

HANDBOOK OF TEACHER EDUCATION

*Globalization, Standards and
Professionalism in Times of Change*

Edited by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE	ix
---------	----

SECTION ONE GLOBALIZATION AND DIVERSITY: PROMISE OR PROBLEM?

1. TONY TOWNSEND AND RICHARD BATES / Teacher Education in a New Millennium: Pressures and Possibilities	3
2. JONATHAN JANSEN / Learning and Leading in a Globalized World: The Lessons from South Africa	25
3. AHMED M. AL-HINAI / The Interplay between Culture, Teacher Professionalism and Teachers' Professional Development at Times of Change	41
4. KONAI HELU THAMAN / Partnerships for Progressing Cultural Democracy in Teacher Education in Pacific Island Countries	53
5. JANINKA GREENWOOD AND LIZ BROWN / The Treaty, the Institution and the Chalkface: An Institution-wide Project in Teacher Education	67
6. IVAN REID, KEVIN BRAIN AND LOUISE COMERFORD BOYES / Where have all the Teachers Gone? Gone to be Leaders, Everyone	79

SECTION TWO STANDARDS AND ACCOUNTABILITY: WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO BE A GOOD TEACHER AND HOW CAN WE MAKE IT HAPPEN?

7. DAVID G. IMIG AND SCOTT R. IMIG / Quality in Teacher Education: Seeking a Common Definition	95
8. MIKE NEWBY / Standards and Professionalism: Peace Talks?	113
9. RICHARD BATES / Regulation and Autonomy in Teacher Education: System or Democracy?	127
10. LAWRENCE ANGUS / Globalisation and the Reshaping of Teacher Professional Culture: Do We Train Competent Technicians or Informed Players in the Policy Process?	141
11. AYSEN BAKIOGLU AND OZGE HACIFAZLIOGLU / Academics' Perceptions of Private University Establishment Standards and Teaching Quality	157

SECTION THREE
TEACHER PREPARATION: GETTING THE BRIGHTEST AND
MAKING THEM THE BEST

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----|
| 12. | BEVERLEY JANE / Mentoring in Teacher Education: An Experience that Makes a Difference for Fledgling University Students | 179 |
| 13. | JANETTE RYAN / Exploring ‘Lifewide Learning’ as a Vehicle for Shifting Pre-service Teachers’ Conceptions of Teaching and Learning | 193 |
| 14. | DAVID ZYNGIER / Productive Pedagogies: Seeking a Common Vocabulary and Framework for Talking about Pedagogy with Pre-service Teachers | 205 |
| 15. | ROBERT P. PELTON / From Performing to Performance: Can the Repositioning of Teacher Candidates Create a Measurable Impact on Children’s Achievement While Developing Positive Teaching Dispositions? | 219 |
| 16. | RUTH GORINSKI AND GLORIA ABERNETHY / Maori Student Retention and Success: Curriculum, Pedagogy and Relationships | 229 |
| 17. | MAHMOUD AL-WEHER AND MAJED ABU-JABER / The Effectiveness of Teacher Preparation Programs in Jordan: A Case Study | 241 |
| 18. | LYDIA PUNGUR / Mentoring as the Key to a Successful Student Teaching Practicum: A Comparative Analysis | 267 |
| 19. | TERI C. DAVIS AND BARBARA MOELY / Preparing Pre-service Teachers and Meeting the Diversity Challenge through Structured Service-learning and Field Experiences in Urban Schools | 283 |
| 20. | LORELEI CARPENTER AND BETTE BLANCE / Teaching Internships and the Learning Community | 301 |

SECTION FOUR
TEACHER INDUCTION: FROM NEOPHYTE TO
PROFESSIONAL IN THREE EASY STEPS

- | | | |
|-----|---|-----|
| 21. | IRIS RIGGS AND RUTH SANDLIN / Workplace Contexts of New Teachers: An American Tradition of “Paying One’s Dues” | 317 |
| 22. | H. JAMES McLAUGHLIN AND GAIL E. BURNAFORD / Re-thinking the Basis for “High Quality” Teaching: Teacher Preparation in Communities | 331 |
| 23. | ZACHARIAH O. WANZARE / The Transition Process: The Early Years of Being a Teacher | 343 |
| 24. | JULIE KIGGINS AND BRIAN CAMBOURNE / The Knowledge Building Community Program: A Partnership for Progress in Teacher Education | 365 |
| 25. | VICTOR FORRESTER AND JANET DRAPER / Newly Qualified Teachers in Hong Kong: Professional Development or Meeting one’s Fate? | 381 |
| 26. | JANET DRAPER, FIONA CHRISTIE AND JIM O’BRIEN / Meeting the Standard? The New Teacher Education Induction Scheme in Scotland | 391 |

SECTION FIVE
CONTINUOUS DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS:
THE CHALLENGE TO CHANGE

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----|
| 27. | MARION MEIERS / Teacher Professional Learning, Teaching Practice and Student Learning Outcomes: Important Issues | 409 |
| 28. | CHENG MAY HUNG, AU KIT OI, PANG KING CHEE AND CHEUNG LAI MAN / Defining the Meaning of Teacher Success in Hong Kong | 415 |
| 29. | IVAN REID, KEVIN BRAIN AND LOUISE COMERFORD BOYES / Networked Learning Communities: Joined up Working? | 433 |
| 30. | CHARLES PODHORSKY AND DOUGLAS FISHER / Lesson study: An Opportunity for Teacher Led Professional Development | 445 |
| 31. | MICHAEL AIELLO AND KEVIN WATSON / An Alternative Approach to CPD: an Evaluation of the Impact on Individual and Institutional Development of an Action Learning Programme Run in Partnership by an HE institution (HEI) and a Sixth Form College (SFC) | 457 |
| 32. | RUTH GORINSKI / Building Leadership Capability through Professional Development: A New Zealand Case Study Analysis | 465 |
| 33. | JILL SMITH / A Case Study: The Dilemmas of Biculturalism in Education Policy and Visual Arts Education Practice in Aotearoa-New Zealand | 479 |
| 34. | HARRISON TSE / Professional Development through Transformation: Linking Two Assessment Models of Teachers' Reflective Thinking and Practice | 495 |
| 35. | AMY A.M. YIP / Action Research and Tacit Knowledge: A Case of the Project Approach | 507 |
| 36. | MARGARET TAPLIN, DOROTHY NG FUNG PING AND HUANG FUQIAN / The Impact of a Collaborative Model for Curriculum Restructuring on Teachers' Professional Growth | 523 |
| 37. | DANJUN YING / Teacher Educators' Collaborative Inquiry in a Context of Educational Innovation in China – A Case Study of RICH as a Learning Community | 539 |

SECTION SIX
THE REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONER: THE WAY FORWARD

- | | | |
|-----|---|-----|
| 38. | NEIL HOOLEY / Participation and the Question of Knowledge | 557 |
| 39. | ALEX MOORE / Understanding the Social Self: The Role and Importance of Reflexivity in Schoolteachers' Professional Learning | 571 |
| 40. | JOHN LOUGHRAN / Teachers as Leaders: Building a Knowledge Base of Practice through Researching Practice | 585 |
| 41. | CHRISTOPHER DAY / School Reform and Transitions in Teacher Professionalism and Identity | 597 |

42. EILEEN HONAN / Teachers Engaging in Research as Professional Development 613

SECTION SEVEN
THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY: TOOL OF THE
TRADE OR THE TERROR FOR TEACHERS?

43. GLENN RUSSELL AND GLENN FINGER / ICTs and Tomorrow's Teachers: Informing and Improving the ICT Undergraduate Experience 627
44. PAUL GATHERCOAL, JUDITH CROWE, SILVA KARAYAN, THOMAS MCCAMBRIDGE, SUSANNE MALISKI, DOUGLAS O. LOVE AND GERRY W. MCKEAN / Webfolios: Authentic of State and Accreditation Standards 641
45. MURIEL WELLS / Collaborative Online Projects in a Global Community 657
46. MANJULA WANIGANAYAKE, SUSAN WILKS AND RON LINSER / Creating Thinking Professionals: Teaching and Learning about Professional Practice Using Interactive Technology 675
47. CHRISTINE GARDNER AND JOHN WILLIAMSON / The Complexities of Learning to Teach: "Just What Is It That I Am Doing?" 691
48. GLENN RUSSELL AND GEOFF ROMEO / Pre-Service Teachers Self-perceptions of ICTE: An Australian Perspective 711

AFTERWORD

- RICHARD BATES AND TONY TOWNSEND / The Future of Teacher Education: Challenges and Opportunities 727

APPENDICES

- The Editors 737
- Information About the Authors 739

- INDEX 745

PREFACE

This book has its origins in conversations that started when the International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET) and the Australian Teacher Education Association (ATEA) jointly agreed to co-sponsor a World Assembly of Teacher Educators in Melbourne in July 2003, hosted by Monash University. The editors of this book were not only intimately involved in the management of the conference but had also been key figures in the Associations involved. Tony Townsend had been secretary, and on the national board of the South Pacific Association for Teacher Education (SPATE), which later became ATEA and had previously managed a SPATE conference in Frankston, Australia, in the 1980s. He is currently the President of ICET and now works at Florida Atlantic University. Richard Bates has been a long time board member of ATEA and is currently President of that organization. He is also a Board member of ICET.

The International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET) was founded in 1953 for the purpose of emphasizing international cooperation in educational development in order to improve the quality of teacher education as well as to expand global educational opportunities for people in teacher education. Since that time, ICET has developed into an international association of practitioners of teacher education, policy and decision-makers in education, government and business dedicated to global development through education. ICET is a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) and participates in NGO meetings and other UNESCO-sponsored conferences around the world.

Scholars, administrator, practitioners from universities, colleges, departments and institutes of education as well as members of government ministries, the teaching profession and business leaders that are interested in educational development participate in ICET and share their ideas, research and experience with other professionals from around the world. The main goals of ICET are:

- To foster international cooperation in improving the quality of preparation of teachers, administrators and other education specialists through the development of national, regional and international networks.
- To promote cooperation between higher education institutions, government and the private sector to develop a worldwide network of resources for innovative programs in international educational development.
- To provide an international forum for the exchange of information and the discussion of issues and trends in education and development.
- To assist educational personnel training institutions all over the world to respond to the need for improved facilities, diversified curricula and alternative and non-traditional educational methods.

The Australian Teacher Education Association (ATEA) is the major professional association for teacher educators in Australia. The mission of the Australian Teacher Education Association is to promote:

- The preservice and continuing education of teachers in all forms and contexts;
- teacher education as central in the educational enterprise of the nation;
- research on teacher education as a core endeavour.

The Association enacts this mission through several key strategies, namely:

- to foster improvement in initial teacher education;
- to engage in national advocacy for teacher education;
- to promote and support the teaching profession;
- to form strong links with individuals and organisations involved in educational change;
- to improve the nature, quality and availability of professional development for teachers educators, and
- to promote and disseminate research, ideas and practices, innovation and evaluation in teacher education.

The Melbourne Conference was a good example of ICET and ATEA at their best. With a partnership between an international and a national association, it was able to bring key speakers and delegates from all over the world to consider its theme ‘Teachers as Leaders: Teacher Education for a Global Profession’. The keynote speakers and the papers contained topics of such interest that we felt that it was timely to gather together a series of perspectives of critical issues facing teacher education at this time. This idea was supported by Michel Lokhorst, then editor of Kluwer-Springer and has been subsequently been followed through by Astrid Noordermeer of Springer. The editors would like to acknowledge both people for their support, without which this book could not have been published.

In addition, we dedicate this book to the thousands of teacher educators around the world, many of whom are feeling under various types of pressure, from the community and the government, from lack of funding and other resources and from an increasingly difficult task that faces them, for their sustained commitment to developing young people into the teaching force necessary to confront a rapidly changing and increasingly complex world.

SECTION ONE

GLOBALIZATION AND DIVERSITY:
PROMISE OR PROBLEM?

1. TEACHER EDUCATION IN A NEW MILLENNIUM: PRESSURES AND POSSIBILITIES

INTRODUCTION

Teacher education is currently facing a number of tensions as pressures have come from many quarters in the last decade, with perhaps the most intense focus being on the issue of teacher quality. This call for an improvement in the quality of teachers is welcomed by many, but there are inherent dangers too. Cochran-Smith (2004a, p. 3) writes:

Over the past several years, a new consensus has emerged that teacher quality is one of the most, if not the most, significant factor in students' achievement and educational improvement. In a certain sense, of course, this is good news, which simply affirms what most educators have believed for years: teachers' work is important in students' achievement and in their life chances. In another sense, however, this conclusion is problematic, even dangerous. When teacher quality is unequivocally identified as the primary factor that accounts for differences in student learning, some policy makers and citizens may infer that individual teachers alone are responsible for the successes and failures of the educational system despite the mitigation of social and cultural contexts, support provided for teachers' ongoing development, the historical failure of the system to serve particular groups, the disparate resources devoted to education across schools and school systems, and the match or mismatch of school and community expectations and values. Influenced by the new consensus about teacher quality, some constituencies may infer that "teachers teaching better" is the panacea for disparities in school achievement and thus conclude that everybody else is off the hook for addressing the structural inequalities and differential power relations that permeate our nation's schools.

The issue of increasingly varied demographic conditions that have led to students from all over the world being in a single classroom, with the associated need for teachers to deal with multiculturalism, whether they like it or not, has created a new complexity not faced by most teachers a decade or so ago. Teacher shortages in some parts of the world has led to the possibility of teachers moving from one country to another as the demand for teachers and associated wage rates make teaching a market unlike we have experienced before. As teachers increasingly are blamed for lack of student performance, as politicians choose to offset any responsibility they have for the conditions under which teachers work, so too, teacher educators are targeted as being one of the problems associated with what is perceived to be low levels of student achievement.

These and other dilemmas for teacher education institutions and teacher educators open up the opportunity for a detailed analysis of a number of major issues using data collected from around the world. The key issues of globalization versus diversity, the need for high quality pre-service programs, for well managed and supported integration of new teachers into the teaching force and ongoing professional development for that workforce, lead to two of the major factors that will impinge on the teaching profession in the future; the need for the teacher to become a consistent, reflective practitioner and the need to use rapidly developing technologies, both ICT and other learning technologies, in an increasingly effective manner, to promote high quality student learning for all students.

It is a fairly trying time for teacher educators, as well as for anyone else in education. In many western countries, governments are now thinking that the cost of educating their populations should be lowered at the same time as they expect school administrators, teachers, and teacher educators, to do much more, in more difficult circumstances, than they have ever done before. This has been translated by government as the need to have 'highly qualified teachers' in front of every classroom. US Secretary of Education, Margaret Spellings, in her 2005 report on teacher quality argued the focus should be on:

... the essential principles for building outstanding teacher preparation programs in the 21st century and ... on the critical teaching skills all teachers must learn. In particular, all teacher preparation programs must provide teachers with solid and current content knowledge and essential skills. These include the abilities to use research-based methods appropriate for their content expertise; to teach diverse learners and to teach in high-need schools; and to use data to make informed instructional decisions. Successful and promising strategies for promoting these skills include making teacher education a university-wide commitment; strengthening, broadening, and integrating field experience throughout the preparation program; strengthening partnerships; and creating quality mentoring and support programs.

(Spellings, 2005, p. iii)

Each of these strategies involves the necessity of doing things differently than how they were done in the past. Typically, Colleges of Education are seen as being at the bottom of the totem pole in universities, with some disciplines arguing that Teacher Education shouldn't even be there in the first place.

As well, comparatively recent research activity, now called the school effectiveness movement, has tried to show that schools can and do make a difference, as a refutation of the earlier work by Coleman and others in the 1960s which concluded:

Schools bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context.

(Coleman *et al.*, 1966, p. 325)

However, the school effectiveness research has been a double-edged sword. As Reynolds has argued, the school effectiveness research has had the positive effect of

‘helping to destroy the belief that schools can do nothing to change the society around them ... and the myth that the influence of the family is so strong on children’s development that they are unable to be affected by school’ (Reynolds, 1994, p. 2), but he also argues that it has had the negative effect of ‘creating the widespread, popular view that schools do not just make a difference, but that they make all the difference’ (Reynolds, 1994, p. 2).

This fairly new expectation that every student can and will be educated to high levels of achievement, as typified by the *No Child Left Behind Act* in the USA, has been made more difficult by a government that chooses to spend less on all forms of education than previously. Although nearly 60% of Americans indicated they would vote for a presidential candidate with a strong focus on public education and who would funnel more resources into education (Public Education, 2004), in February 2005, President Bush called for almost a 10% cut in education funding for the 2005–06 year, which would have seen the elimination of 48 programs (AACTE Briefs, March 21, 2005).

The challenge is even greater when one looks at student achievement historically in the United States. For almost thirty years, the percentage of students who achieve proficiency has remained at approximately 30%. To imply that teachers, and teacher educators, can somehow increase this percentage to 100% or somewhere close to it, with less funding at the classroom level and less public support for the profession than ever before suggests that *No Child Left Behind* might simply be another slogan to disguise a chronic and perhaps unmovable level of underperformance. One might ask why the richest country in the world, one that could put man on the moon, when it put its mind to it, fails to educate nearly seventy percent of its people? One possible answer is that, as a community, it chooses not to. A commitment to address the real social issues that support underachievement in school would have far greater implications than any new slogan might have.

Instead, there have been reports in some parts of the world that suggest that teachers are not well trained. Much of the criticism has been directed at the training institutions.

Schools of Education ... are neither preparing teachers adequately to use the concrete findings of the best research in education, nor are they providing their students with a thoughtful and academically rich background in the fundamentals of what it means to be an outstanding educator.

(Steiner and Rozen, 2003, np)

Comments such as these have led to a lowering of status for teachers and, in many cases, an unwillingness on the part of young people to enter the profession. To try and overcome this, alternative ways of certifying teachers has emerged. The 2003 Report to Congress by then Secretary Rod Paige (see www.title2.org), indicated the Bush government’s commitment to ‘raising the academic standards for teachers while lowering the barriers that are keeping many talented people out of the teaching profession’ and the response to this has been twofold. First there has been a push to increase the responsibility on Colleges of Education to improve what they do, and this has been accompanied by more focused attention on certain areas (such as

Reading) and much higher standards of accreditation. Governments raised the expectations about the level of ability required by graduates of teacher education institutions, to the extent that in some places, laws have been passed that hold Colleges of Education responsible for the achievement of the students that their graduates teach, regardless of the conditions under which they work in the field. If a principal complains that a new teacher is not as good as they require, the College of Education must undertake, at their cost, the remedial activity requested.

At the same time, many governments, because of the shortage of teachers available, are setting up alternative methods for people to enter the teaching force. Some of these alternative programs involve very little, if any, academic training in the practice of pedagogy. Temporary Certification is handed out to almost anyone with a degree and a willingness to do the job. Thus at a time when teacher education institutions are being held accountable for their graduates, other people who may not have any training at all are being encouraged to become teachers. If this is not a contradiction, we are not sure what is.

David Imig, President of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, interpreted this as meaning 'increasing prospective teachers' content knowledge while lowering requirements in pedagogy or teacher education' (Imig, 2004, p. 2). This has brought about the situation where people who have an undergraduate degree in 'one of the so-called core subjects' (Ibid, p. 2) are given a fast-track alternative program to get them into the front of the classrooms as soon as possible. What is being said here is that anyone who has the content knowledge can become a teacher. It suggests that there is only minimal inherent training required to teach. This has led to the position where 'instead of investing in traditional preparation, the government will continue to invest millions in alternative certification and in studies that might show the success of alternative efforts' (Ibid, p. 2).

This move to alternative certification closely parallels the move towards charter schools as the chosen mechanism for improving public education in the US. Here, schools are given the choice to opt out of the system and determine their own course and future. The *No Child Left Behind* website (<http://www.ed.gov/nclb/landing.jhtml?src=pb>) is instructive in that it is, in effect, an advertising mechanism for charter schools. Yet all of the evidence suggests that charter schools, by and large, are no more nor less successful than are public schools. As in the public school system, the demographics of the students, the passion and ability of the teachers and the pressure of the parents will lead to the outcomes the school has. In some cases, charter schools have improved student achievement, in some cases they have got worse, but in most cases the results are similar to what they were previously. One might argue, that since the parents had made the decision to remove their child from the public school system, that the level of parental pressure in a charter school would be higher than that in a comparative public school. If this was so, then charter schools should make a difference. When they didn't, the US Government conveniently changed the argument for having charter schools from one related to quality to one related to choice.

However, we would argue that such moves, at both the school and College of Education level are based on at least a simplistic view, if not on completely misguided perceptions, of the real world. This book seeks to focus on a number of key issues that teacher educators must consider if the arguments being made above are to be discussed in a rational and careful way. All of these things seem to oversimplify what is a very complex experience, namely learning. It may well be true that what happens in classrooms and what happens in schools accounts for substantial variance in student achievement, but at the very least, 40% of this variance can be attributed to factors that are completely outside of the teachers' and the schools' control. Research is suggesting that we only know about 20% of the power of the human mind at this point in time, but what we do know indicates that our experiences, both in the community and at school, play a large role in how well we learn, what we learn and what is likely to be the outcome of this learning.

The book is divided into seven separate but connected sections, each of which considers one of these issues. The issues that are discussed, in a way that enables a multitude of perspectives from different countries and systems to be considered, are:

- Globalization and Diversity: Promise or Problem?
- Standards and Accountability: What does it mean to be a Good Teacher and how can we make it happen?
- Teacher Preparation: Getting the Brightest and Making them the Best
- Teacher Induction: From Neophyte to Professional in three easy steps
- Continuous Development of Teachers: The Challenge to Change
- The Reflective Practitioner: The Way Forward
- The Impact of Technology: Tool of the Trade or the Terror for Teachers?

In each of these sections we have provided a series of chapters, from authors in many parts of the world, to consider ways in which these issues have impacted on various systems. A brief description of what is contained in these sections follows

SECTION ONE: GLOBALIZATION AND DIVERSITY: PROMISE OR PROBLEM?

Increasing globalization has impacted on teacher education in terms of teachers now having to understand and cater for a diverse population. In certain parts of the world there are now classrooms where a multitude of languages are spoken and where different religious and cultural understandings must be considered when teaching. A teacher can no longer assume that what seemed to be right to a white western middle class community, will have meaning for students from other countries that have different cultural values, different understandings of the values important for human development and different habits and structures of knowledge. This has brought about the need for a substantial shift in teacher attitudes about the task and substantial change in terms of the teacher education program offered by universities.

This is not seen as being positive by all commentators. The impact of the global economy on education can make life difficult for teachers and may even make it impossible for teachers to provide the type of education they were trained for:

The role and function of education are undergoing dramatic changes in response to these economic imperatives. The notion of a broad liberal education is struggling for its very survival in a context of instrumentalism and technocratic rationality where the catchwords are “vocationalism,” “skills formation,” “privatization,” “commodification,” and “managerialism.”

(Smyth and Shacklock, 1998, p. 19)

This has led to a worldwide attempt to ‘manage’ what happens in schools by politicians and others. The outcome has been a reductionist view of what schools and teachers should do.

Coupled with this is a worldwide move towards recentralising control over education through national curricula, testing, appraisal, policy formulation, profiling, auditing, and the like, while giving the impression of decentralization and handling control down locally. The image of education is also revamped by reconfiguring the work of teaching so that teachers appear more as deliverers of knowledge, testers of learning and pedagogical technicians.

(Smyth and Shacklock, 1998, p. 20)

Certainly the diversity of most communities in many parts of the world has made teaching and educating teachers much more difficult than it has ever been before and there are expectations that teacher education needs to develop teachers who have learned to teach with a cultural eye (Irvine, 2003). As well, people who are trained to teach in a particular geographical area of the world (and governments are pretty specific about what they want these days) may end up teaching in a different part of the world or, at the very least, be teaching students from many parts of the world and whose culture and context were not considered at all during the period in training.

This section considers the issue of how globalization has impacted, in particular on countries still trying to establish a strong all-inclusive education system, based on the best ideas from other parts of the world but still maintaining the cultural integrity of the people. First, Jonathan Jansen describes how the overthrow of the apartheid regime brings new issues for educational development. A key focus of the chapter will be on the intersections between power, policy and practice within schools and classrooms; and on the ways in which teacher identities have been shaped and re-shaped as a consequence. Simply bringing two previously separated groups together in institutions of learning does not ensure reconciliation of the two groups.

In Oman, where the government seeks to move from largely an expatriate workforce to one that is mostly local, Ahmed M. Al-Hinai examines the way in which cultural issues interact with the ways in which teachers become more professional.

Konai Helu Thaman, from Fiji, discusses the concern among educators and educationists about the low quality of primary and secondary education in many Pacific Island Countries despite over 30 years of mainly donor-aided educational reforms. Some reasons for this include the apparent lack of ownership of the processes as well as the content of school education by the people themselves and the continuing dominance of foreign ideas and ideologies in Pacific school curricula.

Janinka Greenwood and Liz Brown, from New Zealand, consider the issue of quality in western terms being balanced by the need to consider local culture. There is a need to interpret a 150 year old treaty, the Treaty of Waitangi, in order to balance what the indigenous people require with the demands of the globalized world. They also consider how concepts of capacity building and decolonisation with a consideration of both Maori and Pakeha (white) perspectives might be developed.

Finally, from England, Ivan Reid, Kevin Brain and Louise Comerford Boyes trace the dramatic proliferation of leadership roles in English primary and secondary schools, due mainly to central government education policy of the last two decades. The chapter considers the ways in which teacher education institutions have responded in terms of providing initial and in-service education and training to equip the profession for this new and developing challenge.

SECTION TWO: STANDARDS AND ACCOUNTABILITY:
WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO BE A GOOD TEACHER
AND HOW CAN WE MAKE IT HAPPEN?

The Standards and Accountability movement, which started in schools more than a decade ago, has now moved to the training of teachers as the next step in the process. It has been argued that there are a number of factors that have led to the increasing surveillance of teacher education:

Among these are a deep-seated and growing distrust of teacher education; a change in the locus of control, with national policy emerging as a dominant influence; restructuring of licensing and governance; and reconceptualizing the nature of standards, with performance and outcomes assuming a preeminent role.

(Roth, 1996, p. 242 cited in Tellez, 2003)

Unlike most other reforms in education, in curriculum, in pedagogy and in areas of student welfare and support, that are mostly driven by teachers and administrators seeking to improve what they do on a day to day basis, the standards and accountability movement has been driven by people outside of education, based mostly on the idea that we can no longer trust educators to do what is right. Tellez (2003, p.11) argues:

Like nearly every other reform of the twentieth century, the accountability reforms of today did not emerge from the ranks of local educators'

wishes or outcries of student need. Rather, such reforms, in retrospect, have their origins in groups or organizations with enough power, money, or combination of the two to dictate the reform dimensions.

He suggests that, rather than being done for any purpose of improvement, the accountability movement became a new toy for politicians to play with:

The so-called success of the standards movement in K-12 has, I believe, led to the creation of standards in teacher education. The political expediency of the accountability movement has encouraged policy makers, many of whom are otherwise friendly to the issues teachers and teacher educators hold dear, to embrace standards wherever they are found. Legislators have found a hammer in the accountability movement and everything now looks like a nail. If standards and accountability have worked in the K-12 system, then they should be applied to all the endeavors funded by the state, including teacher education.

(Tellez, 2003, p. 11)

This section considers the tensions created by the standards and accountability movement in various countries. David and Scott Imig discuss the scene in the US, which perhaps has driven much of the standards and accountability activity in the last decade where the political nature of the debate creates dangers for all concerned. They focus on the politicalization of teacher education and speculate as to the reasons for this movement, particularly in the context of the United States.

Then Mike Newby considers the progress in England, where surveillance has replaced trust. He discusses the experience of teacher education and training that has been dominated by the battle between the policy-makers and funders establishing and inspecting standards of performance, on the one hand, and the practitioners seeking an alternative model more faithful to the real work of teaching, on the other.

Richard Bates discusses how increasing regulation raises many social and ethical issues in Australia and looks at the challenge such prescriptions pose to curriculum, pedagogical and assessment strategies in schools and suggests that such regulation serves the democratic state less well than a more autonomous form of education.

Lawrence Angus provides details of how this plays out in one Australian school and analyses how school managers and teachers deal with government policy intervention and, in the process, both willingly and unwillingly become complicit in the reconstruction of a global education policy agenda.

Finally, Aysen Bakioglu and Ozge Hacifazlioglu discuss the differences between public and private universities in Turkey and how they are perceived by faculty working in them. The chapter discusses student views on their learning, the course content and teaching methods and considers the implications of the trend for public universities to seek revenue through increasing teaching hours with a proportional decrease in research.

SECTION THREE: TEACHER PREPARATION:
GETTING THE BRIGHTEST AND MAKING THEM THE BEST

The concerns identified in the previous two sections, increasing globalization and diversity and a focus on standards and accountability for teacher education come at a time when many western nations are facing a teacher shortage of unprecedented proportions. There are various predictions in the US that national demands will reach 2 million teachers in the next few years due to the factors mentioned above (Darling-Hammond *et al.*, 1999; Oakes, *et al.*, 2002). So at a time when there are higher and higher demands for the graduates of teacher education institutions, the need for putting bodies in front of classrooms has led to a lowering of entry standards for people who enter through other means. Darling-Hammond, *et al.* (2002, p. 286) report:

In California, for example, the number of teachers hired on emergency permits increased from 12,000 in the early 1990s to more than 40,000 in 2001, or about 14% of the workforce (Shields et al., 2001). In California and nationally, underqualified teachers are disproportionately assigned to teach minority and low-income students (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996, 1997).

However, it is necessary to make sure that such teachers have the skills required for the job, regardless of how they came into the profession. It is not just finding any teacher that is important, but finding the right teacher, with the right skills for the right situation. Sleeter (2001, p. 94), after conducting an analysis of 80 studies of the 'effects of various preservice teacher education strategies, including recruiting and selecting students, cross-cultural immersion experiences, multicultural education coursework, and program restructuring', argued:

Most of the research focuses on addressing the attitudes and lack of knowledge of White preservice students. This review argues that although this is a very important problem that does need to be addressed, it is not the same as figuring out how to populate the teaching profession with excellent multicultural and culturally responsive teachers.

There has also been concern expressed that teacher education institutions may not be up to the task, mostly because of their resistance to change. While editor of the *Journal of Teacher Education*, Marilyn Cochran-Smith (2001a, p. 347) wrote:

Despite many reform initiatives over the years, however, it has been widely perceived that teacher education has been almost "impervious" to genuine reform (Fullan, 1998; Goodlad, 1990), failing to keep pace with the conditions of a changing society even when they threatened its very existence (Imig & Switzer, 1996). Perhaps it is the combination of a perceived historical failure to change coupled with the unprecedented intensity of current public attention that have prompted so many recent initiatives by prestigious national organizations and foundations that are

related to teaching and teacher education, teachers' qualifications, and teacher quality.

So the issue of recruiting and training new teachers is much more complex than it was a decade ago. This section looks at a number of ways in which teacher education institutions have attempted to ensure that the teachers being graduated from their programs do have the skills and the desire necessary to move into the profession in ways that will improve what happens in schools. First, Beverly Jane talks about the need to mentor students into a university in the first place, as moving from school to university can, in itself, lead to a high dropout rate. This chapter reveals, from the perspective of one group of students, the process of group interaction in a mentoring program, and how they came to find their identity as university students.

Janette Ryan argues that recent times have seen a questioning of content-driven, discipline-based curricula in schools. There have been moves away from these approaches towards curricula based on the skills and strategies required in a rapidly changing world. This has resulted in initiatives aimed at promoting 'new learning' approaches in schools. This chapter reports on an Australian university's initiative that used the concept of 'lifewide learning', to encourage a shift in students' conceptualisations of teaching and learning.

Then, David Zyngier argues that Australian teacher educators and teachers have become increasingly familiar with the notion of 'Productive Pedagogies', a product of longitudinal research on school reform recently undertaken in Queensland. One of its strengths has been its efficacy for teachers to talk about their pedagogical work. This chapter considers the value of Productive Pedagogies as a metalanguage for developing preservice teachers' knowledge and understanding of teaching.

Robert P. Pelton argues that teacher candidates have a long history of focusing on "performing lessons" rather on their impact on children's achievement. The chapter discusses the restructuring of the field placement component for a group of education majors at a small private US college and demonstrates how Action Research was used to shift the focus from "performing" lessons to the impact on, and the subsequent performance of, young learners.

Ruth Gorinski & Gloria Abernethy, from New Zealand, report on the findings of an investigative case study that sought to answer the question: "What are the issues confronting Maori student participation and retention in one department in this institution?" The chapter discusses the relationship between curricular transformation, classroom pedagogy and relationships and enhanced retention and success for Maori teaching students.

Mahmoud Al-Weher and Majed Abu-Jaber discuss three different methods of teacher preparation in Jordan. The chapter argues that teacher preparation programs where educational and academic courses were both taught excel over programs that only have academic courses, based on teacher self-assessments, student assessment of teachers, and school principals' assessments of teachers in five areas.

Lydia Pungur argues for the importance of the mentoring process in pre-service training. The chapter argues that the essence of a successful teaching practicum is

effective mentor-student teacher relationships and the forging of a close association with the academic world. A conceptual model for an ideal student teaching program, based on school coordinator, mentor teacher, and university facilitators working closely together with common goals for the student teacher, is presented and discussed.

Then, Teri C. Davis and Barbara Moely discuss a recently-implemented teacher preparation program that offers students a range of service-learning experiences throughout their academic careers. Finally, Lorelei Carpenter and Bette Blance argue that internship offered as an integral part of the teacher education programs, has wide ranging benefits. These include the development of robust school university partnerships, the provision of professional development for practising teachers and the provision of teacher education students with a sustained teaching experience that prepares for the challenges and complexity of the classroom.

SECTION FOUR: TEACHER INDUCTION: FROM NEOPHYTE TO PROFESSIONAL IN THREE EASY STEPS

Education systems and teacher education programs need to support the induction of young teachers into the workforce in ways that ensure their retention over time. Huling *et al.* (2001, p. 326) argue that the teacher shortage in the US has come about because of three intersecting issues:

Today, the nation is facing an unprecedented teacher shortage that will undoubtedly result in increased attention to alternative certification programs as a possible means of addressing the school-staffing crisis. The teacher shortage is being created by a "triple whammy" of increasing student enrollments, an aging teacher force transitioning from the classroom into retirement, and a high teacher attrition rate, especially among novice teachers.

