 2000, p. 12)

In the revised goals set by UNESCO in 2000 in the Dakar Framework for Action, Education for All (EFA), growing interest in quality is indicated in goal six of the six goals set by the collective namely: “Improving every aspect of the quality of education, and ensuring their excellence” (UNESCO, 2000, p. 17). These goals were more recently reviewed and expanded in 2017 when the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was published along with Sustainable Development Goals which list “17 goals to transform our world” (UNESCO, 2017).

The new 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development clearly reflects this vision of the importance of an appropriate educational response. Education is explicitly formulated as a stand-alone goal – Sustainable Development Goal 4. Numerous education related targets and indicators are also contained within other Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Education is both a goal in itself and a means for attaining all the other SDGs. (UNESCO, 2017, p. 1)

Goal four reads as follows: “Ensure inclusive and quality education for all and promote lifelong learning” (UNESCO, 2017, p. 6). Though there have been three iterations of the EFA goals, the perspective has been by and large the same as influenced by a Human Rights based perspective on quality.

I have argued in Chapter One of this thesis, that it is through quality education that individuals are afforded agency to improve their socio-economic status. In other words, it is through quality education that the disadvantaged are provided an opportunity to develop individual capabilities that have the potential to move them from a situation of economic disadvantage to, possibly, one of economic security. As stated on the UNESCO website: “Education is a powerful tool by which economically and socially marginalized adults and children can lift themselves out of poverty and participate fully as citizens” (UNESCO, n.d.). A history of discrimination in South Africa as a whole and the South African education system in particular, has resulted in unequal access to schooling and knowledge along racial and socio-economic lines (Chapter One). If this inequality is to be addressed, then the issues of physical access and infrastructure affecting quality education which dominate a Human Capital perspective cannot be ignored. For example, in addition to physical access, great strides have been made in South African public education in regard to generating, assessing and analysing learner attainment data (Hoadley, 2013). As discussed in Chapter One, participation in international standardised testing studies and the introduction of the Annual National Assessments to provide standardised, independent benchmarks against which to measure learner performance, have been positive steps which should be recognised (Hoadley, 2012; Spaul, 2013). The South African schooling system is able to assess learner performance across the schooling system and analyse learner attainment based on international standards. However, despite these gains toward equity in and through education, “as it stands, the South African education system is grossly inefficient, severely underperforming and egregiously unfair” (Spaul, 2013, p. 3) indicating a need to explore more deeply, issues affecting equity in the system.

The global EFA initiative saw research interest in the field of quality education grow, thus understandings around how quality education can be viewed and measured became increasingly sophisticated (Ross & Genevois, 2006). Both Human Capital and Human Rights perspectives on quality education have been further developed in recent years by the social justice perspective, as a result of the increased research interest in the field of quality education. From a social justice perspective, the fundamental role of education is not just to develop the economy (as for Human Capital perspective) or to enable realisation of basic human rights (a view taken by Human Rights perspective) but, to redress historical inequalities and enable individuals to reach their full potential. What a social justice perspective offers is a means to explore the more nuanced social and contextual aspects affecting inequality across the system.

Quality education from the social justice perspective has equity at its heart. As such it proposes an inclusive, democratic and relevant education. Relevance here speaks to the relevance of curriculum content in relation to the needs of the state. Relevance from a social justice perspective on quality education ought to be addressed through public debate on “the extent to which the current curriculum arrangements produce outcomes that learners, parents, communities and society at large have reason to value” (Tikly, 2011, p. 92). Inclusivity encompasses the belief that all learners should have access to the types of inputs which they need, on an individual level, to achieve learning outcomes. In terms of democracy, Tikly states that from the social justice perspective “education should be democratic in the sense that learning outcomes are determined through public debate and ensured through processes of accountability” (2011, p. 91).

There are three main purposes of quality education, namely: to build capabilities; to ensure that this process results in capabilities which enable equity; and finally, the development of the whole child (Tikly, 2011). Here, the social justice perspective employs a capability approach. The capability approach, first theorised by Sen (2009) and Nussbaum (2001), was developed as an alternative approach to traditional measurement of well-being which are materially driven or rights based (Robeyns, 2013). The approach offers a model for analysis of well-being from both the individual and societal perspectives. Tikly draws upon the work of Sen summarising the notion of capabilities as follows: “simply put, capabilities are the opportunities that individuals and groups have to realise different ‘functionings’ that they may have reason to value and that contribute to well-being” (2011, p. 91). At its core then, what the social justice perspective advocates is that education should aim to provide the opportunities or freedoms (capabilities) necessary to develop those beings and doings (functionings) which people have reason to value (Sen, 1993). Focusing on capabilities allows a social justice perspective to provide a middle ground between Human Capital and Human Rights perspective as well as the “potential to ... extend human capital and rights based approaches to education quality” (Tikly, 2011, p. 91). The capability approach is elaborated on extensively in Chapter Three of this thesis as it is a key component of my theoretical framework.

While it is important to place the quality education debate in its broader context, my research focus is not on quality education in general but rather on quality pre-service teachers’ teaching practices. Alexander insists upon the importance of teaching practices within the quality education debate outlining a shift in focus since the 1990 Jomtien World Declaration on EFA;

“from the assumption that it is sufficient to define quality via a handful of mainly proxy indicators to a dawning recognition that we need to engage much more directly with what lies at the core of the educational endeavour, that is to say, with pedagogy” (2007, p. 1). Before examining quality pre-service teachers’ teaching practices, I attempt to address how quality teaching practices might more broadly be conceptualised and consider what impact the social justice perspective might have on this conceptualisation.

2.2.1 Conceptions of quality teaching practices

The concept of teaching practices is contested and not easy to define (Mortimore, 1999). In line with the social justice perspective highlighted in the previous section, practices are viewed in this study as social phenomenon. A practice is “a ‘bundle’ of activities ... an organised nexus of actions” (Schatzki, 2002, p. 71) developed in and through inter (action), and are therefore, social phenomena (Kemmis, 2011).

This conception of practice is aligned with Lave and Wenger’s (1991) view of teaching practices “reflecting a more expansive and collaborative learning approach, conceived within ‘communities of practice’” (White & Forgasz, 2016, p. 235). Teaching practices are not simply ‘actions’ taken or ‘methods’ used by the teacher but are rather viewed as “forms of understanding (saying), modes of action (doings) and ways in which people relate to one another and the world (‘relatings’), all bundled together in ... tasks for education” (Kemmis, Wilkinson, Edwards-Groves, Hardy, Grootenboer, & Bristol, 2014, p. 3). Put differently, the understanding of teaching practices taken in this research encompasses: content being dealt with (‘sayings’), the actions teachers and learners are involved in doing (‘doings’) and the relationship between teacher, learner and context (‘relatings’) during teaching.

Alexander states that, “a quality education is one that satisfies basic learning needs, and enriches the lives of learners and their overall experience of living” (2007, p. 6). For Alexander then, the ultimate goal of teaching ought to be learning, thus this study must also be concerned with learners and their learning (as much as with pre-service teachers and their learning). Specifically, the study must be concerned with learners’ learning in relation to developing an understanding of teaching practices that might best promote learning and thus those that pre-service teachers ought to be given the opportunity to foster, through initial teacher education.

Perspectives on quality education, discussed in section 2.1, offer a broad framework for viewpoints on quality teaching practices however, it is learning theory which directly attempts to define, and provide direction for, teaching practices. While it is the intention of this study to focus on the pre-service teacher and their learning, it remains important to explore how learning theory influences conceptions of teaching practices and how these conceptions have evolved. In this section of the thesis, I explore three dominant learning theories namely: Behaviourism, Constructivism and situated learning, to develop an understanding of the implications these hold for teaching practices; and how they conceptualise quality teaching practices.

Behaviourism is concerned with observable phenomenon. Behaviourism promotes a view of knowledge that is 'objective'. In other words, there are universal laws that have been discovered and can be generalised for everyone (Jordan, Carlile, & Stack, 2008). Behaviourism is thus premised on the belief that there is one true reality that exists and knowledge of this reality is discovered through observation of phenomenon. While Behaviourism has its roots in this empiricist ontology and epistemology (i.e. where knowledge is discovered through observation) this is not the case in the classroom. Rather, learners are taught this 'objective' knowledge. Put differently, the role of the teacher is to impart, through his/her teaching practices, objective knowledge to learners. "Behaviourism thus views the student as an unreflective responder" (Boghossian, 2006, p. 714) and the teacher, as the knower-of-all.

Behaviourism is based on stimulus-response. By providing experiences of specific stimulus which consistently stimulate a particular response, teachers are able to inculcate habits deemed appropriate in the learners. This concept can best be explained using a simple example of times tables, the teacher requires a response of '36' (response) every time she says '6x6' (stimulus). If the teacher says '6x6' and the learner responds with '36' and this is repeated until the learner responds to the stimulus without hesitation. At this point teaching and learning is deemed to have been successful. Once the desired habits have been formed, knowledge has been successfully transmitted. In other words, "behaviourists define learning as a relatively permanent change in behaviour as a result of experience" (Jordan et al., 2008, p. 21). Feedback from teachers can utilise reinforcement to encourage desired responses and punishment to discourage undesired responses.

Behaviourist research is based purely on the observable response of the learner to input or stimulus provided. It does not include an exploration of the internal processes involved in learning (Skinner, 1985; Mortimore, 1999; Jordan et al., 2008). Boghossian explains the view of teaching practices from a behaviourist perspective stating; “often, the form of conditioning used to achieve desirable verbal behaviour is a lecture-based pedagogy” (2006, p. 714).

Behaviourism has been highly criticised for its view of the learner as an empty vessel who needs to be filled with knowledge through reinforcement and rote memorisation (Jordan et al., 2008). The focus on conditioning behaviour has also been criticised for the exclusion of ‘have a go learning’ and the benefit of learning through and from mistakes. Behaviourism fails to take into account the individual, cultural and social aspects of a child’s life which affect learning. Hence, a ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach is promoted by teachers and little opportunity is created for differentiating learning.

Constructivism by contrast is concerned with the influence of individual lived experience and the process of individual internalisation of knowledge. Bichelmeyer and Hsu (1999) succinctly summarise the key differences between these two learning theories as follows:

Where behaviourism views knowledge as resulting from a finding process, constructivism views knowledge as the natural consequence of a constructive process. Where behaviourism views learning as an active process of acquiring knowledge, constructivism views learning as an active process of constructing knowledge. Finally, where behaviourism views instruction as the process of providing knowledge, constructivism views instruction as the process of supporting construction of knowledge. (p. 4)

Constructivism is based on the premise that people construct their own knowledge. It thus acknowledges that the learner is a thinking individual who builds knowledge through active experiences. Jordan et al. iterate this stating that “constructivism holds that people actively build knowledge and understanding by synthesising the knowledge they already possess with new information ... learning is an active process through which learners ‘construct’ meaning.” (2008, p. 55). For Piaget, considered one of the forefathers of cognitive constructivism, “cognitive development and conceptual change occur as the result of interactions between existing cognitive structures and new experience” (Jordan et al., 2008, p. 57). In other words, new knowledge is constructed when learning is the result of building, through active experience, from what is already known to what was previously unknown.

Vygotsky, regarded as a seminal social constructivist (it should be noted that he is also considered to have significant links to situated learning), focuses on the social and contextual aspect involved in the construction of new knowledge. According to Vygotsky (1978) every function in the learner's cultural development appears twice: first on the social level and later, on the individual level. Vygotsky introduced the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which refers to the difference between knowledge the learner already has and what he/she needs help to discover. All learning experience must first be based on where the learner is or rather, what they already know. For Vygotsky, learning should be scaffolded by a More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) from existing knowledge to new knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky thus "affirms the role of teachers and experts in guiding learning" (Jordan et al., 2008, p. 59). In the ZPD, the teacher (MKO) encourages and supports the learner to scaffold learning from what is already known to the construction of new knowledge.

Social Constructivism views teachers as mediators of learning rather than imparters of objective knowledge. The role of the teacher is to provide the resources and guidance learners need, as learners make discoveries and assimilate or modify old knowledge in the process of constructing new knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978). In order to guide learning in this way the teachers must first identify what the learner already knows and then provide experiences which facilitate the construction of new knowledge. The teacher provides the context for the child to make these new connections or develop new knowledge on their own. Teaching practices should provide appropriate structures for learners to build on the knowledge they already have and to scaffold learning from the known to the unknown. Learners should be actively involved in the learning process and should be given the support, opportunities to interact and freedom they need to construct their own knowledge.

While Vygotsky recognises the significance of the socio-cultural context, Lave and Wenger extend this further with their theory of situated learning. Situated learning "explores the situated character of human understanding and communication ... they ask what kinds of social engagement provide proper context for learning to take place" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 14). Situated learning theory is concerned with the development of the individual through identity formation within communities of practice. Wenger states that "the primary focus of this theory is on learning as social participation ... a process of being active participants in the practices of social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities" (2009, p. 210). Learning and knowing is thus directly related to the social interaction of the knower.

theorises a perspective on learning which places “learning in the context of our lived experience of participation in the world” (2009, p. 209). Wenger (2009) insists that it is this type of participation that shapes not only what we do but also who we are. In other words, identity is constructed through active participation in the activities of a particular community. As highlighted in Figure 2.1, for Wenger, learning involves the processes of becoming, belonging to a community, experiencing and doing. Figure 2.1 represents Wenger’s components of learning and thus his “social theory of learning” (2009, p. 211). He describes these components as “deeply interconnected and mutually defining” (Wenger, 2009, p. 211). As illustrated, he views learning as: doing in and through practice; belonging within a community; becoming through identity formation; and meaning making in and through experience.

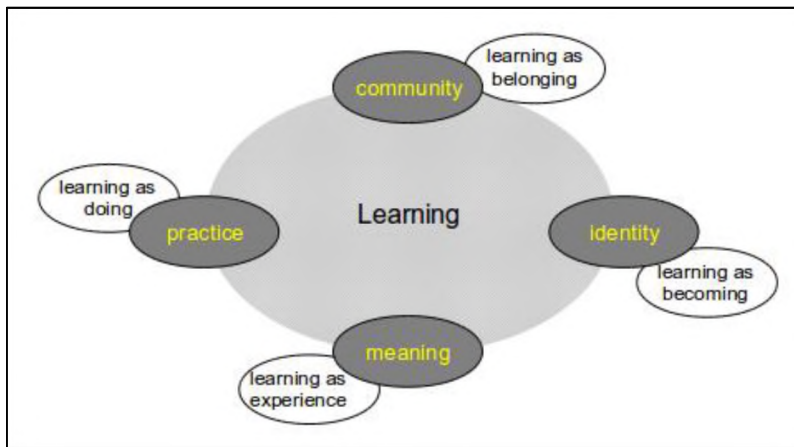


Figure 2.1: Components of learning (Wenger, 2009, p. 211)

Wenger (2009) describes the practical application of the theory on teaching and learning as follows:

A perspective is not a recipe; it does not tell you just what to do. Rather it acts as a guide about what to pay attention to ... if we believe that information stored in explicit ways is only a small part of knowing, and that knowing involved primarily active participation in social communities, then the traditional format does not look productive. What does look promising are inventive ways of engaging students in meaningful practices, of providing access to resources that enhance their participation, of opening their horizons so they can put themselves on learning trajectories they can identify with, and of involving them in actions, discussions, and reflections that make a difference to the communities that they value. (p. 215)

Here, Wenger suggests that if we accept the assumptions made about knowing from this social theory of learning then, it is necessary to alter traditional conceptions of teaching practices. He advocates for teaching practices which encourage and support the active participation of learners in activities that are meaningful to them and the communities they care about.

Aligned with both situated learning and a social justice perspective on quality taken in this research, Grootenboer (2013) and Kemmis et al. (2014) advocate for a view of teaching practices which recognises the importance of providing a moral and ethical compass, seen as essential in facilitating the formation of identity through education. This perspective views practice as socially transformative. Kemmis et al. (2014) and Grootenboer (2013) refer to practice that is transformative as praxis. Kemmis et al. (2014) provide a useful definition of praxis stating, “practice always forms and transforms the one who practices, along with those who are also involved in and affected by practice ... practice transforms the work in which the practice is carried out ... this perspective of practice is approached through the concept of praxis” (2014, p. 25). The concept of praxis is utilised to form the interconnected theoretical framework for this study and as such is discussed in detail in section 3.2 of this thesis.

Examination of situated learning, and specifically praxis, reveals a particular view of the necessary conditions for effective learning. Accepting these conditions for effective learning and taking a social justice perspective on quality education, a possible outline of quality teaching practices begins to emerge. Situated learning acknowledges that issues of culture, language, cognition, community and socialisation are central to learning (Wenger, 2009). Tikly (2010), writing from a social justice perspective outlines a number of key indicators of quality which relate specifically to teaching practices. These include: on-going school-based training which builds teacher capabilities and is designed in such a way as to redress inequality; inclusion in the classroom which takes into account the wellbeing of the whole child and a focus on planning which demonstrates an intention to develop the wellbeing of each child and builds the individual capabilities of each learner. It is here that connections between situated learning and social justice perspective on quality become clear. Situated learning holds that effective learning takes place when the teacher accommodates the social, emotional and intellectual growth of the learner within the particular social context of learning and thus is concerned with the wellbeing of the whole child as well as equity and inclusivity.

A framework for quality teaching practices, as informed by both situated learning and a social justice perspective now emerges. In this sense quality teaching practices are underpinned by moral, ethical and caring dimensions of teaching (Grootenboer, 2013). In addition to the role of teacher as learning mediator (DBE, 2000) who inducts learners into a community of practice, the view of the teacher is that of social actor (Naidoo & Parker, 2005). The teacher approaches teaching and learning as an inclusive, interactive and situated process through which the whole

child is developed and each individual learner develops capabilities which will facilitate full and meaningful participation in society. Teaching is learner-centred, inclusive, participatory, democratic and rooted in the social and cultural context of all learners. Put differently, quality teaching practices should have as an ultimate goal the formation of the identity of the whole child and the understanding that all learning occurs within a social context and through social interaction.

The above has implications for teacher education. Furthermore, as the global demand for quality education grows along with the global economy, so does the demand for quality teacher education. As argued extensively in Chapter One of this thesis, “education is increasingly important to the success of both individuals and nations, and growing evidence demonstrates that ... teachers’ abilities are especially crucial contributors to students’ learning” (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 300). To ensure quality education and the enactment of quality teaching practices in the classroom, it is essential that teachers receive quality education especially in their initial teacher education programmes. As Darling-Hammond asserts that “a highly-skilled teaching force results from developing well-prepared teachers, from recruitment through preparation” (2012, p. 9).

2.3 CONCEPTIONS OF QUALITY INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Teaching is complex and multi-faceted in nature (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Zeichner, 2010; Rusznyak, 2012). The teacher is necessarily concerned with making a large number of decisions simultaneously in order to meet the needs of diverse learners and manage classroom activities (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Teachers must have sound academic understanding of the wide array of subject matter (particularly in the primary phase of schooling where subject specialisation is broader than in the latter years) and must also understand how learners learn and how to interact in ways which hold learners’ interest. In addition to this, teachers must be able to adapt to the ever changing needs of the class and to the diverse needs of the individual learners in the class all while maintaining a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning. Darling-Hammond and Bransford draw attention to these complexities stating that “on a daily basis, teachers confront complex decisions that rely on many different kinds of knowledge and judgement and that can involve high-stakes outcomes for [learners’] futures” (2005, p. 2). It follows then that initial teacher education is necessarily complex in nature. Teacher education programmes are required to ensure qualifying teachers have sound academic knowledge of subject matter and theories of

teaching and learning as well as the practical expertise required to successfully enact this knowledge in the classroom (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Zeichner, 2010; Rusznyak, 2012). Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) point out that:

findings from several studies suggest that how teacher education is conducted can make a difference in teachers' abilities to enact what they are learning ... when a well-supervised student teaching experience precedes or is conducted jointly with course work, students ... are more able to enact what they are learning in practice. (p. 375)

Teaching experience for pre-service teachers is understood to refer to the time that students are required to spend in classrooms during the course of their studies. There are different terms used to refer to this component of initial teacher education such as: Teaching Practice (TP), 'clinical experience' (Darling-Hammond, 2006), workplace-based learning (MRTEQ, 2011) or, as an element within 'Work Integrated Learning' (MRTEQ, 2011). I refer to this aspect of pre-service teacher education programs as TP. There is consensus in current initial teacher education research that instruction and supervision of student TP is critical to students' "understanding of and skills for teaching" (Darling-Hammond, 2006. p. 303). Rusznyak maintains that "an abundance of literature suggests that a classroom-based practicum ... has many purposes, including familiarising student teachers with the nature and complexity of classroom life and providing them with examples of classroom practice" (2009, p. 263). Darling-Hammond and Bransford insist upon the essential nature of this element of initial teacher education stating that "much of the information needed to make effective teaching decisions emerges in the context of the practice" (2005, p. 364). Pre-service teacher training must include "extensive and intensively supervised" (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 300) TP experiences for the student teacher to feel confident in their ability to handle the complex environment of the classroom.

Darling-Hammond (2006) identifies "three critical components" (p. 300) of quality teacher education programmes as follows:

tight coherence and integration among courses and between course work and clinical work in schools, extensive and intensely supervised clinical work integrated with course work using pedagogies that link theory and practice, and closer, proactive relationships with schools that serve diverse learners effectively and develop and model good teaching. (p. 300)

The Department of Higher Education and Training (2015) stipulates that TP is required in all pre-service teacher education programmes in South Africa and that TP should be supervised and

assessed. Students are required to achieve a satisfactory mark or obtain the credits allocated to TP to meet the requirements of initial teacher education qualification. Rusznyak comments that, “a credit or ‘pass’ mark in a teaching practice course (TP) is a convenient way for institutions to signify their confidence in qualifying students’ readiness to begin teaching” (2012, p. 91).

Respected education researchers including Darling-Hammond (2006), Rusznyak (2009), Lotz-Sisitka (2015) and Rusznyak and Moosa, (2014), draw focus to an urgency for teacher education programmes to begin to explore issues of quality and quality teaching practices. Affirmation of the relevance of taking a social justice perspective in the multi-cultural setting of South African schooling, is Darling-Hammond’s insistence that “schools of education must design programs that help prospective teachers to understand deeply a wide array of things about learning, social and cultural context, and teaching and be able to enact these understandings in complex classrooms serving increasingly diverse students” (2006, p. 302). This is further affirmed by the South African Department of Higher Education and Training who state that:

In response to the issues raised in the research and in the HEQC review, the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications describes clear, specific requirements for the development of learning programmes, as well as guidelines regarding practical and work-integrated learning (WIL) structures, and requires all teacher education programmes to address the critical challenges facing education in South Africa today – especially the poor content and conceptual knowledge found amongst teachers, as well as the legacies of apartheid, by incorporating situational and contextual elements that assist teachers in developing competences that enable them to deal with diversity and transformation. (DBE, 2015a, p. 11)

As referenced in 1.4 of this thesis, teacher education programmes in South Africa are facing many challenges which extend to the type, quality and quantity of TP pre-service teachers participate in during their studies. Rusznyak and Moosa discuss a “concern that many student teachers in South Africa may be receiving inadequate support ... as they start engaging in classroom teaching” (2014, p. 591). A recent review of South African initial teacher education by the Higher Education Quality Council highlights concern about the “design, monitoring and assessment of teaching practice” (DHET, 2010a, p. 146).

The MRTEQ (DHET, 2015a) policy document, lists the following as:

some of the more important findings drawn from the HEQC (Higher Education Quality Council) 2009 review:

- The quality of a substantial proportion of teacher education programmes is questionable, with few meeting minimum standards in the areas of programme organisation, design, coordination and work-based learning.
- Many students, especially in PGCE programmes, are not given sufficient opportunity to engage in practice learning, and this problem is compounded by weak institutional-school relationships, poor communication, few and inadequate supervision and mentorship arrangements and sometimes no deliberate student placement policies. Therefore, this policy document provides direct and specific regulations with regard to practical and work integrated learning structures, liaison, supervision and mentoring.

Quality initial teacher education programs should strive, through well-conceived, monitored and supervised TP, to produce beginner teachers who possess the confidence and pedagogical skills necessary to deliver quality in the classroom. Drawing on a social justice perspective, quality is that which is ultimately transformative.

2.3.1 Assessment of Teaching Practice (TP)

There is consensus in literature and in South African government policy documents regarding the essential nature of TP and assessment of student performance during TP (DBE, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2012; Rusznyak, 2012; DHET, 2015). The South African Norms and Standards for Educators Government Gazette states that “teaching practice is recognised as an essential feature that should be included in all educator programmes” and goes on to describe Teaching Practice as: “a mode of delivery through which all the different roles of educators (referring to the *seven roles of the educator*) should be developed and assessed” (DBE, 2000, pp. 11-12). Darling-Hammond insists that quality teacher education is reliant upon “high-quality preparation, evaluated authentically through performance assessments that both *develop* and *measure* beginning teacher effectiveness” (2012, p. 9). The MRTEQ policy document states: “the workplace-based component of WIL (Work Integrated Learning) must be structured, supervised, integrated into the learning programme, spread across the learning programme and it must be formally assessed” (DHET, 2015, p. 15).

In the South African education context challenges with respect to assessment of TP are well documented (Rusznyak, 2012). The report on the National Review of Academic and Professional

Programmes in Education by the South African Council for Higher Education (CHE) describes TP as “a very uneven area which represents a significant challenge to quality in the sector” (2010, p. 105). The report also highlights a “lack of common understanding of assessment rubrics” (Council of Higher Education, 2010, p. 146). Much of the literature argues that a need exists for coherence of assessment practices when it comes to assessing pre-service teacher performance during TP (Darling-Hammond, 2012; Rusznyak, 2012). As Darling-Hammond asserts, “criteria and methods for evaluating teachers vary substantial ... most teachers experience a cacophony of standards and directives ... [t]his lack of coherence undermines teacher learning and makes it difficult to devise effective solutions to the problems of teaching practice” (2012, p. 10).