It is the third of these causes, the high teacher attrition rate that this section seeks to address. Kelley (2004, p. 438) argues:

Recent reports further suggest that staffing needs may not be due to overall shortages of qualified teachers entering the profession but rather by large numbers of teachers migrating to other schools or leaving the profession altogether (Ingersoll, 2000, 2001, 2002). Ingersoll's (2001) analysis of the national Schools and Staffing Survey and Teacher Follow-Up Survey found that more than a third of beginning teachers leave the profession during the first 3 years, and almost half leave after 5 years.

Cochran-Smith (2004b, pp. 387–388) concurs with this analysis of Ingersoll's work:

Ingersoll's analyses challenge the conventional wisdom that the teacher shortage in the United States is due to a simple imbalance between supply and demand caused by large numbers of teacher retirements, increased student enrollments, and an insufficient supply of new teachers. Instead,

Ingersoll reveals that it is true that both student enrollments and teacher retirements have increased since the mid-1980s, that most schools now have job openings, and that a significant number of schools have been unable to find enough qualified teachers. However, it is not true that most teachers who leave teaching do so because of retirement, and it also is not true that an insufficient number of teachers is being produced. To the contrary, Ingersoll (2004) argues that although there are not necessarily enough teachers produced in every field, there are overall, "more than enough prospective teachers produced each year in the U.S. (p. 8).

It could be argued that much of this attrition is due to young teachers, who, newly emerging from their training, are given the hardest classes, the most unruly students and are left, by and large, to enter their classroom, shut the classroom door, and fend for themselves. Kelley (2004, p. 438) argues:

Although other professions provide transitional assistance for new members (e.g., residents in medicine, interns in architecture, and associates in law), historically the education profession has ignored the support needs of its new recruits and has been described as "the profession that eats its young" (Halford, as cited in Renard, 1999, p. 227).

Although issues of induction into the teaching profession have come a long way since this time, we could argue that we are still at the front end of the development. Sharon Feiman-Nemser (2001, p. 17) argues:

There is growing interest in the problem of teacher induction and widespread support for the idea of assigning experienced teachers to work with beginning teachers. Still, we know relatively little about what thoughtful mentor teachers do, how they think about their work, and what novices learn from their interactions with them.

This section examines some of the activities that are currently occurring to support young teachers to enter the profession in a way that will assist them to be successful. First, Iris Riggs and Ruth Sandlin consider pre-induction and post-induction differences in mentors' self-perceived competence in professional teaching standards. Mentors reported that their ability to implement each standard area significantly changed in a positive direction after serving as an induction mentor. The chapter argues that induction may not only be beneficial to new teachers but also to the mentor teachers supporting the novices.

Jim McLaughlin and Gail Burnaford discuss the difficulty that the US faces in training, employing and retaining sufficient high quality teachers for the needs that are on the horizon. They argue that one of the characteristics of high quality teachers is their ability to interact in a positive way with the community in which they work. The chapter reports on the internship experiences of teacher students working in Chicago and Mexico and identifies the positive outcomes for both the student and the community.

Then, Zachariah Wanzare discusses the transition from pre-service training into the profession of teaching, a shift that is seldom smooth. Whereas most teachers in pre-service training begin their education programs with confidence, optimism, and a strong calling to the teaching profession, newly-qualified teachers' dreams, hopes, aspirations, and optimism often turn into disappointments and frustration. This chapter discusses the challenges experienced by beginning teachers during their transition into the teaching profession and the strategies to facilitate their success in the workplace.

Julie Kiggins and Brian Cambourne consider three different but complimentary perspectives concerning an alternative model of teacher education offered in an Australian university. The chapter discusses the Knowledge Building Community (KBC) Project, where an alternative model of teacher education was a joint venture of a Faculty of Education, a Department of Education and a Teachers' Federation. The chapter discusses the triadic partnership between preservice teachers, school-based mentor teachers and university facilitators that was developed.

Then, Victor Forrester and Janet Draper consider issues related to the new teacher's induction into the profession, including global and local influences such as educational reforms, demographic changes, concern about standards and the professional ladder, teacher supply and retention and pressures for school effectiveness and improvement, which leave 'new' teachers bearing the brunt of new educational policies. They discuss Nicholson and West's (1989) model of induction, which suggests four stages: preparation, encounter, adjustment and stabilisation and argue that good induction includes the provision of useful information to staff both before and when they arrive in post, the provision of support for survival in the early stages and feedback on their teaching.

Janet Draper, Fiona Christie and Jim O'Brien discuss a new probation arrangement for teachers in Scotland, in the form of a new induction scheme, which saw new teachers entitled to a one year training post with a 70% workload, 30% of working time for professional development and 10% of an experienced teacher's time for support, but with a training grade salary and the imperative to meet the Standard for Full Registration (SFR) by the end of the first year. The chapter explores the experiences of beginning teachers drawing on data collected by interview and questionnaire from the teachers themselves, their mentors, induction managers and employers.

SECTION FIVE: CONTINUOUS DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS: THE CHALLENGE TO CHANGE

Levin and Rock (2003, p. 135) argue:

Recent scholarship on professional development for teachers calls for change. According to Sparks and Hirsh (1997), it is time to find ways to move beyond the dominant training-focused models of professional development to modes that support learner-centered views of teaching. Lieberman (1995) characterized effective professional development as that which is grounded in inquiry, reflection, and participant driven experimentation, naming the role of teacher-researcher as an appropriate means.

The movement towards developing professional learning communities and networks of teachers and others working together has become a major force in changing what happens in schools. Lieberman (2000, p. 221) argues:

Educational reform networks are particularly well suited to making use of new technology and institutional arrangements. By their very nature, they are flexible, borderless, and innovative; they are able to create collaborative environments, focus their efforts, and develop agendas that grow and change with their participants.

This has changed the interactions that teachers have with each other and has resulted, in many cases, in much more cross fertilization of what teachers do. Meier (1992, p. 602) argues:

At the very least, one must imagine schools in which teachers are in frequent conversation with each other about their work, have easy and necessary access to each other's classrooms, take it for granted that they should comment on each other's work, and have the time to develop common standards for student work.

This section looks at some strategies used by teacher education institutions to foster the further development of teachers after they have completed their initial training. Marion Meiers argues that evaluation of teacher professional development can operate on a number of levels. At one level, data can be gathered on the participants, and on their general satisfaction with a professional development program or series of activities. Other levels of evaluation can focus on the connections between the professional development experience and changes to teachers' professional knowledge. In turn, the connections between enhanced professional knowledge and teaching practices that lead to enhanced learning opportunities for students can be investigated.

Then, Cheng May Hung, Au Kit Oi, Pang King Chee and Cheung Lai Man discuss a project that aims to develop knowledge on the concept of, and factors helping and hindering, teacher success. It considers the ways in which teacher success is related to teacher development, and whether appropriate professional development in the course of a teacher's career can facilitate teacher success.

Ivan Reid, Kevin Brain and Louise Comerford Boyes review the British government's initiative to set up Networked Learning Communities [NLCs], consisting of groups of schools, within the broader current educational policies of England. Their chapter identifies the role played by the National College of School Leadership in this process, explores the extent to which the initiative's objectives are being reached and assesses the effects on the teachers and schools involved.

Charles Podhorsky and Douglas Fisher argue that student achievement in the United States has continued to decline over the past decade and that national and state boards of education have attempted to remedy this problem by increasing school accountability measures. However, instead of creating programs which focus on improving the practice of teaching and learning, recent reform efforts have focused on developing a 'teacher proof' curriculum. While these strategies may provide

an opportunity for better curriculum alignment, they do not get at the core of student failure, ineffective instructional practices.

Michael Aiello and Kevin Watson's chapter examines the possibility of creating an approach to continuous professional development which combines institutional development and the needs of the individual teacher as a learner and professional. It examines a deliberate strategy of moving from action research to action learning, and from learning communities to a learning organization. The chapter suggests that the key element is the ongoing commitment and response to learning by the principal.

Then Ruth Gorinski argues that Maori students in compulsory schooling have historically performed less well than their non-Maori counterparts and that teachers in mainstream schooling contexts have lower expectations of Maori students, fail to effectively identify or reflect on how their practice impacts on the educational experiences of these students, and have limited support to address these particular issues. There is an urgent need to provide innovative and effective professional development for teachers that is both supportive and enabling, to reverse the historical trends of Maori student underachievement. Findings from a New Zealand pilot study suggest that professional development that is contextualised within practice settings is a critical success factor in determining teachers' receptivity to modification and development of their practice.

In the next chapter, Jill Smith discusses the situation where Maori, the indigenous people of New Zealand, are given protection of their taonga (treasures) by the Treaty of Waitangi (1840). Under the Treaty all students are required to honour its principles and become cognisant with Maori art and culture. The majority of art teachers in New Zealand schools are European/Pakeha, however, thereby creating a dilemma on how to fulfil the bicultural obligations. This chapter focuses on the problems faced by non-indigenous art teachers; the questions raised about their roles and rights in addressing indigenous knowledge; and the strategies used by a non-indigenous teacher educator to mentor and empower them to gain the requisite knowledge and understanding to work in the field with confidence, sensitivity and integrity.

Harrison Tse considers how the ability to reflect affects the professional development of practicing teachers. This chapter reports on the appropriateness of linking two learning theories, the Experiential Learning Theory (Kolb, 1985) and the Transformative Learning Theory (Mezirow, 1991), together. It reports on an instrument designed for assessing teachers' reflective thinking and practice.

Amy Yip analyses and reports on the action processes of a Hong Kong secondary school adopting a multidisciplinary project approach where practitioners problematised and reconstructed habitual practices in a cyclical mode where they 'plan-act-observe-reflect' on their daily professional experience. Teachers' tacit knowledge had a significant impact on early identification of problems and suggesting solutions to ensure the smooth running of the curriculum. The author argues that it is time for university academics or experienced researchers to help teachers publicize the 'tacit' to enrich the knowledge base for teaching and learning.

Margaret Taplin, Dorothy Ng Fung Ping and Huang Fuqian describe aspects of teachers' professional growth during a two-year professional development program in Guandong, China. The project was a part of national curriculum reform in

Mainland China, one component of which was to integrate values education across the curriculum while simultaneously helping teachers to adopt current theories of learning and teaching about values education.

Danjun Ying discusses the global discourse on how teachers can be supported in their efforts to become professional learners, and be better prepared for their new roles as facilitators and co-learners to promote student life-long learning. It considers a task-based learning curriculum innovation, called Research-based learning, Integrated curriculum, Community learning, and Humanistic outcomes (RICH), first developed in 1997. The aim of RICH is to help students to become autonomous life-long learners with critical thinking skills, open-mindedness, creativity, and a sense of responsibility.

SECTION SIX: THE REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONER: THE WAY FORWARD

In recent times there has been call for change in teacher education in ways that will promote teachers being much more reflective in their practice (Jones, 1998; Korthagen and Kessels, 1999; Ball, 2000; Wise and Leibbrand, 2001). Korthagen and Kessels (1999, p. 4), argue teacher education programs need to link theory and practice and “to integrate the two in such a way that it leads to integration within the teacher”. Similarly, Ball (2000, p. 244) maintains “We must understand better the work that teachers do and analyze the role played by content knowledge in that work”. The importance of teachers engaging in reflective practice is recognized by numerous researchers (Schön, 1983; Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999; Ball, 2000). Loughran, (2002, p. 33) argues:

... for reflection to genuinely be a lens into the world of practice, it is important that the nature of reflection be identified in such a way as to offer ways of questioning taken-for-granted assumptions and encouraging one to see his or her practice through others' eyes.

The best way for teachers to improve what they do is for them to reflect on their practice and work with other teachers to help them understand what is needed for high achievement. However, Cochran-Smith argues that the current standards movement, which reduces the role of a teacher to the implementation of a few narrowly focused outcomes, has a negative effect of this activity:

The image of teachers as professionals who learn from practice and document the effect of their teaching on students' learning is a clear part of the discourse of the new teacher education. Experienced as well as prospective teachers are expected to function as reflective practitioners, work collaboratively in learning communities, and demonstrate that their teaching leads to increased student achievement. But, a narrow interpretation of higher standards - and one that is lurking beneath the surface of the discourse that heralds the paradigm shift in teacher

education from “inputs to outputs”- threatens the idea of teaching for change.

(Cochran-Smith, 2001b, p. 180)

This section considers what it means to be a reflective practitioner and what teacher education programs do to promote reflection on practice as part of their programs, but also how they might support practising teachers to develop this approach to the task at hand. First, Neil Hooley considers a philosophical framework for thinking about knowledge production that may consider human ideas and understanding as emerging from empirical, hermeneutic, or critical investigations. Knowledge production, through participatory research, is non-neutral and generalisable but must always be refined and validated through practice and participation. A central aspect of participatory research is the written documentation of experience and reflection on how the research process itself challenges personal ideas and practices, so that research outcomes involve not only new knowledge but changes to the researchers themselves.

Then, Alex Moore considers the role and importance of self-understanding in the development of teachers' professional learning and development. With reference to Anna Freud's imperative that teachers have a duty to 'understand themselves' if they are to operate most effectively in the interests of their students, the chapter argues that at the same time as teachers are being encouraged, through regimes of 'competence' and 'reflection', to prioritise the professional self in taking responsibility for their own professional development, they are simultaneously being denied opportunities and encouragement to prioritise the self in ways that may help them to understand fully what happens in the classroom. The chapter gives consideration to the many different 'voices – both 'external' and 'internal' – that tell the practitioner what it means to be a successful and appropriate practitioner and concludes with an argument that teachers should not be afraid or ashamed of revisiting past experience as a way of understanding present feelings.

John Loughran examines how teachers are leaders in the construction of knowledge about practice in ways that are particular to both their needs and actions in enhancing understanding of teaching and learning. The work of teacher researchers offers insights into classroom practice that need to be better understood in the development of teacher knowledge in meaningful ways for the profession. The chapter argues that a 'teacher as researcher' stance has important implications for both policy and practice.

Christopher Day discusses transitions in the operational definitions of professionalism over the last 20 years. As a consequence of changes in the control of curriculum and assessment and increased measures of public accountability, teachers now work within cultures in which their careers are dependent upon external definitions of quality, progress and achievement. He argues that, although many experienced teachers have maintained their identities, the pressure on these and younger colleagues is to comply with competency based agendas. In such cultures, attention to teachers' identities – central to sustaining motivation, efficacy, commitment, job satisfaction and effectiveness – has been limited.

Finally, Eileen Honan uses the four resources literacy model, developed by Peter Freebody and Allan Luke, as a framework for teachers to use to investigate their current literacy teaching practices. The chapter investigates how teachers could use the four resources model as a ‘map of possible practices’. The chapter also considers how the four resources model provides a framework for research where teachers are seen as agents and active participants in the project rather than passive subjects to be studied by a researcher.

SECTION SEVEN: THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY:
TOOL OF THE TRADE OR THE TERROR FOR TEACHERS?

The last two decades have seen a dramatic increase in the use of learning technologies of various kinds. The old image of the teacher with a piece of chalk and a few text books is now well in the past. The introduction of computer technology in particular finds teachers using powerpoints for their classes, accessing knowledge from all around the world via the world-wide-web, being emailed by students at all hours of the day and night and accessing vast databases to enter their data related to student progress are all part and parcel of the teaching day. This has brought with it huge implications for teacher educators who need to be ahead of the game if they are to provide their students with the best understanding of how these activities might be used. This is challenging for many teacher educators who may have been comfortable with the old way of doing things and now find many of their students well in advance of their own knowledge as well. Otero *et al.* (2005, p. 8) argue:

This implies that university faculty in teacher education programs must become proficient at technology use and must come to understand content-specific, pedagogical uses of technology for their own instruction.

The US National Research Council (1999, p. 218) made the case for the introduction of computer-based technologies:

What has not yet been fully understood is that computer-based technologies can be powerful pedagogical tools – not just rich sources of information, but also extensions of human capabilities and contexts for social interactions supporting learning. The process of using technology to improve learning is never solely a technical matter, concerned only with properties of educational hardware and software. Like a textbook or any other cultural object, technology resources for education – whether a software science simulation or an interactive reading exercise – function in a social environment, mediated by learning conversations with peers and teachers.

However, not everyone accepts that the current move towards a new technology of teaching and learning is heading in the right direction. Robertson (2003, p. 280)

argues that:

Teachers are vulnerable to the technopositivist ideology that perpetuates a naive faith in the “promises” of technology. Most teachers have been denied opportunities to explore the motives, power, rewards, and sanctions associated with the unscrupulous marketing of information and communications technology (ICT) and tend to be uninformed about the research that has failed to find a positive relationship between ICT use and student achievement. They remain unaware of the efforts to disguise how devotion to technology necessarily entails retrofitting the purposes and practices of education.

Russell *et al.* (2003, p. 297) suggest the large expenditures on technology have not delivered the level of use that the expenditure had warranted.

Despite these large expenditures, increased access, and nearly universal use by school-age children and their teachers, several observers have questioned the extent to which technology is affecting teaching and learning. For example, Stoll (1999) and Healy (1998) have criticized investments in educational technologies, arguing that there is little evidence they affect teaching and learning in a positive way. They, in fact, asserted that computer use may be harming children and their learning. More recently, Cuban (2001) argued that computers have been oversold as a vehicle for reforming educational practices and are generally underused as an instructional tool by teachers at all levels of education.

This section seeks to find ways in which the technology now available to teachers and teacher educators can be used to improve practice and communications between the stakeholders in the teacher education process. First, Glenn Russell, and Glenn Finger argue that Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in education are linked to the need for an urgent reconceptualisation of teacher education students' skills and learning experiences. Future teachers will require skills not currently emphasized in many teacher education programs, and some traditional skills will be regarded as less important. They discuss the implications for teacher education of developments including access to online services, changing pedagogical practices, and the emergence of screen-based literacies, and argue that changes must be introduced if teacher education courses are to continue to be relevant in the twenty-first century.

Paul Gathercoal, Judith Crowe, Silva Karayan and Thomas McCambridge discuss implementing a webfolio system consisting of teacher assignments, learning resources, student artifacts, mentor feedback, and curriculum standards for K-12 partner schools. This chapter shares implementation strategies currently being employed to develop the web-based electronic portfolio system to provide an understanding in how K-12 web-based portfolio systems facilitate assessment, evaluation and reporting in a single web portal.

Then, Muriel Wells identifies and explores the extent and impact of educational technology in the context of collaborative online projects in a global educational

community. There are currently a wide range of local and international collaborative online projects and the chapter describes case study projects selected for their potential to provide new perspectives on the role of technology in education and its potential impact on teaching and learning.

Manjula Waniganayake, Susan Wilks and Ron Linser describe an interactive tool that attempts to promote undergraduate pre-service students' critical thinking about values and the role of a professional educator and then evaluates its usefulness in the field. The tool uses an on-line role play simulation which allowed them to experience both cognitive and affective domains of interpersonal interactions.

Christine Gardner and John Williamson discuss a project that enables students' practicum experiences to provide opportunities for pre-service teachers to learn about teaching through undertaking blocks of practical experience ranging from a few weeks to more than two months in school settings under the supervision of a class teacher. WebCT was used to support pre-service teachers during their practicum or "School Experience" placements and was used to seek feedback from the pre-service teachers prior to, during, and at the completion of their placements. This offered the potential to influence further development of strategies to encourage a higher level of pre-service teacher reflection on their experiences and the capacity to inform the work of university-based and school-based teacher educators.

Finally, Glenn Russell and Geoff Romeo examine pre-service teachers' perceptions of Information and Communications Technology in Education through a survey of first-year student teachers. A contextual discussion of the tension between necessary computer skills and the understandings that teachers need to use computers in classrooms provides a perspective for this examination. The surveyed group reported strong support for the future use of computers in school education, mixed results for ways in which teaching in schools would change, and satisfaction with most elements of their course.

CONCLUSION

Finally, Richard Bates and Tony Townsend provide an analysis of the issues identified in each of the chapters and draw conclusions from them. They provide a consideration of the policies, programs and practices that may need to be developed in order for teacher educators to respond to the pressures they are currently facing and to deliver the level of quality that is being demanded by the rapidly changing world in which we live.

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2. LEARNING AND LEADING IN A GLOBALIZED WORLD: THE LESSONS FROM SOUTH AFRICA

INTRODUCTION

The signposts of globalization are everywhere ... Starbucks, McDonalds and the Hyatt. The media express public concerns about this interconnectedness through heated arguments about regional security and tough debates on free trade and its impact on everything from cattle to indigenous culture. Indeed, if viruses do not convince us globalization skeptics of the reality of our intimate and intense interconnectedness, then nothing will. Let me make explicit three personal theses that frame this chapter:

- that the effect of globalization has not only been in the economic domain, but also on the social and cultural content of nation states, within and outside the developing world. Whole societies and cultures are being formatted on a globalised grid that has transformed everything from music, art and culture to curriculum, pedagogy and assessment.
- that the impact of globalization on education and educators remains poorly understood and rarely questioned; this book is a welcome respite from the relative silence on the impacts of globalization on education, especially in the developing world. There is much rhetoric and abstraction, and important theoretical advances, but very little 'on-the-ground' descriptions and explanations of how globalization impacts on teachers and teaching in different contexts.
- that the most dangerous consequence of globalization is that it has established a broad consensus not only about what kind of economy is desirable, but about what education is for. This consensus holds that education is for economic productivity, for technological advancement, for greater competition and market-share, for institutional and learner performance measurement, and for regulation and accountability to ensure that performance-driven economies and pedagogies are not only achieved, but sustained. It is this consensus that this chapter wishes to challenge

In terms of education, globalization has redefined how we teach, what we teach, where we teach, whom we teach – and even whether we teach.

- How we teach – in that new technologies have not only given teachers new tools for the classroom that have created instant and powerful connectivities between persons and ideas, across space and in real time, they also fundamentally alter our notions of what it means to teach.
- What we teach – in that these powerful technologies are not culture free, but carry with them very powerful cultural content pre-loaded in the cyberspace curriculum and preset by transnational forces that – in ways still poorly understood – demand sameness rather than separateness.

- Where we teach – in that globalization, understood as the intensification of economic and cultural interactions, means that the transfer of technologies and expertise have brought transnational organizations into local education markets through both physical and virtual connections across space.
- Whom we teach – in that the distribution of education is no longer limited to local students but can simultaneously bring into play citizens of far-flung national states into the same learning space at the same time.
- Whether we teach – in that technologies have not only changed the role of the teacher, but in many cases made the traditional teaching roles redundant for many educators.

This is the background context within which more specific arguments about learning and leadership in a globalized world might be pursued.

GLOBAL CONSENSUS AND COLLIDING DISCOURSES

At the Opening Ceremony of the 2003 International Council on Education for Teaching Conference in Melbourne, Australia, there were two speakers, from the same national context, presenting what appeared to be totally different visions of what education is for. In short, there were two discourses discernible, one from a prominent politician and another from an indigenous community leader:

- From the politician, there were words like performance, outcomes and standards; from the indigenous leader, there were words like community, respect and engagement.
- From the politician, there were words about the necessity for benchmarks, frameworks and measurement; from the indigenous leader, there were words about the value of consultation, personal wellbeing, and dignity.
- From the politician there was much about testing; from the local leader, about trust.
- From one, about heads; from the other, about hearts.
- From the parliamentarian, about individuals; from the communitarian, about family.
- From the local politician, about accountability; from the local leader, about reciprocity.

The first voice represents the powerful global consensus about what education is for; the second voice represents the protesting minority voice that is heard more and more in the world – often in dramatic confrontations led by the so-called anti-globalization lobby. It is very important to open-up space for this challenge to consensus, or we risk losing much that has been struggled for in terms of democratic education, community ethos, and human affirmation – terms of struggle that have become much more critical in the light of the dangerous world into which powerful political and economic coalitions have thrust all of us.

The example of South Africa in the past decade, since the quiet revolution that saw the end to apartheid, may be instructive as a means for observing how the dominant cultures react to the cries from below. Against expectation, the transition to a non-racial schooling system in South Africa proceeded without much trauma. There were

no street-level confrontations of the order of Little Rock, Arkansas, in the United States or dramatic implosions of the school system as a result of the change of government and policy with respect to the deracialisation of education. To be sure, there were numerous little (and some larger) incidents well-publicised through the media, drawing attention to tensions and difficulties in certain white schools accommodating black students and there were legal challenges to racial integration and race-related decisions in schools. That incidents such as these occurred is of course to be expected after 300 years of colonialism and 40 years of formalised apartheid. What is more striking, however, is that the scale, scope and intensity of racial confrontation were in fact so limited across South Africa's 29,000 schools.

RACE, DEMOCRACY AND TRANSITION

There are several possible reasons for the relative ease of racial desegregation in South African schools. First, the political climate of *toenadering* (coming together for the purposes of reconciliation) and the negotiated terms of the transition created conditions for peaceful resolution of the race question in school and society. Second, the positive track-record of desegregation in especially private or independent schools had long been established and these schools demonstrated how such decisions could in fact be made without trauma or incident. It is important to note in this regard that South Africa has a long tradition of black students in white schools. Third, the terms of desegregation were and still remain fully under the control of individual schools, through their school governing bodies, and so very few schools allowed black students – let alone black teachers – to dominate or outnumber their white counterparts.

However, it would be a mistake of judgment and analysis to only focus attention on what is visible, dramatic and well-publicised in making an assessment of how far South Africa has come with respect to race, democracy and education since 1994. Every day, there are hundreds of little incidents, unseen and unrecorded, that 'happen' to younger and older students because of race. There is a formidable research literature showing that in South African schools, the grouping of children, the dominant assessment practices, the learner preferences of the teacher, the display of cultural symbols, the organisation of religious symbols, the scope of awards and rewards, and the decisions of 'who teaches what' are all organised in ways that show preference based on race (as well as social class, religion and gender).

When researchers run the now familiar focus group interviews among high school students on the subject of race, three things become evident: the language of racial accusation, the language of social alienation, and the language of group anger. Such students however have the means for understanding what is happening to them, and for articulating these experiences in direct and expressive terms. Yet the real damage might be done in primary schools, where young children might not grasp as easily the fact that grouping decisions or cynical language or pedagogical neglect might in fact be commentaries on difference and judgments of race.

But there remains a formidable obstacle to corrective action in this kind of environment. Teachers, when approached on the subject of race and identity in their

classrooms, would invariably make the claim that “we see children, not colour” and that is exactly where the problem lies: a lack of consciousness, very often, of the ways in which schools are organised and how teaching is conveyed that in fact hold direct consequences for learners, identity and transformation. Unfortunately, these dilemmas of race are not at all restricted to the school. Undergraduate students at former white universities are deeply alienated from each other. At a typical Afrikaans university, it is an alienation that on the surface appears to be about language, about symbols, and about culture. Those are indeed the outward expressions of racial alienation on campuses. But it goes much deeper.

It is important, however, not to rush to judgment of the students, and try to make sense of their own racial geographies that allow such unnatural levels of alienation and hostility among black and white youth. A concentrated arena in which to observe these hostilities are the university residences. White Afrikaans students, whether from deep rural areas and farming communities, or from all-white city schools, suddenly make their very first contact with black people – on an equal footing; that is, not as labourers in their households or employees of their families. Suddenly, they are thrown into an environment in which institutions immediately expect mutual respect and noble exchange based on common enterprise i.e., university education. Black students, on the other hand, come from a more diverse set of experiences. Those from rural areas and who attended all-Black schools find the environment alienating and hostile in the extreme. Those who have experiences of desegregated English schools, find the Afrikaans university environment confusing. Having made friends with white students in English high schools, they find the hostile reception among white university students to be unfamiliar, alienating and provocative.

The principals of Afrikaans-medium white high schools insistence on Afrikaans exclusive schools effectively rules out access for black students. The social consequences for white students are devastating – it means that these white school students would have missed out on the one crucial form of learning that will determine their life chances in a post-apartheid society i.e., learning to live together.

In this regard the four pillars of learning advanced by the Delores Report on Education for the 21st century (1996), is most appropriate: namely *learning to know; learning to do; learning to live together; and learning to be*. White South African schools do an excellent job of the first (knowing), a reasonable job of the second (doing) and a lousy job of the third (living together).

The students, however, increasingly make judgments based on self-interest that begin to erode these traditional markers of identity. The most dramatic demographic shift lies not in the growing number of black students but in the growing number of students who prefer their instruction in English (*voorkeurtaal*). This number includes larger and larger numbers of Afrikaans mother-tongue speakers. The reason for this language drift is simple: most white students spend periods of their lives in Europe and elsewhere in the English-speaking world, and have made the reasonable calculation that competence in English is a critical asset whether for purposes of permanent or temporary migration beyond South Africa's borders.

Unfortunately, the softening of attitudes towards English in a stubbornly Afrikaans environment does not correlate with a softening of attitudes towards black students – and this is a crucial point of observation, since in such contexts English is taken as the neutral language of communication between black and white members of the institution. Black students, on the other hand, also have very firm ideas about whiteness. It would be a mistake to portray the experiences of black students in former white institutions as akin to passive victims of racial aggression. Black students have firm views about Afrikaans, are deeply suspicious of white motives and behaviours, and remain resolutely bound within racialised patterns of social interaction.

WORKING AGAINST THE GRAIN

It would not be fair, though, to ignore those schools and individuals who work against the grain; nor is it wise to overlook those cases which contain the germ of innovation and resilience for broader application in the education system.

One observation is that young women students make the transition much easier than their male counterparts. It is simply an observation, and requires much more robust empirical inquiry. But it does appear that men bring a certain muscularity to their relationships with each other which is not detected among women students. First-year women students had within six months made very close friends within their group, across racial lines, and they were, on own initiative, creating opportunities for learning each others' languages! To be sure, they also record the unease of first contact and the difficulty of the initial approach beyond the comforts of their familiar "groups." But what was fascinating was the speed with which they arrived at this point.

A recent study involves three high schools that, despite their conservative histories, have created significant levels of racial desegregation without high levels of white flight. These schools, named after former apartheid presidents and prime ministers (JG Strijdom, General Smuts and CR Swart), have received national recognition and even rewards for what our research team calls "exceptional patterns of racial integration." It is too early in this research to begin to make firm claims about the reasons why these schools have been able to make such progress 'against the grain.' However, some hypotheses include the power of leadership, the pragmatism of Afrikaans communities and the working class character of the schools. Where options are limited, white schools are more likely to accept the demand from black students for access to what is perceived to be better managed and better resourced school environments.

The single most important observation that can be made about race and schooling after ten years is the following: that schools (and indeed universities) have been much more successful at meeting the demand for racial desegregation than achieving the ideal of social integration. It is very important not to confuse these two constructs: racial desegregation was, in many schools, a relatively easy accomplishment. In the case of universities, both legislative demand and new funding incentives have made racial desegregation a survival imperative if not a social justice response.

What policy has not conceived or practice revealed, is the kind of methodologies that could create within institutions the kind of social interactions that would build a

broader sense of citizenship, compassion and community; or in other words, “learning to live together.”

RACIAL DESEGREGATION VERSUS SOCIAL INTEGRATION

What initial observations suggest is that schools and universities struggle with migration towards higher levels of integration. The first level, easily achieved, is racial desegregation; the second level is staffing integration; the third level is curriculum integration; and the fourth level is institutional culture integration.

It has been, as repeatedly stated, easier to open the Freedom Charter’s doors of learning. What happens behind those doors is infinitely more complex. The Achilles heel of white schools has not been accommodating some black students in former white classrooms; it is having black teachers in the same space. That is why most (though certainly not all) of the so-called liberal, white English-speaking schools have made so little progress on this subject. It has to do with deeply ingrained, racialised notions of white competence and black incompetence. In this context, incoming black teachers are already framed in ways that disempower them and the same nurturing and accommodation that is so readily made for novice white teachers seldom apply to novice black teachers.

It has even been more difficult to achieve a sense of racial justice within the school curriculum. This is a subject crying out for sustained empirical investigation – to what extent has the curriculum content and practices of teachers actually changed since 1994? For all the claims of an overarching curriculum framework, our research shows that teachers in especially the more established and privileged schools exercise considerable autonomy over how and what they teach. That autonomy means that few history teachers in such schools have, for example, allocated the space or depth to teaching a broader sense of African history that would affirm the rich diversity of cultural and political experiences represented within the student body. The so-called “great curriculum debate” has very little to do with the technicalities of curriculum design or delivery and everything to do with what counted as worthwhile knowledge on Africa in institutions whose identity unmistakably bears the deep imprint of the colonial past.

And the last frontier in the quest for social integration and non-racial community in former white institutions will always be this hard-to-define phenomenon called “institutional culture.” It is not, for now, organisational culture or institutional climate that is in question. It (institutional culture) is something different, and might be simply defined as how an institution describes “the way we do things around here.” Useful, but how exactly does institutional culture present itself within university or school life?

DECODING INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE

It has to do with whose portraits and paintings appear in the corridors; it has to do with what collections dominate the library; it has to do with who dominates the

school governing bodies, and who gets relegated to the status of observers; it has to do with whose liturgy is represented in the school assembly, and whose is excluded; it has to do with both the complexion and repertoire of the school or university choir; it has to do with who continues to gain access to institutional contracts, and who remains marginalized; it has to do with whose language dominates a public meeting or event, and whose is excluded; it has to do with the kinds of sporting codes a school allows on its grounds, and what is excluded; it has to do with the kinds of public friendships that teachers and leaders of schools model, and that young people invariably witness; it has to do with the complexion of who works in the school's secretarial pool and the complexion of those who work cleaning the swimming pool; it has to do with the ways in which women are constructed in social relations on the school grounds or campus; it has to do with who sits together in the staff-room, and who sits somewhere else; it has to do with who gets called "Mr" and who, irrespective of age, is simply called "Klaas;" it has to do with the content of what appears on the emblem of the institution; it has to do with the content of school songs, the metaphors for talking about others; and it has to do with the ways in which schools or universities talk about the future.

With regard to the latter point, discourses about the future can have detrimental effects on institutional cultures and the sense an institution has about its role and relevance in a democracy. Carrying self-defeating and negative discourses about education through schools and classrooms can only construct an institutional culture in which the final victim is hope.

It is in this domain of democratisation and institutional cultures, that education institutions fail to include, accommodate and affirm racial diversity and difference, and community and commonality. It is in this domain where the assault on the cultural senses of incoming black students conveys powerful messages of who the institution is for. Symbols matter.

Our research team found the concept of "home" to constitute perhaps the most telling expression of how students feel in relation to former white institutions. A research paper, prepared by Lionel Thaver (2005) from the University of the Western Cape, unpacks the potential and dilemmas of this concept for understanding inclusion and exclusion for those who inhabit higher education institutions. In the end, the real test of whether South African institutions have achieved inclusive institutional cultures might well be the extent to which black and white students "feel at home" within universities.

It would be naive however to believe that such constructions of power within education do not find a corresponding resonance and reinforcing substance from what happens in the broader society. Among families, political parties, religious organisations, sporting associations and in business communities, essentialist views of racial identity retain a deep meaning within everyday life. This constitutes a major obstacle to resolving the fiction about essential racial identities that lie at the root of what is brought into school. Such notions of firm and inflexible apartheid categories are continually reinforced through bureaucracy, including in powerful instruments such as the national census and the employment equity schedules.

IDENTIFYING AND LEVERAGING 'POINTS OF POWER'

But the problem of redressing racial divisions in education cannot proceed without identifying the specific points of power that sustain the status quo in schools and in universities. Here are some examples of these 'points of power'; there are many others such points in the power constellations of educational institutions.

In schools the most crucial 'point of power' is the school governing body (SGB). This is the entity that dictates the pace, content and direction of change (or non-change). What is often observed is that even when black student numbers increase to visible or even majority membership of the registration total, white parents continue to dominate this powerful decision-making body in a school. It is this body that decides which teachers to appoint, how and for how long to appoint them, and under what conditions of service. Given the crucial decisions that such a body is empowered to make, it is understandable therefore that much of the political machinations in and around the SGB can be seen when vacancies become available and the school schemes to retain white membership or at least white majority membership of such an institution. The result is seldom in doubt. Never has school leadership stood up and specifically set the goal that it wishes to create a more diverse school governing body, that not only acknowledges the growing diversity of the student body (a low-level claim) but can bring experiences and insights into the school governance that may not reside with its traditional leadership (a high-level claim).

This is a point of power that can be challenged and changed in the interest of creating a more diverse school leadership, and here black parents might be seen as part of the problem. The failure to organise and coerce representation is not unfamiliar to disenfranchised communities in South Africa. At the same time, recent research gives cause for caution in making this claim without reservation. The parents in such schools are often (not always) poor and less articulate in the dominant language (often English) of these meetings; black parents are often located at considerable distance from the school, and less able therefore to participate in the lives of schools situated in the suburbs of the traditional leadership of the SGB; black parents might make a calculated decision not to become "disruptive", given the power stakes, since this might jeopardise their continued access to the school; and yet other black parents might, in view of the power calculus stacked against them, simply decide not to challenge a perceived, impenetrable wall of privilege and authority. Whatever the reasons for the lack of challenge, the SGB then continues to wield enormous power that is unlikely to be changed through legislation or policy.

The equivalent 'point of power' in universities is not the university Council or even its senior management when it comes to the racial patterning of institutional cultures and appointments. It is the middle-level management of an institution, both in the academic and the administrative divisions. It is readily observed that institutions are able to create diversity and signal inclusive directions at the levels of senior management and at the levels of student admission. But the institutional culture is largely carried in the locus of middle-level management. In higher education institutions, therefore, these 'points of power' are much more distributed than in schools; but they

are also unevenly distributed and it is my contention that interventions should target the middle-level establishment in order to leverage durable changes in culture, curriculum and complexion.

It is the middle-level management that, in the academic sphere, decides on who gets appointed into an academic department. The point is that deans and heads of department are the effective gatekeepers of academic appointments, and no amount of mission or vision-directedness by senior management or policy or legislative posturing by government can change this simple fact; a different kind of intervention is required.

It is also the middle level management, in the administrative sphere, that determines the language of the signage that appears on campus; that determines the pace with which new symbols or signs appear, if they appear at all, on the instruction of the senior management. It is the middle level management, especially in white universities and technikons, that creatively and perniciously ensure that administrative labour remains white and male in certain job occupations and white and female in others. The mechanisms are relatively simple, and include the following: advertise in newspapers that are largely read by white readership; convene private pre-selection (or shortlisting) meetings that effectively exclude otherwise competent candidates; set criteria for appointment that could only be met by those already familiar with the institutional systems, automatically excluding 'outsiders' from first-time entry; load the actual selection committees with like-minded and like-skinned individuals, and ensure in this way that continuity is achieved; or grant only recommendation status to a selection committee, and make the final decision on an appointment elsewhere and beyond the scrutiny of a stakeholder-based committee.

There are of course many other examples that could be used to demonstrate how authority functions at middle-level management in institutions, and why such points of power should be identified and interrupted if South Africa is to move beyond the sporadic outbursts of politicians about 'the lack of transformation' or the routine defence of institutions about 'the lack of qualified candidates' or the unconvincing rationalisation of black academics on the move about 'the lack of support.'

PARTICIPATION RECONSIDERED

What we perceive is a troubling set of questions about the value and efficacy of participation in our young democracy. It is worth recalling that participation was the touchstone of student struggles against apartheid education. The demand for democratic participation in education was one of those "non-negotiables" and it included participation by all stakeholders in the affairs of a school. School governing bodies were the embodiment of this vision forged in struggle. In universities, the broad management forums and now the 'institutional forums' became the symbol of this quest to broaden and deepen stakeholder participation in higher education institutions.

But participation has proven to be much more complex, contorted and contested than what the liberation slogans seemed to suggest. Once the demand for formal participation had been met, it was gradually realised that policy intentions fell far

short of practical outcomes; in other words, there was a growing recognition of the need to problematise participation in the realm of educational practice.

In schools, there is abundant evidence that participation is a function of social class and cultural capital within former white schools. As already mentioned, school governing bodies are less sites of contestation over democratic values than they are sites of domination by white parents who claim and hold ownership of the school's ideological and material cultures. Black parents, outside of the small but growing elite, do not have the fluency of English, the familiarity of setting, the networks of influence or the confidence of person to make the kinds of demands on schools in which they are only recent (and often grateful) entrants into this well-organised culture. There are indeed real threats to aggressive participation; it is not uncommon, for example, for a white parent to pay for and enable access for the child or children of her domestic worker to the same school attended by the children of the white parent. Under such circumstances, it is understandable that challenge to this dominant culture would come at a price that most black parents, in such a case, would find to constitute an unacceptable risk.

In black schools, research also points to non-participation by black parents even when there is relatively uncontested space for school ownership and development. The simplistic policy response to this observation is 'capacity building' and yet the problem of non-participation runs much deeper than can be resolved by occasional workshops or seminars sponsored by provincial or national government. The assumption, therefore, that the demand for democratic participation in schools would be taken up by willing and enthusiastic parents simply did not hold in the post-apartheid context.

In higher education institutions, participation has also proved to run into problems of power and asymmetries of power that few could have anticipated during the heady days of the education struggle. The levelling assumptions that were assumed to come through stakeholder politics did not take account of the reassertion of institutional power on new terms in the post-1994 period. No doubt the national swing towards fiscal austerity under South Africa's conservative macroeconomic strategy, and to which managerialism was the institutional response, changed the terms under which universities engaged with and understood their responsibilities towards stakeholders. This 'new managerialism' was expressed through centralised decision-making, dramatic cuts in institutional budgets, the retrenchment of staff, and the creation of an entirely different campus climate in which accountability trumped autonomy, quality assurance replaced trust, and surveillance displaced self-management in higher education institutions. It demonstrates that participation needs to be problematised, and that participation is a necessary but not sufficient condition for achieving deep, meaningful and sustainable changes in the lives of schools as critical sites for the expression of our democratic ideals.

THE WAY FORWARD

What does this mean for leadership? What, especially, does this mean for leadership under conditions of social transition? It is important in this respect to approach the

transformation of educational institutions with a strong sense of sobriety. On the one hand, leadership matters, and the research on this subject is unequivocal. At the same time, leadership in the context of a negotiated transition is a constant struggle to balance binary tensions. Such tensions include the need to manage and indeed demonstrate a balance between inclusion and correction; between affirmation and anger; between accommodation and insertion; and between racial reconciliation and social justice. Any leader approaching this context of transition without being completely destructive of persons and institutions will realise that an approach signalling a bulldozing bravado is both misleading to external audiences and, in the end, self-defeating to internal constituencies. Yet it is possible to harness the authority and integrity of leadership in ways that advance the democratisation of universities and schools. Leadership is a key 'point of power' in making democratic gains over time.

The formal arrangements for democratic education are clearly in place. The suite of education policies produced since 1994 are impressive. Each policy, grounded in a progressive Constitution, makes commitments that signal profoundly democratic principles and practices for education. The base values of non-racism, non-sexism and redress are visibly dispersed in any major government policy on education. The Values in Education policy produced in the second five years commits learners to values that include dignity, respect, honour, tolerance and criticality. The insertion of human rights education into the curriculum, the promotion of citizenship education and the momentous shifts towards inclusive education with respect to disabilities and religion education are, without question, among the most liberating policy shifts in any democracy.

But policy is not practice, and while an impressive architecture exists for democratic education, South Africa has a very long way to travel to make ideals concrete and achievable within educational institutions. What is a matter of concern is that there are no viable planning strategies within the Department of Education to advance democratic education inside schools or universities in a sustainable and meaningful way. In fact, one of the most distressing effects of recent state actions on democratic cultures has been the emphasis on performance-based accountability systems expressed in schools through the matriculation examinations and whole school evaluation; and in universities through a series of interconnected surveillance methodologies including the recent quality assurance audits. These systems do not separate compliance accountability from institutional support; nor does policy compliance deliver corresponding institutional support. What these new surveillance measures have effectively done is to muzzle any serious or sustained attention in schools to matters of deep learning about democratic principles and practices within the lives of teachers, learners and community. The final grade of high school (Grade 12) has become nothing more than a high-intensity and high-stakes testing environment in which learners spend their time preparing for school-based, 'mock' and final matriculation examinations in order to shield schools from governmental scrutiny and to compete mindlessly for public recognition. In the process, education lost its soul.

It is also worth recording that the pursuit of social integration as a benchmark of democratic education is likely to be limited in public school environments. For a long time to come, the majority of black learners will receive their formal education

within the confines of all-black schools. In some ways, a disproportionate amount of research and political energy has been spent discussing racial integration in a small minority of former white schools. The task for policymakers, politicians and practitioners, then, is to clarify how respect for difference can be built and sustained in such schools, even if the point of departure for such intervention is not 'race.'

Despite what is done in schools, however, it is also worth noting that far too much emphasis is being placed on schools to deliver democratic thinking and practice when such institutions operate within nested communities that often signal contrary values and behaviours. These nested communities include religious organisations, sports clubs, domestic or family environments, and political parties or government. Schools are in fact much more permeable to ideas, practices and behaviours from these nested communities than often acknowledged. It cannot be reasonable, therefore, to demand that schools change their behaviour when violence persists in townships, when political leaders demean each other in an election year, when the state fails to act in the face of regional chaos and corruption, and when life-prolonging drugs are withheld from ordinary citizens.

Despite its obvious limits, schools remain the life-blood of this young democracy. What happens in schools matters, and matters enormously; the choices young people make depend crucially on their experiences of schooling, including the experience of living with others or living with difference. And it is in schools and universities where democratic practice must continue to be pursued. Much remains to be done.

The South African case provides some view of the impact of a global perspective, but also some of the areas in which globalization may have little impact. If it had not been for the pressure from the global community, the situation in South Africa may never have changed, or not have changed as quickly. Yet, the responses to these changes internally indicate that changing values and structures within particular countries may be more difficult to achieve.

It could be argued that most of the current move towards globalization, of the economy and other institutions, has been launched by the same conservative forces that have strived to prevent change in South Africa. The dominant, generally western, generally white, generally male, leaders of the globalization movement seem to want to ensure that their view of what the world should be like is adopted by other countries and people, and they use their power, influence and financial strength to achieve this result. The same principles are being applied in South Africa to maintain the status quo, as fitted neatly into the perception of what those involved in globalization now want to achieve.

However, it would be ignoring a good deal of commonsense and sophisticated theoretical work if we simply trashed globalization as an all-powerful, totally destructive force in the global economy and education. This is not the case, as the following standpoints make clear:

globalization is not an unmitigated evil; Joseph Stiglitz recognized both the potential as well as the drawbacks of globalization.

less powerful states are not simply victims of globalization forces; they are also active participants in the process. In this sense, the research project is not only to

track the ways in which ideas travel, but also to understand why and how these ideas are adopted within recipient states.

globalization is not ubiquitous in terms of its effects as there are large parts of the globe still unaffected by globalization, even though their continued marginalization might be a by-product of globalization processes

The next task, then, is to understand how globalization expresses itself within education systems around the world.

GLOBALIZATION AND ITS IMPACT ON EDUCATION

Teaching might now be considered one of the global professions at two levels. First, teachers now have to work with (and some even move to other countries to do it) students from countries all around the world. Second, globalization has impacted on how education is perceived, delivered and measured. These are some of the outcomes:

- there is a growing transnational migration of teachers; hardest hit being the developing countries e.g., South African teachers going to the UK. Once again, this trend can be seen as positive in the sense that such international experience provides cultural and social exposure and learning to young people who would otherwise continue to live isolated, mono-cultural lives; furthermore, in the South African case, many of these teachers return home after 1–3 years. On the other hand, the costs of producing a teacher in a developing country is quite high if such talent is immediately lost to a developed country – which actively recruits such young teachers through agencies set-up for this purpose. For now, the pertinent point is that such migration is a relatively new feature of education under globalisation.
- there is an eroding authority of national goals, priorities and policies in the face of international private higher education institutions e.g., International universities offering programs in many developing countries. The presence of international institutions have one positive effect, and that is to provoke public universities out of their complacency. But the effects on a newly emerging democracy, fresh out of a long history under apartheid, are to limit and undermine the building of new national institutions focused on the development goals of a country in search of identity. But there are other problems.
- there is a declining quality of higher education services to developing country students. Private higher education institutions lack world class libraries and laboratories and other facilities that make for a quality university education; they also tend to produce a very limited curriculum focused on business, commerce and technology – the very media that strengthen the economic ties of a developing country to a developed nation. In other words, the curriculum works within the global consensus of what education is for and, in the process, provides a limited experience to students in both educational and social terms.
- there is mindless copying of international policy trends, most powerfully expressed in the phenomenon of policy borrowing. For example, Australia's main contribution to South Africa has been outcomes based education (OBE) which was interpreted locally to mean education sharply focused only on what is demonstrable and

assessable, thereby ignoring the full range of educational experiences and curriculum content that count in the development of learners. Translated into the African context with enormous complexities added-in, OBE became completely unworkable in the impoverished settings of a developing country, and was radically revised about three years ago – at great cost to the country. This pattern is duplicated all around the world.

- there is increasing pressure to participate in internationally set standards of performance e.g., Education for All, the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), the Millennium Development Goals, the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), and the New Plan for African Development. The emergence, across the globe, of performance-based pedagogies is both interesting but also highly problematic. This response is “the politics of performance.” It is becoming clear that states participate in such cross-national displays of performance for reasons that are largely symbolic and in which being part of this game lends credibility to marginal states, generates financial and other incentives for such participation, and often leads to sanction by powerful agencies if such participation is not forthcoming. Moreover, the emphasis on the external features of national performance (such as individual test scores based largely on cognitive performance) fails to deal with the deep-rooted problems of education quality in developing countries that cannot be read off a standardized test score.
- there is an uncritical transfer of teacher surveillance methodologies under the guise of accountability; the effects of which are to generate distrust and doubt within the profession ... especially when there is the lack of corresponding support/development. There is an ethical question whether the state has the right to demand accountability when the means for achieving official standards are not provided in the first place. Accountability is important; but when teachers are required to achieve pre-set standards without being afforded the means with which to achieve them (especially in developing economies), then this demand should be questioned.
- there is a growing insertion of computer-based technologies into the classroom, but without adequate attention as to how developing economies will in fact address the digital divide; such technologies are necessary, but the fact is they deepen inequalities already scarring the education landscape within (not only between) nation states. The question that planners and policymakers, as well as practitioners should pose when yet another series of technology-driven innovations are introduced in poor countries is this: how will this intervention in fact deal with the digital and information divide in our context?

In addition to posing such critical questions, what can teachers do in the face of the challenges (and opportunities) posed by globalization?

TEACHING IN A GLOBALIZED WORLD

As suggested earlier, globalization represents both opportunities as well as concerns. In this context, what could teachers do? Here are some suggestions:

- The importance of establishing critical values in the education system, in the face of the relentless consensus being imposed by transnational forces on the end of

politics, on what education is for (but beware of a conservative restoration in this vacuum). There is a need to speak of intellectual character, for example, rather than values because of the real danger of co-option of such a concept to mean other things. For example, in the apartheid context the discourse of values has historically been associated with a narrow and conservative Calvinistic approach to education rather than a broader, liberatory understanding of education and the possibilities of change. One such commitment to develop among learners is critical empathy with those who are different, or perceived to be different.

- The importance of re-asserting teacher autonomy in the face of the growing regulation of the profession against internationally formatted ideas.
- The importance of struggling for curriculum space for addressing the critical problems of the day e.g., war and peace. The literal translation of curriculum prescription and the slavish pursuit of ‘learning outcomes’ ignore the fact that teachers have much more space for exercising curriculum authority ‘behind the classroom door.’
- The importance of insisting on professional development as the basis for accountability demands on teachers.
- The importance of demonstrating teacher leadership in the face of the recentralisation of education and political authority, and the loss of faith in governmental authority, in adult authority.

This naturally leads to some actions for teacher education providers that will enable teachers can become leaders of their profession, such as:

- demonstrating rather than professing preferred values in leadership practice (do not preach values, do it); why should they believe us?
- shifting the training focus from what learners should be able to do, to what teachers should be able to demonstrate (how do we empower inservice teachers to be leaders);
- reorganizing the pre-service curriculum to reconceive teachers not simply as ‘outcomes compliant pedagogues’ but as leaders with a broader understanding (a counter-globalization orientation) of what is worth learning in the first place

The most important thing to understand is that students learn much more about values from what they observe than from what we could possibly teach in a dedicated curriculum slot. And in a world being reshaped by terror, only extraordinary and exemplary teacher leadership could affirm the possibilities of a different world, based not so much on the globalising mission to produce sameness but grounded in an enduring respect for our diversity.

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3. THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN CULTURE,
TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM AND
TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
AT TIMES OF CHANGE

INTRODUCTION

Long ago, professionalism was viewed as a defining characteristic of the industrial society (Johnson, 1972, p. 9) which implies a power network. In this perspective, Parry and Parry (in Ozga, 1981) define professionalism as a strategy to penetrate the power network in a given context. Another perspective (Helsby, 1995; Hargreaves, 2000) sees its meaning as socially constructed and subject to geographical and cultural differences in interpretation. It suggests that, traditionally, some aspects of 'professionalism' have connotations of status and financial gains. As a result, it has been argued that professionals will attempt to interpret its characteristics according to their own circumstances. Hargreaves (2000) sees professionalism as 'improving quality and standards of practice'. In addition, Helsby (1999) asserts that professionalism implies not only special expertise but also altruistic concern to improve practice constantly in the interest of the clients. In this respect, to be a professional entails readiness to develop one's practice continuously for the well-being of clients. She explains that 'professionalism' is seen as having personal and behavioural characteristics of dedication, commitment and highly skilled practice.

Eraut (1994) follows Johnson (1972, 1984) and considers professionalism as an 'ideology'. McIntyre, in the preface of Eraut (1994), explains that professionalism as an ideology 'embodies appealing values, in this case those of service, trustworthiness, integrity, autonomy and reliable standards' (p. viii). Yet, he admits that 'it works in the interest of certain groups – those occupations recognised as professions'. Sachs (2000) sees it as a political project. Sockett (1993) argues for a moral base to professionalism. In this regard, he identifies four types of teacher professionalism, which he describes as the central categories of one's work, namely: character, commitment, subject knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge. He contends that professionalism is about the 'quality of the practice'.

Recently (Nixon, 2001) has called for a reorientation of academic freedom, a component of professionalism, to include a moral dimension where the professional's 'small world' encounters the wider community. Nixon sees professionalism 'in the form of students to be taught, and wider constituencies to be addressed through research and scholarly activity. That encounter is framed by a shared concern with learning' (Nixon, 2001, p. 179).

THE INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
EDUCATIONAL REFORM AND PROFESSIONALISM

Fullan (2001, p. 265) contends that 'teaching as a profession has not yet come of age'. To do so, he argues, needs a reform of many issues, one of which is continuous professional development. Indeed, teachers' roles have become more complex as a result of repeated efforts of reform to make the education system responsive to changes in the other systems. Accordingly, teachers' professional lives in schools have changed in terms of control and accountability. Teachers also have to cope with increased workloads and more complexity, unpredictability and uncertainty as a result of repeated reform initiatives. Furthermore, teachers have to deal with pupils of different needs, behaviour and backgrounds (Day, 1997). Within such a professional climate, new trends of professionalism call for a more proactive role for teachers in their professional development (Sachs, 2000). Teachers should behave as professionals (show an interest in continuous learning) (Day, 1999), and have a moral purpose for teaching where they are not only required to show devotion but also own technical knowledge (Fullan, 2001). Consequently, professionalism should be directed to counter the new complexities that teachers have to face (Barber, 1995).

Generally, the Western literature in the field of teacher professionalism is quite consistent in stating that reform jeopardises teacher's professionalism (Rosenholtz, 1991; Tomlinson, 1995; McLaughlin, 1997; Day, 1999; Bullough, 2000; McCulloch *et al.*, 2000). The literature indicates growing instances where professionalism has been vulnerable to the lack of resources, more restrictions and lack of political support (Barber, 1995; Day, 1999; Hargreaves, 2000). Thus, current reform initiatives are seen as weakening rather than strengthening teacher professionalism. Education systems are facing the problem of fears of economic decline and cultural dissolution (McCulloch, 1997) and new challenges of students' behaviour and needs (Day, 1997). State politicians have exerted more control over the educational systems in order to raise standards. Yet, this threatens teacher professionalism defined in terms of autonomy (McCulloch, 1997). Regulating the content and process of education seems to lead to both the enhancement of schooling and a 'waste of human potentials, school mediocrity, and lost teacher commitment' (Rosenholtz, 1991, p. 214). At a time when there is an increasing need to raise the standards of the teaching force to combat rapid reform (Goodson and Hargreaves, 1996), the opposite seems to happen. Day (1999) asserts that the current wave of educational reform has hindered teachers' professionalism 'caught in the midst of new worlds of reform, teachers in many countries have, like those in the English study (Helsby and Knight, 1997), cited ways in which their ability and motivation to behave as professionals have been negatively affected' (Day, 1999, pp. 6–7). He reminds us of the likelihood of exhaustion of the individual's energy at a time of constant change and restructuring. Rosenholtz believes policy makers do not face a problem of regulating but face a problem of deregulating. The solution, in her opinion, is to trust teachers. Thus, there is a link between professionalism and teachers' professional development. The conception of professionalism influences governments' policies, teachers' professional learning

policies, activities and the learning culture of their workplace. Professionalism requires professional knowledge, competence and expertise, which in turn require further development through continuous professional education. It also requires policies, personal commitment, and persistence. Hence, a key concept for this type of professionalism is successful policies and strategies of professional development. Policies and strategies, according to Day (1997), depend on three aspects:

- *self-esteem through positive rewards such as encouragement and support (without political, social, economical and organisational recognition and support, teachers' self-esteem will be in jeopardy),*
- *teaching skills are not enough-maintaining and developing individual and collective vision comes through the career-long committed professionalism of teachers; and finally,*
- *for teachers to become experts in learning requires continuing professional development*

(Day, 1997, p. 52).

Furthermore, flexibility, which is an important characteristic of successful classroom teachers, is strongly linked to teachers' professional growth and the way in which they develop as individuals and as professionals (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1992, p. ix). McClaughlin (1997) argues that professionalism '*must be rebuilt around the challenges to practice*'. Professionalism, in a situation of rapid change, requires that teachers redefine their roles according to social, moral and emotional contexts. Because of the '*idea and ideals of a profession in the post-modern world*' (Tomlinson, 1995), and because of the need for teachers to become professionals and act like professionals at a time of constant change (Day, 1999), it is necessary to reconstruct teacher professional development for teachers' professionalism (McClaughlin, 1997, p. 80). Barber (1995) argues for a reconstruction of teachers' professional development so that priority is given to teachers, their skills and to their development in areas which enable them to confront new challenges. It is important, therefore, to discuss the different forms of professionalism, which either limit or promote teachers' professional development.

THE POSITION OF TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM IN OMAN

The Omanis, throughout history, have been a learning society. The many books printed by the Ministry of National Heritage and Culture from pre-1970 reflect the Omanis' drive for knowledge even at times of stagnation during the 1960s. Yet, literate people and scholars were a small percentage of the society. Within that context, the status of teachers was highly respected, since they were the major source of knowledge. However, after the renaissance of his Majesty Sultan Qaboos in 1970, the government set up modern schools within a formal education system. First, the focus was on quantity. With only a few indigenous teachers, the MOE had to depend on recruitment from other countries. Since then, rapid recruitment of national student teachers has been an on-going policy. Now there are approximately 26026 Omani

TABLE 3.1 The percentage of teachers teaching in different education levels in Oman (Educational Statistic Year book, 2003/2004)

Level	Omani	Expatriate
Basic education	11,716	2,223
General education	14,310	4,096

teachers teaching in the different levels of the education system. Table 3.1 shows the percentage of national teachers compared with the expatriates in different educational levels.

Whilst it is true that there is still a large number of expatriate teachers, the overall number of Omani national teachers has rapidly increased. Most of the elementary, and cycle One of the Basic Education Schools, are dominated by Omani teachers. The Omani nationals' percentage at all levels increases every year as a large number of teachers graduate from six teacher-training colleges and the College of Education at Sultan Qaboos University. Therefore, the Omanisation process of replacing expatriates with the national workforce in the education field is successful, which is an important aspect in the Ministry of Education (MOE) proof of professionalisation. As some MOE officials have stated, this increase in Omani nationals in the teaching profession has triggered more effective ministerial policies of professionalism. It was difficult for the Ministry to professionalise a workforce contracted for short periods. The current professionalisation process can be classified into three fields:

- upgrading of the diploma qualification and controlling entry to the teaching profession by limiting it to university level or above,
- improved teacher status, and
- better professional development activities.

This was stated as a recommendation in the document of *Oman 2020*.

IMPROVING THE STATUS OF TEACHERS

Improving in-service training courses and workshops for all staff in the educational field

The MOE has developed policies for the implementation of these recommendations. In the past, the MOE designed policies intended to strengthen professionalisation. Yet, within the previous education system, there was little room for teachers' creativity and innovation. The new education system, though still highly centralised, brings with it the possibility of optimism. It aims at enhancing the teaching and learning process through:

- better qualified teachers; this is being done through upgrading programmes;
- encouraging teachers to implement child-centred education; formal in-service training and in-service continuous support are carried out by hundreds of peripatetic supervisors;

- implementing a participative model of teachers' professional development at the school level.

The participative model aims at turning the school into a learning organisation for its staff. Hence, the model sets a new trend of professional development through a balanced provision of formal and informal and centralised and school based activities. The MOE has exerted decisive effort to enhance MOE employment salaries to bring them in line with other civil service employees. The National Plan of Action for Education (NPA), however, includes steps that might directly or indirectly help promote teacher professionalism:

- To upgrade and update the quality, and increase the capacity of teacher education and training programmes in all teacher education and training institutions;
- To gradually 'Omanise' the teaching profession;
- To establish a central training department to cater for all types of in-service training, train the trainers, design training materials and conduct practical problem-oriented needs-based relevant field related research.
- Design 4-year BA/BSC/BED graduate degree teacher education programmes.

The MOE has developed policies in support of better teacher performance and professionalism. Yet, professionalism is obstructed by aspects inherent in the centralised system and others owing to certain circumstances, the solution of which takes a long time. Fortunately, the cultural and religious characterisations of the Omani have helped achieve a concept of teachers as professionals. They attain training, commit themselves to continuous professional education, and subscribe to an agreed and supervised code of ethics, with the first priority being service to the client. MOE has made it possible that all teachers will be qualified to a Bachelor Degree level and teachers themselves have a high code of ethics within the education system, and serve their clients altruistically, owing to a feeling of responsibility towards the education of the youngsters.

One of the challenges that face education systems in developing countries such as Oman is the finding of 'ways and means to ensure that a quality teaching force is available for schools' (Gardner, 1995). There is a need to re-define teacher education and encourage teachers to rethink their current teaching approach of lecture-oriented classes and change to learning by doing, problem solving, and discovery learning. Teachers need to reflect on their current practices.

Another challenge that seems to hinder teacher professionalism is the rigidly centralised education system. This results in forced initiatives and conformity. The different educational and societal organisations and institutions also become islands of bureaucracy. Therefore, opportunities for reciprocity, networking and sharing become minimal. Many Middle Eastern educational systems are still teacher-centred. The traditional classroom practices are the result of organisational culture rather than a socially maintained stereotype. Socially and in religious terms, respect for the teacher, kindness to the elderly and mercy to the young are part of both the Islamic and Arabic culture. They are important concepts of people's morality and daily routines in these contexts; they are also reflected in most school cultures. Whilst these morals are strongly encouraged by the teaching of Islam, rote-learning and teacher-centred

approaches have currency in certain circumstances and are not only confined to certain cultures. Educational practices which focus on rote-learning and teacher-centred approaches stem from a lack of expertise and sometimes a lack of means rather than from cultural restriction. Islam, which is a major source of the culture in Islamic countries, stresses the need to think, understand, perceive, use the senses, observe, explore and discover. It encourages the use of induction, measures, scrutiny, exploration, follow-up and examination as teaching approaches (AbdulRahman, 1996, pp. 66–67).

The Islamic way of teaching encourages sensual perception, perception of the abstract, induction, deduction, measure, memory and finally cogitation which is to think deeply and reflect. The following pyramid in Figure 3.1 presents the importance of the above mentioned study approaches from an Islamic point of view. They are arranged according to their importance:

Given this, rote-learning and teacher/curriculum-centred teaching should be viewed as a 'generation gap' that reflects a stage in the developmental process of an education system. Current educational practices in the Middle East in general are not emanating from societal and cultural preservation but from political and social circumstances, which represent stages of development, through which other countries have passed or are still to pass. The problem is not with the perception of how education should be, but lies with the deep-rooted trends of holistic teaching approaches which were inherited from times when there was no proper schooling.

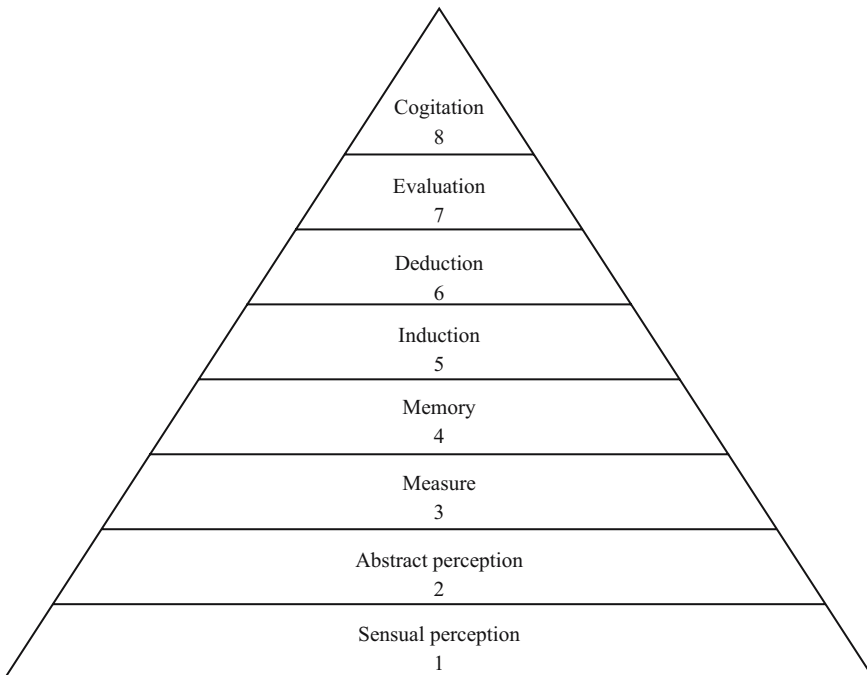


Figure 3.1. Educational approaches from an Islamic perspective (AbdulRahman, 1996, p. 90)

This is similar to how Hargreaves (2000) describes the situation in the West during what he calls ‘the pre-professional age’. He also argues that ‘for a century or so, transmission teaching formed the accepted and largely unquestioned wisdom of what teaching really was (p. 155). Schools establish a system, no matter where or how it originates but it becomes like the language grammar, once established [it] is difficult to change’ (Hargreaves, 2000, p. 153). There is no doubt that education is a main priority in most developing countries, yet the policies are not always successful. There are change efforts that only partially succeed. Changing the school culture takes more than extra expenditure.

INFLUENCES ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE VISION OF TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM

Interviews and document analyses have shown that first, the tradition of In-Service Education and Training (INSET) in Oman is that it is used as an instrument to inform teachers of the continuous developments in the educational field; second, cultural legacies of assumed paternalistic responsibilities by governments to educate are also applicable in teacher education (pre/in-service); third, the power and physical structures maintain a culture of ‘top-down’ control; fourth, the new educational reform has strong influences on the vision and policies of professional development but weaker influences upon practice. Hence, changes in practice are in a transitional phase. The difficulty of transforming professional development, despite a transformational vision, was sustained by influential issues. Figure 3.2 presents the interplay between these issues.

The transition to effective practice is a long-term process. The MOE tried to infuse international perspectives through recruitment of consultants from developed countries such as Canada and through participation in international conferences. Yet, the internal forces were still dominant within the current policies of professional development. This is not because of resistance, but the context in terms of structure, resources and time frame does not support the movement towards a long-term professional development

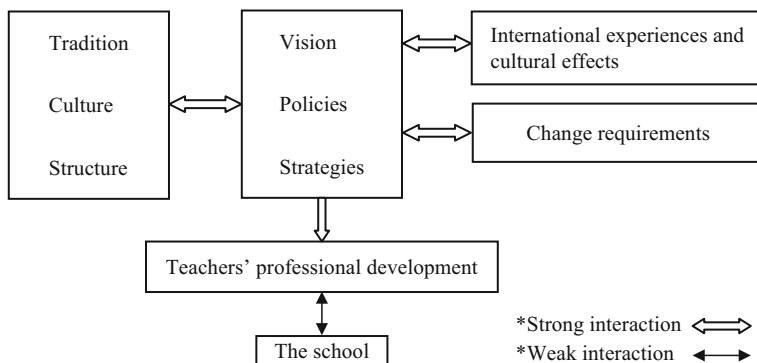


Figure 3.2. A model of influence in the vision, policies and strategies of P.D.

structure. The following discussion explains how these issues influence professional development in Oman.