The MRTEQ policy document attempts to address challenges with regards to consistency in assessment of pre-service teacher competence by outlining 11 “basic competencies of a beginner teacher” described as “the minimum set of competences required of newly qualified teachers” (2015, p. 64). The full list of competencies can be found as Appendix A of this thesis. Initial teacher education programmes are required to develop and assess pre-service teachers against these key competencies during the course of their studies. Each one of these 11 key beginner teacher competencies impacts on, and can be evaluated and developed through, TP. For example, key competency 2 states that “newly qualified teachers must ... know how to teach their subject(s) and how to select, determine the sequence and pace of content in accordance with both subject and learner needs” (DHET, 2015, p. 64). Due to the diverse nature of human understanding and context dependence of knowledge (as argued in section 2.2 of this thesis), learners’ needs can only be determined through interaction with learners in the classroom and thus it is only through observation of the pre-service teacher in the classroom during TP that the pre-service teachers’ competence in this area can be assessed.

While the literature does not directly refer to teaching practices in terms of praxis or quality in terms of social justice, the 11 beginner teacher competencies acknowledge the concepts encapsulated by both. As an example, beginner competency 7 reads: “*understand diversity* in the South African context in order to teach in a manner that *includes all learners*. They must also be able to identify learning or social problems and ... address these (DHET, 2015, p. 64) and number 10: “must ... display *appropriate values* and conduct themselves in a manner that befits, enhances and develops the teaching profession” (DHET, 2015, p. 64). As evidenced in these examples, the basic competencies acknowledge the moral and ethical factors which affect

teaching and learning as well as the responsibility of teachers with regards to transformation in and through education.

Many respected experts in the field of teacher education have suggested a variety of assessment tools which have been argued could assist with coherence of TP assessment (Rusznyak, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2012; Darling-Hammond, Newton & Wei, 2013). For example, Darling-Hammond et al. suggest The Performance Assessment of California Teachers (PACT) assessment tool as an “authentic tool for evaluating prospective teachers” (2013, p. 179). PACT is a consortium formed in 2001 consisting of seven institutions offering initial teacher education in California and led by Stanford University. The consortium committed to researching and designing a standardised assessment tool described as “a portfolio-based assessment that reflects how teacher candidates plan and teach specific subject matter with the needs of all of their learners in mind” (PACT, n.d.). The resultant assessment tool:

consists of two classes of assessments, embedded signature assessments to be completed throughout the preparation program (for example, child case studies, curriculum units and other major learning experiences in teacher education), and a summative assessment of teaching knowledge and skills during student teaching, known as the teaching event (TE). (Darling-Hammond et al., 2013, p. 4)

In late 2007, PACT was formally approved by the California Commission for Teacher Credentialing as a reliable and valid teaching performance assessment tool and has reportedly been used by over 30 initial teacher education institutions in California. The ‘teaching event’ uses video, evidence of learners’ work along with written lesson reflections and commentary from pre-service teachers from a series of lessons (3/5) which are compiled and submitted as a portfolio for assessment (Darling-Hammond et al., 2013). Darling-Hammond et al. expand on how TE is assessed:

Candidate work is then rated by trained and calibrated raters (teacher educators and teachers in the same teaching field) on a set of subject-specific rubrics that evaluate: Planning, Instruction, Assessment, Reflection, and Academic Language. Within these areas, the analytic scoring scheme is further shaped by a set of guiding questions. (2013, p. 5)

According to Darling-Hammond, Jaquith and Hamilton, “scores of entering teachers on PACT have ... been found to predict their students gains in test scores” (2012, p. 10). In other words, the learners of teachers who utilise PACT during pre-service education, have been found to achieve higher test scores than others. This indicates that a standardised assessment tool which

facilitates summative and formative assessment of student performance during TP, can have a measurable impact on the beginner teachers' ability to promote learners' learning once they begin teaching.

Rusznyak suggests "the revised Summative Teaching Practice rubric" (2012, p. 109) included as Appendix C. This was developed at WITS University in South Africa as a result of dissatisfaction around tools previously used amongst staff in the faculty of education at the institution. There had traditionally been two methods used – the first in the form of an "open-ended report" by the lecturer on the lesson observed, including justification for a final mark allocation and the second, the assigning of marks against particular criteria which were added together to make up the final mark (Rusznyak, 2012). The criticism was, that these methods were too subjective as no clear guidance was provided for final mark allocation and that these methods did not provide an acceptable means for assessing the complexities involved in effective classroom teaching (Rusznyak, 2012). A research group undertook analysis of summative assessment records in order to identify "what university tutors recognise as distinctive student teaching" (Rusznyak, 2012, p. 97). The results of this research informed the Summative Teaching Practice rubric. This rubric requires the observing lecturer to assess pre-service teachers according to descriptive ratings on five levels for "understanding and thinking" and for "teacher action" as evidenced through direct observation. The level of competence in each of these areas is then cross-referenced and a combined mark suggested (Rusznyak, 2012, p. 97).

While these tools, such as PACT and the Summative Teaching Practice rubric offer useful potential, they do not directly address the social justice elements of teaching encompassed by the view of teaching practices that is aligned with the promotion of a social reconstructionist agenda.

2.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The research on quality education is extensive however, it focuses predominantly on issues outside the classroom such as infrastructure. While there are suggestions that the quality education discourse needs to shift attention to teachers' teaching practices, there is a paucity of research that focuses specifically on this issue. As Hoadley (2012) articulates, classrooms are complex spaces and identifying specific aspects of quality teaching practice is complicated. I suggest that teaching practices that are of quality are transformative and that this, coupled with the social reconstructionist agenda of education in South Africa, requires a perspective of

teaching and learning that places ethics at its centre. Such teaching practices support a social justice agenda. I further elaborate in Chapter Three my choice of social justice as the theoretical framework and demonstrate how such a framework is operationalised through the concepts of praxis and a capabilities approach.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter Two, I discussed three dominant perspectives on quality education, these being Human Capital, Human Rights and social justice perspectives. I concluded that, given the historical inequities in South African societies and the need for redress, the social justice perspective is particularly relevant for my research. Working from the premise that learning theory provides an understanding of how learners learn, I explored how learning theory impacts conceptions of teaching practices. Taking the context of this study into account, I concluded that situated learning theory and specifically the concept of praxis, are aligned with a social justice perspective, providing a useful and relevant framework as I attempted to develop an understanding of quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices. I then explored concepts of quality teacher education and specifically the assessment of pre-service teachers during the Teaching Practice (TP) component of initial teacher education. I drew attention to consensus in current literature around the challenges faced within initial teacher education in South Africa. I discussed the role of teacher education in the redress of historical inequities in and through education and finally the possibilities for promoting a social justice agenda through assessment and scaffolding of pre-service teachers' teaching practices.

In this chapter I develop the theoretical framework for this study which is underpinned by a social justice perspective on education. First, I explore praxis, understood to be the enactment of teaching practices underpinned by morality and ethics. I conclude that the socially reconstructionist agenda of praxis and thus alignment of the social justice perspective of this study, translate to this being a pertinent and useful way to conceptualise quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices as enacted during TP. There follows a discussion of the capability approach and I explore the ways in which social justice can be operationalised through capabilities theory. Finally, I bring the concept of praxis and the capability approach together to argue for a social justice frame that informs the theoretical framework of the study. Put differently, the theoretical framework of this study is thus underpinned by social justice and utilises the capability approach as a mechanism for identification and description of valued

functionings and capabilities which contribute to quality praxis and promote a socially reconstructionist agenda in and through education.

3.2 PRAXIS AND PRACTICE ARCHITECTURES

In this section I explore the concept of praxis in relation to Kemmis et al.'s (2014) conception of practice. I begin with a discussion on Kemmis et al.'s (2014) conception of practice before relating this to the notion of praxis. I then discuss the particular concepts of 'sayings', 'doings' and 'relatings' utilised by praxis theorists. The theory of practice architectures is then explored and the possible implications of practice architectures for initial teacher education and the development and scaffolding of pre-service teachers' teaching practices.

3.2.1 Practice

A technical view would understand practice simply as the actions or activities undertaken for a specific purpose. From an educational perspective, this view of practice sees the practitioner, in this case the teacher, as a technician who undertakes specific activities in order to 'produce' certain learning outcomes (Kemmis et al., 2014). Kemmis et al. argue that this technical viewpoint is limited in that it is "as if it were the teacher alone who produces the outcome ... and overlooks the agency of the learner" (2014, p. 25). As discussed in section 2.2.1 of this thesis, I take a social view of practice. This social view of practice is influenced by practice theory as developed by Schatzki². Schatzki (2010) defines practices as follows:

By a "social practice" I mean an open, organized array of doings and sayings. Examples include political practices, horse breeding practices, training practices, cooking practices, religious practices, trading practices and teaching practices. (p 51)

In other words, Schatzki views practice as an ordered collective of particular 'doings' and 'sayings'. Kemmis et al. (2014) makes the addition of '*relatings*' to this Schatzkian understanding of practice, reasoning that, "making '*relatings*' explicit brings the social-political dimension of practice into the light" (p. 30). Kemmis et al. (2014) provide the following definition of their view of practice:

² A new generation of practice theorists led by philosopher Theodore Schatzki has begun to influence the work of researchers (Grootenboer, 2013 & Kemmis et al., 2014) looking specifically at teachers' teaching practices (Schatzki, 2002).

A practice is a form of socially established cooperative human activity in which characteristic arrangements of actions and activities (doings) are comprehensible in terms of arrangements of relevant ideas in characteristic discourses (sayings), and when the people and objects involved are distributed in characteristic arrangements of relationships (relatings), and when this complex of sayings, doings and relatings ‘hangs together’ in a distinctive project. (p. 31)

Put differently, practice is understood as those human undertakings within which particular ‘doings’, “sayings” and ‘relatings’ hang together in the pursuit of a specific purpose. This is the understanding of practice taken in my research.

3.2.2 Praxis

Kemmis et al. (2014) assert that the ultimate purpose of education is to enable individuals to live well in a world that is worth living in. Kemmis (2008a) explains this socially transformative view of education as follows:

It might reasonably be expected that teachers should be educators, and that their practices as teachers might be not only ‘teaching practices’ but ‘educational practices’. That is, on the one side, it might reasonably be expected that when a teacher acts as an educator, it is in the interests of the particular learners present: in the interests of their self-development, their self-expression and their self-determination as persons. On the other side, the teacher acting as an educator acts in the interests of the good for humankind: in the interests of the ‘self’-development, ‘self’-expression and ‘self’-determination of the various social and political collectivities in which we live our lives. On this view, education has the moral, social, and political purpose that aims to develop not only good people but good societies. (p. 17)

Kemmis (2008a) outlines here the fundamental difference between a socially transformative approach to teaching (‘educational practices’) which has as its goal the promotion of learners’ learning for knowledge development, as well as for the good of society; and a craft-based approach (‘teaching practices’) which endeavours to promote learners’ learning simply for the knowledge development of the individual. For Kemmis ‘teaching practices’ promote a singular purpose of education which is to prepare learners to live well while ‘educational practices’ promote a double purpose, addressing the preparation of learners to live well in a world worth living in. This double purpose of education is described by Kemmis (2008a) as follows:

Education has a double purpose. On one hand, it aims to form and develop individuals with the knowledge, capabilities and character to live good lives, that is, lives committed to the good for humankind. On the other hand, education aims to form and develop good societies, in which the good for humankind is the principal value. (p. 17)

Kemmis et al. (2014) describe praxis as an enactment of teaching practices driven by this fundamental double purpose of education. This view is orientated toward the socially transformative social justice perspective on education.

Kemmis describes praxis as *the action* which “emerges in ‘sayings’, ‘doings’, and ‘relatings’ that are usually more or less coherently ‘bundled together’” (2008a, p. 19) and as a particular enactment of practice rooted in morality and ethics (Grootenboer, 2013; Kemmis et al., 2014). Kemmis expounds his definition of praxis as follows: “Educational praxis ... may be understood in two ways: first, as educational action that is morally-committed and oriented and informed by traditions in a field (action that has reason to be described as ‘right conduct’), and second, as history-making educational action” (2011, p. 10). In other words, teaching practices enacted as praxis are based on a robust foundation of values and ethics and promote a socially transformative agenda. Kemmis (2008a) highlights the role of morality and politics in education. As argued in Chapter One and Two of this thesis, it is my view that the vast inequalities in South African society necessitate a social reconstructionist agenda that prioritises the redress of historical inequalities in and through education.

3.2.3 The ‘sayings’, ‘doings’ and ‘relatings’ of practice and praxis

As discussed in 3.2.1, practices and praxis are understood to consist of ‘sayings’, ‘doings’ and ‘relatings’ (Kemmis et al., 2014). This is based on the notion that every practice has a particular language or content with which it is associated; its own particular ways of doing things and its own particular pattern of relationships (Kemmis, 2008a; Grootenboer, 2013). For example, the practice of teaching is based on specific curriculum content and associated language (‘sayings’), specific activities understood to promote learning (‘doings’) and requires a specific form of social interaction as well as interaction with particular physical resources (‘relatings’).

Kemmis holds that the ‘saying’, ‘doings’ and ‘relatings’ of practice are shaped by our own lived experience of the world, as well as the traditions or “familiar patterns and shapes” that characterise “established practice” (Kemmis, 2007, p. 4). Kemmis (2007) explains this concept as it relates to the teacher as follows:

What education means (thinking, saying) to a teacher is always already shaped by ideas that pre-exist in various discourses of education; how education is done (doing) is always already shaped by the material and economic resources made available for the task; and how people will relate to one another in educational settings and situations

(relating) is always already shaped by previously-established patterns of social relationships and power. (p. 4)

For example, a teacher influenced by Behaviourism might use lecture style methodologies to talk about the concept of photosynthesis ('sayings'), writing notes ('doing') on a chalkboard while encouraging minimal interaction from learners ('relatings'). Similarly, a teacher influenced by praxis might arrange a class in groups ('relatings') each provided with information on photosynthesis ('sayings'), encouraging interaction amongst learners and facilitating discussion ('doings' and 'relatings') about social responsibility with regards to oxygen production, the local ecology and the influence of pollutants.

Kemmis et al. (2014) hold that these familiar patterns of 'sayings', 'doings' and 'relatings' "constitute mediating preconditions of practice" which shape and form practice. These mediating preconditions of practice are referred to as practice architectures. Kemmis describes practice architectures as "the densely woven patterns of saying, doing and relating that enable and constrain each new interaction, giving familiar practices their characteristic shapes" (Kemmis, 2007, p. 4).

3.2.4 Practice architectures

Kemmis insists that "praxis constructs and is constructed in practice architectures" (2008a, p. 17). In other words, praxis takes place within particular systems and these systems in which we engage in practice are referred to as practice architectures. Practice architectures are the extra-individual conditions which pre-exist in order for teaching practice to take place. Grootenboer (2013) and Kemmis et al. (2014) describe practice architectures as the "mediating preconditions of practice" (Grootenboer, 2013, p. 324) and contend that these practice architectures necessarily either constrain and/or enable teachers' practices. Kemmis states that the theory of practice architectures, "aims to show how practices are shaped not solely by the intentional action and practice knowledge of participants but also by circumstances and conditions which are 'external to them'" (2011, p. 3). Put differently, the theory of practice architectures demonstrates that it is not only individual pre-existing conditions (such as subject matter knowledge or personal beliefs and values) that characterise practice, but also conditions external to the individual (such as curriculum or classroom resources). For example, a teacher who takes a social view of learning (*individual feature* i.e. personal belief) may wish to utilise group work extensively but he/she is constrained by availability of physical space in the classroom (*extra-individual feature*).

The practice architectures that shape practice include: cultural-discursive, material-economic and social-political arrangements (Kemmis, 2007; Kemmis, 2008a; Kemmis et al., 2014). These are graphically represented in Figure 3.1. According to Kemmis et al., “the practice architectures that enable and constrain practices exist in three dimensions, parallel to the activities of saying, doing and relating” (2014, p. 31). Practice architectures are described as follows:

- Cultural-discursive: Uses language in the semantic space. Refers to the resources and information about a practice which enable the practitioner to use the language and discourses particular to that practice. In this way, the cultural-discursive mediating conditions of practice enable and constrain the ‘*sayings*’ of the practice. In other words, “constraining what it is relevant to say, or – especially – what language or specialist discourse is appropriate for describing, interpreting and justifying the practice” (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 32). For example, a South African history curriculum may include information about, and language associated with, apartheid that is presented with a particular bias. This cultural-discursive arrangement may constrain the teacher to the particular information covered in the curriculum.
- Material-economic: ‘*Doings*’ take place within the material-economic system and involve activities and actions using objects in space and time. Material-economic arrangements can be understood to be “the resources that make possible the activities undertaken in the course of the practice” (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 32). This encompasses the actions and activities of learners and teachers during a lesson and the physical resources needed for those actions and activities to take place. Material-economic arrangements comprise resources on a macro level (such as provision in national budgets for enabling learner: teacher ratios) and a micro level (such as learners having access to the stationary required for them to write).
- Social-political: We relate to the world using power structures and connectedness in society (Kemmis, 2008b). Social-political arrangements “give form to power; in administrative and regulatory practices; and in the form of social and political relationships between people and groups” (Kemmis, 2008b, p. 20). The social-political either constrains or enables the ‘*relatings*’ of practice. For example, the hierarchical structures in schools can result in the beliefs and values of the Principal constraining the form and content of a teachers’ practice.

Figure 3.1 demonstrates the interconnected view of praxis and practice architectures held by Kemmis (Kemmis et al., 2014).

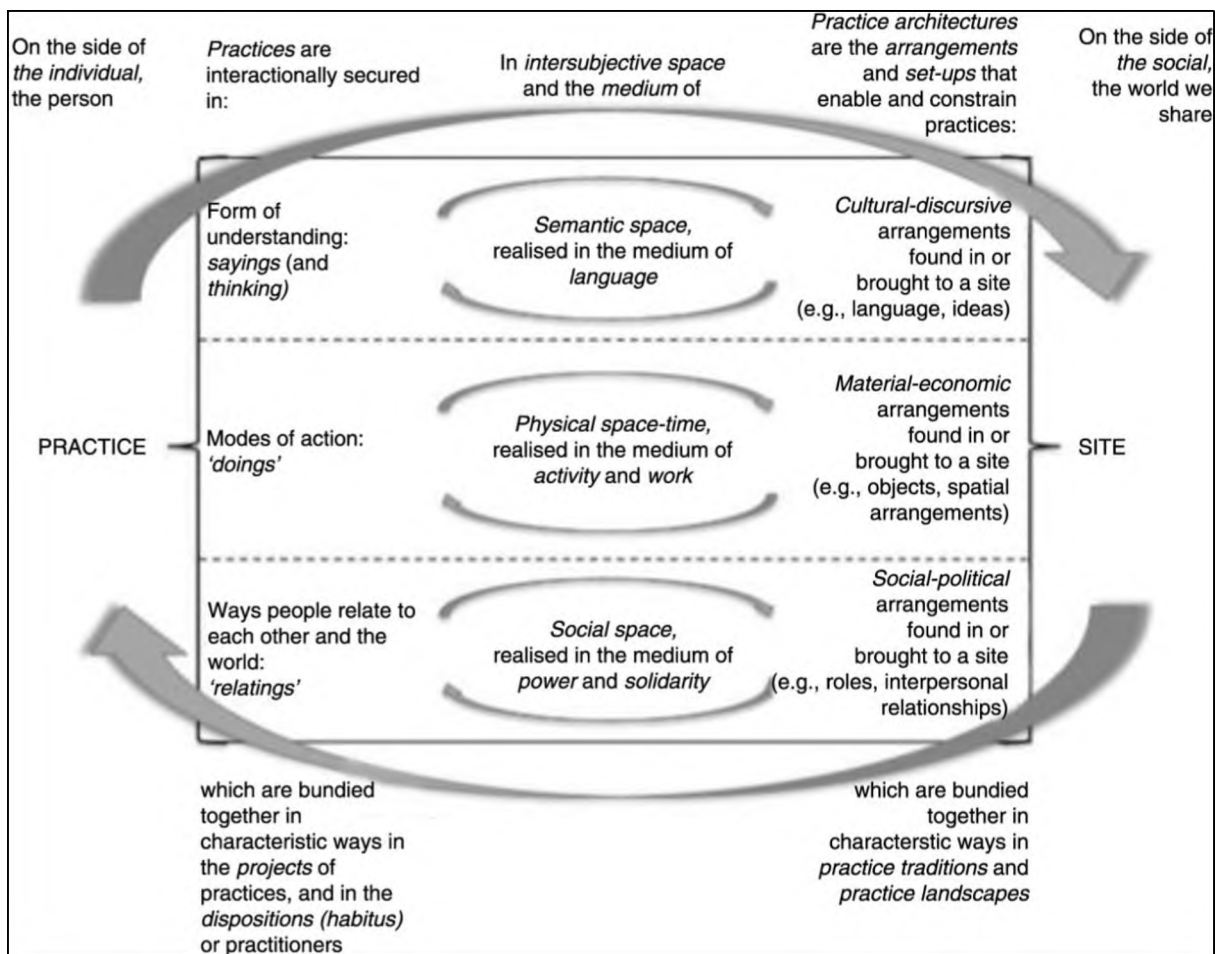


Figure 3.1: Praxis (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 27)

The understanding of praxis represented in Fig. 3.1, shows the double purpose of education discussed in 3.2.2 of this thesis. It shows the purpose concerned with the good of the person as the ‘side of the individual’ and the purpose concerned with the good of society as the ‘side of the social’ (Kemmis et al., 2014). The individual features of practice are represented as the ‘sayings’, ‘doing’ and ‘relatings’ on the side of the individual and extra-individual features represented as cultural-discursive, material-economic and social-political arrangements on the side of the social. Figure 3.1 clearly presents this as an interconnected, cohesive view of education. Kemmis et al. assert that, “on this view of education and its double purpose, the practice of education, properly speaking, must always be conducted as praxis” (2014, p. 27).

Kemmis et al. (2014) suggest that praxis requires one to examine these practice architectures specifically for ways in which they both enable and constrain practice; how one can be led by them and how one is able to shape and influence them. Kemmis et al. (2014) argue that by broadening our view from simple examination of practices to examination of practice architectures, we consider not only what and how we are doing, saying and relating, but also how we might change the world in which our ‘doings’, ‘sayings’ and ‘relatings’ are played out. Kemmis (2012) insists that if we want to change practices we need to change the practice architectures that hold them in place. It is here that the socially transformative agenda of this view of teaching practices becomes clear. For example, for teachers in the South African context to achieve praxis they might examine the cultural-discursive arrangements from the perspective of language use in the classroom and how use of language might enable or constrain learning for each learner. Similarly, an examination of material-economic arrangements may involve assessing the resources of the classroom, how they are arranged and distributed in ways which may empower or disempower the learners. These are examples of practice architectures which an individual teacher may have the power and influence to change however, it is important to note that not all practice architectures are within the teachers’ direct sphere of influence and may necessitate engagement on a policy or administrative level (Kemmis, 2012). For example, teachers in the South African education system are required to work with a national curriculum. Within the practice architecture of the social-political, the South African national curriculum could be argued to constrain the teachers’ capacity to choose curricula sensitive to the diverse learners in a given setting and thus to hinder praxis.

As outlined in the first two chapters of this thesis, there is broad consensus supporting the argument that the particular challenges faced in the South African education system are entrenched in the socio-political, socio-economic and cultural histories which combine to form the lived reality of the learners in the system (Branson & Zuze, 2012; Hoadley, 2013; Spaul, 2013; Graven, 2014). In this context, teacher education, which is directed by praxis and makes pre-service teachers aware of the existence and influence of practice architectures, will be well on its way to promoting the type of socially reconstructionist agenda necessary to address the inequities in South Africa, in and through education.

Having discussed practices and praxis and developing an understanding of practice architectures that influence the study, I now present the capability approach and its relevance to the study.

3.3 THE CAPABILITY APPROACH

As discussed in section 2.2 of this thesis, the theoretical framework of this study is underpinned by a social justice perspective on quality education. The purpose of this research is to explore ways in which equity might be advanced in and through primary education in South Africa by taking a particular approach to assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices during initial teacher education. This approach is based on capabilities and informed by principles of social justice (Tikly, 2013). Put differently, the social justice perspective is operationalised in this research through Capability Theory.

3.3.1 Application in education research

The capability approach has its origins in the writing and research of respected economists, as is the case for Human Capital and Human Rights discourses (Robeyns, 2003). The approach was first conceived by philosophical economist Amartya Sen in the early 1980s and then further refined by Martha Nussbaum and others in the 1990s. Sen (1993) asserts that the capability approach can be applied to a wide range of disciplines. The capability approach has been broadly applied to education research in recent years (Terzi, 2007; Walker & Unterhalter, 2007; Wilson-Strydom, 2011). The utility of this framework for my research is embedded in the fact that the capability approach is orientated toward the goal of education for social justice. Social justice addresses and describes the purposes of education in terms of capabilities. Tikly (2011) suggests that from a social justice perspective there are three main purposes of quality education, namely: to build capabilities and functionings; to ensure that this process results in capabilities which enable equity; and finally to develop well-being³. As stated by Robeyns, "it [the capability approach] serves as an important constituent for a theory of justice" (2003, p. 8). The social justice orientation of the capability approach is affirmed by Sen who states that "the freedom to lead different types of life is reflected in a persons' capability set" (2003, p. 33). It can be said then that the freedom and prospects available to individuals in an unequal society can be determined by evaluating the opportunities (capability) they are afforded.

3.3.2 A brief history of the capability approach

The capability approach provided an alternative to the dominant Welfare Economics theory of the time, which took a utilitarian approach to evaluation of wellbeing. This traditional utilitarian

³ I am in agreement with Robeyns (2012) who asserts that on a philosophical level this reference to individual 'well-being' is synonymous with quality of life.

view of Welfare Economics asserts that the happiness of an individual is a key measure of quality of life (Robeyns, 2008). From this utilitarian viewpoint, a sufficient measure of the success or failure of an education system would be whether or not individuals are content in life. If we apply this viewpoint to the classroom, one could then come to the conclusion that the ‘system’ of the classroom is one of quality if all of the learners are happy. This measure of quality does not take into account the actual learning taking place in the classroom. It is conceivable to imagine that a teacher might be able to ensure that all the learners in the classroom are happy and enjoying themselves, while at the same time not actually teaching anything which might open up opportunities to the learners that have the power to transform their lives for the better.