THE VISION OF TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
WITHIN AN ERA OF REFORM

Teachers' status, academic and professional development are important characteristics of teacher professionalism within the current reform. In the localised context tradition, structure, culture and the suggested reform play an important part in the construction of visions and the design of policies. Thus, it is wrong to believe the new reform will abandon old policies and just start new ones. Although there is immense effort to decentralize, as stated by the Minister of Education in an interview with a local newspaper, where he explains that 'The importance of 'professional training' stems from perspectives of the fundamentals and contentions that make the educational field a dynamic field'. He went on to explain that 'From this perspective, the Ministry makes every effort to translate these fundamentals and contentions into reality, which aims at achieving total development in the educational field'. (His Excellency Yahya Al-Suleimi, 2002).

This extract from the Minister's interview reflects the official commitment to achieving total development in education. In this extract 'professional training' is one of the fundamentals which make education dynamic in the sense that it is responsive and developing. There is a contention that the teacher is a key player in the improvement of education. Accordingly, there is a belief that giving importance to the teacher in terms of his/her development leads to change and to the enhancement of education. In this regard one MOE official said that 'You can't have reform or change or development or alteration from quantity to quality without developing the implementers of the education process, and one of the most important participants in the implementation process is the teacher. Therefore, I think, if we give importance to the teacher, we can change, enhance and develop education.

The findings show that there is commitment by the officials in Oman to the importance of teachers' professional development. However, they also reveal three main problems with the vision of professional development which can be linked to the effects of tradition of teaching, structure of the facilities and administration, school culture and change. I will discuss their effects in relation to: (i) the construction of the vision; (ii) the link between the vision and the mission of professional development as a source of (in)consistencies; and (iii) the position of the school in the vision of professional development.

TRADITION, CHANGE AND GLOBAL
PERSPECTIVES WITHIN THE VISION

First, the vision was not totally based on research findings within the Omani context or shared through professional participation and discussion or through collaborative work. The interviewees expressed the vision of professional development from their

own perspectives. This vision was constructed from previous experiences of the individuals, observed international experiences and from the ideas of individuals who have expertise in this field. Accordingly, vision was based on intuition that training enhances performance and since performance is important for the success of the new reform, then teachers should be trained. Although this perspective reflects a strong perception of the pivotal role of the teacher within the new reform policy, it sets a rather fuzzy mission for professional development. In the Western literature, such mission of training is carried out to provide quick fixes for reform requirements. In such case, professional development may not lead to professionalism as it is being led by reform rather than leading reform.

It seems that the personnel at the planning stage in the MOE complained of the vagueness and ambiguity of both the vision and mission because they had not been clearly communicated or outlined to them. Whilst it is axiomatic that teachers must be trained in how to implement the new reform (as part of the vision), successful policy and processes of professional development require an understanding and ownership of the mission which they are set to achieve. Even though at the school level there was a realisation of the importance of teachers' professional development, the understanding for this realisation was not founded on a clear mission and embedded within an overall plan for school development.

All interviewed officials expressed the need to support teachers' professional development at this time of reform. Yet, only two could articulate some aspects of the overall mission of professional development. One interviewee said:

I think the Ministry's vision is to have all its teachers trained in child-centred learning and in the methods and techniques that are associated with child-centered learning.

Another argued that:

It seems to me that what he [the Minister of Education] would like to do is have teachers learn how to teach this new curriculum ... then he sees these teachers needing to learn child-centred approach and how that kind of program delivered.

These interviewees indicated that the vision was focused on helping teachers to implement child-centred education but they were only guessing what was the Ministry's mission in terms of teachers' professional development. This finding about the poor link between the vision, policies and mission of professional development is consistent with the literature in this field. Hord (1997) argues that it is not enough to have visions but that there is a need to understand the mission as well.

Second, the lack of specific directives about the vision and mission of professional development has led to different interpretations of professional development according to traditions, personal preferences and experiences, and according to one's position within the power hierarchy. This finding became clear from the way each interviewee justified his/her evaluation of the current achievements in the field of teachers' professional development. Accordingly, in linear systems, inconsistencies are not only

limited to the gap between policy and practice but they also extend to different strata in the power hierarchy between vision, policy and practice. There were instances where visions were interpreted differently. It was contended that the implementation of training should be changed from the traditional way of lecturing and reading from written documents. One interviewee argued that:

when we have looked at professional development as it was delivered previously, there was high emphasis on reading from papers, delivering papers, a lecture format; we have never ever agreed with that format of professional development, preferring a model where we have people working in groups.

Yet, intentions might not become policies unless shared, and in turn this requires cultural and structural changes in the way visions and policies are developed. In addition, both vision and mission should be clear to the policy makers, the implementers and receivers of professional development.

Third, the school, as an important source of learning for teachers as well as for students, was marginalised in the previous vision of professional development. Only one interviewee could perceive the school as the focal unit in reform and in teachers' professional development. At the same time, the school was seen as still being unable to take the responsibility for development as they lack the expertise. This interviewee recognised the limited expertise of supervisors and senior teachers who should provide the school with the professional expertise. Even though this is a strong reason, the effect of the power structure, the paternalistic culture of assumed responsibility and the tradition of relying on formal INSET for informing teachers should not be underestimated in sustaining the current practices.

New initiatives as foreseen by the Minister of Education in his interview with a local newspaper (January 16, 2002) include:

- *Restructuring the off-site (the centralised) training from centralisation in the Ministry to de-centralisation of training.*
- *The establishment of training centres in all regions including the central training centre in Muscat. They have been equipped with all necessary administrative and technical equipment. The philosophy underpinning this perspective is expressed in this extract. 'The transfer of training from the training centre to the regions and to the towns is a serious operation through which we seek to make the school the centre of training and development'.*
- *The development and enhancement of the training centres in the regions and the main training centre in Muscat with special technical specifications which fulfil the training needs.*
- *Linking the training centres with the main training centre in Muscat through an electronic network.*
- *Preparing a special manual of the basic skills for teacher training in the schools under the supervision of the training core-team.*

- *The expansion of training opportunities to include all Ministry personnel.*
- *Openness with the private sector's different institutions to benefit from their experiences.*
- *Academically, the Ministry is now preparing a code of conduct with the conditions of scholarships for the Masters and Ph.D. degrees, with specifications of the specialisation according to the Ministry's needs*
(H.E. Yahya Al-Suleimi, *Alwatan Newspaper*, January 16, 2002)

It is clear that these policies are not an operational framework for teachers' professional development but that they reflect the Ministry's vision and commitment to go ahead with establishing structures for staff development. They are a description of what the Ministry was doing at that time and its future plans for this field. Yet, it depends on how these structures are used and interpreted. Whilst there are indications of a desire for the decentralisation of training (points 1 and 2 above) the conception of decentralization to the interpreters of such vision may see it as the transfer of training from the Ministry to the regions or to a place closer to the schools. Hence, the Ministry must ensure that its vision and policies of professional development are well understood and implemented.

The interviews reveal that, in most cases, the policy of professional development was narrowly conceived. One of the recruited expatriate consultants in this field in Oman commented on the lack of a broad conception of teachers' professional development by saying that 'the professional part is missing'. This certainly hinders teacher professionalism. A recognition of teachers as professionals with a moral purpose is necessary in an era of reform since old models of INSET seem to fail to bring about change. McLaughlin and Oberman (1996) argue that current practices of INSET, staff development and teacher training are insufficient. They justify their claim by stating that teacher training should be embedded in everyday activities. They go on to argue that 'reformers' vision needs to frame new ideas about what teachers need to learn; not only accumulating fact-based knowledge but the comprehension of new conception of context and pedagogy' (p. x).

In brief, professional development vision, mission, policies and practices are becoming priorities in the last few years. There seems to be a genuine effort to provide varied and balanced opportunities of professional development. At the central level there many workshops, conferences, evening lectures and an increased number of publications. Also, the Ministry is making it possible for its staff to enroll in many long-term accredited courses and higher education certificates.

At the school level, there are many programs of awareness raising of the importance of professional development and its domains. Teachers are encouraged to involve themselves in action research, self-study, reflective practice and to attend workshops. Many schools now conduct school-based training courses and workshops for their teachers.

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KONAI HELU THAMAN

4. PARTNERSHIPS FOR PROGRESSING
CULTURAL DEMOCRACY IN TEACHER EDUCATION
IN PACIFIC ISLAND COUNTRIES

INTRODUCTION

*I was six
When Mama was careless
She sent me to school
Alone
Five days a week
.....
I was held
In a classroom
Guarded by Churchill and Garibaldi
Pinned up on one wall
And
Hitler and Mao dictating
From the other
Guevara pointed a revolution
At my brains ...
Each three-month term
They sent threats to
My mama and papa
Mama and papa loved
Their son and
Paid ransom fees
Each time ...
Mama and papa grew
Poorer and poorer
And my kidnapper grew
Richer and richer
I grew whiter and whiter ...
Fifteen years after
I was handed
Among loud applause
From fellow victims
A piece of paper
To decorate my wall
Certifying my release.*

This extract from the poem (*Kidnapped*) by Samoan Ruperake Petaia (1980) partly sets the stage for this chapter. The term ‘Partnership’ implies acceptance of a common goal towards which work is directed. In the context of this chapter, it is assumed that progress towards quality and relevance in formal education has long been a major target of many island nations. The article also makes a case for the (pivotal) role of teachers in realizing educational targets and suggests that teacher education must itself be relevant to the contexts of trainees and schools, and that teacher educators must themselves create culturally democratic learning environments for their students. An example of different groups coming together to help make this possible is provided, focusing on work carried out at the regional University of the South Pacific (USP) in consultation with stakeholders and aid partners.

PARTNERSHIPS

The partnership between teacher training institutions and schools has long been recognized by many as an important element of teacher education, particularly in the preparation of teacher trainees for the world of work. In the context of many Pacific Island Countries (PICs) during the last 3 decades or so, secondary teacher education has largely been achieved through a partnership between schools, (USP) and many regional teachers’ colleges. This type of partnership is increasingly important particularly given the fact that a school’s accountability continues to be judged according to students’ performance in external examinations. Schools and therefore teachers are expected to help prepare students for these examinations as well as face the many life challenges that occur both locally and globally. There are also important partnerships formed between schools and their local communities and more recently researchers have revealed what traditional people always knew, that when parents and communities are involved in children’s education there is improved learning. The numerous web-sites that provide links for educational partnerships between schools, parents, students as well as business people, especially in developed countries, reflect the importance of this kind of partnership.

In this article, I wish to address the question of ‘Partnership between whom and progress towards what?’ The types of partnerships I will be referring to may be a little different from the ones with which many people may be familiar, both in terms of purpose as well as scope. In most Pacific Island communities, successful partnerships are usually informal, flexible and person-focused rather than structured, impersonal and institutionalised. The participants in the partnerships which I shall discuss here are educational researchers, teacher educators, undergraduate and post-graduate students, and community elders, and others who share a common goal – that of reclaiming Pacific education and making it more culturally democratic.

PACIFIC EDUCATION BEFORE SCHOOLING

Before schools were established in Pacific Island communities in the early part of the 19th century, education (as worthwhile learning) was always about partnerships;

among extended family members; between families and communities and between one community and another. Underlying these partnerships were shared values derived from teachers' and learners' cultures. Such values underpinned the structures as well as the processes of teaching and learning and together with their associated knowledge and skills were transmitted by appropriate persons to future generations for the purposes of cultural survival and continuity. The teachers were those who themselves, had mastered the knowledge, skills and values that were expected to be passed on (Thaman, 1988).

When Christian missionaries established schools in the islands of the Pacific Ocean, a mere 200 years ago, no one asked 'how do Pacific people conceptualise wisdom, learning and knowledge?' or, 'what values were important in these Pacific societies?' The new education introduced sets of practices and values that were supposed to offer Pacific people opportunities for enlightenment, civilisation, and cash employment. This new system of education involved partnerships between newly established religious bodies and newly converted Pacific community leaders and their main aim was the transformation of Pacific peoples, their cultures and communities. This type of partnership, which continues today, has largely resulted in the destruction and continuing devaluing of Pacific indigenous educational systems together with the values and knowledge that underpinned them. The assumption then, as it is now, was/is that whatever was deemed worthwhile to learn and to teach in Europe (or now in the U.S.A., Australia and New Zealand) was important for Pacific people as well. Schooling was (and is) assumed to be culture-free. However, during the past two decades, and encouraged by the UN World Decade for Cultural Development, some Pacific people and communities have been asking serious questions of their education systems and trying to put Culture back into the formal education process as a way of addressing the deteriorating quality of school education in most parts of the region (Pene *et al.*, 2002; Lini, 2003). Furthermore, there have been some efforts to forge partnerships among researchers, education professionals, Ministry of Educational officials, and aid donors aimed at achieving ownership of Pacific education by Pacific people.

CULTURE, TEACHING AND LEARNING

Western social scientists say that culture shapes people's beliefs and attitudes, their roles and role expectations as well as the way they interpret and make meaning of their own and other's behaviour (Eagly and Chaiken, 1998). Sociologists in particular assert that role expectations, learned and internalised through the process of socialisation, help guide people's behaviour and social interactions, and when people from different cultural backgrounds use their own individual cultural cues to define and interpret role expectations of others, role conflicts often result. Similarly, communication problems often arise from a lack of knowledge and understanding of cultural norms and cues, deemed important for interpreting the behaviour and conduct of those involved in the communication process, such as, for example, between teachers and students (Riley, 1985; Widdowson, 1987; Ninnes, 1991; Taufe'ulungaki, 2000). Central to the

teaching/learning process and among the things that usually influence and affect teachers' and learners' role expectations is what has come to be known as *role boundary*, which, when breached and unfulfilled, often results in conflict situations (Coleman, 1996). The notion of role boundary seems to be akin to the pan-Polynesian concept of *va/wah*, which in many Polynesian cultures commonly refers to both a physical as well as a metaphorical space that defines and sanctions inter-personal as well as inter-group relations (Thaman, 2002).

Despite the importance of role boundary for effective communication, Cortazzi (1990) suggests that a key factor in the success or failure of the teacher-learner communication process, is pedagogy. However, we know that pedagogy itself is shaped by the cultural values and ideologies of the society in which it originates and teachers transmit and reinforce the cultural values that are embedded in the teaching approaches that they use (Barrow, 1990; Leach, 1994; Kelen, 2002). Consequently, in the cross-cultural classroom, a teacher's professionalism as well as cultural sensitivity are important considerations for learner success and must be addressed by teacher educators (Thaman, 1999).

Culture is used in this article to refer to the way of life of a people that includes their language, accumulated knowledge, skills, values and beliefs together with the means of acquiring, transmitting and maintaining these. A distinction is made between culture and ethnicity. Ethnicity, like race, is a western-derived idea, based on biology and shared gene pools. Culture on the other hand is a social concept, based on shared values, behaviour and performance. Membership of an ethnic or racial group is determined by biology; whereas membership of a cultural group is determined by behaviour and performance. People may belong to a particular ethnic group but do not identify culturally with that group. According to Linnekin and Poyer (1990), Pacific people did not have a notion of ethnicity before European contact but they had a concept of culture in that they were aware of people who were different from them because they behaved differently towards one another as well as towards others. It is unfortunate that many people today tend to use the two terms interchangeably, and some expect people of the same ethnic group to behave in similar ways. The distinction is of particular interest to educators in that while a person's ethnicity cannot be changed, culture is learned and a person may indeed choose which cultural group(s) s/he may wish to be identified with and/or belong to.

As most people know, members of a cultural group normally share a cultural history, sustained and maintained by its own language, epistemology and way of seeing the world. The Pacific Island region is arguably one of the world's most culturally diverse regions, where different cultural groups have developed particular knowledges, skills and values that together form the bases for the education of group members. Pacific indigenous cultures have existed for a very long time – thousands of years in fact – and the different responses of Pacific peoples to the onslaught of outside forces such as colonialism (and now globalisation) was, and will continue to be, a function of their cultural differences (Linnekin and Poyer, 1990).

In terms of the relationships between culture and education, these are expressed by many writers in two ways: the first relates to the conflicting emphases of formal

education (schooling) with those of most learners 'home' cultures resulting in what Little (1996) calls 'cultural gaps'; and, the second relates to the role of schooling in the development of cultural and/or multi-cultural literacies along the lines that Hirsh (1988) suggests. Both of these are important considerations for education in PICs and underlie the collaborative work that many of us have been involved in during the past 2 decades.

As alluded to earlier, the teaching of mainly European based knowledge, skills and values in Pacific Island schools has helped transform not only the structures and processes of Pacific indigenous education systems but also the way Pacific people see themselves and their environment, as well as the way they think and communicate with one another. The last two decades saw an increasing number of Pacific-based educators re-thinking and re-examining their own education as well as their education systems, and trying to clarify for themselves the differences between their received wisdom (from their formal, mainly western education) and the wisdom of the cultures in which they grew up and were socialised, and from which they continue to gain important knowledge, skills and values (Thaman, 1988, 1992, 1993; Nabobo and Teasdale, 1995; Bakalevu, 2000; Taufe'ulungaki, 2000). In the context of school education, Little (1996) argues that the difference between these two (sources) is small for those students whose home cultures are attuned to the culture of formal education but large for those (students) whose home cultures are vastly different from the culture and expectations of schooling.

If a (school) curriculum is, as Lawton (1974) would have us believe, a selection of the best of a culture, then the content of any education has value underpinnings that are always associated with a particular cultural agenda. In my view, education is inevitably about culture because it is the values of a culture that must underpin its education system. In Oceania, it is peoples' culture that provides the framework and the lens through which most see themselves and their world. For millennia, Pacific cultures (and their associated knowledges, skills and values) framed people's ways of seeing and behaving. Today Pacific peoples share worldviews that comprise intricate webs of inter-relationships which provide meaning to and frameworks for daily living and cultural survival. Generally manifested in various kinship relationships, such frameworks not only define particular ways of being and behaving but also ways of knowing, types of knowledge and wisdom, and how these are passed on and/or communicated to others. Many Pacific people today believe that for the sake of cultural survival and continuity, schools (and in turn teachers) should have a role in the transmission of the best of Pacific cultures, especially their languages, to future generations of Pacific people (Pene *et al.*, 2002).

This is particularly important today as the global market ideology pervades the lives of even the smallest and most isolated Pacific community. With globalisation, education is increasingly seen as a commodity (to be sold) in the global market place and developed countries such as Australia and New Zealand are proactively marketing their educational services everywhere including in Oceania. Such an emphasis on market driven educational development is making issues such as cross cultural transfer, globalised curricula and appropriate learning strategies important, as globalisation

threatens to blur our cultural diversity, and our educational services become more standardised and homogenised (Mattweson and Thaman, 1995).

FOCUS ON TEACHERS AND TEACHING

In most PICs today, teachers have the difficult task of mediating the interface between the different cultural systems of meanings and values that continue to exist in our schools. The stimulus for this mediation of course comes from their professional role, which mandates intensive interaction with other people's children as well as their parents. In the classroom, points of conflicts are usually communicated to teachers indirectly by the behaviour of their students as they move between their home cultures and that of the school.. In this context, teachers would need to know the differences as well as commonalities between different cultural perspectives. They would also need to theorise their own education in order to find ways of integrating the different cultures which have contributed to their own development. For Pacific education systems, this inevitably means focusing a lot more clearly on teachers and their education.

Another reason why it is important to re-thinking Pacific education has been the many failed donor-driven educational projects that we have witnessed over the past thirty years and the high failure and push out rates experienced by many Pacific Island schools. The quality of schools has become a major concern and students are usually the ones who suffer (ADB, 1996). In developed countries, schools generally have three main agendas, namely the promotion of economic progress, the transmission of culture from one generation to the next and the cultivation of children's intellectual and moral development. Here the assumption is that children would be helped to grow intellectually and morally by expanding their knowledge and understanding of their cultural heritages. This personal growth would empower them to build upon their heritage through discovering improved ways of managing themselves and their environment, and generating greater wealth for their society. However, we know now that schools in developed as well as developing countries have fallen short of such an ideal synthesis mainly because the economic and cultural agendas of schooling have increasingly come into conflict (Serpell, 1993). In PICs the problem is further complicated by the existence of differing perceptions about children's intellectual and moral development and their relationship to the type of socialisation practices that exist in different Pacific societies, one embedded within (Pacific) vernacular cultural traditions on one hand, and a European-based perception that informs teaching and learning in the school, on the other.

In this scenario Pacific school teachers occupy an important but culturally ambiguous position. Whilst their professional training commits them to the rationale and practices of a western-derived school curriculum, their personal identities are often rooted in their own cultural traditions, values and norms. Their training makes them part of an intellectual elite but their early socialisation occurred within a vernacular culture that is very similar to that of many students. In most Pacific communities, school children's relationships with their parents and other elders continue to be

negotiated within the terms of reference of local cultures and vernacular or indigenous education systems that have their own ideas about cognitive development, interpersonal and social responsibility, as well as the development of wisdom. At school, however, Pacific cultural values and ideals are usually de-valued and discouraged because they often conflict with the values that the school is trying to promote. For example, while schooling and the educational bureaucracy rely on universalism and impersonality, indigenous education systems rely on specific contexts and interpersonal relationships. Schooling promotes individual merit but indigenous education is based on the primacy of the group. The extent to which the school represents the cultures of Pacific Island communities continues to be minimal as the officially sanctioned values are those of the school structure, the approved curriculum and the teaching profession, and NOT those of the cultures to which most students and teachers belong (Sanga, 2000). At best schooling offers the lucky few (less than 5%) access to the modernised, monetised sector; at worst it is a recipe for the destruction of the best of Pacific Island cultures and communities. Today as the global market ideology pervades Pacific lives and Pacific education, it is important for all those involved in schooling, especially teachers and those responsible for their education, to continue to re-think and re-examine their work.

Unfortunately teachers have not always been a priority in a region, where they were perceived as a hindrance to, rather than a help in, the educational reform movement of the last 30 years. A large part of educational reforms in many PICs was based on the assumption that new curricula could be 'teacher proof' and students could learn in spite of their usually under-qualified and sometimes incompetent teachers. Thirty years and many failed curriculum projects later, some foreign donors, consultants and even local bureaucrats are beginning to see that a qualified and strong teaching force hold the key to the success of many of their suggested educational reforms.

The neglect of teachers in PICs reflected the global picture where the role of teachers was not perceived to be central to international debates and discussion about education despite the 1966 Geneva Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers. For example, in 1995 a World Bank Education Sector Review of Six Key Options for reforming education systems did not even mention teachers, their selection or training. Leaving teachers out in the periphery of educational debates helped reinforce a belief that educational systems could be changed without having to deal with teachers. As a result, by the mid 1990s teachers throughout the world had been relegated to an inferior role both in relation to their working conditions and to teaching itself, a state of affairs that must have caused the then Deputy Secretary General of UNESCO Colin Power to ask the question "Would you let your son or daughter become a teacher in your country today?" (Power, 1998).

The Delores Report, "*Education for the Twenty First Century: learning the treasure within*" (1996) however, shifted global attention to teachers and teaching by devoting a whole chapter to teachers. Entitled, *Teachers: in search of new perspectives*, the authors assert that countries who wish to improve the quality of education must first improve the recruitment, training, social status and working conditions of their teachers and

encourage teacher participation in policy decision-making. The relative neglect of teachers in the educational decision making processes of many PICs also reflected curriculum emphases on learning rather than teaching, an emphasis that partly reflected the global concern about child-centred pedagogies and PICs' over-dependence on foreign technical advisors, their languages, theories and ideas. Most Pacific indigenous cultures do not easily distinguish between teaching and learning and many have their own notions of learning, knowledge and wisdom and how these should be structured and/or assessed (Thaman, 1988, 1993, 2003). Furthermore, most Pacific teachers do not characteristically interrogate the teaching and learning materials that are provided as part of bilateral and/or multilateral donor-funded educational reform projects largely because they fear that such questioning might be interpreted as ungratefulness or impoliteness (Thaman, 1992).

The recent focus of educational debates and dialogue on schools and the role of teachers in particular, is a welcome sign to those who have been working towards ensuring cultural sensitivity and inclusiveness among the Pacific's teaching force. In 1992, for example, a UNESCO sub-regional workshop held in Rarotonga, Cook Islands reaffirmed the need for ownership of school education by Pacific people, if improvement in student learning outcomes were to occur. The Rarotonga declaration also noted the vital contribution of teachers towards such a process. (Teasdale and Teasdale, 1992). Later in the same year, the Pacific Association of Teacher Educators (PATE) was formed at a regional consultation held at the USP. Teacher educators from around the region resolved to re-examine their curriculum offerings with a view to making it more culturally inclusive of both students as well as their teachers. The implementation of this resolution was strengthened by the establishment, in 1997, of a UNESCO Chair in teacher education and culture at the USP tasked with advocacy, teaching, research and publication of the centrality of cultural considerations in teacher education and curriculum development.

In order to help situational analyses of teachers' college curricula, the UNESCO Office for the Pacific States provided funds for a major collaborative research project which was undertaken in 1998, aimed at finding out the extent to which the curriculum of teacher education reflected and/or incorporated elements of the (Pacific) of Pacific students' cultures. The Project also helped raise awareness among teacher educators, of the importance of Pacific cultures in the education of teachers both as a pedagogical tool as well as an important topic of study. This project also provided an example of partnership between the University of the South Pacific's Institute of Education, the UNESCO Chair in teacher education and culture, PATE and staff of seven regional teacher education institutions: three in Fiji, one each in Samoa, Tonga, Cook Islands, Kiribati, and Solomon Islands. The information gathered was intended to be used for developing educational material that will help teacher educators enhance their ability to better contextualise their own teaching and thus provide better role models for their students since it was clear from the survey results that many college staff were either unable or unwilling to seriously take into consideration the cultural backgrounds of their students in the selection of course content, methods of teaching as well as assessment techniques (Thaman, 2000).

An important outcome of the above project has been the publication in 2000 of several Teacher Education Modules targeting trainee teachers as well as teacher educators. The authors of these Modules are Pacific researchers and educators who are concerned about the need to better contextualise Pacific teaching and curriculum. Using the general theme of *Cultural Democracy in Teacher Education*, six Modules have been published so far. They are:

- Thaman's *Towards culturally democratic teacher education*;
- Taufe'ulungaki's *Vernacular languages and classroom interaction in the Pacific*;
- Nabobo's *Incorporating local knowledge in teaching about education and society*;
- Tupuola's *Making sense of human development: beyond western concepts and universal assumptions*;
- Bakalevu's *Ways of mathematising in Fijian society*; and
- Sanga's *Learning from indigenous leadership*.

More titles are being prepared. Through PATE, the Modules have been distributed to regional teachers' colleges where they are used by many college lecturers as well as their students. At the USP, for example, teacher education students as well as those who are majoring in Education use selected Modules as course texts. The Modules have also attracted the attention of university staff and students from abroad (Kedrayate, 2003; Taufe'ulungaki, 2004).

As well as the production of teacher education materials, the UNESCO Chair together with staff and students in tertiary institutions in the region have also collaborated in carrying out research into Pacific indigenous educational ideas as a way of providing basic information about Pacific Knowledge Systems. An important outcome of this partnership has been the publication, in 2004, of *Educational Ideas from Oceania* (Thaman, 2003) a collection of essays, authored by staff and students from around the Pacific region. The book is being used as a text for undergraduate and postgraduate students at the USP as well as some tertiary institutions elsewhere in the region.

RETHINKING PACIFIC EDUCATION INITIATIVE

As mentioned earlier the concern about ownership of education together with cultural inclusivity in Pacific education led to the Colloquium on *Re-thinking Pacific Education* in 2001 and the subsequent establishment of the *Rethinking Pacific Education Initiative* (RPEI). The initiative represents a partnership of donor agencies (in this case, NZODA), Victoria University, Wellington; the University of the South Pacific (USP); and a network of Pacific Island educational researchers and educators who have been providing leadership to several Pacific countries in the past ten years, with a view towards encouraging culturally appropriate analyses of Pacific education systems and assisting educators to re-focus their planning on Pacific values and knowledge systems. A specific goal of this initiative is to assist Pacific teachers in theorising their own education and develop culturally inclusive content and pedagogies through action research that emphasize the importance of Pacific values as a foundation for Pacific education and development. Culturally inclusive teacher education is seen as central to the achievement of the outcomes of RPEI.

In 2003, NZODA under the Pacific Education Research Fund (PERF) awarded several research grants to Pacific Island researchers from New Zealand, Fiji, Samoa, Tonga, Solomon Islands, Papua New Guinea and Vanuatu. The findings of these researchers will assist the activities of RPEI. As well as research, RPEI has also jointly organized and hosted several educational conferences aimed raising awareness of the need to re-think and reclaim Pacific education by Pacific people. These included the *Re-thinking Vanuatu Education*, Port Vila (2002); *Re-thinking Educational Aid in the Pacific*, Fiji (2003); *Re-thinking teacher education*, Samoa (2004) and *Rethinking Education in Micronesia*, Majuro (2004). RPEI comprises a selection of Pacific educators who are passionate about and committed to the improvement of teachers and teaching in Pacific communities, be they in the Pacific Islands or in developed countries such as Australia and New Zealand. It is important that these educators and researchers are encouraged and supported so that they can continue to make a difference to the education of their fellow islanders.

PERSONAL CONTRIBUTION

Most of my professional life has been devoted to teaching in general and to re-thinking teaching and learning in the Pacific, in particular. Through my teaching and writing, I try and encourage fellow teachers to look towards their cultures for inspiration and guidance in order that they may better contextualize their work and enable more Pacific students to succeed in education. Over the years I have developed a personal philosophy and framework for teaching and research that is sourced from Pacific cultures and values in general and from Tongan culture in particular. I first publicly presented *Kakala, a Pacific concept of Education* at a meeting of Pacific Island educators that was held in Fiji in 1992. Later in the same year, I shared *Kakala* with fellow educators in New Zealand at a major Pasifika education conference. Since then I have been able to share *Kakala* at numerous regional and international foras.

Kakala, in my culture (Tonga), refers to a collection of fragrant flowers, woven together as a garland for a special person or a special occasion. *Kakala* has its equivalents in other Pacific Islands societies in the forms of the Fijian *salusalu*, the Hawaiian *lei* or the Cook Island and Tahitian *hei*. There exists in Tonga a special etiquette and mythology associated with *kakala*, that reflects the integrated and holistic nature of the worldviews and epistemologies of the indigenous cultures of the Asia/Pacific region. Three elements associated with *kakala* provide the bases for the framework; these are *toli*, *tui* and *luva*.

Toli refers to the collection and selection of flowers, fruit, leaves and other fragrant and decorative elements needed for making a *kakala*. The type of *kakala* that is to be fashioned will depend on certain considerations including the occasion for which a *kakala* is to be worn, the person(s) who is going to wear the *kakala* or to whom a *kakala* is to be presented, as well as the availability of the necessary ingredients needed for making a *kakala*.

Tui is the actual making or the weaving of the *kakala*. The time taken to make a *kakala* would depend on the complexity of the desired piece as well as the intricacies

of the flower arrangements that are to be used. In Tonga, flowers are ranked according to their cultural significance, and partly based on various mythologies. For example, heilala (*Garcinia sessilis*), is said to have originated in pulotu (the Tongan other-world) and is the highest ranked of all Tongan *kakala*. Classified as a *kakala hingoa* (“chiefly” or “noble” *kakala*), it appears on the top of other *kakala* signifying its rank and importance, while lose (the rose), a relatively recent introduction with no mythology, is lower ranked and classified as a *kakala vale* (“common” *kakala*). However, both types of *kakala* are necessary for the creation of a beautiful and fragrant final product.

Luva, the final aspect in *kakala* making, is the giving away or presentation of a *kakala* to someone else, an act that could be referred to as “garlanding” someone special. In Tongan culture, a *kakala* is meant to be offered or given away to someone special as a sign of ‘*ofa* (compassion or love) and *faka’apa’apa* (respect). The receiver of a *kakala* may be a dancer, or a special guest at a gathering, or a relative or friend who is departing on, or arriving from, a journey. S/he may be an important guest at a gathering or a student graduating from high school or university, who has achieved something special in the eyes of his/her people. A *kakala* is often passed on from the original recipient to another person who in turn shares in the original purpose for which the *kakala* was given in the first place. For me, *kakala* provides a philosophy (as well as a methodology) of teaching and learning, which although rooted in my culture, can be adapted to other cultures and other contexts. *Kakala* requires me to use knowledge that is sourced both locally and globally so that I may weave a garland that is both meaningful, appropriate and worthy of being passed on.

Kakala may also be used as a framework for understanding Pacific students and a way of contextualising teaching and learning, in order to make them more culturally inclusive and democratic. It has also been used by researchers as a culturally appropriate framework for studies among Pacific peoples in New Zealand (Koloto, 2003). For me, *kakala* provides a useful alternative to the totalising framework of western scientific and reductionist thinking that continues to dominate much of the work in universities and other tertiary institutions. *Kakala* is an integrated, inclusive and holistic concept that values the *va/wah* or relationships between teacher and learner, and compliments so called rational, objective and impersonal considerations characteristic of modern human interactions. Finally, *kakala* embraces the four pillars of learning, as espoused by the Delores Report on Education for the 21st century (1998), namely *learning to know; learning to do; learning to live together; and learning to be*. To these I would add *learning together*.

For many of us who still call the Pacific Islands home, but who were or are being educated in higher education institutions outside of our home countries and cultures, our newly acquired worldviews may represent our flight from our cultural roots, from nature and from one another. Perhaps it is time that we more closely examine our own (cultural) ways of thinking and knowing in order to explore what might be changed in our teaching and learning, so that we can create for ourselves and for those under our care, an education environment that is not only sustainable but inclusive in its processes, contexts and outcomes. It is interesting, however, that on one hand, Pacific

educators' concern for the inclusion of Pacific cultures and their knowledge systems in the curricula of Pacific schools and universities is being referred to by some as a "culturalist" approach, motivated by the personal yearnings of some educators (Burnett, 2005), while on the other, the continuing emphases of schools upon the languages, values and knowledge systems of foreign cultures represent 'education for all'. For me educating for cultural survival and sustainability ought to be a concern of all Pacific schools, teachers, and communities, and Pacific people, including teachers and students have a right to teach and to learn about their own cultural knowledge and values systems – just like everybody else.

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5. THE TREATY, THE INSTITUTION AND
THE CHALKFACE: AN INSTITUTION-WIDE PROJECT
IN TEACHER EDUCATION

<i>Ka huri taku reo</i>	<i>My words call out</i>
<i>Ki te hiku o te ika</i>	<i>to the end of the land</i>
<i>Ki te hiku o te rangi</i>	<i>and to the sky;</i>
<i>Ki runga rawa e</i>	<i>men, women,</i>
<i>E hine, te tama</i>	<i>old and young,</i>
<i>E koro, e kui</i>	<i>turn this way</i>
<i>Ka huri mai, whakarongo mai-</i>	<i>so that we can talk together.</i>

What do Maori want from the education system? The same as everyone else, perhaps. Wings for their children to fly with. To be equipped to become the best, the most successful people they can.

Simple really. Like flying a kite. It just needs a steady current, an understanding of the kite's potential, and the freedom to dance and soar and play with the wind.

And putting it just as simply, that is the job of our education systems: to make it possible for all of our students to fly as high and as freely as they can.

So when the challenge comes in New Zealand from Maori to meet our Treaty commitments in education, it is important to see it in simple as well as in socio-politically complex terms. In simple terms, meeting our Treaty obligations in education means doing justice to Maori students and to the families and communities they come from, and to the Pakeha (the term used for a non-indigenous New Zealander) students and their communities in terms of empowering them to be comfortable and effective in a country that has committed itself to acknowledging two official cultures. In more complex terms that task engages us in re-assessing what happens in our schools, in examining what needs to change, and in finding effective ways to bring about that change.

SYSTEMIC CHANGE – AND THE FOCUS OF
THIS CHAPTER

The issue is one that occurs in different forms around the world. In Australia, the process of Reconciliation challenges the education system to significantly address the needs of Aboriginal communities, to find ways of meeting the goals they identify for their young people. Canada wrestles not only with the educational needs of its indigenous peoples, but also with the demands of two cultures who each claim sovereignty in different provinces. In the United States, education systems are

confronted by the needs and expectations of Native peoples, Latino/Latina and Blacks. Ireland and Wales have reclaimed a place for their Gaelic languages, but still grapple with political issues in their education systems. The postcolonial countries of Africa, and India too, have shrugged off colonial rule but they still struggle with making the systems they have been left with their own and with making them address different tribal needs. In New Zealand, the challenge is anchored in the Treaty of Waitangi, and centres around the promise of partnership. And the challenge comes from a history of Maori needs not being met.

Our purpose in this paper is to give an account of how the institution in which we work, the Christchurch College of Education, hears that challenge and of the process we have engaged in to meet it. We will briefly describe the College of Education and its relationship to nation-wide Maori claims for a systemic shift in the processes of education. Then we will examine the specific strategic goals the College has set, and the ways it seeks to implement them. Part of the College's response has been to appoint us, the two writers of this paper, as Joint Co-ordinators of the Bicultural Project. We will, therefore, give an account of the experiences we have had and of the future developments that we plan.

Before examining the College's goals and our work in more detail, we would like to draw out some of what we see as significant concepts in educational theory and research as they relate to our project.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Two concepts that are central to our work are *decolonisation* and *capacity building*. Decolonisation in broader terms refers to the process of deconstructing the external systems and internalised mental maps that are the product of colonisation on indigenous people (Smith, 1999; Tau, 2001). The external systems, social, economic and political, structure our society in ways that privilege certain backgrounds, connections, and kinds of knowledge (Bernstein, 1971, Bourdieu, 1993; Walker, 1999;). They determine who will have access to resources and what kinds of needs those resources will address. The internalised mental maps are products of what Gee (1992) calls Discourse: the systems of meanings that determine the ways in which we talk, act, interact, think, believe and value. They are specific to particular groups and they are social constructs. They are also intimately related to the distribution of social power and the hierarchical structure in society. Both the external structures and the internalised Discourses impact on education by making what happens in classrooms more relevant and accessible to certain groups of students than to others (Hooks, 1994; Lareau, 1997). The relative failure of Maori students within the education system has been attributed to both economic and social barriers (Waitangi Tribunal, 1986) and to ideological biases (Simon, 1986).

As analysis of the problem moves into a search for solutions and an advocacy of change, decolonisation becomes linked with capacity building: the development of skills, knowledge and resources within a particular community or group so that the people can become increasingly autonomous in determining their well-being. In the

New Zealand context the term *tino rangatiratanga* (effective sovereignty) is often used by Maori to describe the desired outcome from the processes of decolonisation and the building of capacity.

Rangatiratanga describes the fully developed capacity of Maori to determine the resources and the decision-making that affect Maori people (Durie, 1998). It also denotes their right to hold and exercise that capacity (Walker, 1990). *Partnership* is another term that is often used in this context. It relates to the promises made in the Treaty of Waitangi to protect the rangatiratanga of Maori in the process of establishing a British colony in New Zealand (Kawharu, 1989). It also relates to the role Maori intend to hold within New Zealand political and educational structures: to be partners rather than beneficiaries. A further meaning is also very relevant to our discussion in this paper: it refers to a vision of Maori and Pakeha genuinely consulting each other and working in collaboration to achieve the well-being of both parties.

In educational terms the concept of capacity building, or the development of rangatiratanga, is given practical application in the *Kohanga Reo* movement (literally, 'language nests', refers to early childhood centers with Maori language immersion), in Maori language schools, bilingual schools, and *kaupapa Maori* schools (education delivered in Maori language but also based on Maori values), and in a range of post-compulsory programmes and courses that aim at Maori development. Graham Smith (1992, and elsewhere) relates kaupapa Maori to international theoretical ideas about emancipatory education, such as those of Friere, Bourdieu, Gramsci and Giroux, but he also emphasises that for Maori people there is another theoretical framework which connects kaupapa Maori to the wider structures of Maori society: "for example, notions of *tino rangatiratanga* (autonomy) *mana* (authority) *iwi* (tribal support) *whanaungatanga* (group responsibility) *manaakitanga* (sharing and support) and many others." In recent statements *Ngai Tahu* (the *iwi* or tribal group which encompasses most of the South Island) articulates a goal of their capacity building, as do other *iwi* groups, in terms of expectations of specific achievement outcomes for their young people and in terms of the provision of specific cultural content, such as language teaching, and resources (Ngai Tahu, 2001). These very specific plans directly inform our project at the College.

Both the concept of decolonisation and that of capacity building have relevance for Pakeha as well as Maori. It has been repeatedly proposed (among others, Mitcalfe and Harper, 1969; Friere 1972) that both oppressor and oppressed are victims of colonisation. A discourse that privileges a single set of values and a blinkered approach to knowledge disempowers the apparent beneficiaries of a system as well as the victims. Within the educational context, Pakeha teachers are disempowered when they do not know how to meet the needs of their Maori students, and Pakeha students are disempowered when they are not being equipped to understand and be able to interact with both the cultures of their land. There have been a number of educational initiatives in New Zealand, as there have been in other countries, that have taken as their premise the need to liberate both cultures. One such project is *Te Mauri Pakeaka*, recorded by Greenwood (1999, 2001), and also the subject of a book in development by Wilson & Greenwood. Capacity building within these terms

involves the cross-cultural development of Pakeha so that they are better able to function in a bicultural country and, in the case of teachers, to be effective in meeting the needs of all their students. It is important, therefore, to our project to engage both Maori and Pakeha in the processes of bringing about curriculum and organisational change. It is also very useful that one of us is Maori (Liz) and the other is Pakeha, (Janinka) as we offer a model of a bicultural collaboration.

Decolonisation and capacity building are processes that require the active, informed and increasingly self-determined participation of those who are involved. They require strategies for action and strategies for critically reflecting on action. When we were appointed to the role of co-ordinators for the College's project we turned to participatory action research as a model of a way of working that offers both an approach to researching the need for change and strategies for bringing about change. Participatory action research involves the communities it engages with in an examination of their own aspirations and practice in their own working environments. Its purpose is not only to gather information, but also to lead to emancipatory practice (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992; Robertson, 2000; Wadsworth, 1998). As a research methodology, participatory action research aligns to a significant degree with the kinds of approaches to research that are being put forward by Maori. Linda Smith, for example, discussing indigenous approaches to research, identifies self-determination as a key strategic goal. "Self-determinism in a research agenda," she writes (p. 116), "becomes something more than a political goal. It becomes a goal of social justice which is expressed through and across a wide range of psychological, social, cultural and economic terrains." Hand in hand with self-determination comes a focus on practical outcomes, an insistence on gains for the participants as well as the researchers (Jahnke and Taiapa, 1999; Smith, 1999). We see ourselves, therefore, in this project working within a paradigm that grows out of both participatory action research and contemporary Maori research perspectives.

CHRISTCHURCH COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT PRIORITIES

Christchurch College of Education began as a teacher training institute. The education of teachers, pre-service, and in-service is still its primary business, although the provision of higher degrees grounded in teaching practice has developed to stand alongside its initial undergraduate and advisory programmes. In addition it has developed a number of programmes beyond teacher education: notably a school of Business Studies, and a Performing Arts Centre.

Some would say it has been a very monocultural organisation, and it would be hard to argue against that judgement. Christchurch as a whole has promoted an image of itself as an English community, descended from the first four ships and retaining perhaps more of the class and cultural consciousness of Victorian England than England itself has. However, both Christchurch and the College have been confronted with the need to change. The pressure on the College to deal with its obligations to Maori comes from national and from local sources.

On a national front, the Ministry of Education has a policy-shaping and audit team, Te Puni Kokiri, that reviews the practice of educational institutes in terms of the way they meet their treaty obligations. In its report (2001) on institutions delivering teacher education Te Puni Kokiri makes a number of firm recommendations. These include the stipulations that teacher education programmes:

- extend their current curricula pertaining to Maori to include more practical content that will prepare trainees for the reality of the contemporary New Zealand classroom;
- develop a prescribed set of competencies to equip graduates to teach students who are Maori.

The report also reminds teacher training providers that Maori expectations include:

- having components that assist or encourage trainees to understand Maori students' cultural influences;
- examining the social and cultural differences between teachers and Maori pupils;
- training in teaching strategies that offer learning experiences relevant to Maori students' own contents; and
- encouraging trainees' belief that their teaching can make a difference for students.

The government's Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) (2002) states a number of strategic priorities that will govern accreditation and funding of tertiary institutions over the next five years. They feature a cluster of objectives that "contribute to the achievement of Maori development aspirations", including:

- tertiary educational leadership that is effectively accountable to Maori communities
- strong and balanced Maori staff profiles with the tertiary education system
- quality programmes that recognise *te ao Maori* (Maori world) perspectives and support the revitalisation of *te reo Maori* (Maori language).

The Ministry's latest draft Statement of Tertiary Education Priorities (2004) reinforces these objectives, and sums them up in the national goal of "strengthening Maori development".

At the local level Christchurch College of Education engages with Ngai Tahu who hold *mana whenua* (authority that springs from the land, and involves trusteeship of the land) over most of the South Island and who are the sole Treaty partner to the Crown in their region. In 1998 all four of the key tertiary institutions in greater Christchurch joined with Ngai Tahu in establishing Te Tapuae o Rehua as a company that would "enable a more co-ordinated and co-operative approach to increase the number of Maori participating in tertiary education" (Te Tapuae o Rehua, 2002). The company continues to be an active partner in determining strategic directions for the College. One outcome of this partnership was the appointment of a *kaiwhaka-haere*, or leader in Maori strategic direction, at the senior management level.

At the level of schools, Ngai Tahu has established an Memorandum of Understanding with the Ministry of Education. This commits both parties to the achievement of a number of specific educational outcomes for Maori, whose numbers in proportion to the population as a whole are steadily increasing. Among the expectations that that have been established are the following:

- by 2004 every school will have established a relationship with its local branch of Ngai Tahu, and involve parents in the education of their children;

- there will be monitoring of Ngai Tahu participation in early childhood education, success in reading, writing and maths, secondary school retention and achievement, suspension rates, te reo acquisition, and qualifications;
- by 2008 the performance of Ngai Tahu students will show they are achieving equal to or better than the general population.

The power of schools to deliver to these outcomes will depend in no small part on the preparedness of teachers to relate to Maori students and to their families. As a pre-service and in-service educator of teachers our college has a clear role in preparing teachers to develop understandings that come from Maori as well as Pakeha relationships and to be able to meet these expectations.

THE BICULTURAL PROJECT IN THE COLLEGE

In response to these challenges the College set up an exploration of the needs of College staff and of the strengths and shortcomings of the system. The working party developed a set of recommendations that were duly accepted by the senior management team as strategic goals (Te Aika and Greenwood, 2002). They are:

- recognition of the Treaty partnership by working with Ngai Tahu to deliver on their priorities as well as existing ones,
- development of courses that provide students, and staff, with understandings of Treaty obligations,
- development of programmes in Maori language and protocol for staff and students with different levels of existing knowledge,
- creation of a physical and social environment that is culturally appropriate and welcoming,
- recruitment, retention and continuing professional development of staff who are Maori and also of staff who have bicultural capabilities,
- development of curriculum content that is up to date and relevant to Maori and to bicultural development,
- support and allocation of funding for Maori research projects,
- Accountability for the planning and delivery of these above stated goals.

To implement these goals the College allocated a staffing resource, and we, the authors, were appointed as Joint Co-ordinators of the Project.

The pages that follow provide an illustrative example of our task by describing how we are developing the courses that are to provide students, and staff, with understandings of Treaty obligations. We describe the consultative processes and the planning we have undertaken to determine the purpose, content and delivery style of these courses, and we give an account of the practice of the first eighteen months.

An example of our processing of change

The need for Treaty courses had emerged from feedback to the working party by staff, by students who are concerned about the lack of application to present classroom needs in existing courses that deal with the Treaty, and by the Maori community who note the unpreparedness of beginning teachers to create effective relationships with

students and their families. The feedback has been aligned with the demands of the TEC, Te Puni Kokiri documents and the Memorandum of Understanding.

At the same time it was evident that there were also a number of staff in the College who considered courses about the Treaty either a waste of time or unnecessarily divisive. In addition there are groups within the College who feel they have a strong ownership of the material that might go into such courses, either because they have actively taught Treaty history or anti-racism, or because of their familiarity with existing models.

The first step was to engage some of the key stakeholders in a preliminary discussion, so establishing the first cycle of our participatory action research. Members of this group in turn have met, formally or informally, with others of shared interest and developed overlapping and expanding spirals of discussion.

Our first group contained College staff from each of the sectors of pre-service teacher education and members of the Maori community. All came with substantial experience in this field. In terms of purpose the dual themes that emerged were: to prepare our students to meet Treaty obligations in their schools, and to be effective in creating learning situations that lead to success for Maori students.

The development of *relationships* was repeatedly identified as a crucial component. The most common failure by teachers was not so much a lack of knowledge of facts but of the skills to develop meaningful relationships with Maori pupils and their families.

From this central focus, a number of salient aspects of content were identified. It was felt to be important to start with the present situation, and future expectations rather than focusing primarily on the past, though factual knowledge of history is clearly needed. Some knowledge of language is required but it needs to be strongly targeted towards teachers' ability to pronounce their students' names and to approach the Maori words they will meet in their work with respect and confidence. They need to be able to meet Maori language without relegating it to something outside the frame of normal classroom discourse. Knowledge of protocols, or *tikanga*, is also important, but once again teachers need to be able to relate these concepts to the content areas of their curriculum and to their normal classroom behaviours rather than placing them on the side. Learning how to relate to Maori is the main area that needs development.

It became evident that a Treaty course might provide a starting point for some of this learning, but there is a real need for professional studies and for curriculum areas to incorporate these principles as well. That realisation again pointed to the need for professional development of all College staff so that they could understand these goals and feel equipped to deliver on them.

When we came to discuss styles of delivery there was a considerable amount of teasing out of the advantages and downfalls of inclusive delivery, as opposed to separation into Maori and Pakeha groups, and of ways in which all participants could feel safe and honoured at the same time as they might be challenged. A further point that emerged was that in terms of staff workshops there is a need to get participants to link their selected professional development directly to outcomes they will nominate and that would be reflected in their changed practice. Robertson (2000) identifies

reality-checking as the third “R” in participatory action research. Our staff are being confronted by Ministry and other regularity demands for changed practice: we see our role as developing processes that will help them meet those demands with a sense of personal success.

The next stages of our process involve engagement with students and with beginning teachers to discuss how equipped they feel to cope with Treaty obligations in a contemporary classroom and what they perceive their learning needs to be, and with staff across the College to facilitate their development of curriculum content. In this process we are coming to understand our own role as provocateurs, as facilitators, and also as people who stand back and simply encourage other staff who are willing to explore and develop their own progress towards implementing Treaty goals. Knowing which role to take when, is however still part of our own learning.

Learning, breaking down old learning, and art

This past year we worked with groups of staff and with first year teacher education students in primary and early childhood programmes. We set out to create programmes that would avoid conceptual incongruities between talking about the importance of relationships and empowerment for teaching Maori students and teaching the needed background information in ways that were didactic and possibly alienating. The student participants had to attend in order to gain credits for what was a compulsory course. However, within that constraint we sought to develop a learning situation where honesty could be possible, trust could grow, imagination could be brought into play, multiple possibilities could be explored and success would be experienced and celebrated.

We describe the philosophy and process of these workshops more fully elsewhere (Greenwood and Brown, 2003, 2004). Here we want to briefly describe some of the things we have learned from these workshops and that we plan to carry forward to the next cycles of our project.

One of the first things we found was that when participants were able to take control – even within the limits of the resources provided – of their own research into history they were very open to the discoveries they made. When these discoveries challenged their previous assumptions, participants were willing to address the challenge. Often reflections would involve statements such as; “In the beginning I thought ..., but when I found out about ... I realised ...” Because participants were not called upon to accept ideas that were given to them by authority they did not appear to have a need to defend their existing ideas. On the contrary they became eager to learn more.

The second key principle that emerged from the first stage of our work was the value of the group. Most of the work was done in small groups, with participants able to choose their work mates and whether or not they wanted to try new groupings as the work progressed. As we expected, the small group gave participants a supportive context in which to bounce around emerging ideas and to argue without the involvement of a ‘teacher’ and without the public exposure of whole group discussion. That seemed to make it easier to shift ground. We were pleasantly surprised by the extent

to which the small groups provided motivation for inquiry and challenged initial ideas. By the second day participants would be planning, problem solving and critically reflecting within their own groups, and would rarely turn to us for clarification or endorsement.

A third discovery was about the value of art processes. We initially chose to provide art making opportunities (visual and dramatic) because we saw art as a means of opening up different expressive and discursive pathways, and we hoped these would allow our participants to bypass some of the verbal and circular arguments they were used to falling into. As the workshops progressed we would notice that the participants would dive into the art materials with increasing confidence, that the art processes did indeed appear to allow participants to focus on the meanings that were emerging from their research rather than on discursive argument, that they provided a vehicle for collaboration, and that final feedback often highlighted the participants pleasure in working in this way.

Emergent themes in the project

At this point in our work we would like to share a number of the emergent understandings about the nature of our project as a whole, and where it fits into Maori as well as western concepts of knowledge and research.

The participatory action research approach has engaged us in a process of consultation and knowledge building that has parallels on the *marae* (the ground that is the focal meeting place of a tribal community). Discussion on the *marae* is public and issues that concern the community are discussed by all those who claim a part in that community. Talk may begin with oppositional viewpoints, but it slowly works to consensus as participants critically reflect on the experiences others bring to the debate as well as their own. The cycles of action, reflection and reformulation not only continue on that *marae* itself, but are taken out to other groups where they create new, yet interacting, cycles of exploration. Knowledge is built by survey of previous legacies of experience, often through oral records, and by the addition of new situations to explore. So, as we in this project turn to what we describe as action research in the context of western academia, we are also turning to *marae* practice. We are working within the arena where Maori and Pakeha perspectives of knowledge overlap.

The recognition and development of relationships has repeatedly emerged as a central issue. *Whanaungatanga* is the term often used to express this theme. *Whanaungatanga* describes not only relationships, but also the obligations and expectations that come through relationships, and the interdependence of the group. With relationships comes an expectation of *manaakitanga*, the practical application of respect, support and nurturing. Treaty understandings are based on partnership: positive partnership invokes this rich understanding of the concept of relationship. To achieve its desired role in educating teachers to do justice to their Maori students, the College needs to enter into this kind of relationship with its community. Staff need to develop collaborative relationships with each other in order to bring the College's strategic goals into reality. Our graduating students need to know how to enter into these relationships with students and their families. The concept of *manaakitanga* within relationships

acknowledges the need for all the parties to be nurtured. Teachers, be they the staff at College, or their graduates in the field, also need to be supported so that they feel free to engage with today's bicultural challenges and to take responsibility for their own development. And Pakeha need and enjoy liberation, just as much as Maori. Personal shift has to accompany systemic shift.

We find that the project we are engaged in brings up people's fears, uncertainties, enthusiasms and angers as well as their intellectual responses. In the first instance, we are dealing with people and people are multi-faceted. We are reminded that we need to work with all the aspects of personality not only in our action processes but also in our reflection. Maori description of personality invokes five aspects: *hinengaro* (mind), *ngakau* (emotions), *wairua* (spirituality), *tinana* (body), *whanaungatanga* (kinship connections). Within the model of participatory action and action research, *tinana* may refer to the practical and material embodiments of action, and *whanaungatanga* both to the community whose interests the action and the research serves and to the community of knowledge-holders that we relate back to as we reflect on our work. The work we do involves emotional processing as well as intellectual processing, and it evokes our unmapped instinctive responses to what we understand to be wider spiritual truth. We need to acknowledge and utilise all of these.

Finally, throughout this chapter we have talked about biculturalism, and we have not mentioned multiculturalism. Mainly this is because the Treaty defines our national character in terms of the sovereignty of indigenous and colonising cultures. Honouring both these cultures in practice in our classrooms is our focus. However, this focus does not ignore the multicultural nature of our classrooms. Immigrant children of necessity learn to relate to Pakeha culture because it is embodied in the mainstream. They also need to be supported to relate to Maori culture. Moreover, teachers repeatedly find that as they come to understand Maori cultural needs and aspirations more deeply, they also become much more sensitive to the backgrounds, language preferences, learning styles, and personal needs of all their students. Biculturalism is not a denial of multiculturalism, rather it is platform on which multicultural respect can be built.

CONCLUSION

At the beginning of this chapter we suggested that there are both simple and complex answers to the questions: what do Maori want from education and how do we as teacher educators meet their needs and expectations?

The simple answer to the first question, we suggested, is for their children to fly. The more complex answer to this question is to some extent laid out in documents such as the Memorandum of Understanding, Te Puni Kokiri's Report and the TEC priorities. However the depth of the statements made in those documents needs to be explored more fully through relationships and dialogue.

The simple answer to the second question is that we need to develop effective relationships with Maori that will allow us to show our student teachers how to collaborate with Maori parents and communities and so empower the Maori, Pakeha, and new immigrant children in their classrooms. The more complex answer involves a significant

amount of learning and the negotiation of often quite complicated expressions of need and expectation. It also involves the bringing together of people who may initially hold quite opposing points of view and who bring their emotional as well as their rational responses to the discussion. It requires a participatory process of action and investigation to flesh out initial answers. Once again relationships and dialogue are crucial.

We offered the image of the kite. Nylon and silk are not the only materials kites are made of. Paper, flax, raupo and reeds are also extensively used. Different materials have different characteristics which we need to know thoroughly in order to assist the kite to fly. The wind may not be something we can control, but we need to learn to recognise the characteristics of each breeze. Then our kites may not stay grounded. They will soar.

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6. WHERE HAVE ALL THE TEACHERS GONE?
GONE TO BE LEADERS, EVERYONE

FROM TEACHING TO LEADERSHIP

The past

In days of old, when teachers were bold, schools were simple places. Teachers delivered, in oracular fashion, the curriculum they thought suitable to their pupils, whose role it was to receive it. Schools had small staffs, Head Teachers taught regularly, their deputies nearly always had full teaching time-tables. Education was locally administered, with few other than very general central government guidelines, funding was single stream. Historically, schooling developed in this way reflecting its origins from the time when education was family and community based. While in present days such a view may be seen as quaint, one of the writers experienced such schools in London in the 1940's and 50's. Schools at that time and later were also simple in terms of facilities and resources. He learnt his early number and word skills on a sand tray and a slate, and used toilet paper [which in those days appeared to be designed for the purpose] for tracing maps. The secondary school he attended had no library and no duplicator. Courses were delivered via a single, often shared, textbook, augmented by the eager pupil with trips to the local library. Later on he taught P.E. drama and craft in a classroom with double desks screwed to the floor. The most common form of curriculum delivery was teacher dictation. Lest this sound like a tale of woe, the writer has always appreciated his schooling, which would appear not to have significantly handicapped his career progress and life.

TODAY

Present day English schools provide a stark contrast. We have gathered some indication of the extent of the growing number and complexity of leadership roles and duties of teachers from schools participating in research projects the authors have worked on. In many secondary schools few teachers only teach. For example, a listing of the 68 teachers in one reveals only 16 [24%] without a significant leadership role or roles. These include the Leadership Team consisting of: a Head Teacher, three Deputy Heads, three Assistant Deputy Heads and a Senior Manager, together with Heads of Year and Subjects, with Seconds in Charge. Leadership listings or plans are often very detailed, for example, in another similar school the team consists of:

- Head, Learning and ethos
- Deputy Head, Learning and teaching
- Deputy Head, Learning and curriculum

- Senior Assistant Head, Learning and learning support
- College Manager, Facilitating learning
- Assistant Head, Learning and community
- Assistant Head, Learning and inclusion
- Assistant Head, Learning and behaviour
- Assistant Head, Learning and pastoral support Key Stage 3
- Assistant Head, Learning and pastoral support Key Stage 4
- Assistant Head, Learning and achievement

Each of these is followed by a list of between 10 and 19 specific responsibilities. Indeed, the Staff Handbook lists almost 250 roles and responsibilities in a hopefully comprehensive A-Z that are carried out by teachers.

While smaller in scale Primary schools display a similar pattern. They are required to have Head Teacher and Deputy, Co-ordinators for each of the seven National Curriculum Subjects and for Key Stages 1 and 2. Consequently, in the large number of such schools with less than 11 teachers the roles have to be combined. But this is but the tip of an iceberg, since the schools have a large number of less formal leadership roles to be undertaken. Most will have a role in respect to special educational needs (SEN) provision and the deployment of teaching assistants. Those involved with Government initiatives, such as Education Action Zones (EAZs), Excellence in Cities Partnerships, Federations, Networked Learning Communities and the like will have leaders for these. In some cases these create several further roles related to aspects of the initiatives, for example, parental involvement, ICT, continuing professional development (CPD), accelerated learning, boy's and ethnic underachievement, etc.

LEADERSHIP OR MANAGEMENT?

Our use of the term leadership for what traditionally has been seen as management is more than justified in contemporary English schooling. The shift in usage is clearly epitomised by the setting up of the National College of School Leadership and the term's adoption by many schools. The shift might be assumed to have implications of a change in schools' regimes and the style of relationships within them. This is implicit in the literal meanings of the words: to manage is to be in charge of/ to administer; to lead is to show the way/ to guide. The extent to which these implications were intended, or have been realised, is open to speculation. Our experience across a number of schools indicates that the full range of perspectives derived from both terms exist and often co-exist.

HOW DID WE GET WHERE WE ARE? FROM NEO LIBERAL TO NETWORK MARKET

Some of the change from teaching to leadership is the result of the increased size of schools, caused by an increased child population [post war baby boom], urbanisation and the closure of large numbers of small schools deemed to be uneconomic, together with the rapid development and adoption of technology. Most, however, is

the result of central government policy implementation, and this is the central concern of this chapter. Space precludes more than a passing reference to the precursors to the main epoch reviewed here. Major among these were:

- Moves towards comprehensive secondary schooling from the 1960's.
- The raising of compulsory period of schooling from 10 to 11 years in 1972/3.

The proliferation of leadership roles in schools emerges from the 'educational revolution' (Jones, 2003) of the nineteen eighties that was set in train by Conservative governments between 1987 and 1997. It attempted to restructure the whole educational infrastructure of the social democratic post-war settlement through creating an educational market along neo-liberal economic lines. The basic governing principles can be summarised following Ball (2001, p. 46) as:

- *Choice and competition. The commodification and consumerisation of education;*
- *Autonomy and performativity. The managerialisation and commercialisation of education;*
- *Centralisation and prescription. The imposition of centrally determined assessments, schemes of work and classroom methods.*

These essential characteristics were enshrined in the 1988 Education Reform Act (ERA) and reinforced by subsequent acts and government circulars.

Choice and competition between schools were promoted through:

- providing parental choice of school (subject to available places);
- ensuring schools published Standard Attainment Test scores; and
- the introduction of a per pupil school funding formula.

These changes ensured that schools competed for pupils, via parental choice, based primarily on performance.

Autonomy and performativity were promoted by the creation of the local management of schools, achieved by devolving education budgets to individual schools, together with the creation of Grant Maintained Schools – schools which could opt out of LEA control, providing a majority of parents supported the move. In addition to promoting autonomy these introduced a further element of diversity and choice in provision, as did the later creation of Specialist Schools. Performativity was encouraged by creating a market in which autonomous schools competed to attract pupils through parental choice which would be exercised primarily on the basis of how successful schools were in achieving high levels of pupil attainment.

Centralisation and prescription were reflected in the introduction of a National Curriculum, ensuring that a standard, quality assured product was delivered to consumers. The National Curriculum paved the way for the introduction of performance league tables and Ofsted inspections (from 1993) which further promoted performativity. Ofsted became the vehicle through which schools were made accountable to government for the delivery of a pre-set curriculum and defined and prescribed the quality of management and teaching.

The creation of an educational market has had profound implications for management and teaching in schools. First, it increased the range of managerial functions schools had to fulfill. The devolution of budgets to schools resulted in them undertaking functions that were previously undertaken by continuing professional development

(LEAs). For example, Gunter (2002, p. 151) lists headteachers becoming responsible for: bidding for resources, buying in training and consultancy, competitive tendering for cleaning and canteen staff, hiring, firing, promoting of staff, installation of operation of performance management systems, and selection, recruitment, retention, discipline and exiting of pupils. These required new managerial functions to be carried out by both teaching and non-teaching staff. Second, as schools became more autonomous and business like, so the development of specific management and leadership skills became more important and a separation opened up between management and teaching staff. This explains the proliferation of management training courses. Third, the introduction of the National Curriculum and Ofsted inspection created a demand for new middle management posts such as Key Stage and subject co-ordinators and helped to transform the work of class teachers by inculcating the practices and culture of target-setting, action planning, monitoring and assessment. In this way, teaching was 'de-professionalised' as good teaching increasingly became defined as the delivery of the National Curriculum, in carefully prescribed ways, to meet narrow educational outcomes, thereby increasing the range of 'managerial' functions of teachers in planning, administration and assessment. New quangos were set up to control the curriculum and prescribe its content (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority) and to control and change the training and work of teachers (Teacher Training Agency) and were intended to embed the model of teacher as curriculum deliverer.

Not surprisingly, as managerial functions increased, new middle management and senior management positions were created, teachers' workloads changed, the number of non-teaching staff employed in schools increased and schools became more complex organisations. However, this trend toward complexity rapidly accelerated in the move toward the networked market, which is a developing product of the New Labour Government's ongoing drive to raise standards, begun in 1997.

New Labour identified the raising of educational standards as its number one priority this being simultaneously seen as the key to creating economic growth in the flexible, knowledge-based economies of the 21st century, and promoting social inclusion by creating pathways out of poverty. This view places education at the heart of social and economic policy, because developing the knowledge and skills of individuals both secures their employability and produces the human capital necessary for economic success in post-industrial economies. This is assumed to automatically lead to social inclusion.

Education is the key to creating a society which is dynamic and productive, offering opportunity and fairness to all ... learning can unlock the treasure which lies within us all. In the 21st Century, knowledge and skills will be the key to success. Our goal is a society in which everyone is well educated and able to learn throughout life. Britain's economic prosperity and social cohesion both depend on achieving that goal.

(DfEE, 1997, p. 9)

The New Labour approach to raising standards retained and reinforced the core principles of previous Conservative governments' market-based reforms: per capita

funding for schools; the devolution of school budgets; differentiation between types of schools; promotion of selection in some areas; use of school performance league tables; setting of narrowly-defined attainment targets; and the instruments of school inspection. In addition New Labour's 'Third Way' approach added:

- the promotion of collaborative networks and partnerships between schools and between other 'partners' e.g. business, community groups, statutory and non statutory services, in order to raise standards;
- a focus on raising standards in deprived or disadvantaged areas, to ensure 'excellence for all', through the promotion of targeted initiatives designed to raise the social capital of individuals, families and communities in deprived areas.

These two additional principles modify, rather than transform, the neo-liberal market of the Conservatives by promoting a networked market. This is a market in which competition between schools is retained but attempts are made to:

- encourage collaboration between clusters of schools, in order to promote the development and dissemination of best practice, encourage the sharing of resources and develop common solutions to educational problems;
- create new forms of partnerships between schools and other stakeholders in the private, public and voluntary sectors that will open up schools to sources of innovation and result in the creation of dense networks of support, on which schools can draw to provide support structures for disadvantaged or disaffected pupils and their families;
- situate the school as a community resource that is at the centre of a learning community providing the social capital – networks, support structures, contacts and relationships – that parents and pupils in deprived areas are assumed to lack;

These involve attempts to create social capital networks that can be exploited to help individuals, families, schools and the wider community, in order to raise levels of achievement.

Pupil and family support is provided in a wide range of forms, e.g. learning mentors, learning support units, extended study support, promotion of parental involvement and family literacy programmes. Teachers' and schools' support networks are created both in and between schools through the increase in non-teaching staff and support services, e.g. teaching assistants, learning mentors, learning support units and behaviour improvement teams, and by promoting collaborative work between schools, and between schools and other institutions, through initiatives such as Sure Start, EAZs, Networked Learning Communities and Excellence in Cities (EiC). Community support is provided through the promotion of the school as the centre of local community provision, as reflected in EiC Partnerships and Extended schools, which provide a range of educational and welfare support functions for the local community. The Education Act 2002 gave school Governing Bodies the power to provide community facilities for the benefit of pupils, their families and people who live and work in the locality.

Michael Barber, Head of the Government's Performance Unit, illustrated the role and benefits of collaborative partnerships in the following description of the government's EiC programme.

EiC is based firmly on the belief that schools working together, collaboratively, can achieve more for pupils, parents and communities than schools in isolation ... by working with others to share best practice, tackle common problems and offer specialist opportunities to other pupils from a range of schools each school can help to enhance performance across an area ... Each pupil should see him or herself as a member, not just of a specific school community, but of a wider learning-community committed to his or her success.