The capability approach provides a framework for evaluation of quality of life “and judgements about quality or justice, or the level of development of a community” (Robeyns, 2012). Thus, not based simply on the happiness of individuals or the economic well-being of individuals, but rather on the freedoms or “effective opportunities” (Robeyns, 2003, p. 6) individuals have to achieve a full and meaningful life. Sen (2009) describes the capability approach as:

an intellectual discipline that gives a central role to the evaluation of a person’s achievements and freedoms in terms of his/her actual ability to do the things a person has reason to value doing or being. (p. 16)

Sen suggests a focus on what people are able *to do* and *to be*. Examples are: quality teacher education that enables students to be capable teachers; or pre-service teachers who are able to meaningfully reflect on their practice in ways which promote their own professional growth as well as learners’ learning.

3.3.3 Concepts and terminology

Wilson-Strydom draws attention to the fact that the terminology of the capability approach is rooted in economics and philosophy and, as a result, “employs terms that are not always intuitively clear to a multidisciplinary audience” (2011, p. 409). For this reason, in this section I outline my understanding of the key concepts and terminology and utilise practical examples for the purpose of explanation. I try to use, as far as possible, examples directly related to Education in order to illustrate the utility of the approach in the context of this study.

The key terms and concepts contained in the capability approach are: functionings, capabilities, agency and conversion factors. *Functionings* can be defined as states of ‘being and doing’; “the

various things a person may value doing or being” (Sen, 1999, p. 75). Such as: being a teacher or being a teacher able to make meaningful, enabling connections with his/her learners. *Capabilities* are defined as those functionings a person has the freedoms or opportunities to effectively access. For example, a pre-service teacher who wants to learn how to enact the theories he/she has learnt while being supported during initial teacher education, being afforded the opportunity (capability) to do so during Teaching Practice. Sen makes a distinction between capabilities which refer to what is possible and achieved functionings. *Achieved functioning* refers to what has been effectively achieved or realised (Sen, 1993). For Sen, functionings have ultimate value; they are the ‘beings and ‘doings’ that we “have reason to value” (Sen, 2009, p. 16). *Agency* is related to a person’s freedom to “decide and the power to act” (Crocker & Robeyns, 2009, p. 75) on what they have reason to value. The capability approach suggests that equality (which is the ultimate goal of a social justice approach) should be measured by the extent to which individuals have *agency* to achieve those functionings they have reason to value. In addressing issues around the individual’s power to act (agency) on opportunities (capability), this concept of agency “recognises that individual functionings are influenced by one’s relative advantages or disadvantages in society” (Wilson-Strydom, 2011, p. 412).

The following examples may assist with understanding the complexities of the terminology and practical application of the capability approach. First, I use the simple example of a basic resource such as food. The functioning is to be nourished. If a person has access to food, the capability is that they are able to be nourished. If the person chooses (agency) to consume the food the achieved functioning is that they are nourished. Now, an example related to education. Judy wants to be a qualified teacher (functioning). She has an opportunity (capability) to enrol in a Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGCE) at a recognised Higher Education Institution. The capability is that Judy has the freedom to study toward her PGCE. Judy chooses to enrol (agency) and successfully achieves certification (achieved functioning). The achieved functioning is that Judy is a qualified teacher.

The final important term/concept contained in the capability approach addressed here is that of *conversion factors*. Conversion factors refer to the relationship between ‘beings’ and ‘doings’ and a person’s ability to transform these into achieved functionings or, the degree to which a person can convert a functioning to an achieved functioning. Conversion factors bring agency together with social contexts. Robeyns (2005) defines conversion factors in terms of three distinct groups namely, social, personal and environmental conversion factors. Personal

conversion factors are internal to a person, for example, intelligence or physical condition. Social conversion factors are factors from society, for example, public policy or power relations. Environmental conversion factors are factors from the physical environment, for example, geographical location or means of transportation (Crocker & Robeyns, 2009).

Let us consider the example of Judy from the perspective of conversion factors. Judy wants to be a teacher (*high personal conversion factor*). She is accepted into an appropriate post-graduate course at an institution which is close to her home and easy to get to (*high environmental conversion factor*). She has a strong undergraduate degree which guarantees her epistemological access to the PGCE curriculum (*high social conversion factor*) and successfully completes her degree. Judy had a high conversion factor for her desire to become a teacher (functioning) to result in her eventual qualification (achieved functioning). Now, let us consider John. John values becoming a teacher (*high personal conversion factor*). John is accepted into a PGCE course which is far from his home with limited public transport options and he does not own a vehicle (*low environment conversion factor*). John has the opportunity/freedom to study toward his PGCE (capability). John struggled through his undergraduate degree as a result of poor schooling and he is enrolled for his PGCE at an institution where the language of teaching and learning is his third language thus epistemological access to the curriculum is limited (*low social conversion factor*). John has limited agency (power to act) and a low conversion factor for becoming a teacher. In other words, it will be extremely difficult for him to convert the valued functioning (being a teacher) into an achieved functioning, despite having the opportunity (capability) to do so. Despite these challenges, John manages to successfully complete his PGCE though it takes him two years of study as opposed to the expected single year.

This example is employed to illustrate how conversion factors form a “mechanism for understanding what is needed” (Walker & Unterhalter, 2007, p. 4) to achieve those functionings a person has reason to value. An understanding and exploration of the difference in agency and conversion factors illustrated in the example of Judy and John, is particularly relevant to the social justice perspective of this study. If we consider simply the educational outcome, then Judy and John’s experiences were equitable and just. They were both afforded the opportunity (capability) to achieve the desired outcome and they both managed to achieve it (achieved functioning). However, when we consider agency and conversion factors it becomes clear that Judy had a significant advantage over John and that John’s disadvantages made it more challenging for him to achieve his goal. This example is utilised to illustrate the ways in which

“the capability approach, offers a method to evaluate real educational advantage, and equally to identify disadvantage” (Walker & Unterhalter, 2007, p. 5).

Having theorised the view of praxis and the capability approach taken in my research, I now address how I view these concepts in relation to the social justice perspective of the study in order to arrive at the emergent theoretical framework which guides it.

3.4 THE EMERGENT THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR MY RESEARCH

Darling-Hammond insists that “developing consistent standards for teaching that ... embody a shared vision of education goals and supportive instruction is the first step” (2012, p. 10) towards consistent delivery of quality education. The particular “vision of education goals and supportive instruction” (Darling-Hammond, 2012, p. 10) framing this research is one influenced on a social justice level by the work of Sen and Tikly and the view of enactment of practice for social good or praxis held by Kemmis and Grootenboer. The work of Kemmis et al. (2014) and Grootenboer (2013) on practice architectures provide the theoretical lens for the mapping of individual and extra-individual factors affecting conversion factors for the achievement of the anticipated valued functionings of pre-service teachers’ teaching practices emerging from this study.

Figure 3.2 attempts to illustrate the way in which I view the interconnection of these theories in order to develop the theoretical lens of this study.

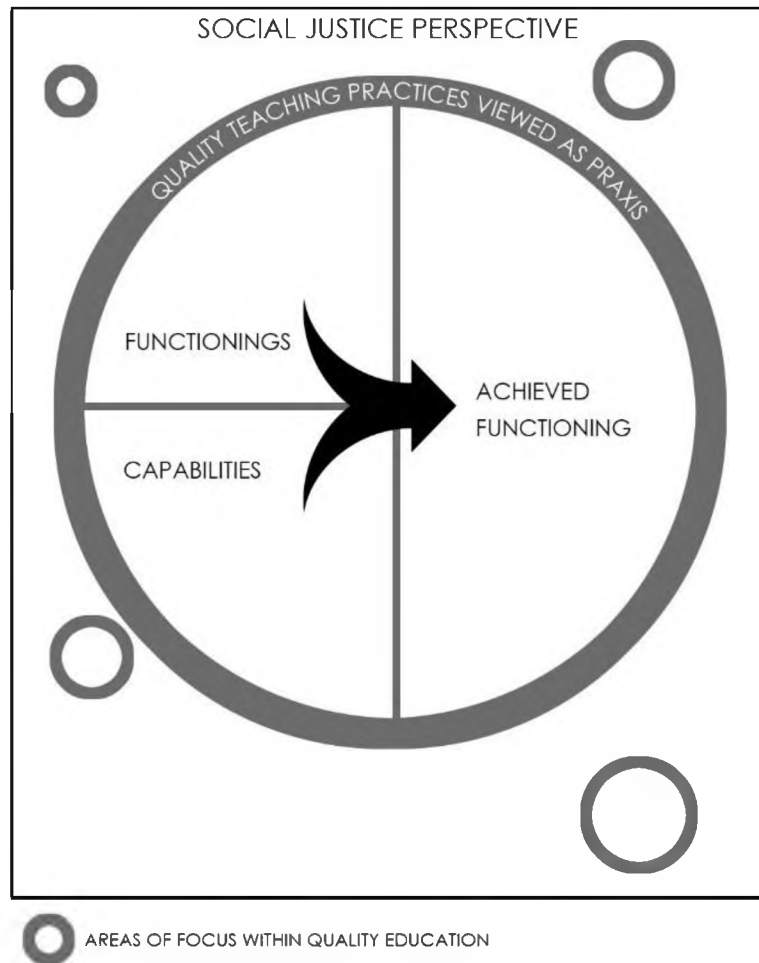


Figure 3.2: Theoretical framework

I take a social justice perspective on quality education in this study. I focus on a particular aspect of quality education which is the area of teaching practices, as enacted by pre-service teachers during TP. I view quality pre-service teachers’ teaching practices as praxis and describe praxis in terms of the capabilities approach.

I suggest that pre-service teachers who are made aware of functionings agreed through a normative process to be indicative of quality education delivery and who are enabled to realise their own capabilities at the level of achieved functionings, should have the knowledge and skills required to successfully deliver quality teaching practices in the classroom. This study is based on the assumption that pre-service teachers have reason to value becoming teachers and thus have reason to value that which is deemed necessary in this endeavour by those acknowledged, through their positions as teacher educators, to be experts in their field. The study first evaluates literature and theory in terms of those *functionings* which pre-service teachers have reason to

value, in their teaching practices. The study then moves on to the level of *capabilities*, exploring the freedoms or opportunities afforded to pre-service teachers to access those functionings.

Sen (2004) argues that achieved functionings are context-dependent. This context-dependence necessitates the use of a framework for examining the practice architectures enabling and/or constraining pre-service teachers' teaching practices. It is the context-dependence of capabilities that makes Sen critical of the development of generic lists of capabilities (Buckler, 2012). This study draws on the argument of Nussbaum (2001) who suggests that there must be some generic list of functionings which humankind has reason to value. Based on this I suggest that there should be a list of functionings (for example, beginner teacher competencies) that teacher educators have reason to value.

Pertinent to this study is Sen's distinction of value (Robeyns, 2003). Sen does not assert that evaluation should be based simply on valued functionings but rather on those functionings which a person *has reason* to value. The first phase of research for this study is based on the assumption that through analysis of Teaching Practice (TP) policies of Higher Education Institutions and an exploration of the viewpoints of experienced employees of Higher Education Institutions who are directly involved in the TP component of initial teacher education, I should be able to uncover those functionings which pre-service teachers have reason to value.

3.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

As referenced in Chapter One, this research is conducted on two levels. The first is at the higher education level and is interested in the type and quality of initial teacher education in relation to pre-service teachers' teaching practices as enacted during TP. The second is at the school level and is interested in the type and quality of teaching practices which best promote learners' learning and are aligned with a social reconstructionist agenda.

In the space of capabilities, evaluating quality teacher education in terms of the pre-service teachers' praxis (as enacted during TP) requires consideration of: those functionings pre-service teachers are *given reason* to value through their training; whether or not valued functionings are aligned with the principles of praxis; the effective opportunities their training affords them to achieve those functionings; their agency or power to act on the opportunities afforded to them

during TP; and practice architectures and conversion factors influencing likelihood of conversion from valued functioning to achieved functioning.

Evaluating the type and quality of teaching practices which best promote learners' learning and are aligned with a social reconstructionist agenda from the theoretical perspective of the study makes a significant difference to the aspects one might consider to be of ultimate value. If one took a utilitarian view of quality teaching practices, then the happiness of each learner would be of ultimate value. This viewpoint risks the marginalising of academic growth and achievement. If the pre-service teachers' approach to teaching practices results in happy learners, his/her teaching practices could be judged as being of high quality. The fact that the learners may not all be able to grasp the concepts they should or, that they are not progressing in their thinking and reasoning skills, would be of little significance. Assessment from the theoretical framework of this study necessarily requires a focus on entirely different aspects of teaching practices. While the well-being of each learner is of value, assessment from this theoretical perspective requires a more nuanced approach. It requires assessment of the extent to which, through teaching practices, each learner is afforded or denied access to those functionings valued by the curriculum and by society, their agency to achieve and the conversion factors which may affect achievement. Examples of the areas of focus could include the answers to these questions: Is the pre-service teacher enhancing or constraining learner agency? Do the teaching practices utilised take into account the individual needs of learners and accommodate for differing learning styles? Does the teacher ensure that content is relevant to the individual learners and the context of the classroom?

The ultimate goal of this study is to develop the key functionings and related capabilities of quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices that could be utilised to ensure high conversion factors for teaching practices aligned with the principles of praxis and thus social justice. This theoretical perspective influences my study in that particular emphasis is given to analysis of ways in which praxis might be endorsed, assessed and scaffolded during TP, in order to ensure high conversion factors for teaching practices which promote learners' learning, while simultaneously upholding a social reconstructionist agenda.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCESS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Ensuring the quality of this thesis is important and as such it was necessary for me to ensure that my contextual, conceptual, theoretical and methodological frameworks cohere. In other words, I have to ensure alignment throughout my thesis.

This study seeks to understand ways in which equity might be advanced (in and through primary education in South Africa) by taking a particular approach to the assessment of pre-service teacher' teaching practices during initial teacher education. The understanding gained in this study is reflected in a summary of teaching practices that emerged as valued and are argued to promote a social reconstructionist agenda.

As discussed in Chapter One, this study seeks to contribute to the development of a rich understanding of quality teaching practices and to contribute to a body of knowledge in teacher education specifically in relation to quality teaching practices and how quality teaching practices might be identified, assessed and scaffolded during the Teaching Practice (TP) component of initial teacher education courses.

Taking a social justice perspective on quality education, my research seeks to answer the question: *How can the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices be utilised to promote a social reconstructionist agenda during the Teaching Practice component of initial teacher education?* This question is explored through three sub-questions namely: *what functionings and capabilities are valued as indicative of quality teaching practice within Teacher Education programmes; how do the valued functionings and capabilities identified support a social reconstructionist agenda; and what valued functionings and capabilities are necessary to support a social reconstructionist agenda?*

In this chapter I discuss the research process and methodological approach taken during my study. Silverman states that the methodology section aims to “document the rationale behind research design and data analysis” (2006, p. 314). Informed by this, this chapter covers the orientation,

research process, methodology, data generation methods, data analysis, ethical considerations as well as the validity of the research.

4.2 RESEARCH ORIENTATION

This is a qualitative case study located in the interpretive paradigm. Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. Denzin and Lincoln state that “qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (2011, p. 3). In this study I consider the research questions and goals in terms of the real world application of TP and explore the perspective of lecturers currently involved in TP.

I make use of the theoretical framework of the study to guide my own interpretation and attempt to present rich descriptions of data in order to support my findings. This approach is in line with Creswell (2012) who states that:

Qualitative researchers use an emerging qualitative approach to inquiry ... that is both inductive and deductive and establishes patterns or themes. The final written report includes ... a complex description and interpretation of the problem and its contribution to the literature or a call for change. (p. 44)

The ontological and epistemological assumptions underpinning this study are located in the interpretive orientation. The interpretive orientation is based on the assumption there is no one true reality (Creswell, 2012). Our beliefs and knowledge of the world is based on multiple realities constructed through a person’s experience. In this way knowledge and reality are viewed as necessarily subjective. In an interpretive research project, there are no predefined variables, rather the focus is on making sense of complex human situations as they happen, in their natural setting (Willis & Jost, 2007; Bertram & Christensen, 2014). The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of how the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers’ teaching practices might be utilised to promote a social reconstructionist agenda during the Teaching Practice component of initial teacher education. As such, this study emphasises the voices, experiences and values presented in TP literature and engagement with research participants. Oliver insists that the interpretive paradigm provides “the respondent with opportunity to reflect their feelings and opinions” (2010, p. 73). In this way the interpretive paradigm offered possibilities for identifying and developing an understanding of what teacher

educators' value in pre-service teachers teaching practices, through deliberation and open discussions with the relevant lecturers involved in the TP programme.

As discussed in Chapter Two and Three, this study is guided by a social justice perspective. As such, one might expect the research to be positioned toward a critical research orientation. A critical research orientation is aligned with a transformation agenda and is considered appropriate for research which attempts to address inequalities and promote change (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). While this research is guided by a social reconstructionist agenda and it is possible that the findings of the study might result in changed practices (for example an HEI may consider restructuring their TP literature or assessment tools based on the findings of this study), the action of transformation is not a part of the study itself. In other words, it is not the goal of this study to change or add to what is valued, rather the goal of the study is to develop an understanding of what is valued through the interpretation of data and to explore how social justice principles might inform what is valued.

4.3 RESEARCH METHOD

A case study research strategy provides the methodology for this study. As summarised by Cohen, Manion and Morrison, a case study “provides a unique example of real people in real situations” (2000, p. 181). A case study offers an appropriate and effective tool for in-depth study of views, perspectives and thoughts and how these relate to broader theoretical frameworks (Somekh & Lewin, 2005; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). As such, a case study allows the researcher to uncover rich data that contributes to a detailed understanding of a particular phenomenon in the natural social setting in which that phenomenon occurs. I acknowledge that a case study can be utilised for quantitative studies, but this research method is also widely recognised as appropriate for qualitative interpretivist studies (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2012).

Yin defines the case study research method as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used” (Yin, 1984, p. 23). In other words, a case study is based on the study of real world occurrences, in complex contexts using multiple sources of evidence. A case study has been chosen because of the context-dependence of the case under study; the focus of the study on

‘how’ and ‘why’ questions; and because “the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context” (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 545). The case under study is quality teaching practices of pre-service teachers. This cannot be studied independently of the context (pre-service teacher education in South Africa) and setting (the pre-service teacher in the classroom). It is important to bind this case within clear boundaries so as to avoid the common pitfall of case study that “there is a tendency for researchers to attempt to answer a question that is too broad or a topic that has too many objectives for one study... Binding the case will ensure that [the] study remains reasonable in scope” (Baxter & Jack, 2008, pp. 546-547). Several authors suggest that a case may be bound by time and space, time and activity or definition and context (Yin, 2003; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Creswell, 2012). This case is bound in time, in that it is a yearlong Masters in Education process, ensuring literature and data generation is current. It is bound by the context of the research, specifically its focus on the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (Foundation and Intermediate Phase) initial teacher qualification offered at two Higher Education Institutions in South Africa. It is bound by activity in that it seeks to understand specifically how valued quality teaching practices are identified and promoted, as enacted during the Teaching Practice component of PGCE courses.

A case study is limited by the particular case which is the focus of the research and is, as such, not broadly generalisable. This limitation is offset by the ability of case study methodology to generate rich data within a complex social setting (Cohen et al., 2011; Denscombe, 2014).

4.4 RESEARCH PROCESS

A thorough and thoughtful research process is the cornerstone of a quality research project (Cohen et al., 2011). Research process considers what data is required, what tools are going to be used to generate data, and how this is going to answer the research question (Creswell, 2012). In order to develop an understanding of those teaching practices valued in initial teacher education programmes in South Africa, I required access to Higher Education Institutions offering initial teacher education programmes in primary education. I felt that the research questions would best be answered through analysis of how quality teaching practices are currently promoted and assessed in the TP component of these programmes, as this is when focus is directed toward the enactment of teaching practices. In light of this, data was generated through analysis of TP related documentation and focus group interviews with lecturers currently involved in the scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers’ teaching practices.

4.4.1 Site & sample

According to Mugo, “sampling is the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population” (2002, p. 1). It “involves decisions about which people, settings, events, behaviours, and social processes to observe” (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006, p. 49). There are two aspects relating to site and sample in this study. One in relation to document analysis and the second in relation to focus group interviews.

4.4.1.1 Document analysis

Document analysis for this study utilises purposive sampling. The sample was selected based on consideration of those participants likely to make the most useful contributions within the boundaries of the case under study. According to Patton “the logic and power of purposeful sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry, thus the term purposeful sampling” (Patton, 2005, p. 230).

The research was conducted at two recognised Higher Education Institutes (HEI) in South Africa offering various initial teacher education programmes for primary phase teaching. Both participating HEIs are historically advantaged, English medium, research-based universities. Funda University is situated in one of the poorest provinces in South Africa, while Hlohla University is situated in one of the wealthiest provinces of South Africa.

Document analysis required access to official TP related documentation from the two participating Higher Education Institutions offering initial teacher education programmes in Primary Education in South Africa. These documents included:

- TP guidelines for students and mentors;
- Evaluator guidelines;
- Assessment rubrics; and
- Any other related documentation provided to student and assessors.

A brief description of all documents analysed is provided in Table 4.1.

Source	Title	Description
FUNDA UNIVERSITY	<i>PGCE (FP/IP) Teaching Practice 2016 Student Handbook</i>	This is an informative document intended to give students an outline of all aspects of Teaching Practice (TP). This document covers all aspects of TP from number of TP sessions to expect through the year, to expectations of professionalism, requirements for TP, the role of the mentor teacher, visits from lecturers, the assessment process and assessment rubrics.
	<i>Teaching Practice Observation Check List</i>	This document provides a brief outline of areas of focus and expectations of TP assessors while on a TP crit. This document provides guidance for the assessor in the form of bulleted lists of expectations for: lesson observation areas of focus; sessions with the mentor teachers; feedback session with students and; review of student TP files.
HLOHLA UNIVERSITY	<i>Teaching Practice Handbook 2016 School Experience SP, FET, IP & FP</i>	This is an informative document intended to give students an outline of all aspects of TP. This document covers all aspects of TP from number of TP sessions to expect through the year to expectations of professionalism, requirements for TP, the role of the mentor teacher, visits from lecturers, the assessment process and assessment rubrics.
	<i>Pre-Lecture Classroom Observations PGCEs</i>	These lecture notes include rationale and outlines the expectations for the first TP experience. Guidelines for areas of focus during observation are also included.
	<i>School Experience Portfolio Rubric</i>	This document provides guidelines for what students are expected to include in their portfolios as well as the full rubric on which students' marks will be based.
	<i>Lecture Notes: Teaching Practice 1 2016</i>	This document covers issues of professionalism, ethics, expectations related to time spent teaching, setting of personal goals during TP 1 and basic guidelines for conduct in the classroom.
	<i>Lecture Notes: Teaching Practice 2 2016</i>	The lecture content from Lecture Notes: Teaching Practice 1 2016 is reinforced. Due dates for portfolios and detailed descriptions of what is to be included in portfolios as well as supervisor expectations and assessment guidelines are covered.

Table 4.1: Description of documents analysed

4.4.1.2 Focus group interviews

Sampling for the focus group interviews was both purposive and convenient. Purposive sampling was applied in that the intention of the focus group interviews was to elicit responses from a particular group of people with a particular skill set and experience. Focus group participants were selected based on the following criteria: currently employed as a teacher educator

specialising in primary education; and currently involved in TP assessment and supervision. Convenient sampling is a sampling technique where subjects are selected on the basis of their convenient accessibility to the researcher (Cohen et al., 2011). Convenient sampling was applied to focus group participants in this study in that I am based in the same geographical region as Funda University and thus, for practical reasons all study participants were based at Funda University.

Table 4.2 provides an overview of the focus group participants including: positions in the university; highest qualification; years of experience (which includes years of TP assessment experience); and subject or phase specialisation. All focus group participants were white females. This is a result of the fact that the majority of lecturers specialising in Primary Education at Funda University are white and female. The implications of this limitation of the study are discussed in Chapter Seven of this thesis. As noted in Table 4.2, Penny has a PhD, Bonny and Sarah both have MEd degrees and Mary and Kate both have an Honours degree. All study participants have between four and six years of experience assessing Foundation and Intermediate Phase pre-service teachers during Teaching Practice. Notable is the number of part-time lecturers interviewed. The education faculty at Funda University relies heavily on part-time staff to support their initial and in-service teacher education programmes. These staff are often requested to assist in supporting students learning during TP. Sarah is the TP coordinator and as such she has a year-long contract post at the university which is renewable every year. Bonny is the only full-time staff member (that is, with tenure) and is the coordinator of the PGCE (FP & IP) programmes. The phase and subject specialisation varies across the five participants.

	Bonny	Mary	Penny	Sarah	Kate
Qualification	MEd	BEd Hons	PHD	Med	BA Hons
Years of experience evaluating TP	6 years	6 years	4 years	5 years	6 years
Part-time/Full time lecturer	Full Time	Part-time	Part-time	Contract post	Part-time

Table 4.2: Focus group participants

4.4.2 Research phases

This study was conducted in three phases. Each phase of the research attempts to address one of the three research questions. Phase 3 of the research answers the main research question based on the findings from Phase 1 and 2. A graphic representation of the research phases and research questions is provided in Figure 4.1.

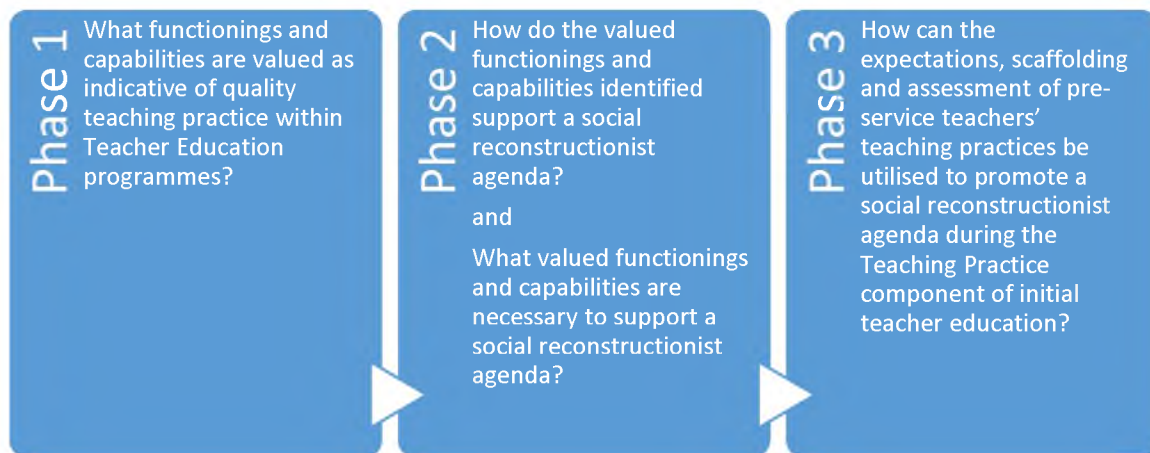


Figure 4.1: Research phases and questions

Phase 1 addresses the research question: *What functionings and capabilities are valued as indicative of quality teaching practice within Teacher Education programmes?* In Phase 1 functionings and capabilities valued by teacher education institutions are identified through document analysis and focus group interviews. These valued functionings are identified in relation to those teaching practices promoted in the documentation (thus considered valued) as well as interpretation of those functionings emerging as valued through focus group interviews.