(Barber, 2001, p. 30)

A similar logic underpins the creation of an extended school in every LEA. Such schools will house multi-agency workers and support services in an attempt to provide support for pupils, families and communities that will help overcome barriers to educational success.

As can be seen from the discussion above, the network market phase of educational reform further diversified and fragmented schooling, resulting in a high level of institutional variation and complexity. Diversity was furthered through the creation of new types of school, e.g. Specialist, Beacon and City Academies, and the encouragement of different forms of provision for groups of pupils, e.g. Gifted and Talented, and new forms of collaborative partnerships. As the DfES argued, 'this quiet revolution is making our schools unrecognisable compared to the staffing picture even of 10 years ago' (2002, p. 25).

THE CONSEQUENCES OF CHANGE FROM TEACHING TO LEADERSHIP

There is a range of consequences not only for teachers, but also for school, pupils, parents, and local and national policy makers and implementers. Here we concentrate on some of the consequences for teachers and their education and training.

Individual teachers

Most people with knowledge of English schools are aware of how overloaded and complex teaching has become in recent years. Here we illustrate the situation as portrayed by two experienced teachers in in-depth interviews. In our experience their views are shared by many in their profession.

H is a mainstream primary school teacher with 6 years experience. In addition to being a classroom teacher contracted for 27.5 hours a week, she has whole school responsibility and leadership for the coordination and management of Literacy. This amounts to some 15 hours additional work. The coordination of literacy is very complex. H feels that the workload is overwhelming, everything is crisis managed and that has a negative impact on her ability to teach. There is also pressure from outside agencies that affect how she feels about her work as the leader of a core subject:

It stresses me out that I am always in the position of having to explain myself to outside bodies: a feeling of impending doom of everything

potentially crashing down around my ears: Ofsted, the pressure of being a Beacon Status school, SATs, league tables ... all those things that demand that I co-ordinate and lead in a exemplary fashion.

H undertakes this demanding role with no formally recognised management status, no contractual agreement to do so, no financial remuneration or non-contact time, or time in lieu. She also manages and co-ordinates Art and Design, and is responsible for assessment in Key Stage 1. To remain on top of her job H estimates that she works in excess of 60 hours a week and uses the holiday *to catch up, mainly on administration.*

She sees her school shifting towards a production line delivery of governmental initiatives, rather than being an organic and autonomous body within which pupils grow and develop. As she put it:

At the end of the key stages, pupils have really missed out on a broad and balanced curriculum, it's a constant catch-up until SATs, then afterwards everyone's too tired to enjoy the rest of year. Its so constraining because you can't really respond to what's going on in schools.

As Literacy Strategy Coordinator (as opposed to the English Coordinator of the old days) H feels responsible for the performance of every child in the school.

I know how I would ideally like to manage a core subject but I just physically can't without becoming a complete workaholic and burning out.

In summing up the professional consequences of her multiple leadership responsibilities H concludes that they:

... impinge on my ability to plan for, monitor and assess my class effectively. I sometimes have no choice but to do the bare minimum in order to be able to grab time for subject co-ordination, because there is no allocation for this within my contracted hours but there is an expectation that I will excel at it, and contribute to the continued Beacon Status of the school.

And of the personal consequences:

Lack of sleep due to overwork, I can't relax my brain, I often can't sleep because I'm planning and then worrying about what I have to do. I am not able to do a lot of the things I would like to do in the evenings or at the weekend because I'm too tired, or, actually, am too fed up. I feel guilty when I go out at night in my own time during the week because I know that I have so much still to do, but even working till ten o'clock at night still doesn't get me anywhere.

R is a mainstream secondary school teacher with 17 years experience who has two additional responsibilities: 2nd in charge of the Maths Department and the School's Examinations Officer. She is not part of the Senior Management or Middle Management teams. Recently, the Government has recommended that the role of

Examinations Officer should be a full time administrative post of 27.5 hours a week and not carried by a mainstream teacher as an additional responsibility, but R does this alongside teaching Maths in KS3 and 4, Business Studies in KS4 and the Advanced Vocational Certificate of Education in KS5: her teaching commitments equal 19 hours of timetabled contact time a week, not including cover for absent colleagues. To this must be added the directed time hours for meetings and non-contact time. The time R spends in school exceeds 50 hours a week, and on average some 70 hours a week doing her job, only 19 hours [less than a third] of which is spent with pupils. As she pointed out:

I am always being called out of class ... typical interruptions to my lessons include being brought post; pupils coming in with exam admission related problems; staff coming in with queries about exams, not to mention pupils coming in for clarification or equipment if I have had to set them off because their teacher is absent. I have to carry a mobile phone and effectively be 'on call'. In exam season, I can miss up to half of any lesson I am supposed to be teaching. This is no good for pupils' education, sometimes the pupils themselves comment on the level of interruptions we suffer.

Having said that, R also recognised that her leadership role in the Maths Department has positive benefits for the pupils. Her attendance at CPD courses that introduce and train staff for various initiatives and changes have had a positive effect on both her own teaching and her leadership of this core subject.

R identified three types of leader/teacher at her school:

- those with formally agreed and financially remunerated leadership responsibilities;
- those with less formally agreed leadership roles, for which they had volunteered;
- those without formally or informally agreed additional responsibilities, who had not volunteered.

She stated that there was no clear parity between workload and status and salary in these categories. One result of this disparity was that some teachers felt impelled to take on leadership roles, while others were not highly regarded *because they never volunteer to do any of the work that needs to be done.*

R analysed what she saw as the motivation and/or the desire to move out of classroom teaching into leadership roles as; because they feel *that they could do better* than what is in place; seek financial incentives, higher status; to further their career; to gain respite from the classroom, *anything that reduces face to face contact.* While most of these can be seen as traditional reasons, the last is of particular interest, especially as R saw this as having been heightened by the increasing advent of pupils' and parents' rights.

She also identified the role of government initiatives as a source of the higher expectations of teachers:

the Government, you know ... They are always bringing out new initiatives or guidelines, including what is a core or non-core subject, without considering time implications.

While R maintained that she enjoyed working with pupils and got a lot of job satisfaction from it, she regretted

that there is never enough time to really get to know them – it's like a production line where you are instilling knowledge, where there is much less of ... life skills, values, the stuff you can do based on relationships.

Reflecting on her career she commented:

I used to feel on top of it and up to date, I never do now, which is to do with the roles that I have in addition to being a teacher.

When asked about the personal consequences of her current workload, R stated;

Well a very constricted social life, I rarely have a free evening, I probably work nine out of ten evenings. Also most weekends. I'm really tired, and I get really irritable towards the end of term. I guess I make super-human efforts in bursts because I know I can collapse in the holidays, then I'm usually ill for the first few days.

THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS FOR LEADERSHIP

Our impressions from the teachers we meet in the course of the Unit's work suggest, as do the interviews above, that they feel not only undue pressure, or lack of choice in undertaking leadership roles, but also unprepared for, and unsupported in, them. There is then a clear need to review what is being done by way of changing this situation.

The Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training [TTA, 2002] have but a passing reference to leadership:

They [newly qualified teachers] work collaboratively ... and, with the help of an experienced teacher as appropriate manage the work of teaching assistants or other adults to enhance pupils' learning. [para.3.3.13].

Hence, while some Initial Teacher Training (ITT) providers do provide preparation for leadership roles within their programmes, they are not obliged to. Consequently, newly qualified teachers must learn either on the job, through the induction process, or seek in-service course opportunities, especially in respect to leading a curriculum subject.

The continual redefinition or re-modelling of teacher's roles and responsibilities beyond that of a closed classroom model has obvious and complex implications for their professional preparation. For ITT providers there appear to be two extreme strategies. The introduction of specialised routes to produce teachers ready to take up specific leadership roles, which is improbable not least because of the human resource implications for the education service. More likely is an attempt to provide a general course on leadership that, together with subsequent training, will enable these roles to be undertaken. While it can be envisaged that such courses could be provided on the 4-year programmes, the post-graduate teacher training course

route is already overloaded and there are no plans to extend it. At present then provision varies and is far from clear. Interviews with students about to enter the profession reflect this situation, in general they report not feeling prepared for the leadership roles they observe in schools, and as one put it, that:

College gives you the impression that leadership roles in school that you might take up happen because that's what you choose.

However, they recognise that this is not the reality they face, and that schools often do not have such luxury and have to load leadership roles onto unprepared and sometimes less than willing teachers [see also Reid and Thornton, 2000].

Initial teacher training gives us the basics ... so really it comes down to on-the-job learning ... The level of support and leadership training that you get is then at the level of individual school.

So despite all attempts to transform education into a networked marketplace, the extent to which individuals are transformed into leaders seems to impact at the level of the individual school once NQts are in post and continue a learning curve that for a lucky few commenced on teaching practice. Some students through their placements will be aware of, and have experience of, many of the current initiatives, others will not.

Once in the field the provision of leadership training continues to be unsystematic. There are opportunities for CPD in the field and the Unit evaluated one such programme that was sponsored by an EAZ [Brain and Reid, 2001]. Its aims were that the Zone's schools should have: A common approach to leadership; Collaboration and networking; Enhanced knowledge and skills. We gathered evidence from: Participants' pre-course personal audits; In-depth interviews with the course tutor and members, and the EAZ Project Co-ordinator; the EAZ Project Co-ordinator's observation reports at sessions and the course review.

Prior to the course teachers were asked if there were any specific areas or skills that they hoped to improve. These are illustrated by the following typical quotations:

'Handling difficult situations with staff who do not meet deadlines, teach well, etc.' *'Assertiveness, achievement monitoring.'* *'Communication, time management'* *'I'd just like to be a little more confident in my role as team leader.'* *'Priority and time management.'* *'Managing uncooperative colleagues.'* *'Dealing with conflict.'*

It was clear from the teachers' comments that the course was well received and seen as valuable. Two teachers, for example, commented: *It has given me insight into how teams work together*, and *It has increased my awareness and confidence*.

Relevance of course content

The course looked at basic management theories and explored practical techniques for team building, planning and running meetings, and time-management. The teachers clearly liked the practical aspects of the course. This was because, as one of the

teachers argued, they had come into leadership roles as experts in teaching, not leadership. These roles were new and had not been part of their professional preparation, and neither was it provided for in school. At the same time, however, many of the teachers already knew and were using many of the techniques. For example teachers commented; *a lot of the stuff, I'd worked out myself and I didn't learn anything new as such*, though they also said that the course had added to their skills.

The course tutor acknowledged the course content was basic and thought that it could be developed to focus more specifically on issues relevant to school improvement and management. The EAZ Project Co-ordinator was more critical of some of the course content, arguing that the theories of management used were not directly applicable to schools because schools are different from the organisations on which the theories were based. Hence, teachers would have difficulty in applying them.

COURSE VALUE TO PARTICIPANTS

The interviews raised two beneficial features of the course for the teachers. First, it validated what they were already doing and helped make them feel more confident in their roles. As one teacher put it, *it made me feel as if I was on the right lines*. More importantly perhaps, they felt that having been on the course enabled them to justify themselves to colleagues. The tutor noted that *they took all the literature they could so that they could show their colleagues what they were saying was right*.

Second, they enjoyed the opportunity to discuss issues of concern, to meet colleagues in similar situations and find out what they were doing. The EAZ Project Co-ordinator thought this might account for the fact that the teachers evaluated the course so positively. After all, it provided a chance to *get out of school and offload a lot of their problems ... wouldn't you feel better if I let you do that?*

Teachers also commented on how little they knew about leadership practices and roles in other schools. The course provided an opportunity to compensate for this. Despite the teachers' enjoying and benefiting from the course, a consistent feature of their comments was the need to provide courses for senior, as opposed to middle, leaders. A frequently asked question on the course was *are you going to do this course for Heads and Deputy Heads?* This probably arose from the participants feeling that they knew how to do basic things, but that some/most of their senior managers did not.

COURSE EFFECT ON SCHOOL PRACTICE

The crucial and most difficult aspect is identifying the course's impact. The EAZ Project Co-ordinator stated bluntly; *When we asked the schools as part of the monitoring about people who had been on the course the comments were 'they came back really enthused' but when we asked if it had made any difference in school the answer was 'no'*.

Real change depends on having time and resources, the support of senior staff and the right kind of culture in school. However, teachers' comments can be

characterized as; *we would suggest ideas to the Head and be told there was no money or time to implement ideas and that they didn't have the power to change things in schools.* These views were confirmed as key issues in the interviews, as one teacher argued; *it doesn't matter what we learn unless we are used by senior management that's what it's all about.* Consequently, there is something of a 'Catch 22' situation here. Leadership training is designed to initiate change in schools through the introduction of new working practices. However, to a marked extent, the ability to initiate change depends on having the right school culture and working practices in the first place.

Teachers or learning leaders in the Network Market

The creation of the network market in education is transforming schooling, schools and teaching in complex, if not contradictory ways. The school as the site of education is being restructured in the drive to raise standards, creating simultaneous pressures towards standardisation and customisation in teaching and learning. On the one hand, the standards drive reinforces the central importance of schools in delivering education and raising standards. It maintains the pressures of standardisation through the National Curriculum, the literacy and numeracy strategies, league tables, the instruments of inspection and audit, and centralising agencies such as the TTA, QCA and the Standards and Effectiveness Unit at the DfES. On the other hand, the modernisation of the education system in the drive to raise standards is creating a bewildering array of diversity, in types of school, the organisational forms, services and functions provided and consequent mixture of staff and range of roles. The creation of new types of school, such as, Specialist, City Academies and Extended 'full service' schools, alongside the promotion of new organisation forms such as Federations or Networked Learning Communities have produced distinct trends towards customisation.

At the same time as teachers' work contexts change in this fashion, the Government is attempting to remodel teaching. Teachers are urged to become leaders in creating learning environments, to see themselves as facilitators rather than providers, and as team members rather than individual performers. They are offered a vision by central government in which teachers take responsibility for developing positive learning environments, tailoring teaching to individual pupil's needs, and drawing on a wide range of support staff in school and partners outside, who form part of the learning community. Teachers are urged to innovate, share best practice and develop a sound evidence base to inform practice by taking responsibility for their own learning so that they can *lead the way in removing barriers to learning and finding solutions to learning challenges* (DfES, 2003a, b & c). At the same time, however, the objectives, goals and purposes of education are set for the profession by central government, together with the definition of good teaching. Indeed, the creation of school learning networks, specialist schools and new teaching roles such as Advanced Teachers – which, in part, seek to develop and disseminate best practice – reinforces the tendency toward standardisation by promoting standard strategies across the range of differing school contexts. These tensions reflect the simultaneous pressures towards standardisation and customisation.

To date the government's remodelling of teaching has concentrated on efforts to reduce teachers' administrative workload, developing the role of teaching assistants to support curriculum delivery, and the introduction of new pay and performance management systems (see, DfES, 2002). Teacher training formats have not developed along the road of customisation, but rather remained standardised around the model of teacher as curriculum deliverer. Similarly, CPD opportunities have been closely tied to government strategies. The focus has not been on equipping teachers with the skills to engage in professional self-development, to develop evidence based practice, to run educational teams, to innovate or facilitate, but rather to prepare a generation of teachers as technicians, or deliverers of set strategies.

A recent conference organised by the National College for School Leadership about Networked Learning Communities illustrates some of the consequences of the situation outlined above. In a workshop session some teachers commented on how they had lost the art of innovation and self-development because they relied on downloading lesson plans and formats from the QCA website. A couple of the more experienced teachers remarked that newly qualified teachers often could not prepare lessons without this kind of aid, because that is how they had been trained.

Despite Government rhetoric about transforming teaching and learning, it is not yet clear that teacher training has adjusted to the network market, or addressed the question of how teachers should be trained and structure their CPD in order to work effectively and efficiently in schools which:

- are internally differentiated in complex ways for different kinds of pupils, following different kinds of curricula;
- operate with 'learning teams' to deliver education which include teachers and a range of support staff, some from external organisations, such as industry;
- vary enormously in organisational form and the extent to which they are set up to offer limited or extended educational and social support services to the community, potentially opening up new areas of responsibilities for teachers;
- link into a range of partnership or network arrangements to disseminate best practice, share resources (including teachers) and develop common approaches to teaching and learning issues;
- increasingly offer learning opportunities outside of school, such as the home, FE colleges, the workplace, cyberspace and e learning.

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SECTION TWO

STANDARDS AND ACCOUNTABILITY:
WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO BE A GOOD TEACHER
AND HOW CAN WE MAKE IT HAPPEN?

7. QUALITY IN TEACHER EDUCATION: SEEKING A COMMON DEFINITION

“If we don’t know where we’re going, we will never know when we have gotten there.” – Mark Twain

INTRODUCTION

The desire for change in teacher education is everywhere. There is an almost universal quest for greater teacher quality, and with it, a demand for higher quality teacher education. The most prominent voice for making changes in teacher education has been that of policy makers – those who both frame policies and those who enact them into law. In seeking change, policy makers have asserted their right to unilaterally make changes to the enterprise – marginalizing both scholars and practitioners. Even when acknowledging a role for practitioners and scholars, they have tended to enact changes at the national or federal level while leaving to others the need to fix programs at the local or institutional level. As the conversation has become more national or central in scope, criticism of preparation and professional development or continuing education has intensified and support has declined. This has resulted in academics and professionals being denied access to the conversation and the creation of a substantial gap between policy maker and professional. Reclaiming a rightful role for academics and professionals is imperative and the way to do this is to focus attention at the local level.

In a world much more competitive economically and politically, there is a tendency to move decision making away from the local and to the national level. In the developed world, the quest for greater student learning and worker productivity has prompted much attention to teaching and teacher education. In the United States as well as elsewhere in the developed world there is a growing insistence that every facet of the preparation and professional development of teachers be changed. The presumption is that if only students had more academic learning their societies would be more competitive economically. To accomplish this, it is presumed that schooling needs to be changed and with it the way that teachers teach and the way they are prepared to teach. It is now almost universally accepted that student learning is the key to 21st century economic success.

It is not surprising that politicians and policy makers are seeking new ways to prepare and sustain good teachers given the current focus on pupil learning and the almost universal disdain for current teacher training practices. In the United States, teacher quality seems to be the top policy issue for national or federal educational policymakers

with efforts to recast the preparation and professional development of current and future teachers. This same trend is occurring everywhere with international organizations and national research entities examining every aspect of the preparation and practice of highly qualified teachers. It seems like there is a universal effort to change teacher education and with it a remarkable sameness to both the way the problem is diagnosed and the solutions posed to remedy the problem. In this chapter, we attempt to examine the centralization of decision making for teacher education in the United States and the similarity of those decisions to those occurring in other political entities. We will highlight the exclusion of professionals or academics from the process and suggest the need for the community of academics and professionals to reclaim a role and to pose a set of solutions. We suggest that this has to be done at the local level, rather than the national level, and that the single measure of success will be student learning gains of students in local classrooms and schools. Absent such effort, politicians and policy makers at the national level will continue to marginalize teacher educators and to assert their own solutions to the problem of attracting, preparing, placing, supporting and sustaining the highest quality teachers in schools everywhere.

CHANGE IN TEACHER EDUCATION IS A UNIVERSAL DEMAND

When political leaders and education policy makers gather to talk about education, the challenge of preparing high quality teachers is always at the top of the agenda. In virtually every country in the world there are demands and expectations that teacher education will change. The Chilean educator Beatrice Avalos has identified change in teacher education as the most persistent policy demand by politicians with the expectation that such changes will produce a generation of teachers capable of addressing the socio-economic needs of the particular nation or state. Avalos highlights the structural changes underway in teacher education that are occurring everywhere and questions when policy makers will turn to changing the substance of teacher education.

The Education Testing Service's *Preparing Teachers Around the World* reinforces this message. ETS gathered evidence from seven industrialized countries or, what they termed, "high performing countries," and in their policy brief showed how pervasive is the concept of change in teacher education in countries as diverse as Singapore and Australia, Korea and the Netherlands. Their findings and conclusions parallel studies either recently concluded or underway by many organizations and international donor agencies. These and other international and national reports on teacher education highlight the themes of quality and change in teacher education. All document the efforts for change in teacher education but all of these studies also show that change, thus far, has been limited to structural changes in teacher education (e.g., the efforts in much of Asia to move away from the long history of offering teacher education in pedagogical institutions and toward the preparation of teachers in comprehensive colleges and universities) rather than directing efforts at the substance of teacher education.

In the United States there are discussions of both structural and substantive change in the way that teachers are prepared and the way they are licensed or registered to practice. There is substantial investment in preparing teachers in non-collegiate settings and for specific assignments in particular schools. There are also efforts to use licensure as a policy tool with policy makers seeking to shift the authority for licensing away from states and to either a new national entity that would issue national “passports” or to recast it as a matter of local school determination. Reducing preparation time, centering the venue for teacher education away from the university, making it a post-baccalaureate program, focusing on local student populations and their learning needs are efforts intended to transform both the form and function of teacher education . . . That teacher education has achieved such importance is a testimony to the potential power of professionals and practitioners in shaping the future of teacher preparation and practice. If it was a “low-stakes” matter, no one would care and policies would be directed elsewhere. Teacher educators should take solace in the fact that for many it is of such “high stakes” importance.

The press for change in teacher education centers on how teachers should be prepared. Policy makers are asking fundamental questions about the nature of training, the venue for such preparation and the content of the preparation program. The real question that is being asked is whether teachers need training beyond coursework in a discipline or school subject, i.e., should an academic major in a subject taught in a primary or secondary school be sufficient to “qualify” one for teaching?

Policy makers assert that the most effective way to learn to teach is to observe successful teachers and to practice the craft of teaching under the supervision of skilled practitioners. Debates about the amount of time and the desired outcomes of initial practice now occur with policy makers pushing a set of policies often grounded in ideology rather than in evidence. Despite the insistence that raising the quality of teaching is the goal, matters of efficiency and cost-saving dominate the dialogue. While there is almost universal agreement that prospective teachers need to understand and master a body of knowledge regarding how students learn and different ways of interpreting and presenting subject matter knowledge to children and youth, how future teachers should be prepared remains in much doubt. If you accept the premise that there is need for initial teacher education, then questions arise as whether teacher education should occur following the completion of a baccalaureate degree or parallel to the attainment of that degree? Should it occur as part of a transition from college student to novice teacher in a professional development school? Should it continue to be offered as a preservice program or be integrated into the initial years of practice? Should we see it as “initial” and “one-time” or as a continuing program of studies and practice? All of these questions focus on the *how* and leave to later the *what* question - in terms of the substance of teacher education.

The earlier cited ETS study focuses attention on the “pipeline” of teacher candidates or teacher education students enrolled in formal preparation programs. It essentially argues that teacher education programs can meet the high quality expectations of the policy makers and politicians, parents and the public by “regulating” the flow of students into programs – by setting high admission requirements with necessary subject matter

prerequisites – by setting high expectations for students enrolled in programs – by requiring substantial clinical practice – and by setting even higher exit requirements. They document efforts in the seven countries they studied to the use of teacher licensure as a policy tool or instrument and then describe hiring policies and induction and compensation schemes as other policy instruments to bring high quality individuals to teacher education. They point to an array of policy targets (including teacher education programs) and identify the many policy instruments available to policy makers and bring understanding that teacher education is a part of a system – with the explanation that teacher compensation schemes and other working conditions for practicing teachers affect in meaningful ways the recruitment of high quality candidates into teaching.

Everywhere these policy debates are occurring. They are shaped, in part, by the reality that there is a remarkable sameness about teacher education throughout the developed world. This sameness is explainable, in part, because of what the Australian educator Judyth Sachs has described as *policy borrowing* (Sachs, 2003). Professor Sachs points to the seeming sameness of educational policy and practices everywhere and suggests that it is due to “policy borrowing” – taking policies and practices from other national systems and applying them to local or particular national needs. She points to the “convergence of policy making” that is occurring as a result of the international exchange of ideas and the influence of international donor agencies – particularly the World Bank. Sachs noted that when policy elites gather together and identify policy problems (e.g., low quality of candidates in teacher education and high demand for quality teaching), they tend to arrive at similar solutions. International assessments and comparisons reinforce this trend as do the policies and practices of donor agencies, worldwide reliance on a small cadre of educational consultants, and the increasing communication across international boundaries about matters of school policy and teacher education.

As a result, national, state and local policy makers borrow policies and approaches to schooling from other countries and other industries. Policy borrowing has intensified as the world wide demand for better schools has accelerated. Prompting this has been the worldwide effort to promote standards-based learning and to rely on standardized tests. Hargreaves has noted that “Standardized tests and texts have been at the center of [a movement] ... since the late 1980s [characterized by] centrally prescribed curricula, with detailed and pressing performance targets, aligned assessments, and high stakes accountability [in schools and students] (Hargreaves, 2003). He describes it as part of a “new orthodoxy of educational reform worldwide” that now focuses “on a limited number of tightly defined instructional priorities such as literacy and mathematics used everywhere.” As much as the movement has relied on high stakes standardized testing, it has depended upon high quality teaching and this has prompted a demand for new forms of teacher education that focus unrelentingly on pupil learning and student achievement.

GAINING VOICE

One of the critical questions that teacher educators must confront is how they gain recognition for the professional, technical and skill knowledge they possess. A reality

of the past dozen years is that teacher educators have been marginalized by the process of educational change and excluded from the policy debates regarding new forms of teacher education in many countries. While they have been engaged in discussions regarding the internal quality of programs, a larger discussion has been underway regarding the form and function of teacher education. That discussion has occurred outside or external to the teacher education community. Often it has been national in scope and highly political in nature. This condition prompts consideration of why policy makers go-it-alone in these policy discussions. Why are they so dismissive of teacher educators and their professional expertise when it comes to framing new policies and practices for teacher education? It also raises questions about how teacher educators gain recognition and credibility for such expertise. Absent such assertions, the policy maker debates will continue to be about the externals of teacher education (its form and function) while the teacher educators will be left to debate the merits of one approach over another and how to “fit” a prescribed course of study into a set amount of time. Gaining such voice is every bit as important as the efforts around the world to produce more highly qualified teachers!

One way to begin such claims is to address the matter of quality in teacher education. So, what is high quality in teacher education? What is high quality in teacher educators? What is the expert knowledge that teacher educators need to demonstrate to gain necessary credibility for their efforts? The theme of expertise and professional knowledge of teacher educators has to be seen as an under-girding concern for anyone considering change in teacher education. The exploration of “high quality teacher education” demands that teacher educators posit a set of the necessary skills and knowledge that teacher educators must possess, the experiences they should have, and the beliefs and commitments they must have about their students and their responsibilities to their colleagues and the teaching profession. This is certainly not a new endeavor but it is an important step in the process of regaining voice.

Teacher educators and the policy maker community can only reach the goal of “high quality” teacher education by knowing what we want teachers to do in classrooms and schools. A consensus must be reached regarding what we expect graduates of formal preparation programs to know, believe, and be able to do. Understanding our responsibilities beyond formal or initial preparation and for the on-going education of classroom teachers and principals has to be rooted in an understanding of what teachers and principals must do in schools and other learning environments. Webster defines the word *quality* as a degree of excellence; superiority in kind. We can only reach the goal of excellence and superiority if we focus on the needs of children and youth and the aspirations their parents hold for them. Consequently, a constant for us is to seek agreement about the ends of teacher education – what is it that we want the graduates of our programs to know, to believe and to be able to do. The American writer Mark Twain once suggested, “If we don’t know where we’re going, we will never know when we have gotten there.”

The challenge is that quality in teacher education is such an elusive concept. Since the inception of formal teacher training in Western Europe a century and a half ago there have been repeated efforts to define quality in teacher education. From the earliest

days of preparing teachers in France and Germany to the more recent efforts to transform teacher education in the United States and Britain, there has been the quest to define high quality in teacher education.

PROMOTING HIGH QUALITY TEACHER EDUCATION
IN THE UNITED STATES

In the United States, the matter of teacher quality is at the center of the current debate about education reform and renewal. Yet, as a recent General Accounting Office study of Teacher Quality notes, there is little consensus on what constitutes effective or high quality teaching (Bright and Harmeyer, 2002). There is an eminently understandable assumption that high quality teaching matters but the current debate in the United States is about which measures should be used to determine quality.

There has been the assumption by educational practitioners and researchers that one or more of the following constitutes or contributes to effective teaching:

- years of teaching experience,
- possession of an advanced degree,
- the teaching assignment (whether it is in-field or out-of-field),
- whether the teacher candidate is licensed or certified,
- whether the beginning teacher graduates from an accredited teacher preparation program,
- significant preparation in the subject (or academic preparation),
- on-going professional development, and
- candidate scores on various teacher tests and measures of verbal ability.

Despite what we have assumed was general agreement on these characteristics of quality teaching, recent policy efforts have questioned the underlying evidence for the claims that these conditions or characteristics matter. Recent meta-analyses of the literature on teacher preparation and teacher performance have generally questioned all of the assumptions held and concluded there is little if any research evidence to support the research claims we have made. Due to the uncertainties of the evidence available, the policy community has come to embrace a single criterion for determining who is or is not an effective teacher – the ability of a teacher to realize and maximize student achievement gains on various assessments of student knowledge.

In the United States and many other national systems of education – pupil achievement has become the most important measure of teacher effectiveness (Plecki, 2000). Given the dearth of solid research evidence about effective teachers or high quality teaching, policy makers want better means of identifying quality teachers and have embraced William Sanders' value-added methodology that purports to connect teacher effects to student score gains over extended periods of time because they believe it offers them a tool to make judgments about who is a high quality teacher (Sanders, 1998).

CENTRALIZED AUTHORITY AND
CHANGE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

In the United States, there are efforts to base policy on evidence that is defined as “scientifically based” and a corresponding rejection of research methodologies and research findings that lack significant validity and reliability. Those who are drafting Bush administration policy proposals for various government initiatives for education have embraced the belief that highly effective teachers are those who realize student achievement gains and not other measures of student learning. They have also come to rely on only two measures to describe the characteristics of highly qualified teachers – teacher candidate scores on standardized tests of subject matter knowledge, and degree attainment in a particular core academic subject. In the drafting of the signature education policy for the Bush administration, the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (P.L. 107–110)*, the Bush administration officials employed these two characteristics or indicators despite the lack of solid scientifically based research evidence that either matters and sought to describe highly qualified teachers as graduates of colleges and universities who possess a bachelor’s degree in a core academic subject that the teacher candidate intends to teach and/or passage of a state administered test in those same academic subjects.

The final provisions in NCLBA define a highly qualified teacher as [a person who] has obtained full State certification as a teacher (including certification obtained through alternative routes to certification) or passed the State teacher licensing examination, and holds a license to teach in such State [and who has] not had certification or licensure requirements waived on an emergency, temporary, or provisional basis. Today, nearly four years after passage of this monumental law, there is a concerted effort to redefine a highly qualified teacher as a college graduate who passes a test of teacher knowledge with significant encouragement for individual states aligning their state licensure provisions with NCLBA to focus on verbal ability and a content major. There are also promises by the Bush administration to use the pending reauthorization of the Higher Education Act (HEA) to further clarify the meaning of a highly qualified teacher and to connect NCLBA with HEA.

The Bush administration has also signaled its intent to influence state boards of education and other state agencies that control teacher licensure to adopt policies more conducive to the provisions of *NCLBA*. Announced in the Education Secretary’s First Annual Report on Teacher Quality, those intentions represent a bold reach by this administration into a policy arena that has traditionally been controlled by the states (Paige, 2002). Using funding authorized in Title II, Part A of *NCLBA*, monies now used by many states to address class-size reduction demands, the administration intends to cause states to dramatically reshape state policy for teacher education. Uncoupling courses in teacher education from state licensure requirements is a goal.

*Approaches to defining highly
qualified teachers in the United States*

The quest to define teacher quality in the United States is being pursued on a number of fronts. While the Bush administration is clearly the dominant player in the game,

there are hosts of others seeking to influence the definition of highly qualified teacher. These pressures are having a marked impact on teacher education. In 2002, the Secretary of Education released a status report on teacher education. That report, *Meeting the Highly Qualified Teachers Challenge*, which was mandated as part of the statutory language of Title II of the Higher Education Act of 1998 (P.L.105–750), concluded by calling upon states to develop new models of “teacher training” that are “local,” “based on the best alternative route programs of today,” and that “produce teachers with those skills that are in high demand.” The report also called upon states to:

- *end the “exclusive franchise” of schools of education and to curtail the “shocking number of ... mandated education courses to qualify for certification,”*
- *assist state efforts to uncouple education school courses from state licensure and make “attendance at schools of education ... optional,”*
- *“streamline” licensure requirements to place a premium on verbal ability and content knowledge,*
- *develop new and “challenging assessments” for teacher candidates, and require “content area majors for prospective teachers.”*

(Paige, 2002)

Advocacy for the technician teacher

In the United States we are watching the impact of what are described as the so-called “teacher education wars.” Though many avoid the use of the war metaphor to describe the current conditions of sides pitted against sides in an ideological struggle for the future of teacher preparation, this is an image that emerges from reading the positions of the various contestants on the national scene. Both sides claim a moral high ground and both sides assert that if only teachers were prepared “this way” all children would benefit. What was once a local matter or a matter for academics and professionals to consider has risen to a national level with claims of righteousness and morality in asserting a direction for teacher education. The contest is over matters of whether teacher education should be centered on the campus or in the schools (or done on the Internet or by a private provider of online services), the appropriate mix of academic and pedagogical courses, the appropriate amount of clinical experiences, the appropriate inclusion of attention to a child’s well being and the appropriate mix of K-12 practitioners with academics in providing training. Champions of different stances gain adherents and demonize the other side.

Advocates on one side emphasize achievement over learning, offer the “good enough” teacher and promote subject matter knowledge over pedagogy – the other side urges a philosophy of progressivism and a psychology of constructivism and argues that the centerpiece of a democratic society is its public schools. One side promotes teacher centeredness while the other contends that the child has to be at the center of good schooling. Different pedagogies and epistemologies under gird these separate conceptions of teaching and teacher education as the essentialist philosophy of William Bagley bumps up against the progressive ideology of

William Kilpatrick. Today essentialism is the ascendant philosophy, and it has gained enormous political clout as its advocates have gained political power and have used that power to attempt to reshape both teaching and teacher education.