In Phase 2 of the research I attempt to identify the valued functionings emerging from the data that are aligned with a social reconstructionist agenda and those aligned with a social justice perspective, that are absent in the data. This phase of the research answers two questions. The first question is: *How do the valued functionings and capabilities identified support a social reconstructionist agenda?* The second question is: *What valued functionings and capabilities are necessary to support a social reconstructionist agenda?*

Finally, Phase 3 addresses the main question of the research: *How can the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices be utilised to promote a*

social reconstructionist agenda during the Teaching Practice component of initial teacher education? In this phase findings were analysed in order to identify guidelines for quality teaching practices, and ways in which these might be integrated into teacher education programmes so as to promote and scaffold teaching practices underpinned by a social reconstructionist agenda are suggested.

Two data generation techniques aligned with interpretive case study design were applied in this study. In the next section I provide an overview of the data generation techniques and process applied in this study.

4.4.3 Data generation

According to Baxter and Jack, “a hallmark of case study research is the use of multiple data sources, a strategy which also enhances data credibility” (2008, p. 554). Two of the three dominant methods of data generation in qualitative research namely document analysis and interviews (in the form of a focus group interview) were utilised in this study. Document analysis was employed to identify those functionings and capabilities valued in documents as indicative of quality teaching practices. Focus group interviews were utilised as a normative process through which a cohesive understanding of quality teaching practices and emergent valued functionings and capabilities could emerge.

4.4.3.1 Document analysis

Bowen asserts that “as a research method, document analysis is particularly applicable to qualitative case studies” (2009, p. 29). They define document analysis as “a systemic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents” (Bowen, 2009, p. 27). Merriam points out that “documents of all types can help the researcher uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem” (1998, p. 118). I utilised document analysis in the first phase of this study to develop an understanding of those teaching practices valued by two institutions that offer initial teacher education in South Africa. While the documents reviewed are extensive and detailed, it could not be assumed that they necessarily contain an exhaustive list of all relevant valued functionings. A second method of data generation was necessary in order to mitigate this limitation. As stated by Bowen, “the qualitative researcher is expected to draw upon multiple (at least two) sources of evidence to seek convergence and corroboration” (2009, p. 28).

4.4.3.2 Focus group interviews

The relevance of the focus group technique of data generation to this study is summarised by Cohen et al. who state that, “such interviews are useful where people have been working together for some ... common purpose” (2011, p. 432). Focus group methodology allows “discussion to develop, thus yielding a wide range of responses” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 432). In this study, both focus group sessions yielded a wide range of responses, as evidenced in Chapter Five. For the first focus group interview, I took on the role of facilitator and observer. It was my intention to create an environment for interactive data generation. Following the introduction of the research topic and questions, one central question was posed to the group. This question was asked as follows: “*What do you value as the key indicators of quality teaching practices when you are on a TP crit⁴? So, what are the things that stand out for you as wow this student actually knows what they are doing, specifically with the how?*” (as taken from the verbatim transcription of the session). I asked this open question as a means to prompt discussion amongst group members relating to what functionings they value as indicative of quality teaching practices. By posing a single open-ended questions, I relied “on interaction within the group ... yielding a collective rather than individual view” (Cohen et al., 2010, p. 436). Participants were given 10 minutes to write down functionings and capabilities they value as indicative of quality teaching practices. This was followed by a presentation of indicators by individual participants during which views from all participants were shared and commonalities between functionings and capabilities identified. In this way, data was collectively generated in an interactive manner by the focus group participants. Figure 4.2 provides an example of valued functionings identified after they were presented and arranged by participants into time related ‘categories’. While there was general consensus regarding all valued functionings, very few of the participants wrote down exactly the same functionings. While some were related in a thematic sense, very few were exactly the same.

⁴ TP crit refers to a lesson given by a student teacher that is observed by one of their lecturers.

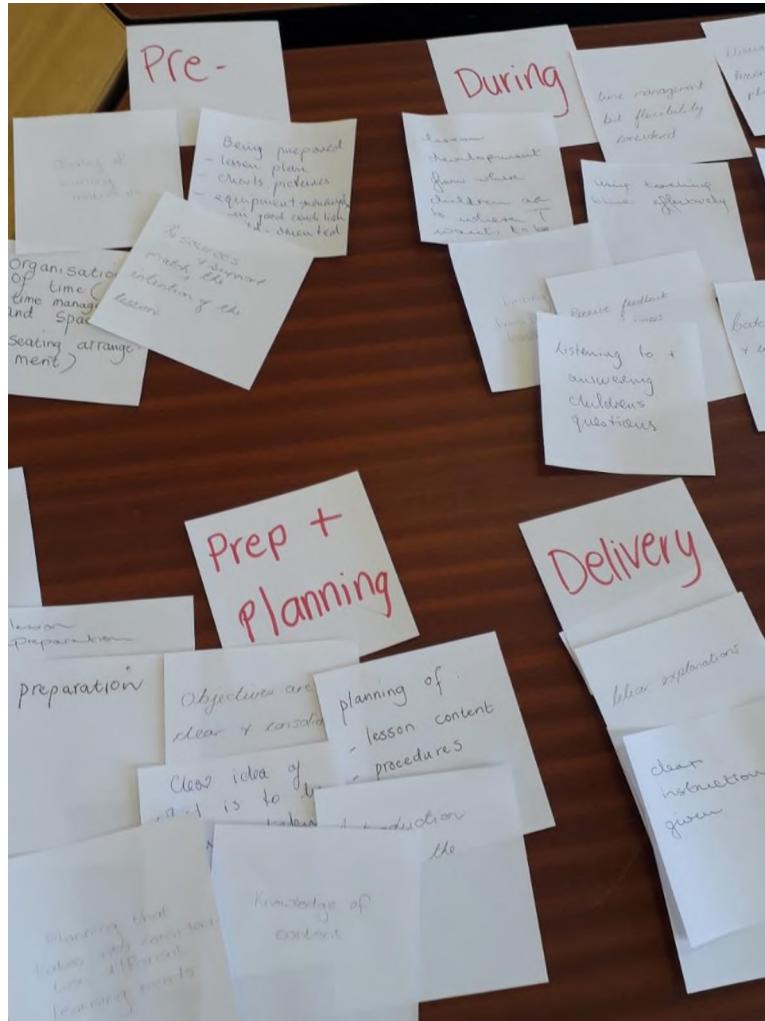


Figure 4.2: Sample data from first focus group interview

For the second focus group session I initially took on the role of presenter. I presented the theoretical framework and how this framework informed data analysis. Following this, I provided each participant with a copy of the summary of findings from document analysis and the first focus group interview as presented in Table 5.2 in Chapter Five. Sarah requested that I “take [participants] through the table”. I then presented each of the functionings and related capabilities. Throughout the presentation I encouraged and allowed for discussion amongst participants, in this way approaching the presentation of findings as a means to generate data through participant discussion.

Data does not speak for itself but requires interpretation by the researcher (Bertram & Christensen, 2014). Data analysis was approached as a process of interpretation through the theoretical lens of the study.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Broadly speaking, data analysis can be described as the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to data (Cohen et al., 2011; Bertram & Christensen, 2014). Put differently, it is the activity of interpreting and making sense of data. The process of data analysis involves searching for ‘themes’ or ‘categories’ within the data (Bowen, 2009; Bertram & Christensen, 2014). The theoretical lens of the study provided the position from which data was interpreted. As discussed in Chapter Three, this study is positioned within a social justice perspective on quality teaching practices. I view quality teaching practices in terms of praxis and utilise the capabilities approach as a mechanism to identify and describe those teaching practices which constitute praxis (Refer to Figure 3.2 in section 3.4 for an explanatory diagram). This theoretical framework influenced data analysis in this study.

In the first phase of this study I analysed data generated through document analysis and focus group discussions, checking for consistency in documentation and what was valued by lecturers to establish teaching practices valued by both HEIs. This first phase of the study was based on the assumption that pre-service teachers have reason to value becoming teachers and thus they have reason to value beginner teacher capabilities shown to be valued within initial teacher education programmes. The documents and interviews were analysed in terms of those teaching practices pre-service teachers have reason to value. In the second phase I utilised the theoretical framework of the study to identify to what extent valued teaching practices were aligned with social justice principles and to augment findings from Phase 1 to highlight teaching practices pre-service teachers ought to value. In the third and final phase of the study I applied the findings of Phase 1 and 2, to develop an understanding of how teaching practices that promote social justice goals might be promoted, scaffolded and assessed in initial teacher education programmes.

In the next section the process of interpretation and interaction with the data is described. This was approached as an iterative cycle of data generation and analysis represented in Figure 4.3.

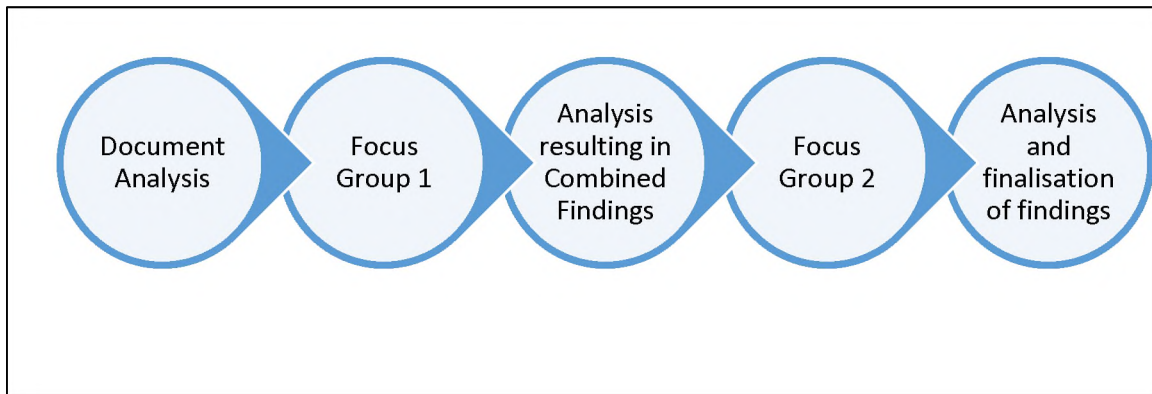


Figure 4.3: Iterative cycle of data generation and analysis

4.5.1 Document analysis

Document analysis was used for generating data specifically related to developing an understanding of tools currently in use by two initial teacher education HEIs in South Africa and facilitating the emergence of functionings and capabilities which are valued. Bowen points out that, “like other analytical methods in qualitative research, document analysis requires that data be examined and interpreted in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding ... the analytic procedure entails finding, selecting, appraising (making sense of), and synthesising data contained in documents” (2009, p. 27). Documents were analysed deliberately and systematically by close reading and re-reading. Figure 4.4 is a sample section of initial coding of documentation from one of the participating HEIs.

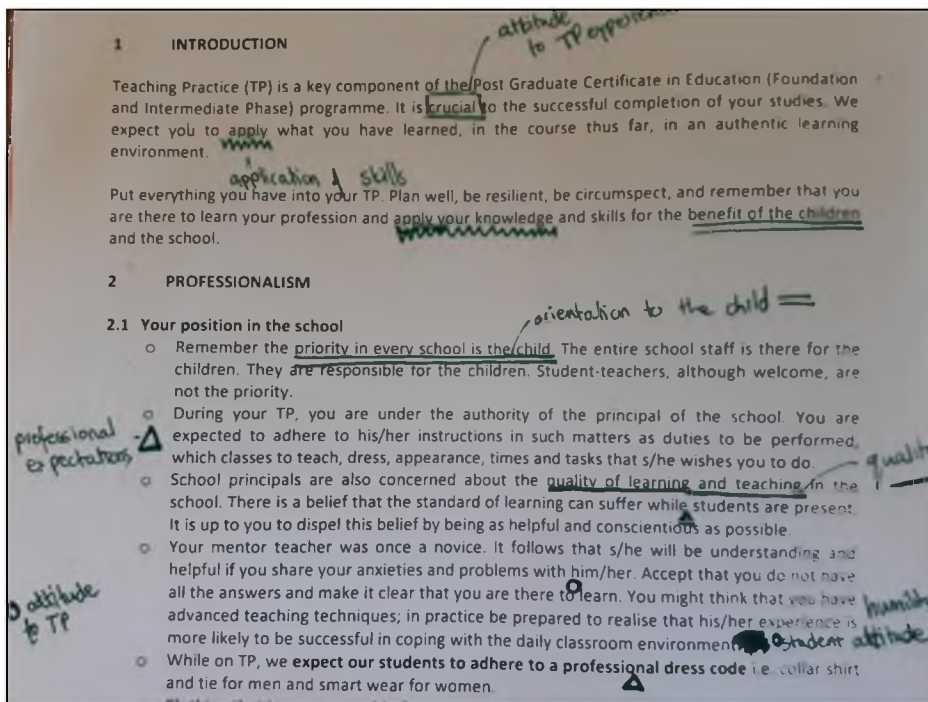


Figure 4.4: Document analysis initial coding sample

In-depth understanding was gained through coding, which was utilised for analytic purposes. Coding was applied in systematic, iterative cycles to all literature (summarised in Table 4.1). Specifically, each document was analysed and coded in its entirety. One cycle of initial coding was applied to all documents and then each document was again re-read and codes checked for synergies and contradictions across all of the documents and recoding of sections which may have been overlooked in the first cycle. Data was first analysed for emergent functionings and capabilities which reflected anticipated pre-service teacher competencies evidenced as valued. Secondly, the data was analysed for emergent themes, referred to by Berg as “category development” (1998, p. 229). This made it possible to understand the complex context of the study; identify synergies and contradictions; and recognise the relationships between the ideas emerging and the particular theoretical perspective which frames the study (Willis & Jost, 2007; Merriam, 2009). Deliberate analysis was applied in order to ensure that the findings of the study reflected the philosophical and ontological assumptions underpinning the social justice framework of this study.

4.5.2 Focus group interviews

The first interview was videotaped while the second interview was voice recorded. For the first interview I had thought that it would be necessary to capture movement, as participants ‘arranged’ functionings into ‘categories’, and was concerned that I may need video in order to

correctly identify speakers for transcription. In hindsight, video was not necessary to address either concern. Video transcription is more challenging to transcribe than voice recordings as it requires a second device on which to play the video and it is more difficult to pause or rewind video during transcription. For these reasons, voice recording was used for the second interview. Both were transcribed verbatim by the researcher. Transcription was completed within 48 hours of the conclusion of each session to ensure reliability of interpretation while transcribing.

The process of analysis applied to focus group transcripts followed the same systematic, iterative coding applied to document analysis. Valued functionings, categories of functionings and contextual descriptions of capabilities emerging from coding, were identified. A process of interrater reliability was applied to the transcript of the first interview, in order to ensure maximum reliability of the coding process. Interrater reliability is described as “a measure of the extent to which independent judges make the same coding decisions in evaluating the characteristics of messages” (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2002, p. 587). The full transcript was provided to my supervisor who applied a process of coding. Emergent codes were then analysed for contradictions and consensus. The process demonstrated agreement between analysts’ in the clear majority of codes. My own coding of the transcript resulted in 13 codes. My supervisor’s coding also resulted in 13 codes. Of these codes, all overlapped, although in some cases different terminology was used to define the same code and in some cases codes were associated with different categories. This was the result of individual interpretation and after discussion, an agreement was reached regarding terminology and categories.

4.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics provide a critical guide to any research project. Aguinis and Henle comment that “in the context of research, ethics focuses on providing guidelines for researchers ... establishing enforcement mechanisms to ensure ethical research” (2002, p. 35). In the case of qualitative studies, the researcher is working with people in social settings and as such there are many nuanced social dynamics which must be carefully considered and addressed (Aguinis & Henle, 2002; Merriam, 2009).

I have made every effort throughout the research process to be guided by the ethical requirements of a qualitative case study. The first step of the study was to ensure that the approved research proposal received the required official ethical clearance certificate, prior to approaching possible

participants (Appendix B). Four HEIs were approached. My supervisor made the first contact with each and provided me with contact details for the appropriate contact person at each institution. I emailed the request for participation (Appendix D) which included a copy of the approved research proposal and ethical clearance certificate. I received required formal consent from three institutions, but was only provided with the required documentation from two of the institutions. Both institutions will be provided with a copy of the final thesis.

The second step involved a focus group interview. The focus group participants were first contacted personally to gauge their interest and availability, I then e-mailed possible participants with details regarding the interview (Figure 4.5). All five participants approached consented to their involvement. I proposed a time, date and venue which was agreeable to all participants. Prior to beginning the focus group interview, I provided each participant with an official consent form (Appendix E). Each participant was given two copies, one for their own record and one for my record. I requested permission to video record the session and assured all participants that the video would only be viewed by myself and my supervisor. All participants verbally consented to the session being video recorded, prior to commencement of filming. All participants will be provided with a copy of the final thesis.

Throughout the study I have attempted to ensure that all participants were treated with respect and dignity and have taken a transparent approach throughout the research process. Anonymity has been respected throughout and it was made explicitly clear to all study participants that this would be respected and maintained. Pseudonyms are used throughout the thesis to refer to the HEIs and the study participants. Study participants and HEIs have been assured of confidentiality and anonymity. All correspondence and interaction with participants has been conducted in a respectful and professional manner (Basse, 1999; Merriam, 2009; Cohen et al., 2010). Figure 4.5 is a sample of an email received from one of the focus group participants following the first focus group session provided, as an example of correspondence and interaction with study participants.

From: [REDACTED]

Sent: Friday, 21 April 2017 8:49 AM

To: 'Kelly Long' <kelly@gadraed.co.za>

Subject: RE: Focus Group - Med

Hi Kelly

Thank you for including me in your focus group interview. I learnt a great deal from you and have used your approach to gather data in the form of an undirected interview with my PGCE students regarding their prior knowledge – totally fascinating. Thanks to you I have gained renewed energy for my own studies.

[REDACTED]
All the best

[REDACTED]
From: Kelly Long [REDACTED]

Sent: [REDACTED] 12:24

To: [REDACTED]

Cc: [REDACTED]

Subject: MEd Request

Good Morning,

As you may be aware, I am studying toward my MEd under the supervision of Lise Westaway. My research is centred on developing and understanding of primary education student-teachers' teaching practices and scaffolding of their classroom based learning during teaching practice.

I am writing to request your consent to participate in the study as part of a focus group. I would like to hold the first focus group session on [REDACTED]. The session will take no longer than 1 hour. Please be assured that all expected ethical guidelines will be followed and consent forms will be provided at the session. All information will be kept anonymous and all documents will be kept confidential. Should you consent to participation in the study I will ensure that you are provided with a copy of the final thesis.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Kind Regards,

Kelly

Figure 4.5: Sample correspondence

4.7 VALIDITY

Validity refers to the credibility of research. Validity is the consideration of whether data is accurately generated, captured and analysed (Cohen et al., 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Cohen et al. state that there are a number of strategies that can be utilised to enhance validity in qualitative research, suggesting that “in qualitative research validity might be addressed through

the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data” (2011, p. 179). I have been conscious of adhering to the key principles of validity in qualitative research as described by Cohen et al. (2011, p. 181) in the following ways:

- *The natural setting is the principle source of data* (I have relied on literature currently in use in initial teacher education programmes and consulted experts currently involved in the TP component of initial teacher education);
- *Context boundedness and ‘thick description’* (the case is bound within its context and rich descriptions are provided);
- *The researcher is part of the research world* (I lecture part-time in initial teacher education programmes);
- *The data are descriptive* (I have attempted to ensure data is presented using rich description);
- *Data are analysed inductively rather than using a priori categories* (data analysis was conducted inductively allowing findings to emerge); and
- *Respondent validation* (data presentation from the first focus group session was circulated to all participants to check for accuracy and combined findings from Phase 1 were presented to study participants at the second focus group session, where these were reviewed for accuracy. All participants confirmed accuracy in both cases).

Triangulation is suggested as a further “powerful way of demonstrating validity, particularly in qualitative research” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 195). Triangulation is defined by Creswell as “a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study” (2000, p. 126). The use of multiple methods of data generation strengthens reliability, rigour and validity of this study through triangulation. Patton states that “triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data” (2002, p. 247). I utilised document analysis, focus group interviews and relevant current literature as the varied sources of data in this study.

Clear boundaries for study participants were provided by the basic criteria as set and described above. A background for each participant has been provided under the ‘Research Participants’ section above with the intention of providing evidence of similarities between study participants thus contributing to the reliability of conclusions drawn across the data (Cohen et al., 2000; Denscombe, 2014).

Case study research is limited by particular participants and research setting. While it has rich local relevance, it is arguably not broadly generalisable. To assess the degree to which the findings can be transferred to alternative settings, a rich description of procedure and process is provided. The intention of providing rich supporting documentation is so that other researchers are able to replicate the process of the research and therefore the utility of the final guidelines for quality praxis should be transferable to a degree, within the particular boundary of primary school teacher education in South Africa. This limitation is further offset by the inclusion of multiple data sources, study participants and phases of research, which contribute to the rigour of the research (Cohen et al., 2000; Denscombe, 2014).

4.8 REFERENCING FORMAT IN THE THESIS

References in Chapter Five and Six which refer to quotes from the various TP documents are done as follows: name of the document; page number. Quotes from the focus group interviews are attributed to the individual participants. Documents and transcripts utilised for data generation have not been included as appendices, to avoid identification of HEIs and focus group participants. My supervisor and I have copies of these documents and these can be made available on request.

4.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

I have provided an account of the methodology, data generation and data analysis processes drawn on in my research. The data generated from the document analysis and focus group interviews, supported the analysis of the functionings that are valued by Hlohla and Funda Universities. In the following chapters I use the capabilities approach to analyse the empirical data. In Chapter Five I address the research question and present and analyse data to develop an understanding of the functionings and capabilities valued by the two HEIs. In Chapter Six I analyse the extent to which these reflect a social reconstructionist agenda and utilise the theoretical framework to identify functionings and capabilities that are necessary to support such an agenda, through the scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices. I conclude Chapter Six by presenting key functionings and related capabilities of quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices which are aligned with a social justice perspective on education.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION AND FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Document analysis and focus group interviews were utilised for Phase 1 of the research, which addressed the research question: *What functionings and capabilities are valued as indicative of quality pre-service teachers' teaching practice by Higher Education Institutions?* In keeping with the theoretical framework of this study, emphasis was given to evaluation of what is valued, in terms of the capabilities approach. This first phase of the research was based on the assumptions that analysis of Teaching Practice (TP) related documents of Higher Education Institutions, and consultation with teacher educators experienced in and involved with assessment of TP, should uncover functionings valued by HEIs, as indicative of quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices.

It is important to note my agreement with Tikly (2011) and Sen (1993) that quality, evaluated within the space of capabilities, be assessed according to those functionings and capabilities a person *has reason* to value. In this way the capabilities approach provided the analytic and explanatory tools for this chapter. I identified emergent categories of functionings (that which is valued) and capabilities (the extent to which pre-service teachers are able to achieve the valued functioning) through the data analysis process. I start this chapter with a presentation of data and findings generated through document analysis. I follow this with a presentation of data and findings generated from focus group interviews. Next I compare and contrast these findings in order to develop an understanding of what ultimately emerged as valued by the two participating HEIs. Finally, in Chapter Six, I explore the findings in terms of those valued functionings and capabilities emerging from the data, that can be understood to promote a social justice agenda. I also consider the data in terms of what is absent, but deemed necessary, to a view of quality teaching practices aligned with the social reconstructionist agenda of the study.

Before analysing the data from the TP documentation from the two HEIs, I present a summary of the types of TP experiences and the expectations of the pre-service teachers during these experiences.

5.2 TEACHING PRACTICE EXPECTATIONS AT TWO HEIs

Documents relating to TP from two Higher Education Institutions offering a Post Graduate Certificate in Education Courses in Primary Education (i.e. both Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase) in South Africa, were analysed (detailed in Chapter Four). These included:

- TP guidelines for students and mentors;
- Evaluator guidelines;
- Assessment rubrics; and
- Any other related documentation provided to students and assessors.

I based my analysis on the documents made available to me by each of the participating institutions. I am aware that documents made available to me may not represent all relevant documentation utilised by the institution.

5.2.1 TP requirements

As noted in Table 5.1 below, both Funda and Hlohla Universities' students studying towards the Post Graduate Certificate in Education Foundation and Intermediate Phase courses, are normally expected to complete a total of three separate TP experiences, in three different schools, during the course of their studies. The duration of each experience varies, but students are required to complete 10 weeks of TP at Funda University and 12 weeks at Hlohla University, in total.

	FUNDA UNIVERSITY			HLOHLA UNIVERSITY		
Sessions	TP1	TP2	TP3	TP1	TP2	TP3
Duration	1 week	5 weeks	4 weeks	2 weeks	4/5 weeks	6 weeks
Expectations	Observation + 1 lesson	Week 1: observation (days 1&2) + 1 lesson (days 3-5); Week 2: 1 lesson per day. Weeks 3-5 2 lessons per day.	Week 1: 1 hour per day; Weeks 2&3: 3 hours per day; Week 4: sole responsibility for teaching.	Observation only.	Week 1: observation; Week 2 -4/5: 2 hours per day	2 hours teaching per day; 1 full week with sole responsibility for teaching.
Assessment and Evaluation	Supervisors report; TP file; TP portfolio; Self-reflection assignment; Mentor teacher report.			Supervisors report (including student journal assessment); External examiners report; TP portfolio; Self-reflection assignment; School report.		

Table 5.1: Structure of TP experiences for each HEI

I elaborate on the requirements for each of these TP experiences below.

5.2.1.1 TPI

At Funda University this experience is one week in duration, occurs in the first quarter of the year and has an observation focus. Students are placed in schools in teams with their peers. They must work together with peers to complete a situational analysis which is presented to lecturers and peers on completion of the week. They are expected to focus on specific aspects of school life. “The research requires you to focus your attention on; (1) the school environment; (2) the management and organisation of the school and schooling; and (3) teaching” (Student Handbook, p. 5). Students are also expected to teach one lesson during this first observation focused TP experience. The lesson plan for this lesson is prepared in teams with the assistance of lecturers prior to TP1. During TP, student teams teach this pre-prepared lesson, first for peer review (other teams of students placed at the school observe and comment) and secondly for observation and review by a lecturer. Feedback from both the peers and lecturer is formative.

At Hlohla University the first TP experience is two weeks in duration and occurs directly following registration and prior to the commencement of the lecture programme. This two week TP experience has a purely observational focus and is unsupervised. Students are encouraged to observe a range of grades within their particular phase of specialty. Detailed in the pre-lecture notes for classroom observation (Pre-lecture Classroom Observation), students are required to

keep “brief descriptive notes” (slide 3) throughout and focus on: the ways in which spaces are organised; resources for teaching and learning; playground and break-time interaction; transitions and routines in the classroom; discipline; the design of the learning experience; and the “rhythm” (slide 9) or pacing of lessons.

5.2.1.2 TP2

At Funda University this is a teaching experience which is five weeks in duration and occurs during the second quarter of the year. During the first week, students are required to observe only for the first two days and teach one lesson a day for the rest of the week. During week two, they are required to teach a minimum of one lesson per day and from week three to five, students are expected to teach a minimum of two lessons per day. Two formal lesson observations are conducted by lecturers with a possible third observation, should this be deemed necessary. Different lecturers are assigned for each observation.

At Hlohlhla University, this is a four- to five-week experience which occurs at the beginning of the second quarter of the school year. During the first week students are required to observe. From week two to five students are expected to teach for a minimum of two hours per day. As detailed in the TP Handbook, each student is assigned a *teaching practice supervisor* “who may be a full-time academic member of staff or a qualified teacher appointed on a part-time basis for teaching practice supervision” (TP Handbook, p. 1). The supervisor conducts three supervision visits during this period. The first is an informal visit with no lesson observation which occurs during the first week of TP and the second and third involve formal lesson observation.

5.2.1.3 TP3

At Funda University, this final TP experience is four weeks in duration and occurs in the third quarter of the year. Requirements for the first two weeks are the same as for TP2 (detailed above). During weeks three and four, students are required to teach two to three lessons per day. In week three, students are encouraged to teach a series of lessons, for example, they should try to teach all of the language or all of the mathematics lessons for the week. In the fourth and final week, students are required to take full responsibility for the classroom and teach all the lessons for the week. Two formal lesson observations are conducted by lecturers with the possibility of a third observation, should this be deemed necessary. Different lecturers are assigned for each observation.

For Hlohla University, this third TP is six weeks in duration and occurs in the third quarter of the school year. Students are required to teach a minimum of two hours per day from the start of their TP. Foundation Phase students must take sole responsibility for a class for three days, while Intermediate Phase students must take sole charge of one class in one subject for two successive weeks. Three supervisor visits including two formal lesson observations are conducted, with a possible third formal lesson observation, should this be deemed necessary.

5.2.2 Assessment requirements during Teaching Practice

In this section I present the assessment requirements at the two institutions.

5.2.2.1 Assessment protocols at Funda University

The Funda University Student TP Handbook details lecturer observations during TP2 and 3. Students are given broad outlines of expectations for observations (Student Handbook, p. 11) and are provided with a lesson plan template which they are expected to follow. On arrival at the school, the observing lecturer first has a detailed discussion regarding the student's performance with the mentor teacher, before observing the lesson and taking detailed anecdotal notes. A TP Observation Checklist is provided for assessors. This document outlines areas of focus for assessors during TP and is aligned with the outline provided to students. A copy of the anecdotal notes is given to the student immediately following the observation during a one-hour one-on-one feedback session between the student and the lecturer. During this session the lecturer first elicits reflective feedback from the student about the lesson. This is followed by detailed discussion of the lesson from the perspective of the lecturer, with reference to the lecturer's anecdotal notes. Feedback from the mentor teacher is also discussed. These sessions are formally assessed, though final marks are not discussed with the student. The student is given a 'pass' or 'fail'. Final marks are allocated following a TP committee meeting at which all the observing lecturers discuss marks allocated to all students and collaboratively derive a final mark for both TP2 and 3.

During both TP2 and 3, students are required to have their mentor teachers complete two evaluation forms provided by Funda University. The first is completed "in consultation with" the student teacher (Student Handbook, p. 10) and should be completed by the end of the second week of TP. The second is a confidential evaluation which the mentor teacher completes on the last day of each TP experience and is handed to the student in a sealed envelope for the attention of the TP coordinator.

During TP2 and 3, the students are required to keep a TP File. This is formatively assessed during lecturer TP visits. At the end of TP2 the TP File is submitted for formative assessment and at the end of TP3, the students make use of the contents of their file to develop a TP Portfolio. Guidelines and expectations are provided in the TP Handbook (Student Handbook). As detailed in the TP Handbook (Student Handbook), it is expected that TP files include three sections. These sections are as follows: “Section 1 – lesson planning, learner assessments and evaluations; Section 2 – information on learners; and Section 3 – summative self-evaluation”.

The Teaching Practice Portfolio “is a showcase document” compiled on the completion of the third TP experience. The expectation is that this document is a “record of growth, development and professional accomplishments over the course of the year” (Student Handbook, p. 13). A copy of the assessment rubric for the Teaching Practice Portfolio is provided (Student Handbook, p. 32).

It is made clear that final TP marks will be based on all of the assessment requirements discussed however, no clear breakdown is provided for weighting of the various elements which combine to form the final TP mark in the documentation analysed. Final marks are withheld until all final examination results are available. It is noted in the TP Handbook (Student Handbook, p. 17) that failure of TP, results in students being required to repeat TP to an acceptable standard, before they are able to graduate.

5.2.2.2 Assessment protocol at Hlohla University

At Hlohla University each student is assigned a supervisor. These supervisors are assigned to a school for the duration of TP2 and 3. In other words, a supervisor will observe all the students in a particular school. The supervisor makes one informal visit during the first week of both TP2 and 3 to ensure students are assigned mentor teachers and have received timetables. A further two supervision visits are made during which the supervisor observes one lesson given by each student placed at the school. These lessons are also observed by the other students placed at the same school. “Where time allows” (TP Handbook, p. 8), observations are followed by a group feedback session giving a half hour for each student observed. It is stated in the lecture notes for the second TP experience that supervision takes place in a group context and that supervised lessons are not formally assessed but rather the “entire TP experience is evaluated” (TP1 Lecture Notes, slide 3). The supervisor writes a formal report which is shared with the student no later than one week after the observation. This report takes into account the lesson observed, as well

as the student's TP Journal. The TP Journal, which is confidential, must be available for supervisors during their visits to the school. It is stated that "no assessment will be made if the journal is not complete" (TP Handbook, p. 3). The journal must include: a table of all lessons taught (including date, lesson topic, subject and who the lesson was observed by if at all), "roughly an average of a page a day" (TP Handbook, p. 3) recording "all developments daily" and "a comprehensive update at the end of every week ... the entries take the form of honest reflections on lessons you have taught ... The journal must be concluded with a comprehensive summary/evaluation/retrospective of between 2000-3000 words. Criteria against which the journal is assessed is provided" (TP Handbook, p. 9).

Final marks are allocated following consultation at a TP committee meeting. Students are provided with four outcomes against which TP is assessed, as well as a rubric against which these outcomes are assessed. During TP2 an "external examiner" (TP Handbook, p. 5) visits a sampled selection of schools and observes a sample of students. The external examiner does not provide any feedback directly to the students observed.

Mentor teachers are required to submit a 'Schools Report' on completion of both TP2 and TP3. "The form is a comprehensive statement about all aspects of the teaching practice experience of the student, not only in the classroom ... professional conduct of the student and extra-curricular involvement should be included" (TP Handbook, p. 8) and is provided by the supervisor.

Pre-service teachers are required to keep a Lesson File. This file should contain "lesson plans, copies of materials used, notes handed out and assessments set, results of assessments and photographs/videos" (TP Handbook, p. 4). This file is not submitted at any time, it is not formally assessed, but is to be used by students when compiling their School Experience Portfolio and "constitutes valuable evidence of what has been done on teaching practice and would be useful to answer any questions that may arise regarding a student's evaluation" (TP Handbook, p. 5). The School Experience Portfolio which is submitted on completion of TP3 and forms a significant portion of the final formal assessment of TP. Students must choose three of the following areas on which to focus in the portfolio: classroom management, lesson planning, student engagement, development of resources or assessment of students. The School Experience Portfolio Instructions explain that for each of the three chosen areas, the portfolio must include two pieces of evidence "that best represent your professional growth" (School Experience Portfolio), a reflective commentary (250-400 words) "that describes the change in

your thinking and/or practices that these artefacts show” (School Experience Portfolio) and finally a further reflective piece of 700-750 words summarising the TP experience from a perspective of personal growth.

TP observations contribute 70% of the final mark for the *School Experience* course with TP2 contributing 40% and TP3 contributing 60% towards this mark. The remaining 30% is made up by the School Experience Portfolio mark. “The TP Committee meets with the external examiner to evaluate teaching practice at the end of the second semester. ... The committee considers the reports for each student (two supervisors, two schools, one student, one external examiner where appropriate) and notes the assessment of the outcomes. With the external examiner’s guidance, the standard is set for all students and a mark is determined” (TP Handbook, p. 11).

As evidenced here and illustrated in Table 5.1, the structure of the TP component of the PGCE programmes at both participating HEI’s is similar. Table 5.2 provides a summary of the structure of TP experiences for both HEI’s highlighting these similarities.

TP Experiences	TP1 First quarter	TP2 Second quarter	TP3 Third quarter
Focus of TP experience	Observation	Observation and teaching	Teaching
Supervised observations for formal evaluation		Minimum of two, third if deemed necessary	Minimum of two, third if deemed necessary
Duration	10 /11 weeks of TP total		
Evaluation	Supervisors reports on lesson observations, school/mentor teacher report, teaching file/portfolio, extensive self-reflection assignment		

Table 5.2: Structure of TP experiences at both Funda and Hlohla Universities

Having provided an overview of the TP structure of TP experiences, as well as evaluation requirements for TP at each of the HEIs, I now present the findings that have emerged from the analysis of my data.

5.3 INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS FUNCTIONINGS VALUED IN THE TP DOCUMENTATION

Phase 1 of the study utilised the capabilities approach in order to identify the functionings and capabilities valued by two HEIs as indicative of quality pre-service teachers’ teaching practices. While the capabilities approach and associated terminology is explained in detail in Chapter Three, here I provide a brief summary of key concepts to remind the reader of the theory that

informs this chapter. The key terms and concepts contained in the capability approach are: functionings, capabilities, agency and conversion factors. *Functionings* can be defined as those things or states a person may value being or doing (Sen, 1999). *Capabilities* are defined as those functionings a person has the freedom or opportunity to effectively access. *Achieved functionings* refer to the ‘beings’ and ‘doings’ that have been achieved or realised. *Conversion factors* refer to the degree to which a person is able to convert a functioning to an achieved functioning. Here I analyse data to identify functionings (‘beings’ and ‘doings’) and related capabilities (the opportunities necessary to achieve those functionings) valued by the two participating HEIs and five focus group participants, as indicative of quality pre-service teachers’ teaching practices.

It should be noted that a number of the capabilities presented here could be viewed as functionings in themselves however, they are viewed here as the opportunities required for pre-service teachers to be able to achieve the valued functioning identified. For example, lesson planning could be viewed as a functioning, however it is presented here as a capability fundamental to the pre-service teachers’ ability to achieve the functioning of being organised and prepared. In other words, for a pre-service teacher to be able to be organised and prepared (functioning), they would need to have been afforded the opportunity to plan lessons (capability).

Applying the capabilities approach framework, the document analysis of the two participating HEI’s TP guidelines, regard a ‘capable pre-service teacher’ as one who is organised and prepared, able to engage reflexively with his/her practice, orientates learning towards the child, is able to manage learners, has experience of a variety of school contexts, and behaves in a professional manner.

5.3.1 Functioning 1: Teachers are organised and prepared

Both participating HEIs prioritise organisation and preparation as an essential starting point for quality teaching practices. In this study, the valued functioning of organisation and preparation encompasses three capabilities: capability to plan lessons; capability to be creative in planning; and capability to keep records of lesson plans. Pre-service teachers who are able to demonstrate through strong record keeping skills, clear and detailed daily and weekly planning which are creative and thorough, are understood to be delivering quality teaching in the classroom.

5.3.1.1 Capability of lesson planning

Thoughtful and thorough lesson planning is a capability which is highly valued by both participating institutions. The TP Handbook for Funda University states that “thorough and careful planning is essential to good teaching and learning” (p. 13). Indicating similar value placed on lesson planning, Hlohla University highlights lesson planning as one of four outcomes against which students are assessed in the TP course. Outcome 1 is stated as follows in the TP Handbook: “plan and organise systemically and imaginatively” (TP Handbook, p. 9). Both institutions expect lesson plans to be completed for every lesson conducted and that these plans should be available for review in the TP Files. For Funda University there is an expectation that students demonstrate their ability to plan a series of lessons using a weekly plan template in TP3 (Student Handbook, p. 13).

Lesson planning is expected to be clear and detailed. Funda University provides lesson plan templates in their TP Handbook (Student Handbook, p. 28). The template outlines the following areas which students are expected to include in daily lesson plans: lesson topic, duration, prior knowledge of the learners, aim of the lesson, forms of assessment which will be used during the lesson, learning and teaching support materials, lesson introduction, lesson development, lesson conclusion, accommodation for children with learning barriers, extension activities for early finishers and finally, assessment in the form of a “general comment on the entire class and finally a lesson evaluation is required” (Student Handbook, p. 28).

In addition, students at both institutions are required to produce a comprehensive lesson plan for any visiting supervisor prior to the delivery of an observed lesson. The TP Handbook of Funda University emphasises the high value placed on thorough planning stating the “visiting lecturer will not accept any lesson plans that are skimpy, incoherent or disorganised” (Student Handbook, p. 13). Both institutions indicate that students will be assessed against their ability to teach according to their lesson plan during observations and that observations will not be conducted if acceptable lesson plans are not made available to the lecturer prior to commencement of the lesson.

5.3.1.2 Capability of planning creatively

This capability is highly-valued by Hlohla University where creativity forms the basis for Outcome 1 of four outcomes against which TP is assessed. Outcome 1 in this university’s TP Handbook is stated as follows; “plan and organise systemically and imaginatively” (TP

Handbook, p. 9). The document includes the following detail related to Outcome 1; “plan lessons and tasks which ... show imagination, insight, and an ability to plan beyond what is expected” (TP Handbook, p. 9). Further evidence of the value placed on creativity by Hlohla University is found in instructions for the observation focused TP1, during which students are required to note whether teachers are “creative, innovative and relevant” (Pre-lecture Classroom Observation). For Funda University the value of creativity in the classroom is highlighted in relation to the introduction of a lesson. This is seen as a means to gain the learners’ interest at the start of the lesson however, reference to creativity in relation to actual lesson delivery or planning is absent.

5.3.1.3 Capability of record keeping

Record keeping is another highly-valued capability within the function of planning, against which quality TP is formally assessed at both participating institutions. For example, the TP Handbook for Funda University states: “recording your lessons is of utmost importance ... it is a key means by which your practice is assessed” (Student Handbook, p. 12). There is no ambiguity in this statement, using students’ record keeping skills as a “key means” for assessment, demonstrates the high value placed on this capability and its perceived utility as a means by which quality teaching practices are evaluated.

Students at both institutions are required to keep up-to-date records in the form of a summary grid of all teaching experiences during TP (such as lessons taught and involvement in extra-curricular activities). Both institutions require up-to-date daily records of lesson planning and lesson reflection. Requirements for recording lessons for Funda University are explained as follows: “There are two ways in which we expect you to record your progress: developing a TP file ... (and) compiling a TP portfolio” (Student Handbook, p. 12). Similarly, Hlohla University requires students demonstrate sound record keeping as a pre-requisite for formal lesson observation at Hlohla University. Supervisors will not complete required observations if the TP Journal (in which students are expected to record daily reflection, lesson summaries and weekly reflections) are found not to be up-to-date on the day of any scheduled observation. In other words, if a student is unable to demonstrate achieved functioning in the capability of record keeping, their teaching practices are assumed not to be of a high enough standard to warrant observation. The TP Handbook for Hlohla University states that “the journal offers a valuable ... record of time spent in schools” (TP Handbook, p. 3). Further explanation is provided, stating that supervisors expect journals to:

Provide evidence of (students) having achieved the teaching practice outcomes:

- Ability to plan and organise teaching activities;
- Ability to evaluate personal learning and teaching effectiveness;
- Understanding of what is happening in classes for which (students) are responsible;
- Ability to identify aspects of professional development which are of some concern and those aspects in which (students) feel (they) are being successful;
- Ability to think and write with sensitivity about teaching in general (TP Handbook, p. 4).

Sound record keeping forms the basis of further formal assessment criteria at Funda University where students must “show evidence (they) are able to record ... children’s progress” (Student Handbook, p. 15). This is demonstrated in the form of anecdotal notes and detailed records kept on a selected group of four learners during the course of TP2 and 3. This information is recorded and included in the TP File submitted for final formal assessment on completion of TP2 and in the Teaching Portfolio submitted for final formal assessment on completion of TP3.

The high value placed on record keeping by both institutions as a principle capability in quality teaching practices, is iterated in the following statement found in the TP Handbook of Funda University: “The TP File should be seen as a working document that offers evidence of your competence and commitment to teaching and learning and achievement” (Student Handbook, p. 13).

Both Funda and Hlohla Universities placed significant emphasis on the capabilities of planning and record-keeping. In addition, Hlohla University valued creative lesson planning as noted in Outcome 1 of their TP handbook. The second valued functioning that emerged from the data analysis was related to *reflexivity* in teaching and is discussed below.

5.3.2 Functioning 2: Teachers actively engage with and reflect on their practice

Thoughtful critical reflection is valued as a capability of quality teaching practices at both institutions. Pre-service teachers are expected to demonstrate, through regular written reflections, their ability to analyse their own personal strengths and weaknesses in the classroom. Students at Hlohla University are also required to complete ongoing reflections in the form of journaling and at Funda University in the form of daily lesson evaluation. Further to this,

substantial critical self-reflection assignments are required by both institutions for the purpose of summative assessment of TP.

Students at both institutions are required to submit a summative task in which they “reflect critically” (Student Handbook, p. 15) on their personal growth during their TP experience. The self-reflection task is referred to as the ‘Reflective Heart’ at Funda University. It takes the form of a seven to eight page written document which is described in the TP Handbook as “evidence of learning/growth during all (your) TP experiences” (Student Handbook, p. 16). It is suggested that students assess their “competence using the *Seven Roles of Educators*”, as highlighted in the Norms and Standards for Educators (DBE, 2000). Funda University states that this task requires reflection on: “your professional strengths, the developments or improvements that you have during TP, the challenges you faced, suggestions of how you could overcome some of the challenges, any other aspects related to our TP that you wish to comment on” (Student Handbook, pp. 15-16). Furthermore, Funda University expects students to rank their performance from excellent to unacceptable on a self-assessment rubric against their “ability to evaluate personal performance reflexively” (Student Handbook, p. 16).

Hlohla University also expects that this final self-reflection “be written in such a manner that the supervisor ... will be able to gain an impression of your strengths and weaknesses ... and the extent to which you are assessing your own individual growth and development. ... Reflection entails description and analysis of your practice” (TP Handbook, p. 3). Hlohla University refers to this task as the “Teaching Practice Journal”. It is evaluated against Outcome 4 against which TP is assessed. Outcome 4 is stated as follows:

Assess own individual growth as teachers.

- Evaluate personal learning and the development of your teaching;
- Make informed judgements and decisions about your own practice as teachers;
- Be able to reflect critically on your teaching, and to accept informed criticism of your work;
- Provide evidence of personal growth through keeping a journal (TP Handbook, p. 10).

The high value placed on reflexivity as an indicator of quality teaching practices, is iterated throughout the documents analysed from both participating HEIs. The next valued functioning is the pre-service teachers’ teaching practices *being orientated toward the child*.

5.3.3 Functioning 3: Being orientated toward the child

It is important to distinguish my use of the phrase *being orientated toward the child* when discussing this functioning. I do not use this term here to refer to traditional concepts of learner-centred pedagogical approaches as outlined by Schweisfurth (2015) and Hoadley (2011) which place the teacher in the position of facilitator in a learner-led approach.

An approach toward teaching practices which are orientated toward the child, emerges as another dominant functioning for both institutions with three capabilities highlighted, namely: social and emotional awareness, building rapport with learners and assessment of learners.

5.3.3.1 Capability of social and emotional awareness

Documents from both institutions indicate that there is value placed on students' capability in demonstrating social and emotional awareness in their teaching practices. For Hlohla University this forms part of the formal assessment criteria for TP appearing under Outcome 2. This Outcome is described as follows: "Relate to and communicate with students sensitively and appropriately" and further detailed outlining that students will be required to demonstrate their ability to "be sensitive to students ... motivate students to want to learn" (TP Handbook, p. 9). Funda University requires that students demonstrate this capability in relation to social and emotional awareness of learners through submission of "detailed records (which) focus on the children's social, personal, cognitive/intellectual, emotional, moral and physical development" (Student Handbook, p. 15) for formal assessment purposes at the culmination of TP2.

5.3.3.2 Capability to build rapport with learners

It is evident that both institutions place high value on student teachers' capability in building relationships with learners. This is viewed as a significant contributor to quality of teaching practices.

The Funda University TP Handbook states that "the first thing we want to know when we walk into your classroom is the extent to which you're suited to the teaching profession. To ascertain this, we will assess your rapport with the learners" (p. 11). The notion of 'Rapport with Learner' is listed as an area of focus for supervisors in the TP Lesson Observation Checklist for Funda University. Here supervisors are required to focus on the following: "How do learners relate to the student, how does the student relate to the learners, what the atmosphere is like in the classroom, is the discipline sound" (TP Observation Check List). This capability is formalised

as Outcome 2 at Hlohlhla University. Outcome 2 reads: “Relate to and communicate with students sensitively and appropriately” (TP Handbook, p. 9) further detail is provided stating that pre-service teachers should be able to demonstrate their competence in this area by being able to “relate and talk to students in a mature, respectful way, without condescension. Respond to the needs of the individual students as well as the needs of the class as a whole” (TP Handbook, p. 9). Hlohlhla lecture notes reinforce the value placed on this capability stating that “finding satisfaction on TP can come in many ways [such as] building relationships with learners” (TP2 Lecture Notes, slide 5).

5.3.3.3 Capability of learner assessment

The capability of learner assessment is included under *being orientated toward the child* because of the specific way assessment is viewed given the theoretical perspective of the study. My assumption is that consistent formative assessment and responsive critical self-reflection by the teacher directs teaching practices toward learners learning thus orientating teaching practices toward the child.

This capability emerges from the documents as more highly valued at Funda University than at Hlohlhla University. Funda University requires that learner assessment be considered in all lesson plans. Students are required to consider and record what they intend to assess during each lesson, how this will be assessed and who will be assessed. Funda University makes it clear that students “are not required to assess all the learners every day”, rather they are advised to focus on four individual learners and provide “a general comment on the class ... for future planning. If a number of learners have not achieved the assessment standard, reflect on how you will assist them in future lessons” (Student Handbook, p. 14). The only mention of this capability in Hlohlhla University documentation appears in their TP Handbook in the description under Outcome 3. Detailed under Outcome 3 is the following requirement: that students “conduct where possible assessment of (learners) learning in appropriate ways that reflect theories and models of learning” (p. 10). This is further explained as follows: “Outcome 3 involves much informal assessment of learners during lessons when teaching is taking place (e.g. assessing individual understanding, the correct pace of a lesson and the ability to answer questions), in addition to setting formal assessments and marking” (p. 10). How assessment should be conducted, what and who should be assessed and how often this should be done is absented. Evidence that learner assessment is expected to be included in any of the documents submitted for formal assessment of students during TP does not appear in the data.

Funda University requires the student include ‘detailed’ assessment records of four learners in their Teaching Portfolio:

You need to show evidence that you are able to record four children’s progress in a systemic way. ... The purpose of this is to develop your competence in assessing your children’s learning and to record their progress. ... During the last week of your TP, we would like you to write a report on one of the learners ... to give the parent ... quality feedback on their child’s performance during the term. (Student Handbook, p. 15)

The TP Handbook mentions that examples of learner assessments be included in the TP portfolio submitted for formal summative assessment of TP. Mention is also made of learner assessment in the TP Observation Check List which requires observers to consider what, how and who is assessed.

Building rapport and approaching teaching with a sensitivity toward the social and emotional wellbeing of learners are valued as a critical capability for quality teaching practices by both institutions. Learner assessment that is used to inform practice emerges as valued though is more prominent in the documentation of Funda University than that of Hlohla University. The next valued functioning that emerged from the data is *becoming and being a professional*.

5.3.4 Functioning 4: Becoming and being a professional

The value placed on the professional conduct of students during TP experiences is evident through all of the documents analysed from both HEIs. For both institutions, students’ success on TP is influenced by their level of achieved functioning with regards to their ability to meet certain professional expectations.

5.3.4.1 Capability of personal professional conduct

Both institutions are explicit in their expectations of personal professional conduct of students during TP. For example, Hlohla University states in the TP Handbook that students “are regarded as unpaid full-time members of staff of the school” (TP Handbook, p. 1) while on TP experiences. In other words, students are held to the same professional standards as teachers on staff. Hlohla University requires students’ sign a “learning contract” (TP Handbook, p. 1) with their mentor teacher. This contract outlines expectations of conduct within the school and the classroom during TP.