The Director of the Institute for Educational Sciences promotes the idea that there are two models for teacher education in the United States. One is the traditional or professional model that prepares long-term career professionals (teachers who will commit their careers to the education of young people) and the other is a technical model that produces technicians who implement prescribed learning modules and training packages. Grover Whitehurst has stated that the success of the *No Child Left Behind* Act is dependent upon having enough “good enough teachers” who are skilled at teaching a lesson, maintaining discipline, and ensuring that students do well on whatever performance measure is used. He suggests that the technician teacher needed to fulfill the intent of *NCLBA* is very different from the professional teacher, the latter prepared in high quality teacher education programs, are caring, competent and committed. Whitehurst contends that such professional teachers use little of what is provided in a professional preparation program and present a costly burden to high needs schools. Whitehurst made this clear at both the AACTE/CBE STEP Conference, held in Washington, DC, June 6–9, and at a Research Seminar, held at the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, in Palo Alto, CA, June 10–12, 2003. This was further elaborated at a Panel Meeting on Teacher Quality impaneled by the Institute for Educational Sciences on December 16, 2003. Whitehurst is calling for the examination of these two alternative models relative to their effectiveness in closing the achievement gap (Whitehurst, 2003).

Another plank in the Bush administration’s efforts for teacher education is to actively encourage community colleges to develop full-fledged teacher education programs. They are supportive of efforts to expand the mandate of those colleges to prepare both para-professionals and highly qualified teachers and praise the capability of those institutions to address the teacher shortage situation. Already community colleges in a number of southwestern states in the United States and Florida have gained degree-granting status and are competing with four-year institutions for students and resources.

A third plank in the Bush administration proposals for teacher education is strong endorsement and support for alternative preparation or certification programs. In part because of their support, such programs now constitute a growing presence in teacher education in many parts of the United States. While education schools in the United States are perceived as holding a monopoly over preparation, the reality is that a proliferation of providers now exist and provide increasing numbers of beginning teachers. These alternative programs cater to paraprofessionals, mid-career switchers, and college graduates who decide after graduation they want to teach. For-profit providers, local school districts, community colleges and traditional universities offer programs. Some estimates now put the number of alternatively prepared teachers as high as twenty-five percent of the beginning teacher pool. Today, in California less than half of beginning teachers are graduates of traditional teacher education programs, and in Texas only 62 of the 110 “providers” of beginning teachers are even higher education based.

A fourth policy direction is to demand even greater accountability by teacher education programs. Today, using new value added assessment methodologies, policy makers are calling for even more ambitious accountability measures. They want to hold teacher preparation institutions responsible for the effectiveness of their graduates beyond the point of graduation. They want institutions to follow their graduates into the initial teaching assignment and to ensure that they succeed. The measure of success they want to use is K-12 student test scores. Failure of teachers to produce significant improvements of student learning, policy makers insist, should reflect on the preparation program. Traditional teacher preparation programs, as a result of this expectation, are investing huge sums to track their graduates into their initial teaching positions to capture K-12 student scores so judgments can be made about program effectiveness. While researchers insist that the “intervening variables” are huge and the complexities of teaching too great to do this, education programs are struggling to find ways to do so.

Ironically, policy makers are also calling for greater flexibility in the preparation of beginning teachers and urging variance, innovation, and distinctiveness between and among programs even while they promote a common framework and call for a core curriculum for teacher preparation. Florida’s recent regulations for teacher education promote both “variance” and “commonality” in the same set of rules without any apologies to teacher educators charged with doing both at the same time.

DEFINING HIGH QUALITY TEACHER EDUCATION

What is described above is the active political involvement of central government in defining high quality teaching and teacher education. It is the political mandates and the legislative dictates of central government and the use of federal resources that results in a definition of high quality. It is national policy setting and consideration of active and appropriate federal efforts to drive the redefinition and reform of teacher education. In contrast to these approaches, professionals and academics have employed other ways. Perhaps it is helpful to cite three examples or approaches taken by professionals to reach consensus on what constitutes high quality teacher education.

The first represents a form of **expert consensus building** that relies on experts in teacher education reaching consensus on high quality indicators and using them to render judgments about the quality of particular teacher preparation programs. In John Goodlad’s *Teachers for Our Nation’s Schools* experts reached consensus in the identification of 19-postulates or belief statements about high quality teacher education. (Goodlad, 1990) An example of a so-called Goodlad postulate is that “the responsible group of academic and clinical faculty members must seek out and select for a predetermined number of student places in the program those candidates who reveal an initial commitment to the moral, ethical, and enculturation responsibilities to be assumed, and make clear to them that preparing for these responsibilities is central to the program.” Professor Goodlad and a group of policy makers (represented by later President and then Arkansas Governor William J. Clinton) and professionals (represented by teacher educator Gary D Fenstermacher) identified these belief

statements and then studied some 24 colleges and universities to see if they “met” those expectations. Lacking “research evidence” for their postulates, Goodlad and his colleagues “read selectively and quite a lot ... studied the histories of education in other professions ... talked with knowledgeable others ... probed into the question of current agreement on existing good teacher education ... and exchanged and discussed various position papers” to arrive at a set of “presuppositions.” (Goodlad, 1990)

Another approach, taken by Linda Darling-Hammond, in *Studies of Excellence in Teacher Education*, derived a set of quality indicators by examining teacher preparation programs at a pre-selected list of twelve colleges and universities that exhibited certain characteristics. (Darling-Hammond, 1996) A team of scholars visited and then wrote studies of the approaches to teacher education taken at a dozen institutions and Darling-Hammond then prepared a summary. She asserted that high quality in teacher preparation was only possible when:

- there was a shared and clear understanding of good teaching,
- the faculty had practice and performance standards for themselves and their program,
- the curriculum focused on child and adolescent development, learning theory, included theories about cognition and motivation,
- had a focus on a context of practice,
- included extensive clinical practice,
- exhibited common agreements and shared beliefs between university faculty and school practitioners, and
- made use of multiple instructional strategies to inform candidates for teaching.

Though Goodlad began with postulates and Darling-Hammond concluded with them, there was a common commitment to using quality determinants to judge teacher preparation. Expert knowledge was used to set the conditions for high quality teacher education. At the current time, there is another approach being sought. This is being described as a **research-based approach** to defining high quality teacher education. Two major efforts are underway in the United States to examine research evidence (but only “scientifically based research findings”) to arrive at a set of evidence-based postulates or determinants regarding teacher education. The first of these is work of the American Educational Research Association (AERA) and efforts by a consensus panel of that organization headed by Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Kenneth Zeichner to arrive at research evidence to support claims about teacher education. The second is an effort of the National Academy of Education Committee on Teacher Education. This is consensus panel work with a group of educational researchers, headed by Linda Darling-Hammond and John Bransford, who are examining research evidence in nine domains or areas to arrive at consensus about high quality teacher education. Their research syntheses are expected to be released in Spring 2005 and, hopefully, will shape the dialogue regarding teacher education in the future.

Both the AERA and NAE effort are based on earlier efforts of both the Education Commission of the States (Allen, 2003) and the Center on Teacher Policy at the University of Washington Wilson *et al.* (2001) and are attempting to examine what research says about teacher education. The efforts of these research-based approaches should have considerable impact on the field and on policy making. Both

consensus panels have assembled the best American scholars and educational researchers on teaching and teacher education but had difficulty arriving at a consensus about what research tells us regarding the effectiveness of teacher education. Note that a demand for measures of effectiveness has become a part of the conversation on teacher education quality with growing attention to the need to show that program graduates make a positive difference in the learning and well being of their students.

The third approach taken is a **professional consensus model** that draws upon the wisdom of practice and relies on a system of standards and criteria to render judgments about the quality of particular approaches to teacher preparation. Embraced in the accreditation standards of NCATE, this approach asserts that “knowledge of the subject matter” is important, that teacher candidates must be able “to provide multiple explanations and instructional strategies” (pedagogical content knowledge); and that the “candidate work with students, families and communities in ways that reflect the dispositions expected of professional educators” are examples of the expectations set in these standards.

The professional consensus model has also been used to set licensing requirements for teacher candidates. Definition of the desired skills, knowledge and dispositions of beginning teachers with the expectation that teacher education programs will set compatible standards and expectations is represented here. This variation of the professional consensus model is represented by the more than a decade of work undertaken by the Interstate New Teacher Assistance and Support Consortium (INTASC), a coalition of professional groups that have set forth a set of standards for the licensure of beginning teachers. Examples of such INTASC standards are that “the teacher understands how students differ in their approaches to learning and creates instructional opportunities that adapted to diverse learners” or “the teacher understands how children learn and develop and provides learning experiences that support their intellectual, social and personal development.” (The INTASC approach to defining high quality is derived from the far better known work of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. NBPTS articulated a set of standards for excellent teaching by practicing professionals in the 1980s and this work continues to impact the field of teaching and teacher education.).

POLITICAL ACTION AND THE DETERMINATION OF HIGH QUALITY

Where this leads is recognition that someone ultimately will decide what is quality in teacher education. Whether it will be federal policy makers or local professionals will largely depend upon the alliances that can be built between these two sectors. Who decides and what they decide are matters for professionals to consider. Academics and professionals must accept the reality that ultimately who decides is a political matter because ultimately teacher education is a political matter with decisions about the definitions to be used to define quality in teacher education shaped by the needs and expectations of the political state.

Education is highly political, although there is a tradition in most countries to assert that education (including teacher education) is or ought to be apolitical. In reality, however, various private groups in most countries struggle to secure the authoritative support of government for their values concerning schools and schooling at all levels of government (Wirt and Kirst, 1997). While many appeal for professionals to make expert decisions regarding schooling and teacher education, it is the political elites that shape the discourse about education and, appropriately, describe purposes and goals for education that meet the needs of the political state. While many assert an individual or private purpose for formal education, the reality is that government schools must meet the purposes of the state. Despite the protests of many and the beliefs of others, in all countries schooling is used as an instrument of government, propagandizing on behalf of that government. In both the developing and developed world there is the increasing identification of school policies and practices with public interests. In the United States, in particular, we are witnessing the politicalization of education policy making despite Constitutional limitations and Congressional prohibitions.

Teacher education is in large measure a political process that has to be aligned with the political aspirations of the political state. It is for that reason that teacher education is the subject of such an intense focus and has assumed such great importance in the world as almost all nation-states endeavor to transform their schools and universities. Everywhere there is the quest for greater quality in education – and, therefore, teacher education is the focal point for attention and concern.

TEACHER EDUCATION AS A NATIONAL PRIORITY

Following the debates at century-end in the United States regarding the responsibility of various levels of government for social welfare, health and schooling, policymaking has shifted nationally with massive shifts in social responsibility. This has resulted in a greater federal presence and role in education policy making in the United States. Resource scarcities have made the funding of many so-called entitlements intensely political but the reality is that education has shifted so that it is state supported but federally directed. The next level of debate has to do with whether government should provide such services or merely guarantee their provision that ensures matters of public education will stay part of the national discourse.

In some sense, teacher education was peripheral to many of these earlier policy debates and only belatedly became the center of attention. Until recently, teacher education was essentially local in scope and design – it attracted students from local communities, gave them an education that focused on local needs, and helped to locate graduates in local communities where they taught local children and youth. As a local concern, teacher education largely escaped the critical eye of politicians and the public, though to be sure teacher education has always had its critics who have brought to it national attention.

Those seeking professional status for teachers and those promoting standards based reforms for schools changed the local character of teacher education. They

gave it a national orientation in the U.S. with a host of federal or national legislative enactments reinforcing a national teacher certification initiative, promoting a national licensing scheme for beginning teachers, and using professional accreditation to achieve a national system of teacher education – often in violation of laws enacted by those same politicians to prevent such a nationalization of policy making. As a result, debates regarding teacher education have become national in scope and shifted the attention from the local to the national. In the United States, teacher education has evolved from being a matter of local concern to a matter of much national importance. It has evolved in this way without the explicit endorsement of state officials (who traditionally have licensed teachers and approved programs) or the understanding of teacher educators. Whether national teacher licensing, with national teacher tests, will soon lead to a national curriculum for teacher education is a matter of much debate. What is real is that this type of policy question is not widely understood even by those sponsoring the creation of these new national entities.

CLAIMING VOICE: RELYING ON EXPERT KNOWLEDGE

The need for teacher educators to engage in the local-national debate about high quality teaching is real. Absent their voice, the debates will be settled at the federal level and policies will be handed to states and localities to implement. Teacher educators will increasingly be put in a “bureaucratic mode” of implementing a nationally approved curriculum and set of policies and procedures reinforced at the state level. They will be “implementers” or “technicians” and further marginalize themselves from both the national dialogue and the academic discourse. Teacher educators have to assert an activist position in which student learning is the message – it is their commitment to the learning of all students that will enable them to participate in the national dialogue. The efforts of some to appeal for old-style teacher professionalism will not suffice. For at least a generation, teacher educators have embraced a model of professionalism and appealed to American medicine as the appropriate path to follow to gain political voice. The challenge of old-style teacher unionism and the stridency of collective bargaining have put off the achievement of professional status for teaching. Nevertheless, some assert that the way for teacher educators to combat the efforts of national policy makers and others in the current political debates is to reassert the importance of professionalism. There is an appeal for “restorationism” – of restoring teacher education to its rightful place in the political discourse surrounding schools by embracing fully the teaching profession and becoming an integral part of the efforts to build a national profession. We introduce this notion because of its common acceptance and the belief of many that restorationism can lead to enhanced status and reward. We want to argue that old style professionalism will not regain status and recognition for teacher education. Instead, we believe that teacher education can only gain political voice by showing that it makes a positive difference in the lives and learning of all children and youth.

POLICY REACH AND IMPACT

In summary, in virtually every country there are commissions and study groups exploring ways to better prepare teachers. In the U.S. this is particularly true with a wide range of national criticisms offered regarding teacher education. Criticisms range from the “feel-goodism” of the methodology to the advocacy of child-centered pedagogies. More direct challenges come in the condemnation of programs for their lack of subject-matter dependence to the perceived low quality of candidates admitted. There is criticism of preparation programs for their failure to connect preparation to practice, to address student and subject matter standards, to give sufficient attention to modern technologies, to teach scientifically based approaches to reading and mathematics, and failure to emphasize classroom management and assertive discipline practices. These criticisms are compounded by the perception that traditional programs have failed to produce sufficient numbers of beginning teachers to overcome a persistent demand for more highly qualified teachers for hard to staff schools (although the persistence of low teacher salaries seems to be a factor that is dismissed or refocused to emphasize performance rather than practice).

In the U.S., policy makers seek beginning teachers who are brighter and smarter than the current workforce, possess greater verbal ability (Florida’s new BEST guidelines for teacher education describes this expectation for all candidates for teaching to be able “to write and speak in a logical and understandable style with appropriate grammar”), know their subject well (as determined by an academic degree for middle and secondary school teachers and high test scores on “rigorous” tests of subject matter knowledge), and integrate new technologies into their teaching of a far more diverse student population than we have ever seen.

Policy makers, who today are riveted on the promise of high quality teaching, are often dismissive of traditional teacher education programs they believe are ineffectual. The fact that teacher education is often over-regulated and under-resourced is ignored. In the United States, policy makers often set admission criteria into programs and prescribe outcomes for graduates. They dictate the content to be learned, prescribe the number of courses to be taken, and determine the licensure examinations to be used before candidates can be licensed. They insist that preparation programs prepare beginning teachers who can ensure school safety, promote professional ethics, understand school law, use data and various forms of assessment, engage parents, understand K-12 state standards, know different ways of teaching to enable all students to meet the proficiency expectations of the state, appreciate language diversity and how to meet the needs of students with limited English proficiency, as well as to know ways of meeting the learning needs of special needs students – who may possess the full range of learning, emotional and physical challenges. They want all of this done without increasing teacher candidate “seat time” or the costs of the preparation program. They contend that candidate performance must be measured in multiple ways but rely on single measures – scores of candidates on standardized tests – to assign status and make awards.

Policy makers mandate the use of institutional report cards and set targets (80% pass rates) that institutions must meet with sanctions and other consequences for programs that fail to do so. They insist that these measures be applied to all traditional program candidates with the expectation that programs ensure that different ethnic and racial groups, and students from different language and social-economic backgrounds have comparable pass rates on these examinations. Policy makers then criticize programs for their failure to attract sufficient numbers of highly qualified candidates into these highly regulated programs, instead choosing to invest substantial sums in alternative models of preparation to attract sufficient numbers of beginning teachers. Many times these policy makers exempt alternative programs and their candidates from the regulations they impose on traditional programs. As teacher education is moving to become national and federally controlled, and away from state controls, it has attracted the attention of federal lawmakers. As a result, it is increasingly a subject of political comment and attention, with both Republican and Democrat legislators identifying with particular causes in teacher education and seeking to impose their will.

THE DEPOLITICALIZATION OF THE DEBATES

The only way we are going to depoliticize teacher education and to reclaim a rightful place for teacher education professionals and academics in the debates regarding teacher education is to refocus and re-center teacher education on local needs and local concerns and away from national or even international efforts. In the United States, we have succumbed to the lure of national recognition and professional status, driven by a craven disregard of what we, teacher educators and teacher preparation institutions do best – focus on local needs and local concerns. The advocacy for national implementations of accreditation standards, certification processes and assessment schemes has distracted us from what should be our primary consideration – the promotion of student learning by all students in local schools. The consequences have been horrendous as more attacks are leveled at teacher education and more efforts are made to circumvent or diminish teacher preparation at our nation's colleges and universities. Our efforts at building a national system of teacher education have brought us federal intrusion and unreasonable demands, particularly in an era of resource scarcities.

Marilyn Cochran-Smith has promoted the concept of local knowledge as the appropriate focus for research scholars in teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2003). She advocates the study of local problems and the offering of solutions to local needs as the appropriate focus of faculty and students in teacher education. The premise for her advocacy is that local engagement is where the greatest impact can be made. Particularizing concerns about student learning to the children enrolled in particular classrooms or schools or in certain neighborhoods or communities gives teacher education access to the local and the necessary. While there are a few teacher education programs that are national in scope (because of the students they attract and the reach of their graduates), most of teacher education is still done in comprehensive and

small liberal arts colleges and universities. Rather than apologizing for the localism of such approaches, the appeal here is that teacher educators must exploit the local possibilities and concentrate their efforts on preparing teachers for their communities and schools.

Such an approach would have a salutary effect on public recognition and support for the teacher education program or the education school. Local principals and local teachers as well as local community leaders and others could see the benefits of local investment in ways that are lost when the focus or the attention drifts to other initiatives beyond the local or the situated. The challenge, of course, is that too often the local goes unnoticed in communities of practice or scholarship that are regional or national. Academics and professionals have to ensure that this does not occur; that local examples of good practice or good research are highlighted in ways that heighten national awareness. Studying local problems and focusing on preparing teachers and principals to meet the very particular needs of local schools is where there is great need. Rather than generic teacher education (preparing teacher candidates for multiple roles in multiple settings), this is an argument for the specific (preparing teacher candidates for specific schools in which the learning needs of children and youth are well documented and described). The criticisms of teacher education and education schools that are highlighted above are national in focus; the solution to those challenges is local and particular. A pedagogy that focuses on local needs is what is needed. It is local learning where teacher educators can have their greatest impact. Doing so would accomplish many things, but if it were done with the focus on student learning then it would:

- lower the political volatility surrounding the matter of teacher education;
- overcome the gap in credibility that has arisen as teacher educators have focused on schools everywhere rather than in the communities surrounding the teacher preparation institution; and
- enable teacher educators to make use of local knowledge in their preparation and to connect in meaningful ways with local schools, parents and community's schools.

Going local is where the greatest impact can be made. Following a decade of centralism and claims for a national agenda to gain recognition and reward, there is a groundswell for the local and the particular. The reassertion of the role of parents and local communities in determining the curriculum and procedures for the education of their children has to be paralleled by teacher educators joining with policy makers at the local level to help all students learn. While it is clear that while adherents of NCLBA will continue to assert a federal role in standards setting and accountability, the prevailing trend is to turn back to local schools and provide them greater voice and more decision making authority about every aspect of teaching and learning. Education schools and other academics have the opportunity to play a vital role in helping local schools think through the issues that confront the schools and to participate in addressing these needs. Credibility and recognition will be gained if education schools and teacher educators are in the forefront of such efforts.

Teacher education still has to focus on the moral and ethical, on the inclusion of all children and their learning in schools. Teacher educators must wrestle with the

challenge of enculturating the young into the political democracy and on helping students find fulfillment and academic success. Teacher education must focus on providing students access to the explosion of knowledge in all fields and facility in exploiting the technologies to learn and participate and engage. The primary focus, however, has to be on the problems of local schools where the greatest needs are evident and where the greatest benefit can come to the future of teacher education.

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8. STANDARDS AND PROFESSIONALISM: PEACE TALKS?

How far, in a participatory democracy, should we allow the elected representatives of the people and their agencies to prevail over the best judgements of professionals? Should the State employ its doctors, nurses, dentists, social workers, teachers, university lecturers, etc (all paid from the public purse) as a professional resource left largely to its own devices; or – since it pays the piper – should the State call the tune, demanding from its employees service of a specified and regulated kind which meets centrally-imposed standards and conditions? Should it feel able to disregard the advice of those employees when drawing up specifications for the task in hand? Does a Government *own* the professionals it pays for (as it does the Civil Service), or does it delegate to them the making of their own decisions?

In the important business of the education and training of new teachers in England, I believe we have come to the end of a period of strife in which the contested territory was based precisely on this question. Before the war began, professional teacher educators had been left largely alone to do their work as they pleased – and many people contended that the results were so poor that the government had to intervene. At the height of the battle, government forces had set up such a consequential battery of regulation and inspection that professionals working in Higher Education had little room left to practise in their preferred way. Some were even fearful for their livelihoods, such was the strength of view among many with political influence that they were at best superfluous and at worst actually inimical to the public good. The battlefield is quieter now than it was in the clamour of earlier violence. The generals on both sides can claim a degree of victory to their troops, and they know in their hearts that they must parley, now, to avoid recurrence of the conflict.

CASUS BELLI

In 1982, the people who inspect English schools (*Her Majesty's Inspectorate* – more recently re-designated as the *Office for Standards in Education*, OfSTED) published their findings concerning the quality of new entrants to the teaching profession in a Report called *The New Teacher in School* (HMI, 1982). It concluded that a quarter of those entering the classroom after training were inappropriately prepared for their professional responsibilities. In asking students and new teachers what they thought of their training programmes, the Inspectors reported a strong and widespread disdain for 'educational theory': the four disciplines of philosophy, psychology, history and sociology of education. What, asked the students, had these dry and dusty book-bound subjects to tell us about the real world of schools and classrooms, of

teachers and learners? The students much preferred actually being in the classroom with the kids, learning to practise out there in the territory. What they got back on the campus was, in their view, boring and irrelevant.

The impact on Government was long-lasting. The thinking (it was the early 1980s) went a little like this: ‘We had better do something – and fast! The world is threatening to fall apart. Oil prices are rising out of control. We are running embarrassingly high levels of inflation. We are starting to see, on our inner-city streets and in our high-rise housing estates, frightening levels of youthful unrest. Such sights on our TV screens make excruciating viewing for any governing party.

Why are they doing this, these dismal examples of the Nation’s youth? Because of the mediocre quality of their education, a state-funded failure of an education in which a third of pupils leave school with no discernible qualifications, moving straight from the classroom onto the unemployment register, endangering an already fragile economy and threatening social unrest.

And *why* this bleak situation? Because their teachers are so hopeless. Hippies raised in the decadent ‘60’s, you only have to look at the way they dress – so shabby, so casual! – to see the reason. How can we entrust the Nation’s youth to people like these?

And *why* are our teachers like this? To answer that, look at the way they are trained. Their heads are filled with *theories* when everyone knows that what’s needed to become a good teacher is *practice*. What’s more, these theories – and the very act itself of theorising – often lead these newcomers to teaching to be critical of Government education policies. Each new generation of teachers comes into our schools with foolish, bogus notions in their minds, like *free expression, creativity, child-centredness!* The source of our present predicament lies amid the dreaming spires and hushed quadrangles of *academe!* It lurks in the Senior Common Rooms of our universities and polytechnics. It festers in our teacher training colleges!’ (At the time, courses of teacher education and training operated in all three types of Higher Education institution. In 1992, polytechnics were permitted to take on the title ‘university’ and, at least in theory, the old distinctions between the two vanished. Teacher training colleges effectively ceased to exist, either being taken over by local universities or polytechnics, or diversifying to become what, by 2004, were known as ‘university-sector colleges’.)

This, of course, is a caricature, but it is not so far from the mark. One parliamentarian, Lord Pearson of Rannoch, during a House of Lords debate in 1996 (Hansard, 1996), colourfully but seriously described university-based teacher education and training as being controlled by ‘a large, powerful, vicious and insular education establishment ... ideologues’ inherent in the activities of whom was ‘the promotion of socialism’. He described the preparation of new teachers as ‘the soil in which the roots of our primary, secondary and indeed university systems feed’ but lamented that ‘the cancer now runs so deep’ that to turn around ‘the long march of the institutions ... will be a long and arduous process.’

Even after the 1997 election, in which Tony Blair’s Labour government displaced the long-standing Tory administrations of Margaret Thatcher and John Major (1979–1997),

the fears expressed about a subversive, leftist education establishment were still being voiced. Influential columnist Melanie Phillips felt able to write (*New Statesman*, 2002) of ‘desperate parents and teachers intimidated by the doctrinaire education orthodoxy’. Those working in teacher education found it perplexing to read of their labour in terms of ‘intimidation’ and ‘cancer’ and of their colleagues – even of they themselves – as being ‘vicious and insular’.

Beating beneath this lurid exterior was an unrelenting ideological pulse. Those on the right in our politics had seen certain elements in British society as lying at the heart of its perceived decline. One was the power of the trade unions, evident throughout the 1970s in a seemingly endless round of industrial action. Another was the influence of *local* government which, throughout the years of Conservative rule, tended politically to the opposition parties. To these could be added the ‘educational establishment’, malevolently scheming the overthrow of the State by influencing their student teachers’ minds, and so perpetuating a leftist, radical, progressive agenda which was then carried down into the schools. These were among the people who must be stopped!

Most powerful of the unions were the coal miners – ‘the enemy within’ as Mrs Thatcher once famously termed them (Thatcher, 1984). After a rancorous and sometimes violent strike in 1984–85, they were defeated by the authorities, their leaders humbled and the power of trade unionism diminished. As for local government, the largest spending line in the budget of any Local Authority was education and during these years legislation was passed which sought to encourage parents to vote their childrens’ schools out of Local Authority control. As for the teacher educators, they were to become regulated by a strict regime in which funding and the allocation of student numbers were subject to the results of inspection by OfSTED, measured against centrally-imposed ‘standards’.

STANDARDS IN SCHOOLS

Although, of course, there were good new teachers coming out well-trained from good courses in the teacher training colleges, polytechnics and universities, others were merely passing through, perhaps taking the nine-month Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) in order to hold a qualification as insurance in case they failed to get a better job, perhaps even taking the PGCE because they needed more time as students to think of what to do with the rest of their lives. As for those wishing to teach younger children in primary school, the largest route was the Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree, and entry standards for students to the BEd, measured in terms of ‘A’ level results, compared badly with those entering other degree programmes, giving ammunition to those who contended that the quality of teacher education in Higher Education was weak and that the abilities of those entering the profession were limited.

For our state schools were not producing good results. That a third of young people could not really claim to know much, understand much or do much by the time they left school was an indictment of the whole education system. The government needed

to act. The stand against teacher education was not, therefore, simply the manifestation of a passing irritation. Neither, though it had those elements, could it only be characterised as a way of finding convenient ideological scapegoats among seemingly left-leaning professionals in the public service. While it would at the same time curtail the apparent influence of the intellectual left over the minds of the teachers coming into our schools, Government policy was for a reform programme for teacher education which would raise teaching quality. In more ways than one, then, it would hold back the decline in standards: standards in teacher effectiveness and so standards in pupil performance. The government of the day found a powerfully attractive political message in this determination to lift sagging standards, to reverse decline, to go back to basics, to feel good again about ourselves as a nation. In those days, many tended not to look forward but to seek the restoration of a cleaner, simpler, past, one bleached of the disappointing stains of modernity.

THE COUNCIL FOR THE ACCREDITATION OF
TEACHER EDUCATION (CATE)

And so, in 1984, a mechanism of sorts was established, called the *Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education* (CATE), to help put things right. CATE published *criteria*. Courses must address these or, eventually, be closed down. It was the first taste people in Higher Education had of centralised control over their curriculum and their syllabus design. Even their staffing: for one of these criteria was that all Higher Education lecturers responsible for training students for classroom practice must themselves have *recent and relevant* teaching experience at the age-phase for which their students were preparing. Lecturers were sent off to work in schools. ‘*Done your R&R yet?*’ academics would ask each other in campus corridors and senior common rooms. Education Departments appointing applicants to posts would often prefer those with successful school-teaching experience to academics with burgeoning research records. In this way, the staffing profiles of Education Departments, always tending to the practitioner-base rather than the academic, moved ever further outside the mainstream of Higher Education.

Was there just a touch in this of Chairman Mao’s Cultural Revolution, with intellectuals being sent to work with the peasants on collective farms for their re-education? Certainly, the thinking behind ‘recent and relevant’ seemed to be that ‘practice’ – the day-to-day contact in the classroom – was preferable to ‘theory’ in the experience of beginning-teachers, and that therefore practitioners – school teachers – were to be preferred, in supervising such experience, over theoreticians, if such their counterparts in the colleges and universities could be called. The values then informing our system of teacher education and training privileged practice over theory, action over thought. There was still a long way to go to agree together how the balance between these could be struck, how theory could inform practice and practice enrich and modify theory. That those who prepared new teachers should have ‘recent and relevant’ experience suitable to the task was not really the issue: of course they should. But we were still some way from understanding that an academic’s recent and relevant experience of his or her research area (given of course that it illuminated the field in

question) was no less important and valuable to the student-teacher than was the day-to-day experience of the classroom practitioner. Or that both were essential.

Preference for practice gained its most powerful advocate when, in 1992, the Secretary of State, announced his intention that four-fifths of secondary teacher training would henceforth take place in the school classroom, schools to be ‘in the lead’ in the process. Control was to be ceded from Higher Education and handed to the schools. He had earlier said:

I meet too many young people who don’t go into teaching because they are put off by the length of the [training] course. Or they go on a course and give up because they are put off by the idea of learning too much theory and not enough practice. I want to see students actually getting into a classroom for much more of the time while they train. I want them to learn how to control a noisy class of 30 kids by actually having to do it with the help of an experienced teacher and using their training courses to sort out the problems. (Clarke, 1991)

The implication was that to become a teacher was a comparatively simple thing to do (we’re dangerously close to: *any fool can teach!*) and that high-flown theories were therefore redundant.

THE TEACHER TRAINING AGENCY (TTA)

In 1994, CATE (reputedly because it was too soft on the teacher trainers) was swept away and in its place the *Teacher Training Agency* (TTA) was established, a funding agency working directly to government. It contracted with what came to be known collectively as ‘providers’ for courses of teacher training. (The very word ‘training’ grated on the nerves of professionals, who preferred ‘education’. Their remonstrations went unsatisfied, however: ‘training’ remained inscribed in the title, the preparation of teachers proclaimed unequivocally as a *training* process rather than an *educative* one.)

These providers, of course, were the ones already doing the work of training teachers: the colleges, polytechnics and universities, together with their school partners. However, the TTA stressed that they were in an open market-place: if anyone else came along who met their design brief, then they too could train teachers. Some did: some schools, which either singly or in consortia decided they could make a better job than could the universities, formed what came to be called SCITTs (*School-Centred Initial Teacher Training*). Government welcomed them – even courted them. This was more like it: an alternative to what they saw as the hegemony of Higher Education!

And so one piece was installed of a centrally-controlled system determining the preparation of new teachers. The TTA worked to government, advising but also doing the politicians’ will. Those working in Higher Education were largely powerless to resist.

THE OFFICE FOR STANDARDS IN EDUCATION (OFSTED)

The reason was the other piece, which was OfSTED. The TTA contracted with OfSTED to be its quality assurance arm. The Agency funded its providers on the basis of their quality, using OfSTED’s judgements in two ways: first, as to whether a

particular Higher Education course complied with the training *standards* set out by the Secretary of State (failure to comply leading to loss of ‘accredited provider’ status); second, as to how well or badly they did their work (poor quality leading to cuts in student numbers and so funding; good quality leading to possible growth).

Where a provider was not hitting the highest standards, the mechanism meant they lost money, thereby making it harder for them to improve those standards, this in turn making it more likely that, next time they were inspected, they’d be still worse, which would give the TTA the cue to withdraw accreditation entirely. Was this because, in the view of the Agency, the country was ‘over-provided’ with HE-based teacher training centres which it intended to thin out? Certainly, many suspected so, warning of the possible regional consequences for training supply were the Agency’s tactics to be used indiscriminately.

The TTA and OfSTED thus worked together in an axis of control, with this brutally simple way of dealing with the delinquents in the system. As the Chief Executive of the TTA said (Millett, 1997): ‘It is crucial not to cut the link between quality and funding. This has been a powerful and effective lever in raising standards, allowing us to reward high-quality providers and show the others that they need to improve. Once you’ve got them by the finances, their hearts and minds will follow.’ Wrong on the question of hearts as on the question of minds, nonetheless she was right that there was little the professionals could do about it all. The Chief Inspector of Schools (the Chief Executive of OfSTED) was at the time himself openly, even sneeringly, disdainful of HE-based teacher training. Life for those working in the Education Departments had become most uncomfortable. Some suspected that, as well as being enjoined to improve, they were being punished for a crime they were not able to relate to their own past behaviour.

Inspections happened regularly and often, sometimes every year, sometimes more. Different teams of inspectors might operate in the same institution at the same time, one inspecting one course while their colleagues were inspecting another. The regime threatened to sink the whole ship even if only one of its parts sprang a leak, on the grounds that for a department to have within it a poor-quality course suggested faulty quality control and, that being so, the whole department should come under stern scrutiny to see whether it should be allowed to continue its work in all its courses. TTA’s Chief Executive reiterated the point in an interview: ‘One “unsatisfactory” inspection grading is enough to trigger a review by the TTA of the college’s accreditation and funding’ (TES, 1996). For some lecturing staff, this regime was damaging to health: an inspector visiting your class next day (a reasonable professional expectation) might, if things went wrong, trigger a sequence of events resulting in the loss of funding for your department. At its worst, your own livelihood – even that of your colleagues – might be at stake.

Because the TTA ran to a different set of procedural mechanisms, University protocols (for student number returns, funding streams, etc) had to be adapted. This higher bureaucratic cost, together with the high risks to which teacher education had by now become associated, led many Vice-Chancellors to question whether it remained worthwhile to sustain that part of their corporate businesses. Traditionally

suspicious of the academic standing of teacher training, and increasingly uncomfortable with the lack of research profiles among staff who (as a result of the ‘recent and relevant’ ruling) had been recruited largely on the basis of their classroom experience, some university authorities became hostile to their education departments, allowing them to survive – or so it seemed – only on sufferance.