Funda University has a professionalism policy which states that students who are considered to have conducted themselves in an unprofessional manner during TP experiences, will be withdrawn from the school resulting in failure of the TP component of the course (Student Handbook, p. 3), clearly indicating the high value placed on this capability as an indicator of quality teaching practices. Professional expectations as detailed in the learning contract of Hlohla and the Funda TP Handbook include the students' position within the school, general duties, expectations of confidentiality, relationship with principal and staff, conduct in the staff room and expectation of respect and professional attitude toward mentor teachers.

5.3.4.2 Capability of learner management

Learner management skills emerge as more highly valued in the documentation of Funda University than Hlohla University. For Funda University the students' ability to demonstrate capability in the learner management aspects of classroom management, contribute significantly to formal assessment of teaching practices during TP. In contrast, there is no specific reference to learner management in the TP Handbook of Hlohla University, though this capability is briefly addressed in lecture notes.

At Funda University, lecturers focus on students' learner management skills during their lessons and mentor teachers are required to comment on students' learner management skills in both evaluation forms. As noted in the TP Handbook, students are expected to demonstrate this capability through sound discipline practices in the classroom, setting up and maintaining solid routines with the learners and managing the classroom in a professional and organised manner. By contrast, Hlohla University addresses learner management related elements of classroom management in one of the lectures. Unlike Funda University, the students are given more explicit suggestions for managing learners. One of the lecture slides suggests pre-service teachers, "gain attention before speaking (don't try to speak above the class); move around the room while teaching; make personal contact with all learners; use eye contact; manage the entry and exit from the classroom well" (TP1 Lecture Notes, slide 10).

The pre-service teachers' level of achieved functioning in maintaining a professional demeanour, managing the classroom as a structured, professional environment and conducting themselves in a professional manner in the school context, is viewed as a significant indicator of quality by both institutions. The final functioning to emerge from the data was that of *sensitivity to schooling context*.

5.3.5 Functioning 5: Sensitivity to schooling context

Both institutions place high value on providing pre-service teachers with opportunities to gain teaching experience in a variety of schooling contexts. Awareness of and sensitivity toward the socio-economic context of the school is a capability that emerges as highly valued by both institutions.

Both institutions have purposefully designed the first TP experience around ensuring that pre-service teachers have an “opportunity to develop an understanding of schools and schooling in the particular geographical location of the institution” (Student Handbook, p. 5). Hlohla University Lecture Notes state that TP1 is designed to provide students an “opportunity for experiencing different school context to (their) own schooling” (Pre-lecture Classroom Observation). Similarly, Funda University states that as “far as possible, if a group of students is allocated to an ex-model C school in TP 1 they will be allocated to a no-fee paying school in TP 2. In this way you will be exposed to different school environments” (Student Handbook, p. 5).

At Funda University students work in groups in order to complete a “Situational Analysis” (Student Handbook, p. 5). As described in Chapter Four, this situational analysis assignment requires students to research, through interviews and observation, various contextual aspects affecting school life. This group assignment culminates in a “research report” (Student Handbook, p.5) that is presented to lecturers and peers on completion of TP1 and contributes toward student evaluation.

The context of the particular classroom in which the student is based, is addressed briefly by both HEIs. Hlohla University refers to classroom context in the outcomes against which students are assessed. Outcome 2 states that pre-services teachers will be expected to: “Be sensitive to students by gaining an understanding of the societal and classroom influences that affect (learners’) learning. Use methods and styles of teaching that are most suitable for students in their context” (Student Handbook, p. 9). By contrast, Funda University documents do not mention classroom context in reference to student assessment. Funda University documents refer to classroom context only in relation to outlining the roles and responsibilities of the mentor teacher relative to the student stating the following; “your mentor teacher is fully aware of the conditions in the classroom in which you will be working ... and of the nature of the school, its

organisation and curriculum. S/he is thus in an excellent position to offer you help, advice and support” (Student Handbook, p. 9).

5.3.6 Summary of functionings valued in the TP documentation

The data analysed above focused specifically on ascertaining: *What functionings and capabilities emerge as indicative of quality teaching practices from TP related documentation?* In Table 5.2, I list the valued functionings and capabilities that emerged from my analysis of the TP documentation at two HEIs.

Valued Functioning	Capability
Teachers are organised and prepared	Lesson planning
	Planning creativity
	Record keeping
Reflexivity	Critical self-reflection
Being orientated towards the child	Social and emotional awareness
	Building rapport with learner
	Learner assessment
Being and becoming a professional	Personal professional conduct
	Learner management
Understanding education context	Sensitivity toward socio-economic context of the school

Table 5.2: Summary document analysis findings

As evidenced above, all five functionings emerged as valued by both institutions. The majority of capabilities (eight of ten) were also common across documentation of both institutions, though the capability of planning creatively and the capability of learner assessment each emerged as valued by only one of the institutions.

Having analysed the valued functionings and capabilities in the TP documents across the two HEIs, I now analyse the valued functionings and capabilities that emerged in the focus group interviews with lecturers involved with TP at Funda University.

5.4 INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF FUNCTIONINGS VALUED BY FOCUS GROUP

As discussed in Chapter Four, while the documents reviewed were extensive and detailed, it could not be assumed that they necessarily contained an exhaustive list of all relevant valued functionings. Focus group interviews were utilised as a normative process through which a cohesive understanding of quality teaching practices and emergent valued functionings and capabilities could emerge. Sen (1993) is critical of the development of generic lists of capabilities due to their context-dependence. I argue in agreement with Robeyns and Nussbaum that “capabilities can be the object of an overlapping consensus among people” (Nussbaum, 2001, p. 5). Robeyns (2005) argues that legitimate lists of capabilities can be developed through a normative process of consultation for small-scale projects such as this. Robeyns (2005) states:

Small-scale projects are characterised by the fact that (1) it is relatively clear who the affected persons are, e.g. the target group of an employment or development project; and (2) all affected persons can in principle meet to discuss the project or the policy. In such a setting, the relevant capabilities can be selected by using participatory methods, whereby the capabilities are debated in the group. (p. 210)

Robeyns further states that “when the capability approach is used for policy work, it is the people who will be affected by the policies who should decide on what will count as valuable capabilities in this policy question” (2005, p. 197). It is for these reasons that consultation and debate is utilised in the form of focus group interviews in this study. As explained in Chapter Four, the focus group participants were purposely selected based on their extensive experience with, and continued involvement in, assessment of pre-service teachers during TP. Capabilities expected of pre-service teachers’ teaching practices are identified through close analysis of the transcriptions from the focus group interviews and this analysis, as with the document analysis, is in keeping with the theoretical framework of the study.

What emerges from coding of focus group transcripts is that teacher educators of Funda University believe that capable pre-service teachers are able to demonstrate that they are organised and prepared for lessons, able to present structured lessons with confidence and flexibility and take an approach to teaching that is orientated toward the child.

5.4.1 Functioning: Teachers are organised and prepared

Preparing competently for lessons, ensuring lesson resources are relevant and of a high quality and the ability to plan structured lessons based on solid content knowledge, are highly valued capabilities in pre-service teachers' teaching practices.

5.4.1.1 Capability of planning for logical lesson structure

All focus group participants were in agreement that planning lessons which demonstrate consideration of structure from introduction to conclusion is a central capability in pre-service teachers' teaching practices. Bonny comments that it is important that students ensure that the introduction of the lesson "*links to the body of the lesson*" and emphasises that when she is observing a student during TP, she assesses whether the lesson "*objectives are clear and consolidated at the end*" of the lesson. She further stated that it is important that she is able to pick up from observing a lesson that the student is able to "*visualise the lesson whilst they are planning*". Likewise, Mary commented that she is looking for planning which demonstrates that the student has a "*clear idea of what is being taught*" and that the student is "*sticking to the aims*" of the lesson. Kate wants to see that the student has planned in such a way that it is clear to her that the student "*isn't just shooting from the hip*".

5.4.1.2 Capability of preparing resources

Three of the five focus group participants' highlighted different areas of concern, all related to the resources used during a lesson, as valued. Penny values the quality of the resources used by students. She commented that she has "*seldom gone into a classroom where (their resources are) really something they can be proud of*". Bonny is also concerned with resources but emphasised that she wants the "*resources [to] match and support the intention of the lesson*". Mary values the preparedness in relation to resources, commenting that she is observing whether or not they are easily accessible and ready for use. The remaining two participants expressed their agreement that they valued this functioning, though they had not initially thought of it themselves.

5.4.1.3 Capability of developing content knowledge

All five of the focus group participants value students' knowledge of the content they were teaching. Bonny stated that "*knowledge of content is so important*" and Mary responded saying "*it is, and it is so often lacking*". Penny iterated the value placed on content knowledge by Bonny and Mary, but stated that it is not sufficient for her that the student has knowledge "*in the actual subject matter*" but rather that she expects the student to demonstrate, through their teaching

practices, that they are able to actually convey this content knowledge to learners. Penny explained further saying that she wants to see that the student can “*bring (knowledge of content) to the level of the learner*”. All participants indicated their agreement with Penny in this regard. Sarah felt it was important to add that she also expects the pre-service teacher to demonstrate their ability to assess the content knowledge of the learner and use this “*prior knowledge*” as the starting point for their lessons.

The way in which students’ *structure and present* their lessons emerged as another functioning that is highly valued by the study participants.

5.4.2 Functioning: Lessons are well-structured and presented

TP assessors at Funda University consider capable pre-service teachers to be those who are able to deliver well-structured lessons with confidence, while maintaining flexibility and sound learner management.

5.4.2.1 Capability of delivering a well-structured lesson

Four of the five focus group participants drew particular attention to lesson structure during the actual delivery of the lesson. This was seen by all participants as a different capability to that of planning a structured lesson. It was discussed that a student may provide a well-structured lesson plan, but may not be able to deliver the lesson in the same structured manner. Penny captured this capability saying that she wants “*to see planning come through in the delivery of the lesson, not (just) on paper but while they are busy*”. Bonny said that she wants to be able to observe that “*learners know what they are going to do*” from the beginning of the lesson and that lesson “*objectives are clear and then consolidated at the end*”. Mary had a similar comment, stating that she wants to see that the student has a “*clear idea of what is to be taught*” but also that the student is able to ensure that the aims of the lesson are adhered to throughout. Kate iterates the value placed on cohesive delivery stating: “*I want to see is there an introduction, a body, a conclusion*” during the lesson.

While four of the focus group participants emphasised the importance of structure in the delivery of the lesson, they also explained that students need to demonstrate the capability to adapt the lesson while teaching.

5.4.2.2 Capability of flexibility while teaching

All five focus group participants agreed that they are assessing students for whether or not the student is capable of reacting in the classroom situation in order to address issues, questions or concerns appropriately and without too much deviation from the lesson plan. Bonny is looking to see that “*time management and flexibility has been considered*” and that students are “*picking up on opportunistic learning, in other words teachable moments*”. Kate echoed this sentiment and said that she wants to see pre-service teachers are able to “*seize the moment both with teaching, (as in) teachable moments and with discipline*”. The remaining three participants all indicated their agreement with Bonny and Kate regarding the high value they place on flexibility.

5.4.2.3 Capability of presentation skills

All focus group participants value the pre-service teachers’ ability to present their lessons with confidence and authority. Kate values “*teaching with authority, authority of knowledge and authority in teaching*” as a required capability for pre-service teachers to demonstrate during a TP observation. Mary and Sarah were slightly more specific, highlighting basic presentation skills such as eye contact and body language as well as volume and projection as valued capabilities in pre-service teachers’ teaching practices. Like Kate, Penny was not as specific about what exactly she is looking for in relation to presentation of a lesson but emphasised her agreement regarding the value of presentation skills stating that there is “*something in the confidence of it and the flow of it*”.

5.4.2.4 Capability of learner management

In the case of the focus group, learner management emerged directly in relation to how the pre-service teachers’ level of achieved functioning in this aspect of classroom management impacts the presentation of a lesson. Sound learner management which is sensitive, authoritative and contributes to creating a classroom environment conducive to learning, is highly valued by Kate and Mary as a capability in pre-service teachers’ teaching practices. Kate wants students to demonstrate that they are in control and that they are “*on the same page as the children*”. She also wants to see that “*if a child steps out of line there is a reaction immediately*”. This is linked with the capability of flexibility in teaching practices as discussed above. Mary says that she expects the “*student’s manner... to be approachable but firm*”.

The final functioning that emerged as valued from the focus group interviews, was that of *being orientated toward the child*. While the same functioning emerged from document analysis, the

capabilities focus is slightly different. The only capability that overlaps between the two data sources is that of *creating a rapport with learners*.

5.4.3 Functioning: Being orientated towards the child

Quality teaching practices for pre-service teachers during TP are those which take into account the unique nature and character of each child in the class, vary learning opportunities so as to ensure inclusion and/or extension of all learners, and take into account the social and moral responsibility to create caring classroom relationships which support learning.

5.4.3.1 Capability of creating a rapport with learners

Creating a classroom community in which learners feel valued and safe, where the teacher and the learners participate in learning and where the teacher is consistently utilising feedback from learners to assess whether learning is taking place emerged as valued by all focus group participants.

Focus group participants were all in agreement with Kate, who stated that she values observing “*cohesion amongst the class*” as a means of assessing the pre-service teachers’ capability in this area. For Kate, a class in which the teacher and the children are enjoying the lesson translates to a classroom in which real learning is taking place. Penny iterates this, stating that she is assessing the students’ capability in relation to developing “*rapport with learners that creates a productive work environment*” she further clarifies this statement saying that “*it is not about being friendly with the children but it is about it being sufficient for a productive classroom atmosphere*”. Kate also mentioned that she assesses if the children are “*receptive and happy being taught through the presentation of the teacher*”. An area of focus for Mary when she assesses the students’ capability in this area, is in how he/she handles incorrect answers given by learners insisting that this “*needs to be done kindly with no hint of criticism or sarcasm*”. Bonny and Kate both discussed formative assessment of learning during the lesson as another means for assessment of this capability. Kate values the students’ ability to assess whether learning is actually taking place during the lesson and Bonny wants to see that “*if (the learners) asks a question about what they have done then the student can gauge where they are and whether the kids are understanding*”.

5.4.3.2 Capability of teaching for inclusivity by differentiating learning

Each of the focus group participants confirmed that they consider differentiated learning practices central to quality teaching practices for pre-service teachers. While differentiation was valued

by all participants, they emphasised slightly different areas of focus, though all five participants valued differentiation in relation to learners who experience barriers to learning.

Penny discussed the high value she places on the pre-service teachers' capability with regards to planning "*that takes into consideration differing learning styles*" as well as "*the ability to take this into account when teaching*". Similarly, Kate is looking for teaching practices which demonstrate that the pre-service teacher is capable of incorporating a variety of activities into their lessons which caters "*for differing learners' attention*". While all five participants valued differentiation for learners experiencing barriers to learning, Bonny was more specific than others mentioning the ability to accommodate specifically for language barriers, stating that she is looking for "*code switching if and when necessary*".

5.5 SUMMARY OF FUNCTIONINGS VALUED BY FOCUS GROUP

In Table 5.3 I present an overview of the findings from the focus group interviews.

Valued Functioning	Capability
Teachers are organised and prepared	Planning for structure
	Preparing resources
	Developing content knowledge
Lesson structure and presentation	Delivering a well-structured lesson
	Flexibility while teaching
	Presentation skills
	Learner management
Being orientated towards the child	Creating rapport with learners
	Teaching for inclusivity/differentiation

Table 5.3: Summary of focus group findings

Data indicated that while focus group participants agreed with one another regarding the value each placed on certain functionings, there were very few instances where the particular focus taken by participants was expressed in the same way. For example, while all participants agreed during the presentation and discussion of valued functionings that *flexibility while teaching* ought to be valued, only two of the focus group participants directly addressed this capability in the first instance. Similarly, all participants valued the pre-service teachers' level of achieved

functioning in relation to *creating rapport with learners* however, all five participants expressed this value with a slightly different focus. This inconsistency is discussed in detail in Chapter Six.

5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter I have presented and analysed data as it emerged from document analysis and focus group interviews using the capabilities approach that is central to my theoretical framework. Table 5.4 provided a summary of functionings and capabilities valued by two Higher Education Institutes as indicative of quality in pre-service teachers' teaching practices during TP, as they emerged from data analysis.

As evidenced in Table 5.4, very few capabilities emerged from both data sources and this inconsistency is explored further in Chapter Six. Data indicated that while two of the same functionings (i.e. *teachers are organised and prepared* and *being orientated toward the child*) emerged from both data sets, only one capability (i.e. *creating rapport with learners*) within these functionings, emerged from both data sources. Capabilities related to the functionings: *teachers actively engage with and reflect on their practice*; *being and becoming a professional* and; *sensitivity to schooling context*, emerged only from document analysis. Capabilities related to the functionings: *lessons are well-structured and presented*, emerged only from the first focus group interview.

Valued Functioning	Capability	Data Source
Teachers are organised and prepared	Lesson planning	Document Analysis
	Record keeping	Document Analysis
	Planning creativity	Document Analysis
	Planning for structure	Focus Group
	Preparing resources	Focus Group
	Developing content knowledge	Focus Group
Lesson structure and presentation	Delivering a well-structured lesson	Focus Group
	Flexibility while teaching	Focus Group
	Presentation skills	Focus Group
	Learner management	Focus Group
Being orientated towards the child	Social and emotional awareness	Document Analysis
	Creating rapport with learners	Document Analysis & Focus Group
	Teaching for inclusivity/differentiation	Focus Group
	Learner assessment	Document Analysis
Reflexivity	Critical self-reflection	Document Analysis
Being and becoming a professional	Personal professional conduct	Document Analysis
	Learner management	Document Analysis
Understanding education context	Sensitivity toward socio-economic context of the school	Document Analysis

Table 5.4: Summary of combined findings

While this chapter drew on the capabilities approach, identifying the valued functionings and capabilities emerging from the data, in the next chapter I draw on the praxis aspect of my theoretical framework. In doing so I consider the findings summarised in Table 5.4 addressing Phase 2 and 3 of the study. As detailed in Chapter Four, Phase 2 utilised the theoretical framework of the study to identify to what extent valued teaching practices were aligned with the concept of praxis in operationalising a social justice perspective, as well as to augment findings from Phase 1, highlighting teaching practices pre-service teachers ought to value. In the third and final phase, I apply the findings of Phase 1 and 2 to develop an understanding of how teaching practices that promote social justice goals might be promoted, scaffolded and evaluated in initial teacher education programmes.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

61. INTRODUCTION

In Chapter One, I argued that the historical injustices of the past, a legacy of our colonial and apartheid history, have resulted in continued inequalities into the present. This is particularly evident in our schooling system where learners from more affluent communities have access to a better quality education than those living in poor communities. As a response to this situation, and in line with the reconstructionist principles of various education policies and curriculum, this study takes the view that a social justice approach to teaching and teacher education is necessary to redress these inequalities. Bell (1997) defines social justice as being both a goal and a process stating that:

The goal of social justice education is full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs...the process for attaining the goal of social justice ... should be democratic and participatory, inclusive and affirming of human agency and human capacities for working collaboratively to create change. (pp. 3-4)

In this chapter, I respond to two of the sub-questions guiding my research:

- *How do the valued functionings and capabilities identified support a social reconstructionist agenda?*
- *What valued functionings and capabilities are necessary to support a social reconstructionist agenda?*

While a social justice perspective, as explained in Chapter Three, does not provide particularly useful analytic tools, I chose to view quality teaching practices as praxis and utilise the capabilities approach as a mechanism to identify functionings and capabilities which promote a social justice agenda. Both the capabilities approach and praxis are underpinned by a social justice perspective.

In Chapter Five, I used a capabilities approach to analyse and explain the data from the Teaching Practice (TP) documentation from both Hlohlhla and Funda Universities and the data from two focus group interviews with Post Graduate Certificate in Education (Foundation and Intermediate Phase) staff at Funda University. The capabilities approach enabled me to identify the valued

functionings and capabilities created for the pre-service teachers to achieve these valued functionings. I agree with Unterhalter, Vaughan and Walker that, “there are capabilities which are so important in education that we should work towards equality in these capabilities ... linking a concept of social justice with a notion of equalising capabilities” (2007, p. 30). My intention, in surfacing the valued functionings and capabilities, was to begin to analyse the extent to which these valued functionings and capabilities promote a social justice perspective. This is thus the focus of this chapter.

I explain in this chapter the extent to which the valued functionings and capabilities promote a social reconstructionist agenda through the concept of praxis. I do this in two ways: firstly, by identifying the valued functionings that emerged from the data, as detailed in Chapter Five, that are aligned with a social justice agenda and secondly, by identifying valued functionings aligned with a social justice perspective, that are absented from the data (Phase 2).

As illustrated in Figure 3.2 in Chapter Three, and explained by Kemmis et al. (2014), praxis, is rooted in a social justice perspective on quality teaching practices, and thus has social reconstruction as its goal. Teaching practices underpinned by moral and ethical imperatives (that is, praxis) are necessarily inclusive, democratic, relevant, and orientated to the well-being of the learner (Kemmis, 2008a; Tikly, 2011; Grootenboer, 2013). In other words, praxis acknowledges that issues of culture, language, cognition, community and socialisation are central to learning and thus holds that teaching practices ought to be underpinned by a concern with, not only the learner, but also with broader issues (Kemmis, 2008a). The teacher becomes a social model or guide and approaches teaching and learning as a social process, through which each individual learner develops capabilities that facilitate full and meaningful participation in society. Teaching is learner-centred, participatory and rooted in the social and cultural context of all learners.

Praxis also acknowledges that the practice architectures impacting on the schooling system generally, and the classroom specifically, are complex and dynamic. Teachers need to be able to identify and understand how best to negotiate these practice architectures and how these affect teaching and learning. For Kemmis et al. (2014), being conscious of practice architectures, how they exist and the way they work, has powerful transformatory potential.

I now consider the extent to which the valued functionings emerging from the data, as highlighted in Chapter Five (Phase 1), are aligned with quality praxis for pre-service teachers (Phase 2).

Simultaneously, I consider key functionings of quality praxis for pre-service teachers that are fundamental to praxis, but are absented from the data (Phase 2). Finally, I explore how the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices might redress the inequalities of the past (Phase 3).

6.2 INDICATORS OF QUALITY PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' TEACHING PRACTICES VIEWED AS PRAXIS

As discussed in Chapters One and Two, quality education research has, in general, focused on broader systemic issues, such as, the education system. Alexander points out that “international debate about the quality of education has been dominated by those who operate in the domains of policy, accountability and funding rather than in the arena of practice” (2007, p. 3). As a result, there is a paucity of research in education that explicitly identifies indicators for quality in relation to teaching practices. Alexander (2007) presents a review of Education for All discourse in an attempt to unpack indicators specifically related to teaching practices, but he notes that the reviewed literature fails to demonstrate “adequate consideration of what quality entails, particularly in the vital domain of pedagogy” (p. 1). For this reason, it has been necessary for me to consider how the broader framework provided by quality education literature can be applied, to begin to identify functionings and capabilities specifically related to pre-service teachers' teaching practices.

In this section I analyse findings from Phase 1 of the study to identify valued functionings and related capabilities either emergent or absented in the data, that can be considered guidelines for quality praxis for pre-service teachers. As such, I respond to the two questions which form Phase 2 of the study, highlighted above in 6.1. To do this, I analyse the valued functionings in Chapter Five according to the extent to which they promote the four principles of praxis namely; relevance, inclusivity, democracy and well-being. I also identify key valued functionings that do not speak directly to these four principles of praxis but which can be considered to form the foundation on which praxis is built and nurtured. It should be noted that each of the functionings and capabilities discussed in relation to the four principles of praxis are assumed to overlap or be underpinned by the foundational functionings and capabilities. The ‘naming’ of functionings and capabilities relating to each of the above principles has resulted from an amalgam of data (as it emerged from document analysis and focus group interviews) and literature. My analysis of the valued functionings and capabilities from a social justice perspective, focuses particularly on

what is happening in the classroom. Specifically, I focus on those functionings and related capabilities that are underpinned by the principles of praxis and that pre-service teachers ought to be provided the capability to achieve. I begin this section with the principle of *relevance*.

6.2.1 Relevance as a principle of praxis

As described in Chapter Two, the principle of relevance is concerned with the necessary social and contextual embeddedness of human capabilities, which includes learning. Tikly and Barrett suggest that “relevance is concerned with the extent to which learning outcomes are meaningful for all learners, valued by their communities and consistent with national development priorities in a changing global context” (2011, p. 10). In other words, evaluation of quality, as understood from a social justice perspective, is concerned with the contextual relevance of education to learners who are situated within particular social communities (Kemmis, 2008a; Wenger & Lave, 2009; Tikly, 2010). To ensure the development of functionings and capabilities that enable learners to live well in a world worth living in, it is then critical to teach from an understanding of both the needs of the learners and the practice architectures that exist within their specific social settings.

Here, I explore functionings and capabilities of pre-service teachers’ teaching practices that are, or ought to be valued, in initial teacher education, based on the principle of relevance. Speaking to this principle, the South African Department of Basic Education (DBE) highlights that the teacher as learning mediator must be able to “identify the requirements for a specific context of learning and . . . select, sequence and pace the learning in a manner sensitive to the differing needs of the subject/learning area and learners” (2000, p. 13). The two functionings, and their related capabilities, emerge as valued under the principle of relevance these being, understanding the education context and being orientated toward the child.

6.2.1.1 Functioning: Understanding the education context

One capability emerged in relation to relevance under this functioning namely, the capability of developing sensitivity to schooling context.

6.2.1.1.1 Capability: Developing sensitivity to the schooling context

I focus here on pre-service teachers developing an understanding and sensitivity toward the context of the school and the socio-economic status of the communities in which schools are located.

As evidenced in Chapter Five, high value is placed on pre-service teachers developing a deep understanding of the socio-economic context of schools and particularly the schools they are based at during their TP experiences. Key in the documentation from both HEIs, was that pre-service teachers develop an understanding and gain direct experience of the variety of schools that exist in South Africa. As discussed in Chapter One, South Africa has a bi-modal schooling system (Spaull, 2013). Put differently, South Africa has two very different schooling systems; one for the affluent and another for the poor. The documentation from both HEIs states that students should expect to gain exposure to schooling contexts that are different from those they themselves experienced as learners. Furthermore, the first TP experience at both institutions has been purposefully designed around exposing students to possibly unfamiliar schooling contexts. Funda University goes a step further in this regard, requiring students to undertake research that situates the school in which they are placed within its broader context, developing an understanding of the schooling system and the implications of context on teaching and learning.

6.2.1.2 Functioning: Being orientated toward the child

Two capabilities emerged in relation to relevance under this functioning namely; content and learner support materials relate to the lived experience of the child and learners are motivated and given reason to value the learning.

6.2.1.2.1 Capability: Content and learner support materials relate to the lived experience of the learners

Rooting learning in the social context of learners and taking note of knowledge brought into the classroom, are central tenants of praxis evidenced in a social justice perspective. As discussed in Chapter Two, Wenger places “learning in the context of our lived experience of participation in the world” (2009, p. 209). He asserts that it is through contextually embedded learning that individuals are able to form identity. Effective learning takes place when the teacher encourages learners to consider and discuss how they make sense of the world and draws on the learners’ experience and perception of the world, as the starting point to scaffolding learning (Jordan, Carlile & Stack, 2008). Learning is considered to be more meaningful and long lasting when the learner is motivated by real life contexts (Wenger, 2009). For this reason, Howard asserts that, “if learning structures and stimuli are grounded in a cultural context familiar to students, the potential for cognitive expansion is enhanced” (2001, pp. 4-5).

There is mention of taking learners’ prior knowledge into account in the Funda University TP documents, specifically in relation to planning. Prior knowledge is included as a section in the

lesson plan templates provided. Expectations for this section of the Foundation Phase lesson plan appear as follows: “an explanation of the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes the children have that will provide the foundation for new learning” (Student Handbook, p. 27). Although this does not necessarily relate to the lived experience of the learners in a social or cultural sense, prior knowledge can be argued to be linked to relevance of content. Perhaps a more explicit reference to this capability can be found in the Intermediate Phase lesson plan provided by Funda University which details that students should “introduce the lesson to the children by using strategies that will ‘connect’ children to the lesson topic” (Student Handbook, p. 28). This capability, however, did not emerge during the focus group interview. Likewise, it is absented in the documentation of Hlohlhla University. Pre-service teachers’ capability in this area could be increased if expectations were made more explicit in TP documentation, thereby increasing the conversion factors for pre-service teachers to achieve this capability.

6.2.1.2.2 Capability: Learners are motivated and given reasons to value the learning

Motivation has a significant impact on successful learning (Larson, 2000; Ormond, 2008) as it increases the amount of effort and energy learners are likely to put into activities. Motivated learners are more likely to start tasks and keep working on them for longer and they are more likely to engage in the learning process (Ormond, 2008). Ormond asserts that “because of the effect of goal-directed behaviour, effort and energy, initiation and persistence, cognitive processing, and the impact of consequences – motivation often leads to improved performance (2008, pp. 284-285).

Learners are not necessarily intrinsically motivated to learn, but teachers can motivate learners in a variety of ways which can promote their learning and productivity. If pre-service teachers ensure that learners are given reasons to value what they are learning, and that their motivation to learn is maintained throughout the lesson, conversion factors for learners can be increased.

Learner motivation is referenced in relation to expectations of the lecturer during observations in the documentation of Funda University. It is stated that lecturers will be considering how students, “managed to capture the learners’ interest” in the introduction of their lessons and, “the extent to which [students] are able to maintain learners’ interest and attention” as the lesson develops (Student Handbook, p. 11). In the focus group data, the only comment related to this capability was made by Kate who mentioned that she values a “*wow introduction*”. Though this statement does not refer directly to motivation nor relating learning to the lived experience of the

learner, it can be interpreted that Kate values the pre-service teachers' efforts to motivate learners and capture their interest. The situation at Hlohla University is slightly different as more detailed expectations are required. While Outcome 1 expects that pre-service teachers demonstrate planning that is "appropriate for the learner group, and meaningful" (TP Handbook, p. 9), Outcome 2 addresses motivation explicitly. The TP Handbook states that students are expected to "motivate learners to want to learn" (p. 9).

Having considered the principle of relevance, I now move to address the principle of *inclusivity*.

6.2.2 Inclusivity as a principle of praxis

Inclusion as it relates to praxis requires that the teacher assess the inputs necessary to ensure that the individual learner's learning needs are met, taking into account the individual and extra-individual (that is, the practice architectures) features of practice constraining teaching and learning and making every effort to mitigate constraining factors for each learner. Tikly and Barrett iterate this understanding stating that, "inclusion draws attention to the access of different groups of learners to quality inputs that facilitate the development of their capabilities, the cultural and institutional barriers that impact on the learning of different groups and priorities for overcoming these" (2011, p. 3). An inclusive approach to teaching and learning takes into account learners social and cultural realities and how these influence their learning. It encompasses the belief that all learners should have access to the types of inputs they need, on a differential level, to achieve expected learning outcomes. This principle of inclusivity is particularly pertinent in the diverse classrooms of South Africa where "past injustices along with differing educational needs mean that learners require different kinds and levels of resources in order to develop their capabilities" (Tikly, 2011, p. 91).

One valued functioning, being orientated toward the child emerged as central in relation to inclusivity.

6.2.2.1 Functioning: Being orientated toward the child

Five capabilities emerged in relation to this functioning. These include: accommodation for learners experiencing barriers to learning; accommodation for barriers caused by language of teaching and learning; differentiating learning; practice that is informed by effective use of learner assessment; and culturally responsive classroom management.

6.2.2.1.1 Capability: Accommodation for learners experiencing barriers to learning

The practice of inclusive education has been widely embraced in international and national policies in recent years. Engelbrecht, Nel, Smit and van Deventer point out that “inclusive education as a global movement emerged over the past 30 years to ensure quality mainstream education for all learners” (2016, p. 520). In line with this international trend, inclusivity for learners experiencing barriers to learning in mainstream education, has been prioritised in policy post-1994 with a democratically elected government. The Education White Paper 6 (DBE, 2001) argues for a single education system for all learners with the intension that inclusive education would provide "a cornerstone of an integrated and caring society" (DBE, 2001, p. 10). As noted in Chapter One, post-1994 education polices (e.g. curriculum) in South Africa had explicit social reconstructionist aims. However, research in this field highlights a number of extra-individual practice architectures that have constrained inclusive teaching practices to date. Identified among such practice architectures are: a lack of appropriate and necessary resources; overcrowded classrooms; and a lack of directed teacher training and support (Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Engelbrecht, Nel, Nel & Tlale, 2015; Engelbrecht et al., 2016). As a result of these implementation challenges, the intentions of White Paper 6 have not been realised (Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Engelbrecht et al., 2015). Research “indicates that the way in which teachers understand a diversity of learning needs is based on the training that they initially received as teachers” (Engelbrecht et al., 2015, p. 2), iterating its relevance in this research.

Accommodating learners experiencing barriers to learning emerged as valued in the focus group interviews and TP documentation. As noted in Chapter Five, all focus group participants agreed with Bonny who identified “*accommodating barriers and including all learners*” as highly valued. Funda University requires students to include a section in their Teaching Practice Files that focuses on collecting detailed information on four learners, including learners with “special education needs” (Student Handbook, p. 15). In addition to this, the Lesson Plan Outline provided for students includes a section to be completed in relation to planning for “accommodating children with learning barriers” (Student Handbook, p. 27). Likewise, Hlohla references accommodating learners experiencing barriers to learning under Outcome 1 which states, among other things, that students are expected to “identify and interpret learner interests, varying learning styles and developmental needs and use this understanding in all planning” (TP Handbook, p. 9). It is important to note that it would not be reasonable to expect pre-service teachers to overcome the extra-individual practice architectures mentioned above however, there

are some teaching practices that can help pre-service teachers to address the individual features constraining inclusive practice (Engelbrecht et al., 2015). Explicit instruction in relation to specific teaching practices that address these individual features and enable accommodation for learners experiencing barriers to learning is limited in the TP documents analysed, thus conversion factors could be increased if more explicit instruction were included.

6.2.2.1.2 Capability: Accommodation for barriers caused by language of teaching and learning

Issues of epistemological access specifically in the area of language of instruction have been widely researched and debated in the South African schooling context (Spaull, 2013; Taylor & von Fintel, 2016). Tikly (2011) contends that:

There is compelling evidence to suggest that a major source of underachievement, that impacts most heavily on the most socio-economically disadvantaged learners, is the use of a language of instruction in the school that is not spoken widely by the child outside of school. (p. 92)

The DBE concurs with this and expects teachers to “understand how language mediates learning: the principles of language in learning ... and a strong emphasis on language in multi-lingual classrooms” (2000, p. 15).

Reference to accommodation for barriers caused by language of teaching and learning is absented in the documentation of both HEIs, but did emerge as valued by one focus group participant. Bonny stated that she values the pre-service teachers’ use of “*code switching if and when necessary*”.

To promote teaching practices aligned with a social reconstructionist agenda, initial teacher education programmes in South Africa ought to provide guidance around ways in which pre-service teachers should, or could, ensure their teaching practices accommodate for (and demonstrate sensitivity towards) issues of language of instruction in diverse classroom settings. For example, providing the capability for students to effectively utilise code switching and /or supporting children whose home language is not the Language of Learning and Teaching. Where this is not possible, that students understand that it may be necessary to frequently check for understanding, carefully explain terminology, and give clear and specific instructions. In this way, praxis is embedded in pre-service teachers’ teaching practices and they are enabled to mitigate the constraining power of language in the South African primary school classroom.

6.2.21.3 Capability: Differentiating learning

To ensure the capability to achieve inclusivity, pre-service teachers ought to design and deliver lessons in a manner that reaches not only children experiencing barriers to learning but that also accommodate diversity in relation to learning styles, ability levels and interests. The DBE Norms and Standards for Educators insists that teachers be able to adjust “teaching strategies to ... different learning styles and preference” (2000 p. 15). Similarly, MRTEQ states that “newly qualified teachers must know who their learners are, how they learn, understand their individual learning needs and tailor their teaching accordingly” (DHET, 2015, p. 55). Teachers can differentiate the content, instruction and products of learning, varying pace and content according to the needs of the learners, designing lessons that appeal to learners with a range of interests and choice in assessment tasks that cater for a variety of learning styles (Tomlinson, 2014).

It is broadly accepted that learning occurs through a variety of learning styles and that learners access information best through their dominant learning style (Kolb, 1984; Tomlinson, 2014). Therefore, individual learners will benefit from lessons where pre-service teachers are conscious of moving through a continuum, catering for all learning styles and needs represented in the class. It is not sufficient to differentiate instruction; teachers should also ensure that learning tasks and assessment linked to instruction, cater for a variety of learning styles and needs.

As evidenced in Chapter Five, the pre-service teachers’ ability to differentiate content and instruction emerged as highly valued by all focus group data participants. For example, Penny states that she values planning “*that take into consideration differing learning styles*” as well as “*the ability to take this into account when teaching*”. Where differentiation does not emerge from either data set is in relation to the assessment process. Mention of differentiating assessment tasks is absented in the data. It can then be reasonably inferred that students are encouraged to develop their skills in relation to differentiation of instruction and content but not product. In the pursuit of the social justice goal of equity in and through education, pre-service teachers would benefit from more explicit expectations in relation to differentiation of product.

6.2.2.1.4 Capability: Practice that is informed by effective use of learner assessment

Practice that is informed by learner assessment is responsive to learning and has the potential to ensure that pre-service teachers prioritise learning for all learners. As suggested by Hackman, “ensuring inclusion requires that quality is monitored and data on learning outcomes are

disaggregated and analysed to reveal who is disadvantaged and where initiatives to improve quality should be targeted” (2005, p. 10). The value and utility of practice that is informed by critical analysis of learner assessment is highlighted in the Norms and Standards for Educators which stipulates that teachers should “understand that assessment is an essential feature of the teaching and learning process ... and how to interpret and use assessment results to feed into processes for the improvement of learning programmes” (DBE, 2000, p. 14).

As discussed in Chapter Two, there is a tendency for pre-service teachers to become pre-occupied with the technicalities of teaching while they are coming to grips with the complexities of the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Zeichner, 2010; Rusznyak 2012). The pre-service teacher is inclined to take a technical approach, concentrating his/her efforts on teaching the content according to the lesson plan he/she has prepared (Zeichner, 2010). Initial teacher education driven by praxis, prioritises scaffolding of the pre-service teachers’ ability to critically reflect on an unsuccessful lesson and re-teach content adjusting their teaching practices, with a focus on the learners’ demonstrated understanding.

Utilising learner assessment to inform practice, emerged as valued in the focus group interviews, however, evidence that students are evaluated according to their ability to meaningfully assess learning in a way that informs practice, is limited in the TP documentation. As discussed in Chapter Five, both institutions require that students provide examples of learner assessments in their final TP files and final portfolios, though no mention is made of requirements to reflect on these. While absent in the documents of Hlohl University, learner assessment, as it informs practice, is directly addressed by Funda University. It is stated that evaluation of lesson plans requires that “learner assessments are recorded and inform future lessons” (Student Handbook, p. 11). However, guidance for the student on how these should be analysed or in what way they *should* or *could* inform practice is limited. Ensuring greater clarity in documentation and evaluation requirements related to the utility of, and expected responsiveness to, learner assessments, would ensure higher conversion factors for this capability.

6.2.2.1.5 Capability: Culturally responsive classroom management

Martin and Sugarman define classroom management as “those activities of classroom teachers that create a positive classroom climate within which effective teaching and learning can occur” (1993, p. 9). Understood as such, competent classroom management enables quality teaching and learning. Creating a secure and caring classroom environment is critical to learning, particularly

in the primary years of schooling (Burden, 2016). The teacher has the power to create the type of classroom community that supports effective learning for all learners. MRTEQ includes reference to culturally sensitive classroom management as follows: “Newly qualified teachers must be able to manage classrooms effectively across diverse contexts in order to ensure a conducive learning environment” (DHET, 2015, p. 55) and the Norms and Standards for Educators suggests that teachers are expected to demonstrate, through their practical competence, an “appreciation of, and respect for, people of different values, beliefs, practices and cultures” (DBE, 2000, p. 18).

Classroom management that is culturally responsive, recognises that the goal of classroom management is not learner management, but rather providing all students with equitable opportunities for learning. In this way classroom management can be described as “in the service of social justice” (Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004, p. 27). Culturally responsive classroom management encompasses aspects such as the teachers’ values and beliefs, rules and procedures, desk arrangements, learner support materials (in relation to selection, distribution and organisation) as well as behaviour management (Weinstein et al., 2004), which include: the selection of learner support materials (LSM) that are appropriate to curriculum, learners’ language proficiency and reflecting the multiple socio-cultural identities of the learners (Tikly & Barrett, 2011).

There is a body of research looking at beginner teacher practices, that indicates the expert teacher and the beginner teacher tend to focus on different areas of classroom management (Dicke, Elling, Schmeck, & Leutner, 2015; Johns & Johns, 2015; Wolf, van den Bogert, Jarodzka, & Boshuizen, 2015). It could be reasonably expected that pre-service teachers’ practices would reflect more closely those of the beginner teacher than those of the expert. Research conducted by Bogert et al. found that “experts focused on learning in the classroom and the teacher’s ability to influence learning, whereas novices were more concerned with maintaining discipline and behavioural norms” (2015, p. 68).

The data from this study revealed that both HEIs tend to focus on the learner management (Chapter Five), thus risking reinforcing the seemingly natural instinct of the pre-service teacher, rather than mitigating it.

Classroom management that is culturally sensitive has the potential to change and mould attitudes and perceptions creating the tolerant, inclusive and safe environment necessary for meaningful learning to take place for every learner. Initial teacher education driven by praxis, would benefit pre-service teachers' teaching practice by explicitly scaffolding classroom management practices that are culturally sensitive, thus ensuring that pre-service teachers are provided the capability to convert such practices to achieved functionings.

Inclusive praxis then reaches a diversity of learning styles, ability levels and interests. Inclusive praxis also demonstrates sensitivity toward challenges created by Language of Teaching and Learning, accommodates for learners experiencing barriers to learning and manages the classroom in a culturally responsive manner. I now move on to focus on the praxis-related principle, *democracy*.

6.2.3 Democracy as a principle of praxis

For Tikly (2011), the principle of democracy is achieved and determined through debate. What he refers to specifically focuses on democracy at a macro level, where government, members of civil society and the greater public, determine through debate, the valued functionings (that is, within the context of the school, the required learning outcomes). Tikly and Barrett (2011) concur, suggesting acceptance of the principle of democracy requires that decisions about quality education ought to be made through local, national and global debates. To some extent, the work of this research has the potential to contribute to macro level debate in relation to learning outcomes for pre-service teachers⁵. In many respects, the literature related to teacher education and specifically pre-service teachers' teaching practices, reflect different voices and perspectives of what ought to be valued. Missing from the debate, and from the documentation at the two HEIs in my study, are the voices of the pre-service teachers, and what they regard as valued functionings. As noted in Chapter Two, my assumption is that pre-service teachers have reason to value becoming teachers and thus have reason to value that which is deemed necessary in this endeavour, by those acknowledged through their positions as teacher educators, to be experts in their field.

⁵ I will be presenting this research at the Teaching Practice 2017 Symposium (North-West University) in October 2017.

Quality education literature does not provide indicators for democracy at the level of the classroom or teaching practices. Thus, it is necessary for me to consider how one might think about pre-service teachers creating democratic classroom spaces. Hackman states that “social justice education encourages students to take an active role in their own education and supports teachers in creating empowering, democratic, and critical educational environments (2006, p. 103). In this sense, democracy in the classroom can be understood on two levels, both as a goal and as an ideal that influences teaching practices. As a single functioning related to democracy, democracy as an ideal that influences teaching practices is discussed next.

6.2.3.1 Functioning: Democracy as an ideal that influences teaching practices

Democracy as a goal of education would see the teacher focus on developing critical thinking skills, open debate and discussion, and active participation in the classroom, in order to develop the learners as critically engaged citizens in the classroom and in their broader communities (Carr, Plum, & Howard, 2014). In addition, learners would be taught the principles of justice, respect and citizenship. This view is supported in the Norms and Standards for Educators which includes “community, citizenship and pastoral role” (DBE, 2000, p. 14) as one of the *seven roles of the teacher*. This role is detailed as follows: “The educator will practice and promote a critical, committed and ethical attitude towards developing a sense of respect and responsibility towards others” (DBE, 2000, p. 14). As such, teachers ought to create spaces where stereotypes and prejudices are challenged (DBE, 2000). Evidence that democratic teaching practices are valued, is absented in the data utilised for this study.

Connected to the principles of relevance, inclusivity and democracy, is the principle of *well-being*. I shift my focus now to examine this principle.

6.2.4 Well-being as a principle of praxis

The development of the well-being of the learner is a principle driven by the double purpose of education to prepare learners not only to live well but also to live well in a world worth living in, as suggested by Kemmis (2008a) and discussed in Chapter Three. Darling-Hammond supports this, suggesting that to achieve quality, teachers “need to understand the person, the spirit, of every child and find a way to nurture that spirit” (2006, p. 300). This is very much rooted in praxis, as it “foregrounds the moral nature of teaching” (Grootenboer & Edwards-Groves, 2013, p. 372).

Indicating alignment with this learner-orientated, morally grounded view of teaching, the Norms and Standards for Educators, details as a practical competency under the community, citizenship and pastoral role, that teachers demonstrate “caring, committed and ethical professional behaviour and an understanding of education as dealing with the protection of children and the development of the whole person” (DBE, 2000, p. 19).

6.2.4.1 Functioning: Being orientated toward the child

I identified two capabilities, relating to the valued functioning of being orientated toward the child, under well-being as a principle of praxis namely; creating a rapport with learners, and being and becoming a social guide.

6.2.4.1.1 Capability: Creates rapport with learners

Research indicates that social and emotional issues connected to relationships at school and in the classroom have a significant impact on academic success (Zins, 2004; Devaney, O'Brien, Resnik, Keister, & Weissberg, 2006; Pekrun, 2016). Pekrun (2016) summarises the influence of emotional security on learning as follows:

Emotions control the students' attention, influence their motivation to learn, modify the choice of learning strategies, and affect their self-regulation of learning. ... From an educational perspective, emotions are important because of their influence on learning and development, but students' emotional wellbeing should also be regarded as an educational goal that is important in itself. (p. 6)

Put differently, emotional security and well-being are essential to meaningful engagement in learning and thus ought to be a goal of education.

As discussed in Chapter Five, the pre-service teachers' ability to create rapport with learners and establish sensitive learning environments that are conducive to learning, emerged as highly valued from the data (sections 5.3.3.2 and 5.4.3.1). The documentation of both institutions highlights 'rapport with learners' as valued. Funda University states explicitly that TP supervisors equate the students' ability to create a rapport, with suitability to the profession. The TP Handbook states: “The first thing we want to know when we walk into your classroom is the extent to which you're suited to the teaching profession. To ascertain this, we will assess your rapport with the learners” (p. 11). Likewise, as evident in the TP documentation, Hlohla University values 'rapport with learners' highly, formalising expectations in Outcome 2 which

requires that students demonstrate their ability to relate to learners appropriately and with sensitivity (TP Handbook).

6.2.4.1.2 Capability: The teacher as social guide

As discussed in Chapter Two and Three, praxis holds that quality teaching and learning is achieved when the teacher takes the position of social guide, alongside that of knowledge disseminator (Naidoo & Parker, 2005; Graven, 2014; Kemmis et al., 2014). The Norms and Standards for Educators, details that teachers have a responsibility to ensure a culturally inclusive classroom atmosphere (DBE, 2000) and MRTEQ insists that the beginner teacher as learning mediator is expected to show recognition and respect for the differences of others. From this point of view then, the values and attitudes of a teacher are salient in discussions around quality teaching practices. A teachers' values and attitudes are evident in teaching practices (Darling-Hammond, 2012; Hoadley, 2013; Lotz-Sisitka, 2015) and are shaped by both individual and extra-individual features of practice (Kemmis, 2008a; Kemmis, 2014). These values and attitudes could constrain or enable practices that enable well-being in the classroom.

As evidenced in Chapter Five, both HEIs value the teacher-as-carer, though attention to issues related directly to pre-service teachers' values and attitudes is absented in both data sets. This aspect of quality praxis would benefit from more explicit inclusion in expectations for TP. For pre-service teachers to ensure that their personal values and attitudes do not constrain their practice, they must first be aware of what those values and attitudes are and then develop teaching practices that take into account the culture, values and beliefs of all of the learners in the class. This is particularly relevant in the South African context, where many classrooms are spaces that represent the socio-economic and cultural diversity of the country.

Having analysed valued functionings according to the extent to which they promote the four principles of praxis, I move on to a discussing of key valued functionings that do not speak directly to these four principles of praxis but which can be considered to be foundational to praxis.

6.2.5 Foundational valued functionings that do not directly address the four goals of praxis

There are a number of valued functionings that emerged from the data as indicative of quality teaching practices, that do not speak directly to the four above-mentioned principles of praxis. I argue here that each of these functionings form the foundation on which praxis is built and nurtured. Put differently, each of these foundational functionings need to be met in order for

quality praxis to be achieved. As referenced throughout section 6.2.5, the value placed on foundational functionings emerging from this study and detailed here, is supported in two key policy documents that relate to initial teacher education namely: the Norms and Standards for Educators (DBE, 2000), and the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualification (MRTEQ) policy documents. These foundational valued functionings, as emergent from the data, are: reflexivity; being and becoming a professional; sound content knowledge and; teachers are organised and prepared.

6.2.5.1 Functioning: Reflexivity

Kemmis et al. (2014) suggest that critical self-reflection is essential to achieving praxis as it is the means through which teachers become aware of the individual features of practice, enabling them to address these, transforming their practices to mitigate possible constraining features. Active engagement with and reflection on, in and about practice, can be viewed as the basis upon which the functionings identified under each principle of praxis detailed above can be achieved. For example, the ability to engage reflexively, is central to understanding the role of context on teaching and learning.

Reflexive practice emerged from the data as highly valued by both institutions, as detailed in Chapter Five (Section 5.3.2). Furthermore, the value of critical engagement with practices is affirmed in the Norms and Standards for Educators and MRTEQ. The latter document states that “newly qualified teachers must be able to reflect critically, in theoretically informed ways and together with their professional community of colleagues, on their own practice in order to constantly improve it and adapt it to evolving circumstances” (DHET, 2015, p. 55).

6.2.5.2 Functioning: Being and becoming a professional

Teachers are expected to conduct themselves in a professional manner. MRTEQ suggests that “newly qualified teachers must have a positive work ethic, display appropriate values, and conduct themselves in a manner which befits, enhances and develops the teaching profession (DHET, 2015, p. 55). It is therefore critical that pre-service teachers, being inducted into the profession through initial teacher education, are provided the capability to develop such competencies. Given the critical nature of professionalism in education (Taylor, 2007) it is not surprising that, as detailed in Chapter Five (sections 5.3.4 and 5.4.1), expectations of professional conduct during TP experiences emerged from all data sources as a highly valued functioning. TP documents from both HEIs highlight a variety of professional dispositions expected of pre-

service teachers ranging from attitude to punctuality, dress code, relationships with colleagues and commitment to the profession.

6.2.5.3 Functioning: Sound content knowledge

Sound content knowledge emerged from focus group data as a valued capability however, in response to consensus in South African quality education research regarding the centrality of content knowledge in the education crisis (Chapter One), this has been acknowledged here as a functioning. As discussed in Chapter One, there is consensus in quality education research that teachers' lack of sound content knowledge contributes to learner underperformance in South Africa (HEQC, 2010, Hoadley, 2012; Graven, 2014). Alexander suggests that sound content knowledge is the basis on which quality teaching is built (2007). A pre-service teacher who differentiates learning, motivates learners and manages the classroom in a culturally responsive manner, but who uses content that is irrelevant or incorrect, cannot be considered to be delivering a quality educational experience.

MRTEQ insists that “newly qualified teachers must have sound subject knowledge” (DHET, 2015, p. 55) and the Norms and Standards for Educators explains that teachers are expected to understand “the learning area to be taught, including appropriate content knowledge” and “knowing and understanding the content knowledge of the discipline/subject/learning area”.

Content knowledge as evidenced and assessed during the TP component of initial teacher education programmes, emerged as highly valued by all five of the focus group participants though it was limited in the TP documentation analysed. Hlohl University includes “appropriately and correctly teach subject content knowledge” under Outcome 3 (TP Handbook, p. 10) however, it is absented in the documentation of Funda University. Mary responded to Bonny's statement that she believes content knowledge to be “*so important*” saying “*it is, and it is so often lacking*”. Given that content knowledge is seen as vital to quality teaching practices and the perception shared by Mary that it is often lacking, it can be concluded that this valued functioning of quality teaching practices would benefit from more explicit inclusion in TP documentation.

6.2.5.4 Functioning: Teachers are organised and prepared

The Norms and Standards for Educators identifies the teacher as “leader, administrator and manager” (DBE, 2000, p. 13) as being one of the seven roles of the teacher. The document goes

on to detail, under the role of “learning mediator” that teachers are expected to prepare “thoroughly and thoughtfully for teaching” (DBE, 2000, p. 15). As referenced in Chapter Five this functioning emerged as highly valued from both document analysis and focus group data.

Termly, weekly and daily planning, as well as keeping systematic records of lessons taught and learner progress, can be considered fundamental to quality teaching. The cornerstone of effective teaching, time management and learner management is organisation and preparedness. Bayar claims that “teacher preparedness is linked to student achievement” (2014, p. 319). Effective critical reflection on practice is based on records of lessons taught and learner assessments. Catering for diversity requires careful planning and thought about content, resources, methods, activities as well as differentiated learning tasks and assessments. The pre-service teacher ought to be ready before the start of any lesson with an effective lesson plan, quality resources, consolidation exercises and means of assessment. This not only models appropriate behaviour to learners, but it is important to note that learners are unlikely to value and engage in learning, if the teacher appears underprepared.

Having discussed and identified functionings and capabilities that support praxis under each of the four principles of praxis and considering the foundational functionings on which quality praxis can be based, I now shift focus to consider the general consistencies and inconsistencies that emerged from the data.

6.3 THE CONSISTENCIES AND INCONSISTENCIES EMERGING FROM THE DATA

In this section I compare and contrast functionings across both HEIs drawing on my analysis of the TP documentation and the focus group interview.

Findings from the document analysis confirmed that the way the two HEIs have designed their TP experiences is very similar (Chapter Five). There is consistency in both the structure of TP experiences and approach to assessment during TP taken by HEIs. As evidenced in Table 5.2, both institutions have built three separate TP experiences into their one year PGCE programmes. For both Hlohla and Funda Universities, the first TP experience has an observation focus and is designed to offer students the opportunity to experience different schooling circumstances to those they may have experienced themselves when at school.

Both institutions:

- Expect that students teach a similar number of hours during both the second and third TP experiences;
- Have similar assessment criteria;
- Have similar assessment tasks;
- Conduct the same number of supervised observations during student TP experiences; and
- Have a committee or group of lecturers deciding on the final TP mark that should be awarded to each student.

Similarly, the valued functionings that emerged from the document analysis also demonstrated consistency across both institutions. All five valued functionings identified through the analysis of the TP documents were evident as valued by both institutions. As evidenced in Chapter Five, it emerged that both institutions value:

- Teachers are organised and prepared;
- Reflexivity;
- Being orientated toward the child;
- Being and becoming a professional; and
- Sensitivity to education context.

In addition, eight of the 10 capabilities were also common across documentation of both institutions. The capability of planning creatively appeared to be valued only at Hlohla University, while the capability of learner assessment as it is utilised to inform practice, emerged as valued by only Funda University.

As explained in Chapter Four, the first focus group interview began with participants spending 10 minutes thinking about and writing down those teaching practices they value as indicative of quality, when observing students during a TP crit. As noted in Chapter 5, there was little overlap in the valued functionings and capabilities written down by each of the five focus group participants. In the discussion after the individual brainstorming session however, the participants generally agreed on the valued functionings and capabilities.

Evidence indicated that there were some inconsistencies between the functionings and capabilities highlighted in TP documentation and those emphasised by lecturers. As indicated in

the summary of document analysis findings (Chapter Five), broadly speaking, the findings indicated that the emphasis of TP related documentation is on: planning before a lesson; what happens after a lesson (reflection and critical self-evaluation of practice); and the general attitude and conduct of the student when in schools. As evidenced in the focus group data (Chapter Five) the lecturers focus appears to be on what is happening during the lesson with very little evidence that lecturers are assessing what happens after the lesson or the general professional conduct of students. This inconsistency can to some extent be expected due to the fact that the focus of a TP crit is on what is actually happening in real time in the classroom however, what lecturers expect of students during a TP crit could be made more explicit in the documentation.

Two functionings where there was overlap, related to the preparedness and organisation of pre-service teachers and being orientated toward the child. These emerged as highly valued from both sets of data. This might be expected to some extent, due to the fact that TP observations are necessarily focused on ‘teaching in action’. However, as stated by Unterhalter, Vaughan and Walker, “the capability approach alerts us that we cannot simply evaluate resources and inputs and that we must look at whether [students] are able to convert resources into capabilities and thereafter potentially into functioning” (2007, p. 2). Pre-service teachers have reason to value that which is valued by teacher educators, thus teaching practices valued in TP documentation and evaluation criteria are those pre-service teachers have reason to value and those that benefit from high conversion factors.

As discussed in Chapter Two, research indicates that the lack of coherence in assessment practices during TP across the various initial teacher education programmes offered in South Africa, is a cause for concern (DHET, 2010a; Rusznyak, 2012; DBE, 2015a). Darling-Hammond asserts that variation in criteria and methods utilised by HEIs to assess and evaluate TP, impacts most significantly on the “lack of coherence [that] undermines teacher learning and makes it difficult to devise effective solutions to the problems of teaching practice” (2012, p. 10). However, these findings seem to indicate that it may not be variation in the criteria and methods employed by HEIs, but rather possible variation in relation to lecturer expectations. That is, between individual lecturers and also between what is valued in official TP documentation and what is valued by lecturers.

I now summarise findings from Phase 1 and 2 of the study as detailed in Chapter Five and Chapter Six. This summary outlines findings that emerged from document analysis, focus group interviews and literature review.

6.4 SUMMARY RELATING THEORY AND FINDINGS

Table 6.2 lists the functionings and capabilities indicative of quality teaching practice in pre-service teachers' teaching practices which promote a social justice agenda (that includes the foundational valued functionings highlighted above) and are, or ought to be, valued by HEIs.

Valued Functioning	Capability
Being orientated toward the child	Social and emotional awareness
	Creates Rapport
	Learning is rooted in lived experience of the learner
	Culturally sensitive classroom management
	Inclusivity/differentiation practices
	Teacher as a social guide
Understanding the education context	Sensitivity toward socio-economic context of the school
	Sensitivity toward socio-economic context of the child
	Sensitivity toward cultural context of the child
Democracy as an ideal	Democracy as an ideal that influences teaching practices
Reflexivity	Critical lesson reflection
	Reflection on personal values and attitudes
Being and becoming a professional	Personal professional conduct
	Presentation skills
Sound content knowledge	Lessons based on sound subject content knowledge
	Learners are able to grasp content
Teachers are organised and prepared	Take into account prior knowledge
	Lesson planning
	Record keeping
	Creativity
	Structure
	Resources
	Flexibility and structure in lesson delivery

Table 6.2: Valued functionings that support and promote social justice

Having highlighted valued functionings and related capabilities argued to promote social justice, I shift focus to examine more closely how initial teacher education courses might promote these key functionings of praxis by providing capability (or opportunity to achieve) through TP.

6.5 IN CONCLUSION

Explicit inclusion of valued functionings in TP literature ensures that pre-service teachers are provided the capability and agency to choose to enact teaching practices aligned with the social reconstructionist agenda, argued here to be crucial in the redress of historical inequities in South Africa. Utilisation of these functionings and capabilities of praxis in the scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices, would contribute toward ensuring that initial teacher education programmes afford pre-service teachers the capability and agency to realise teaching practices enacted as praxis.

This section covers Phase 3 of the study and seeks to answer the main research question: *How can the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices be utilised to promote a social reconstructionist agenda during the Teaching Practice component of initial teacher education?* To answer this question, I draw on the findings from Phase 1 and 2 of my research process. In summarising the findings in the data and literature, four key functionings and related capabilities of quality praxis that promote a social reconstructionist agenda, emerged from this study. These represent the functionings of quality praxis that pre-service teachers ought to be provided the capability to realise, at the level of achieved functioning.

In the next section I present the four functionings of quality praxis and provide suggested guidelines for the scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices, to provide the capability required for them to achieve these functionings in relation to each.

6.5.1 Four functionings and related capabilities of quality praxis

The four functionings identified have emerged from an amalgam of data (emerging from document analysis and focus group interviews and presented in Chapters Five and Six) as well as literature. I noted in Chapter One that missing from research on quality education was a focus on teaching practices (Alexander, 2007). In other words, there is a paucity of research on guidelines (that is, indicators) for quality teaching practices. Hoadley points out that while “many studies suggest the importance of management factors, they have, as yet, not been able to distinguish between school and classroom level factors and their effect on student performance. For this reason, what exactly makes the difference ... especially in classrooms remains elusive” (2012, p. 191). In an effort to contribute to work on quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices, I use the data and literature informing my study to identify guidelines of quality per-

service teachers' teaching practices. Under each valued functioning, I list guidelines for identifying capabilities and assessing the extent to which the valued functioning is achieved is the conclusion of the study. It should be noted however, as discussed in Chapter Seven, that a recommendation of the study is that these be debated in a democratic manner with the relevant stakeholders.

6.5.1.1 Valued functioning one

Pre-service teachers are able to plan and prepare lessons that are based on sound content knowledge, are well-structured, take differentiated learning into account and are systematically recorded.

Guidelines for identifying capabilities and assessing the extent to which this functioning is achieved:

1. Lesson plans take into account learners' prior knowledge and are well-structured.
2. Lesson introductions relate the topic to learners' context and spark their interest.
3. Lesson plans are based on sound content knowledge: engagement with content and a deep understanding of the subject matter are evident.
4. Resources are of good quality, well organised and appropriate to the lesson.
5. Planning takes into account differentiation: differentiation is considered in relation to instruction, learning tasks and assessment tasks.
6. Lessons are systematically recorded.

6.5.1.2 Valued functioning two

Pre-service teachers are able to present lessons in a manner that relates learning to the lived experience of the learners and takes into account: language of instruction; pacing; flexibility; formative learner feedback and ensures that all learners are able to access the content.

Guidelines for identifying capabilities and assessing the extent to which this functioning is achieved:

1. Language used reflects the LOLT and accommodates for non-mother tongue learners.
2. Lessons are paced according to learner needs and time is well-managed.
3. Lessons are presented in a manner that ensures all learners are engaged and able to hear the teacher.

4. Lessons are well-structured: aims are clear and consolidated; learners' interest is sparked and maintained; and learners understand what is expected of them during the lesson.
5. Lessons are presented in a flexible manner: incidental learning is supported; adaptations are made according to learner needs; and discipline issues handled with minimum disruption.
6. Learner feedback is provided through-out the lesson: learners are required to engage and participate creating opportunities for immediate formative assessment and feedback.
7. Learners are able to access the content of the lesson: teaching is responsive to questions and comments, constantly gauging understanding and responding appropriately.
8. Content is related to the lived experience of the learners wherever possible.

6.5.1.3 Valued functioning three

Pre-service teachers are orientated toward the child demonstrating ability to: create rapport with learners; motivate learners; accommodate for inclusivity; and engage all learners.

Guidelines for identifying capabilities and assessing the extent to which this functioning is achieved:

1. Rapport with learners is evident; learner names are used when they are addressed; learners are comfortable and confident; learners are willing to take risks and make errors; positive reinforcement is appropriately used.
2. Learners are given reason to value the learning: clear links are made between the content and the lived experience of the learners where possible.
3. Lessons are presented in a manner that ensures inclusivity: culturally sensitive classroom management is evident; a variety of instruction methods are used; sensitivity to language is evident.
4. All learners are actively engaged: active participation of all learners is encouraged and sensitivity to learners' attention is evident.

6.5.1.4 Valued functioning four

Pre-service teachers are able to utilise learner assessments to effectively inform practice and to engage critically and reflexively with their practice thereby enabling professional growth and meaningful learning.

Guidelines for identifying capabilities and assessing the extent to which this functioning is achieved:

1. Engages in critical self-reflection that contributes to professional growth: able to reflect on strengths and weaknesses as a teacher; documents personal growth and professional development.
2. Engages in lesson reflection, meaningfully assessing the successes or failures of the lesson.
3. Learner assessment used effectively to inform practice: learner assessment results are used to analyse the efficacy of each lesson and efforts made to re-teach ineffective lessons.

The following chapter discusses the key findings, the challenges faced during this study and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUDING REMARKS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This research has been guided by the question:

How can the expectations, scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers' teaching practices be utilised to promote a social reconstructionist agenda during the Teaching Practice component of initial teacher education?

This question enabled me to identify guidelines for the scaffolding and assessment of quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices, viewed from the perspective of social justice. The question was addressed in Phase 3 of the research and was based on the findings from three sub-questions.

- *What functionings and capabilities are valued as indicative of quality teaching practice within Teacher Education programmes?*

This question was addressed in Phase 1 of the research. In this phase, the functionings and capabilities valued by teacher education institutions were identified through document analysis and focus group interviews.

The other two sub-questions were:

- *How do the valued functionings and capabilities identified support a social reconstructionist agenda?*
- *What valued functionings and capabilities are necessary to support a social reconstructionist agenda?*

These questions were answered simultaneously in Phase 2 of the research. I identified the valued functionings emerging from the data that are aligned with a social reconstructionist agenda and those that are absent in the data.

The research was based on three goals. The first is that this study contributes to the development of a rich understanding of quality pre-service teaching practices through an exploration of teaching practices considered best in promoting learners' learning. The second is that it contributes to a body of knowledge in teacher education, specifically in relation to quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices and how quality teaching practices might be identified,

assessed and scaffolded. The third is that it offers guidelines for quality pre-service teachers' teaching practices with the view to promoting social justice and redress of historical and present inequalities in schooling in South Africa.

In response to the first goal it was necessary for me to consider how the broader framework provided by quality education literature could be applied to the classroom context to begin to identify quality guidelines specifically related to pre-service teachers' teaching practices. Through doing this, I was able to address the second goal. I used the understanding of quality teaching practices gained, to identify valued functionings and capabilities (from data and literature) that contribute to quality teaching practices for pre-service teachers that promote a social reconstructionist agenda. I took a social justice perspective utilising the capability approach and praxis as mechanisms for identification and description of valued functionings and capabilities that contribute to quality praxis thus ultimately promoting a social reconstructionist agenda in and through education. Based on this understanding, I was also able to address the third goal of the study. Four valued functionings that promote quality and social justice were identified and guidelines developed related to capabilities necessary for initial education programmes to ensure pre-service teachers achieve the valued functionings identified. These include:

- Pre-service teachers are able to plan and prepare lessons that are based on sound content knowledge, are well-structured, take differentiated learning into account and are systematically recorded.
- Pre-service teachers are able to present lessons in a manner that relates learning to the lived experience of the learners and takes into account: language of instruction; pacing; flexibility; formative learner feedback and ensures that all learners are able to access the content.
- Pre-service teachers are orientated toward the child, demonstrating the ability to: create rapport with learners; motivate learners; accommodate for inclusivity; and engage all learners.
- Pre-service teachers are able to utilise learner assessments to effectively inform practice and to engage critically and reflexively with their practice thereby enabling professional growth and meaningful learning.

7.2 KEY FINDINGS FROM MY RESEARCH

There is general agreement in initial teacher education literature (DHET, 2010a; Rusznyak & Moosa, 2014) that a quality concern exists as a result of inconsistency in “design, monitoring and assessment of teaching practice” (DHET, 2010a, p. 146). Contrary to this viewpoint, findings highlight that there *is consistency* across the documentation of the two participating HEIs with regards to the design of their TP programmes and the valued functionings and capabilities (monitoring and assessment mechanisms) of both. However, comparison between focus group data and documents revealed an *inconsistency* in functionings valued. In addition, focus group data revealed variation in the functionings valued by individual lecturers. This indicates that it may not be variation in design, monitoring and assessment, but rather variation in relation to lecturer expectations, that has the greater impact on inconsistency and thus should be the greater concern in discussions around quality in the sector.

Key findings relating to the valued functionings and capabilities identified are as follows. Firstly, for social justice goals to be prioritised and promoted through the scaffolding and assessment of pre-service teachers’ teaching practices, there needs to be greater clarity in the TP documentation. Clarity is required in respect to both expectations in relation to valued functionings and how the valued functionings can be achieved. This would ensure the capability, agency and conversion factors required for pre-service teachers to achieve the valued functionings. Secondly, the valued functionings indicative of quality pre-service teachers’ teaching practices, can be categorised into those that are foundational and those that promote a social justice agenda. Thirdly, in promoting a social justice agenda, there are functionings that ought to be valued by the HEIs that were not evident in the TP documentation and did not emerge during the focus group interviews.

7.3 CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED DURING THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Quality education research does not focus on teaching practices (Alexander, 2007) resulting in a paucity of research on indicators for quality teaching practices. In addition, such indicators do not exist in research that attempts to focus on praxis. This made this research novel and because of this novelty, it was necessary to develop a new theoretical framework. The three different, though related, concepts (social justice, capabilities and praxis) from which the theoretical framework emerged, are complex. This complexity caused initial challenges in relation to articulating and defining how they merged and supported one another to form the theoretical

framework for the study. In addition to this challenge, it was necessary for me to consider how the broader framework provided by the literature could be applied to teaching and learning in the classroom.

Another challenge (Chapters Three and Five), was that I found the language of the capability approach counter intuitive and at times confusing. Coming to a deep understanding of the differences between functionings and achieved functionings, as well as between capability, agency and conversion factors, took time.

In identifying the valued functionings, I realised that my data was limited to the TP documentation at both Funda and Hlohla universities and the focus group interviews with lecturers at Funda University. I do not know what aspects related to the valued functionings and capabilities are covered during the lectures in the Post Graduate Certificate of Education Foundation and Intermediate Phase (PGCE FP & IP) courses at both institutions.

As noted in Chapter Five, all five focus group participants were white females. This resulted from two contextual factors. The first reflects international trends where the majority of teachers and lecturers specialising in the primary phase of schooling are female. The racial singularity results from the fact that Funda University, where participants are based, is a historically white university. While transformation is a priority for the university, the majority of lecturers involved in the TP component of the primary education PGCE programme are white. This limits the social and cultural perspective shared in the focus group interviews.

While there was considerable consistency in terms of the valued functionings and capabilities between the two HEIs, this is a case study and the results cannot be generalised. Further research would need to be conducted across all the institutions that offer PGCE FP and IP programmes.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Research into the variation in lecturer expectations identified in this study could make a useful contribution to the quality concern around consistency in the TP component of Initial Teacher Education. This would involve an analysis of a broader sample set, focusing on consistencies and inconsistencies between: design, expectations and scaffolding of TP across institutions (as this is presented in documentation); functionings and capabilities valued in documentation and by

lecturers across institutions; and functionings and capabilities valued by lecturers and documentation within institutions. Where findings mirror those of this study, focus on how consistency could be promoted and scaffolded in relation to lecturer expectations could make a valuable contribution to concerns about quality in the sector.

For the purposes of this thesis, the study is concluded at Phase 3. It would be useful to take the study into a fourth phase in which the results of Phase 3 form the basis of a democratic, normative process of consultation and debate with key stakeholders, resulting in the development of a heuristic or rubric for use by lecturers during TP observations. Were such a heuristic to be broadly adopted by HEIs, this could potentially mitigate quality concerns in relation to the inconsistencies discussed above.

7.5 A FINAL WORD

My own understanding of teaching practices, and the ‘teaching’ of teaching practices, has developed significantly as a result of this study. In my experience as a lecturer, I have witnessed pre-service teachers who have had their teaching aspirations either unwaveringly confirmed or undoubtedly denied as a result of their TP experiences. As such, I was aware of the effect and power of the TP experience but, had not (prior to beginning this process) deeply engaged with the complexities of designing, scaffolding and assessing this essential and influential component of initial teacher education courses. I have come to appreciate that the complexities and personal nature of TP experiences make this a challenging, but also potentially greatly rewarding space.

I have found this research process to be personally fulfilling. I have been challenged through this journey to develop my academic research and writing skills and have grown both personally and professionally as a result of this experience.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Basic Competencies of a Beginner Teacher: Newly Qualified Teachers must ...

1. ... have sound subject knowledge.
2. ... know how to teach their subject(s) and how to select, determine the sequence and pace of content in accordance with both subject and learner needs.
- 3.... know who their learners are and how they learn; they must understand their individual needs and tailor their teaching accordingly.
- 4.... know how to communicate effectively in general, as well as in relation to their subject(s), in order to mediate learning.
5. ... have highly developed literacy, numeracy and Information Technology (IT) skills.
6. ... be knowledgeable about the school curriculum and be able to unpack its specialised content, as well as being able to use available resources appropriately, so as to plan and design suitable learning programmes.
7. ... understand diversity in the South African context in order to teach in a manner that includes all learners. They must also be able to identify learning or social problems and work in partnership with professional service providers to address these.
8. ... must be able to manage classrooms effectively across diverse contexts in order to ensure a conducive learning environment.
9. ... be able to assess learners in reliable and varied ways, as well as being able to use the results of assessment to improve teaching and learning.
10. ... must have a positive work ethic, display appropriate values and conduct themselves in a manner that befits, enhances and develops the teaching profession.
- 11.... must be able to reflect critically on their own practice, in theoretically informed ways and in conjunction with their professional community of colleagues in order to constantly improve and adapt to evolving circumstances.

APPENDIX B



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06 May 2016

To Whom It May Concern:

Re: Proposal and Ethics approval for Kelly Ann Long (9750169)

The minutes of the EHDC meeting of 25 April 2016 reflect the following:

**2016.04.2 CLASS B RESTRICTED MATTERS
MASTER OF EDUCATION RESEARCH PROPOSALS**

Master of Education (Full Thesis)

Kelly Ann Long (9750169)

Topic: Developing a heuristic for identification and assessment of quality student-teachers' teaching practices in primary school teacher education programmes in South Africa.

Supervisors: Prof Rob O'Donoghue & Ms Lisa Westaway

Decision: Accepted

This letter confirms the approval of the above proposal at a meeting of the Faculty of Education Higher Degrees' Committee on 25 April 2016.

In the event that the proposal demonstrates an awareness of ethical responsibilities and a commitment to ethical research processes, the approval of the proposal by the committee constitutes ethical clearance. This was the case with this proposal and the committee thus approved ethical clearance.

Yours truly

Prof. Mellony Graven
Chair of the EHDC, Rhodes University

APPENDIX C

Appendix C: Summative teaching practice assessment rubric

Student name: Fatima		Teacher understanding and thinking:	
Teacher understanding and thinking level: 4 Teacher Action level: 2 Recommended MARK: 63%		1: Pervasive misunderstanding of content knowledge; Little or no formal thought to the design of a learning process; reflective journal shows little engagement with issues around teaching and learning	2: Sometimes inadequate content knowledge; Conceptualisation of learning processes is often largely limited to what has been provided to the student; limited reflection on own teaching
Teacher action: Evidence from direct observation	1: Lessons are often not executed effectively, so little meaningful learning takes place and / or unprofessional conduct	44% or less	
	2: Student mostly able to capture initial attention of learners, but struggles to maintain interest and momentum throughout the lesson. Some worthwhile learning takes place Satisfactory professionalism	45 – 49%	50 – 54%
	3: Confident lesson delivery and responsive to queries of learners. Awareness of learner understanding. Satisfactory professionalism	Not applicable	55 – 59%
	4: Strong teaching performance in which learning is mediated effectively; Active monitoring of learner understanding; caters for different learning needs. Exemplary professionalism	Not applicable	60 – 64%
	5: Responds flexibly to classroom dynamics; exceptional responsiveness to diverse learning needs; creates safe, productive learning environment; Probes learner understanding; Exemplary professionalism	Not applicable	Not Applicable

APPENIDX D

Dear Kelly,

I'm sorry it's taken me so long to reply! However, the good news is that we are happy to participate.

Kind regards,

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

SOUTH AFRICA

[REDACTED]

From: Kelly [mailto:kelly@gadraed.co.za]
Sent: 20 July 2016 09:16
To: [REDACTED]
Cc: l.westaway@ru.ac.za
Subject: Med Research Request

[REDACTED]

I am studying toward my Master's degree in Education at [REDACTED] University under the supervision of Lise Westaway. I currently work as a project manager for a local education based NGO running the primary schools programmes for organisation. Much of our work focuses on in-service teacher training and on the development of supportive communities of practice within

the local public primary schooling community. I also lecture part-time in the PGCE and Bed programmes at [REDACTED]

My particular area of interest is in understanding quality education with particular reference to student-teachers' teaching practices. My research is centred on the development of a heuristic for both analysis of primary education Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) student-teachers' teaching practices and for scaffolding their classroom based learning during teaching practice. Please find my proposal attached.

The study is framed by a human capabilities perspective on quality education. The heuristic is anticipated to provide a developmental tool of emergent categories of functionings related to anticipated beginner teacher capabilities that is contextually relevant. It is my intention to develop the heuristic through analysis of current literature, TP guidelines from local HEI's offering PGCE FP & IP programmes and a consultative process with the [REDACTED] University TP team.

The document analysis phase of the research will require the study of TP related policies from a minimum of four South African HEI's including [REDACTED] University. I am writing to request consent to include the [REDACTED] in my study. Participation in the study would require access to any official TP related documentation for analysis. This would include:

- TP guidelines for students and mentors
- Evaluator guidelines
- Assessment rubrics
- Any other related documentation provided to student and assessors.

Please be assured that all expected ethical guidelines will be followed (please see attached ethical clearance for the study). All information will be kept anonymous and all documents will be kept confidential. Should the [REDACTED] consent to participation in the study I will ensure that you are provided with a copy of the final thesis. It is my intention to present the document analysis at the TP symposium in October to get feedback from a wider audience.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Kind Regards,

Kelly

APPENDIX E

Attestation of agreement and confidentiality

I, Kelly Long (the researcher) do hereby declare that all information obtained in this research will be treated with the strictest of confidence and that this information will only be seen by myself and my supervisors.

Signed _____

Date _____

I _____ (research participant) do hereby grant permission for this research to be conducted. I accept that the nature, method and purpose of this research has been explained. I have been informed that all data will be treated confidentially and that my identity will remain anonymous except to the researcher and the supervisors of the research.