CHANGING FORTUNES

This appalling situation went on getting worse until, in 1997, Mr Blair won a landslide victory against a moribund Conservative party and things began to change. In 2003, we read in the Chief Inspector of School’s Annual Report (HMSO, 2003) that teacher education courses are: ‘good or very good in 80% of the courses ... almost none of the courses were providing poor training. ... School-centred ... partnerships have shared in the general trend towards improvement [but] continue to perform less well overall than the HE-based partnerships.’ The TTA welcomed its publication in a press release headed: ‘Newly-qualified teachers the best trained ever,’ going on to say, ‘... Modern training is practical and highly relevant to the classroom. We treat new teachers as professionals from day one.’ What could possibly have happened?

I have implied it was a change of government, and that is certainly a most important circumstance from which anyone involved in teacher education in England can draw the inescapable conclusion that the prevailing *political* agenda will impact on the way a society decides how to prepare its teachers. Mr Blair’s election slogan had been ‘Education! Education! Education!’ and the new government’s energies were focussed on raising school standards, everyone involved in education being recruited to this task. Teacher educators in Higher Education found themselves included by government as necessary partners in preparing new teachers, their representatives meeting government at ministerial level – astonishingly, for the first time. Forget ideological crusades against the slipshod left: now there was a real job to do and all hands would be needed. During those early years of the new administration, it became possible for policy-makers, inspectors, funders and professionals to establish together some kind of (admittedly cautious) alliance which engendered new ways of working and a gradually-evolving discourse of collaboration. Even of partnership.

STANDARDS AND PROFESSIONALISM

The clash could be characterised in simple terms as that between *standards* and *professionalism*, and it was to bridge this apparent gulf that this discourse began. There is a paradox here: surely, *standards* and *professionalism* belong intimately together as part of the same notion, whereas in England the struggle has tended to force them apart and place them in opposition. To characterise what I believe has been meant in their opposition, rather than their fusion, we can reconstruct government’s position as follows:

‘We haven’t been convinced that our schools reach standards as high as we would like. The results in terms of reading ages, numeracy scores, truancy rates, above all

school-leaving qualifications, are often poor, the schools are drab, the teachers dispirited, the teaching profession of low status. Though the present generation of teachers are probably beyond redemption, they're getting older and will retire before much longer – it's the newcomers we want to focus on. Better teacher training will gradually help to reverse this situation, putting a fresh generation of teachers into our schools, so we must raise standards there as well. Higher standards in teacher training means higher standards in teacher performance which means higher standards of pupil performance. The calibre of new entrants to the profession must improve, so we have imposed a regime based around standards and inspections, with funding and institutional survival as the lever to success.

We've also broken Higher Education's monopoly over the training of teachers by opening it up to anyone who can meet our standards (well – you never know!). This regime rests on the notion that, to raise the level of professionalism – indeed, to establish teaching as a profession at all, rather than little more than a unionised graduate trade – we need to reinforce and strengthen the standards against which all those entering the profession must prove their competence. Other professions set themselves threshold standards and so for teaching – except that we don't trust teachers to do it for themselves and so will do it for them. At present, the standards are enshrined in undergraduate or postgraduate qualifications for teaching. That's too risky for us, because universities are free to control their own awards, and look what's been happening! So – from now on we'll tell them what has to go into those awards. We'll introduce a National Curriculum for Initial Teacher Training (NCITT- introduced in 1997) enshrining these standards for all new teachers. In effect, we'll contract with the providers for courses which teach this National Curriculum. We'll inspect progress towards incorporating the standards in all courses of teacher training, reporting back on the success with which providers are doing so, and in this way we will gain the plaudits of the electorate for doing what we said we'd do, which is to raise standards in our schools.

The gains for the educators will be in heightened public respect as their levels of professionalism rise. This in turn will help recruitment for, in order to attract and retain excellent people, the preparation process has to be rigorous and difficult to accomplish. You won't make teaching a respected profession if anyone can get in, as more or less happens now. We have to set high thresholds, as the NCITT proves. The days will have passed when people can say: *Any fool can teach!* because teachers will be able to respond: *Not until they've demonstrated their competence against a range of rigorous standards, they can't!* In such a situation, all sides are eventual winners.'

Now to the position of those universities: 'Your talk of *standards* is not synonymous with our talk of *professionalism* because it only takes us so far into what a teacher must do and be. If you press the 'standards' agenda too insistently, you will lose, not gain, in professional capacity. So your position is a necessary but not sufficient condition for excellence in the teaching profession. What you mean by 'professional standards' is 'professional standards of technical competence'. Indeed, you have even used the awkward word 'competencies' to detail the things which each new teacher must prove him- or herself competent in doing. You use 'professional' in the

adjectival sense to mean ‘at a higher level than merely amateur’. And this is not really contentious between us, for – self-evidently – technical competence is important. (You cannot seriously believe we in Higher Education, together with our school partners, are intent upon providing our schools with *incompetent* teachers.)

However, we hold that technical competence is not nearly enough. Any good teacher acknowledges the gulf between the merely competent and the richly capable and versatile professional. The problem is that, if you only concentrate on these standards of competence, you are in danger of squeezing out those other elements of preparation which, in our view, all good teachers need in their background as they grow towards achieving full professionalism. We need to find a balance. You need to be a little less than adamant that every atomised teaching skill is present in the training programmes so that, when they come, OfSTED inspectors can tick them off as having been ‘done’. (Until they came to be revised, we counted over 860 competencies in the standards students needed to achieve to become primary school teachers.) Furthermore, while acknowledging your agenda for technical ability, we need space to allow our own for teacher professionalism to develop. If we can find that balance, we’ll have done well.’

ELEMENTS OF PROFESSIONALISM

Some have suggested that we could raise the quality of teachers’ performance by raising the *entry standards* to a course of teacher education and training. There is no invariant correlation, however, between entry and exit levels, measured in terms of examination passes and grades. In England, good new teachers emerge from our training system who entered it with few, or unorthodox, qualifications. Were the gateway to entry thus to be narrowed, teacher supply would first need to be assured. This has been – and continues to be – a vitally important factor in the situation described above, governments being more likely to consider a range of alternative solutions when supply is threatened than when there is a glut of potential teachers.

However, we should energetically consider raising standards of qualification *once within the profession*. The English system has been fixated on the initial stages of training teachers, heedless of the advice given in the 1970s in the *James Report* (HMSO, 1972), which proposed a *continuity* between initial training, induction and professional development thereafter. Gaining ground in England now is the belief that, just as we moved in the 1970s from a career grade entry standard of *Certificate* to that of *Bachelors*, the natural level of career qualification for teachers in the twenty-first century should be *Masters*. The way is open for a system in which all graduate teachers, so many years into the profession, should be required to obtain a professionally-focused Masters degree, this triggering higher salaries and greater responsibilities. Other professions do this normally, career advancement up a salary scale and status ladder being predicated not only on experience but on successive qualification, but UK teachers need never gain higher qualifications once they enter the profession. It is not easy to defend this situation.

Raising the standard of qualification for teachers would do many good things. Not least, it would reinforce the idea that initial training is only a staging-post on the way

towards a career-long journey of professional learning, where at present it is too much conceived as an end in itself. If teachers are to act as examples for their pupils, here's a way of demonstrating it in systematic practice, letting pupils witness their teachers studying for higher-level qualifications, showing them that it's a normal part of life.

Requiring Masters would also stress the important link between each teacher and education at an advanced level, first in initial and then in subsequent study for higher-level qualification, something else which would help to reinforce teaching as a profession in the eyes of the public, such qualifications having universal currency and so strengthening professional credibility. Furthermore, close identification with Higher Education will reinforce the notion that teaching is a knowledge-based, research-driven profession. Universities exist to work with knowledge: *discovering* new knowledge through their research; *validating* knowledge through their academic disciplines; and *disseminating* knowledge through teaching and publication, at all levels from first-year undergraduate to post-doctoral and beyond. To dislocate the teaching profession from such a context (as previous governments in England have at the very least seriously considered doing) is to cut away a part of its brain. Conversely, to proclaim the unbreakable connection between the teaching profession and the universities is to enrich it, to heighten its impact on the lives of children and young people and on the public at large.

In England, though we talk of the 'teaching profession', there are many outside it who still do not really believe it is a profession at all. Teaching has lacked many of the lineaments of the other professions and teachers have some way to go before they will be accepted as being on a par with doctors, lawyers, architects, accountants and the like. Professions are defined in part by having a professional lead body or association which is responsible among other things for setting threshold entry standards and which also has powers to de-register someone for professional misconduct. These bodies are not unions: their interests tend not to be about conditions of service, levels of pay, relationships with the employers and so forth, but about the nature and quality of the profession itself. Since September 2000, teachers in England and in Wales each have a *General Teaching Council* (in Scotland, they have had one since 1965), an essential to the establishing and on-going maintenance of the profession.

Qualifications and a governing professional council are some of the external characteristics by which we might know a profession. Others go deeper. A fundamental assumption informing the concept of 'profession' is that it exists to serve others. Human societies have always needed others to provide them with certain services which address the deepest things in our existence. We need to care for our bodies, our minds and our souls, and so we find in any society the need for healers, teachers and preachers. These three, all in their way re-interpreted in each society and for every time, are the *root professions* and being a teacher attaches to one of them. Teachers, like all professionals, work for others. They are public servants whose business is the social and intellectual re-birth of society in the next generation, manifested in their work with each individual learner. Teachers deal with the inside of people's minds, and so with the habits and beliefs of their cultures. In this, teachers are close to artists and writers, to the media and the politicians and other opinion-formers.

Of course, they themselves are citizens of the society which pays them for their work. As significant members of their communities, they should demand freedom responsibly to make decisions in the best interests of their pupils, professional decisions which only they can take since others lack the skill and understanding to do so. The last third of the twentieth century has seen an English public uneasy about the extent of this freedom, being uncertain whether it wants teachers who are mute supplicants to the prevailing orthodoxies of the day, or radicals suggesting new ways of thinking and acting. I choose the latter.

The relationship between the need for high levels of technical competence (high standards) and high levels of professional ability was illustrated to me early in my career when a colleague – decades more experienced – told me with some pride that he liked to give a particular message to his teacher training students. His academic area was in English literature, which he taught by bringing his crisply-honed literary sensibility down into the lives of the young people who sat in his classes. He should have been in a university English department but, because he worked in the rather more mundane context of a teacher training college, as they were then called, he also had to teach them how to teach. It was to this more humdrum part of his responsibilities that his comment alluded. ‘I tell them,’ he said, ‘that for those campus-based sessions which are all about *teaching* English, as opposed actually to *learning about* English literature, *you must bring your bodies along, but you can leave your minds outside the door.*’

There was a world of implication behind this injunction, and the obvious relish with which he passed it on to me, a young newcomer into his territory. For him, apparently, no-one could be *taught* how to teach: it was either something you knew from birth or something to be picked up as you did it – a set of craft skills accumulated as you served your time in the classroom. What was needed was *stuff* to teach. *That* was why you came to college – to learn the stuff which you would one day teach to others. The distinction was between knowledge and personality on the one hand, and the – for him – bogus proposition on the other that learning to be a teacher went much further. So for his student teachers to apply their *minds* to the practice of classroom organisation, to pupil management, to the planning and handling of resources, to the arrangement and presentation of knowledge itself in curriculum design, to pupil assessment, to the keeping of records, to knowing how to talk to parents, to working with colleagues, to being safe, to keeping within the law, and to all the other sadly necessary but tedious professional tasks which teachers were, now and again, forced to accomplish ... this, if it took place on the campus, was a specious undertaking. They’d pick all that up as they went along in the classroom. Hence his invitation to leave their minds *outside* the door.

I have often thought about that revealing remark, each time embarrassed at the state of teacher training which, in those days, it represented: an ignorance of, even a contempt for, the complex of skills, knowledge, ideas and beliefs which teachers need to study as they learn to become professionals. Disregarding the fact that it provided his own livelihood, my colleague would presumably have agreed with those politicians who would have taken teacher training out of Higher Education and put it entirely into the schools, superintended by experienced classroom teachers who

could pass down to their apprentices all their good practice – and presumably all their bad practice, too.

The opposite position is where we can find the *rapprochement* I have been searching for between *standards* and *professionalism*. It lies in the value which Higher Education can add to practice. All teachers need to meet high standards of technical competence. Equally, the habits of mind espoused in Higher Education (of accumulating knowledge, honouring evidence and of careful analysis) must be married to the experience, minute by minute, of new practitioners as they practise their skills in school. The idea of leaving the mind out of it insults the complex processes of teaching. It illustrates the loss of consciousness which characterises some teacher training more than 20 years ago. The insistence on the overwhelming value of *practice* which that now defunct Secretary of State was intent upon introducing in the early 1990s bore some resemblance to this mindlessness, for it left little of value for the Academy to contribute to the shaping of new teachers. What has happened over the period I have been considering is the sometimes difficult coming together of the two: the *thought* and the *action* in the technically competent professional. It's what we all seek to achieve, and the peace between the two sides, if indeed it has now finally broken out, offers great hope for the future of our schools and all those who learn there.

POSTSCRIPT

Since writing the above, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) in September 2005 changed its name to the Training & Development Agency for Schools (TDA) and its function to embrace not only the preparation of school teachers but the whole of the school workforce. The potential for partnership has thereby been increased, as an element of teacher preparation must now deal with the teacher's capacity to work well with other adults in the education of children and young people at school. The emphasis is on multi-professionalism, with all the richness for new partnerships and networks this can engender – and, so the cynic might say, for a thickening of the web of potential discord as turf wars, so clear-cut before, now involve skirmishes across a much broader front.

One good sign is the TDA's *Teaching 2012* project. This asks questions about the kinds of knowledge and skills which teachers will need in the years to come, the answers to which will help to form the foundation of its changing agenda for teacher preparation and development. Though funded by the Agency, the project is directed by a group representing all the stakeholders. It could act as a model for the teacher education of the future: collaborative, intent upon achieving high standards and quality, and committed – since their work concerns other people's futures – to shouldering that responsibility of all professional educators, which is to look ahead.

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9. REGULATION AND AUTONOMY IN TEACHER EDUCATION: SYSTEM OR DEMOCRACY?

THE POLITICS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education is a political activity. That is to say, the socialisation of teachers into the work of schools inevitably involves some kind of relationship with the distribution of symbolic and material power within and between societies. As Ginsberg and Lindsay suggest;

Focussing on the political dimension, therefore, entails examining how power ... is distributed and organised among various individuals, groups, communities and societies.

(Ginsberg and Lindsay, 1995, p. 4)

Efforts to reform teacher education are, therefore, almost always accompanied by broader redefinitions of power relationships. These are often clearly seen when changes of government bring about changes in policy. On other occasions apparent 'failures' of education systems to adequately socialise youth or to ensure a sufficient supply of qualified labour, produce 'moral' or 'economic' panics. The answer is always to reform education, and teacher education in particular.

Often the main vehicle for such reform is through government or quasi-government agencies.

For example, much recent effort to 'reform' teacher education in 'developed' capitalist societies has been stimulated ... by concerns to bring teacher education under tighter control of state elites and by desires to prepare teachers differently so that schools will function more effectively in preparing more productive workers.

(Ginsberg and Lindsay, 1995, p. 6)

You will, no doubt, have your ears full of the current rhetoric concerning 'the new economy' and 'globalisation' and the need to 'remain competitive' through 'world class' institutions and 'quality assurance' 'benchmarked' against 'best practice'. This is the rhetoric not only of business elites but also of the governments they appear to have captured.

But government and markets are not the only sources of legitimation for ideas and practices in education. Teachers are often committed to the 'improvement' of society. Often they see traditional educational and social structures as distributing educational opportunity, economic advantage and social power in ways that, for many, restrict the possibilities for human development that education is supposed to facilitate.

As Bob Connell puts it, for many of us:

Education has fundamental connections with the idea of human emancipation, though it is constantly in danger of being captured for other interests. In a society disfigured by class exploitation, sexual and racial repression, and in chronic danger of war and environmental destruction, the only education worth the name is one that forms people capable of taking part in their own liberation. The business of the school is not propaganda; it is equipping people with the knowledge and skills and concepts relevant to remaking a dangerous and disordered world.

(Connell, 1982, p. 208)

The sources of such commitment are found occasionally in governments (particularly of the 'progressive' kind), but more frequently in civil society, for here is where the competition for ideas, resources, organization and power originates. Thus, while the study of state influence on teacher education is important, it is also important to understand:

... how teacher education is linked with relations of power and resource distributions in civil society, for example, those involving social class, racial/ethnic, and gender relations as they are socially constructed and contested by individuals and groups in homes, neighbourhoods, religious institutions, and professional associations and unions.

(Ginsberg and Lindsay 1995, p. 4)

Schools and their teachers are inevitably and continuously caught up in this struggle for ideas and for institutional control. The struggle for control of teacher education is part of this broader struggle.

It would be easy to characterise this struggle as a struggle between government and civil society, and indeed in some situations this may approximate reality. However, both government and civil society are themselves sites of struggle and contestation. This is especially the case as many societies become more open, both in membership (through patterns of migration of significant numbers of people within and between nations), and in the exchange of ideas (through both traditional and emergent media).

It is important, then, to recognise that the issue of regulation and autonomy in teacher education is caught up in a much more complex political process than the simple and direct imposition of government regulation.

GOVERNMENTS AND REGULATION

Certainly, as governments almost universally hold the purse strings, governments everywhere have the greatest capacity to regulate. Indeed the basis for such regulation lies in the increasing recognition that governments have a responsibility to maintain an appropriate standard of professional competence in the teaching profession.

Indeed:

The increased involvement of or commitment by states to fund, or at least regulate, teacher education was signalled in principle 13 of the 1966 UNESCO 'Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers': 'Completion of an approved course in an appropriate teacher education institution should be required of all persons entering the profession (Dove, p 191)

(Ginsberg and Lindsay, 1995, pp. 6–7)

And, in country after country, commitment to this principle has led to significant attempts by government to define what is 'appropriate' and 'approved' in teacher education.

Ginsberg and Lindsay's (1995) collaborators showed this process in action in England, Australia, The United States, China, Sri Lanka, Sierra Leone, Burkina Faso, South Africa, Germany, Mexico, and Papua and New Guinea during the 1990's. More recent commentators have explored the issue of regulation and autonomy in England (Furlong *et al.*, 2000; Gilroy, 2002), Portugal (Alarco, 2002; Flores and Shiroma, 2003), the USA (Beyer, 2002; Bullough, 2002; Cochran-Smith, 2002, 2003), Scotland (Hartley, 2002); Brazil (Flores and Shiroma, 2003) China (Zou Yu, 2002), South Africa (Robinson, 2003) and Australia (Bates, 2002, Sullivan 2002), during the current decade.

Standards for teachers and teacher education are appearing all over the place. Sometimes, as in the US and England, through political processes and the establishment of agencies directed towards external control of teacher behaviour and performance. Sometimes, as in Australia, through processes of self-regulation sponsored and monitored by government. There is, as Ben Levin (1998) observes, a veritable 'epidemic of education policy' in teacher education as elsewhere.

The avowed purpose of all this policy, all this regulation, is the improvement of student performance through the improvement of teachers via the improvement of teacher education.

What is notable, however, is the form that such 'improvement' takes. It is, in almost every instance, through a particular mechanism of accountability.

ACCOUNTABILITY AND TEACHER EDUCATION

In almost all of the instances where greater regulation of teacher education has been proposed or implemented, the rhetoric of government has been that it is necessary for the improvement of educational performance in schools through the improvement of teacher preparation. If significant amounts of government money are to be spent on education it seems perfectly reasonable that the institutions that spend that money should be held to account for the quality of their performance. Thus standards are developed and curricular specifications set down. On the basis of these specifications tests are developed and implemented to ensure performance against benchmarks and to encourage continuous improvement.

In some instances, as in England, these requirements are highly specific, developed by an agency set up for the purpose (the Teacher Training Authority-TTA) and inspected through a second, purpose-built, agency (The Office for Standards in Education-OfSTED). Compliance with standards and inspection is ensured through the imposition of significant financial penalties for non-compliance. As Gilroy comments:

This reform gave unprecedented control of initial teacher education to the minister for education, operating through the TTA. As ever more standards were created that courses had to ensure they met, university education departments struggled to meet them, knowing they could make little or no impact on the centralist controlling mechanism that they were now subject to ...

(Gilroy, 2002, p. 248)

There have been several consequences. Firstly, the relative autonomy of universities to develop and teach courses that they believed were appropriate in terms of intellectual standards and social need was seriously compromised. Secondly, the financial viability of courses in teacher education was brought into question through the transfer of significant resources from universities to schools and the financial penalties imposed as the result of inspections. As Gilroy suggests:

As funding per student fell, often as a result of a relatively weak score from an OfSTED inspection, and workloads increased, an increasing number of departments felt unable to continue offering such courses, with others seriously considering withdrawing from the process altogether.

(Gilroy, 2002, p. 248)

The regime imposed on teacher education in England is an extreme example of regulation. So extreme, in fact, as to lead one Swedish interviewee in Mahony and Hextall's (2000) investigation of the change, to comment that 'What is happening in teacher education in England is a story we use to frighten the children'.

But a similar logic appears to be behind current moves in other jurisdictions. The United States, for instance, through the 'Ready to Teach' Act appears to be driven by the same impulses to require detailed accountability from teacher education programs (AACTE, 2003). The problem, as Apple (2001) and Cochran-Smith (2003) among others, have pointed out, is the simplistic nature of the mechanisms involved in imposing such accountability when compared with the real complexities of teaching.

But even where peer review rather than government inspection is in place, inappropriate forms of review can still have disastrous consequences, as Bullough *et al.* (2003) show. Their conclusion is that 'the problem is not the existence of a system of accountable quality assurance but the form it takes' (2003, p. 54).

The difficulty seems to be that the mechanism typically favoured by governments is far too limited and inflexible. This is not only a problem for teacher education, but also a problem for education more generally. Indeed, as several well-informed critics

have suggested, highly standardised 'high stakes' testing and accountability regimes result 'not in improving schools but in damaging them' (Gallagher, 2000; Glovin, 2000; McNeil, 2000; Lissovoy and McLaren, 2003, p. 132; Popham, 1999).

The reason for this apparently contradictory result is well set out by Lissovoy and McLaren who argue that:

The key principle at work in the use of standardised tests, which is what allows them to serve as the mechanism for accountability initiatives, is the reduction of learning and knowledge to a number, i.e. a score. Once this takes place, scores can be compared, statistically analysed and variously manipulated.

(Lissovoy and McLaren, 2003, p. 13)

This presents particular problems for teachers who cannot facilitate learning effectively without taking the quite often disparate circumstances of students and their communities into account. The equation of learning with a test score can therefore do considerable violence to the interests of teacher and student alike:

In reducing learning to a test score, policy makers seek to make the knowledge of disparate individuals commensurable. Never mind that violence is done to the concreteness of that individual's humanness and particularity; once knowledge is reified in this way, it can be manipulated and described in the same fashion that one is accustomed to in manipulating and describing products (commodities) of all kinds.

(Lissovoy and McLaren, 2003, p. 133)

Treating learning as a commodity allows it to be compared, assessed and subjected to valuation and pricing mechanisms which result in market-like mechanisms of financial and regulatory rewards and penalties. But this can only be done if the individuality of the person is replaced by the standardisation of the evaluatory criteria.

The violence in this erasure of particularity and difference then extends outwards, as students are arbitrarily held back, without regard to individual differences in development, and as teachers are given preset curricula, without regard to their own interests and talents and their student's particular needs. 'The spread of the principle imposes on the whole world an obligation to become identical, to become total' (Adorno, 1995:146).

(Lissovoy and McLaren 2003, p. 133)

Ball (2003) elaborates this argument, pointing to the generalised characteristics of this new form of management and the interrelated policy technologies through which it imposed: the market, managerialism and performativity (2003, p. 215). The cumulative effect of these technologies is to significantly redefine the nature of teaching and impose a direct intervention into the lives and identities of teachers. In effect '(k)nowledge and knowledge relations, including the relationships between learners, are de-socialized' (Ball, 2003, p. 226).

This has immense implications for teacher education as well as for the motivation and performance of teachers. It also squeezes out of teaching and teacher education consideration of social and ethical issues that relate to the purpose and consequences of particular forms of education by defining education as ‘what works’ in terms of the standardised and universalised criteria of the official curriculum and tests.

The space for the operation of autonomous ethical codes based in a shared moral language is colonized or closed down ... The policy technologies of market, management and performativity leave no space for an autonomous or collective ethical self. These technologies have potentially profound consequences for the nature of teaching and for the inner-life of the teacher.

(Ball, 2003, p. 226)

REGULATION AND COMMUNITY

But is this process of ‘making the whole world one’ what people want? I am reminded of Thom Greenfield’s assertion that the world of reified educational administration dissociated from the reality of everyday life is not at all what people want from schools.

What many people seem to want from schools is that schools reflect the values that are central and meaningful in their lives. If this view is correct, schools are artefacts that people struggle to shape in their own image. Only in such forms do they have faith in them; only in such forms can they participate comfortably in them.

(Greenfield, 1973, p. 570)

What Greenfield reminds us of here is the intimate connection of learning with identity and identity with community. At the heart of this process is not the issue of standardisation and commensurability but of that of an increasing diversity of values and ways of life.

There is a significant and increasingly influential body of theory in education which puts community at the centre of the educational process along with increased attention to social, ethical and moral dilemmas (Starratt, 1991, 2003; Sergiovanni, 1992; Grace, 1995; Begley, 1999; Greenfield, 1999; Goldring and Greenfield, 2002). Moreover, within the wider literature, concerns with the nature of civil society and the production of social capital is a major topic of debate (Putnam, 2002). There are also strong arguments put forward that parents should have the right to send their children to a school of their own choice (Chubb and Moe, 1990), presumably so that their children absorb a preferred set of values as well as achieving a particular kind of educational performance.

Indeed, some argue, along with Greenfield, that education is unlikely to be meaningful without a consensus between community and school over the values that the school should represent. In an extreme form, such schools would represent ‘covenantal’ communities which serve to confirm particular identities. Sergiovanni, for instance,

argues that such schools provide

... the kind of morally based contractual relationships that can bond people together. Bonding relationships respond to the reality that emotion, values, and membership connections are important human impulses. They also acknowledge the aspect of human nature that places others before self-interest. Finally, they give needed meaning and significance to our work lives. These inclinations join covenant and virtue.

(Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 102)

There is a tendency then

... to see covenantal communities or communities of interest as the appropriate bases for the binding together of the members of schools into moral communities with shared values, purposes and goals, often around religious or ethnic identities, and to see this as a necessary foundation for 'effective' education.

(Bates, 2003, p. 121)

In diverse societies it is an immediately appealing principle that each group, culture, collectivity should be able to develop its own covenant with schools; a covenant that would represent both the instrumental achievements required of the school for participation in economic life and the normative achievements (the particular form of social capital) which binds the community together. It would follow that each group would develop a form of teacher education that would be regulated, not by government edict, but by community determination of the kind of teachers it required for its schools. Teacher education, like schooling would be privatised and subordinated to sectarian communal ways of life.

However, as I have pointed out elsewhere, linking community with schooling in this particular way has problems of its own, for

... covenantal communities ... in themselves neither comprise, nor necessarily contain the constituents of beneficial moral and social capital The social capital of particular networks can have both positive and negative effects for individuals and society.

(Bates, 2003, p. 120)

Putnam, for instance, argues that:

... we cannot assume that social capital is everywhere and always a good thing. Although the phrase 'social capital' has a felicitous ring about it, we must take care to consider its potential vices, or even the possibility that virtuous forms can have unintended consequences that are not socially desirable In short, we must understand the purposes and effects of social capital. Networks and norms might, for example, benefit those who belong – to the detriment of those who do not. Social capital might be most prevalent among groups of people who are already advantaged,

thereby widening political and economic inequalities between those groups and others who are poor in social capital ... Moreover, some forms of social capital are good for democracy and social health; others are (or threaten to be) destructive.

(Putnam, 2002, p. 9)

Such groups as the Klu Klux Klan, El Quaeda, or the Italian or Russian mafias spring immediately to mind as examples of groups that produce negative social capital.

Moreover, such covenantal communities can be highly divisive of the wider society through the maintenance of separate or indeed isolationist doctrines. Peshkin (1986) provides a powerful and initially sympathetic account of a school which is certainly 'virtuous' in terms of its covenant with its community, but which is eventually isolating in terms of the wider society.

The academy epitomizes the case of a community successfully projecting its idiosyncratic outlook onto its school. More than just a community school, however, the academy is a 'communal' institution ... Communal describes a community whose strong commitment to its own welfare inevitably places it in conflict with other communities that do not accept its doctrinal foundation. A communal school serves an internally integrative or community-maintenance function. That is, it simultaneously links believers together and separates them from non-believers. In its defensive capacity, the academy shields its students from competitors by promoting dichotomies not only of we and they, but also of right and wrong. We follow God's truth in God's preferred institutions; they are the unfortunates of Satan's dark, unrighteous world.

(Peshkin, 1986, p. 282)

So, regulating teacher education in the interests of particular groups in a diverse society seems as unsatisfactory a solution as the standardising, universalising processes of government regulation previously examined. Is there an alternative?

LIVING TOGETHER? AUTONOMY AND REGULATION IN A DEMOCRATIC WORLD

Two theorists who have been particularly concerned with the conflict between the search for universal values on the one hand and the apparent increase in ethically defensible but contrasting ways of life on the other are John Gray and Alain Touraine. Gray, in his examination of the traditions of liberalism in Western societies argues that:

If liberalism has a future, it is in giving up the search for a rational consensus on the best way of life. As a consequence of mass migration, new technologies of communication and continued cultural experimentation, nearly all societies today contain several ways of life, with many people belonging to more than one. The liberal ideal of toleration which looks to

a rational consensus on the best way of life was born in societies divided on the claims to a single way of life. It cannot show us how to live in societies that harbour many ways of life.

(Gray, 2000, p. 2)

If the pursuit of a 'one best way' of life for all within and between societies is to be surrendered, what, then, is the alternative? Gray suggests that it is in reaching a *modus vivendi* that accepts there are many forms of life in which humans can flourish and constructing institutions that allow for such acceptance.

The aim of modus vivendi cannot be to still the conflict of values. It is to reconcile individuals and ways of life honouring conflicting values to a life in common. We do not need common values in order to live together in peace. We need common institutions in which many forms of life can coexist.

(Gray, 2000, pp. 6–7)

Touraine takes a similar view.

No multi-cultural society is possible unless we can turn to a universalist principle that allows socially and culturally different individuals and groups to communicate with one another. But neither is a multi-cultural society possible if that universalist principle defines one conception of social organization and personal life that is judged to be both normal and better than others. The call for freedom to build a personal life is the only universalist principle that does not impose one form of social organization and cultural practices. It is not reducible to laissez faire economics or to pure tolerance, first, because it demands respect for the freedom of all individuals and therefore a rejection of exclusion, and secondly because it demands that any reference to a cultural identity be legitimised in terms of the freedom and equality of all, and not by appeal to a social order, a tradition, or the requirements of public order.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 167)

The principle on which Gray's *modus vivendi* and Touraine's advocacy of new forms of collective and personal life is that of a personal freedom which respects the personal freedom of others.

... all individuals have a right to freedom and equality, and that there are therefore limits that cannot be transgressed by any government or code of law. Those limits relate both to cultural rights such as the rights of women and to political rights such as freedom of expression and choice. This position is threatened both by those who would reduce society to the status of a market and by those who want to transform it into a community.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 168)

In this, there is implicit the requirement for both the respect of diversity and of the obligation of cultural communication.

In a world of intense cultural exchanges, there can be no democracy unless we recognize the diversity of cultures and the relations of domination that exist between themCultural liberation must be combined with an attempt to promote cultural communication, and this presupposes both an acceptance of diversity and a recourse to a principle of unity.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 195)

The problem for education is that education systems have largely dealt with cultural issues by defining education as a technical requirement and excluding cultural concerns, thus violating both the principle of respect for persons and the possibility of cultural communication.

... it is no longer possible to believe that the education system, which refuses to take children's private lives into consideration, is the best means of promoting the equality of all or of reducing the real inequalities that exist. The school system favours the central categories which implement a system of rules, laws and technologies, and creates obstacles for both innovators and children from dominated cultures.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 196)

What is required if a *modus vivendi* is to be achieved is an education system directed towards different ends for education is central to the construction of a society in which we can indeed live together.

If we are to be able to answer the question 'Can we live together?', or, in other words, 'How can we reconcile the freedom of the personal Subject, the recognition of cultural differences and the institutional guarantees that safeguard that freedom and those differences?', we have to discuss education.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 264)

Touraine's analysis of contemporary school systems is that they are far too focussed on the process of socialization into either the economy or the community, or perhaps more frequently into that particular combination of work-skills and dominant normative structures that characterise a specific nation state. But, in fact, if the nation state is breaking down under the pressures of globalisation and if communities are refuges from broader social action then such socialization is inappropriate. If the individual as a social actor (what Touraine calls the Subject) must now locate him/herself within a world where social, economic, cultural and personal identities are constantly open and constantly changing, and where personal and cultural identity is constantly subject to modification, then schools must concentrate far more on equipping students to construct and reconstruct their selves through processes of technical mastery and cultural communication.

A school for the Subject will move further and further away from the model that sees education as an agency for socialization. Schools are

obviously part of a particular society. They teach that society's language, and history and geography lessons concentrate mainly on national or regional realities. Having such roots is essential, but schools are not there for society's benefit. Their primary mission must not be to train citizens or workers, but to enhance individuals' ability to become Subjects. Schools must concentrate less on transmitting a body of knowledge, norms and representations, and more on teaching children how to handle instruments and on personal development and self-expression.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 273)

Such personal development and self-expression can only be achieved if the school becomes a communications network rather than a socialization agency. This is the more so for children from cultural minorities or otherwise disadvantaged backgrounds.

The need to make the transition to a school that communicates is ... most urgent for schools attended by children from poor social backgrounds; when a school does not function as a communications network, violence breaks out and destroys the institution.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 277)

Or, more explicitly,

A school that communicates must give special priority to both the capacity for self-expression, oral and written, and the ability to understand written and oral messages. We do not perceive and understand the Other thanks to some act of empathy; we do so by understanding what the Other is saying, thinking and feeling, and through our ability to converse with the Other. There is no communication without language, and public opinion is quite right to insist that schools must give priority to teaching the language which children will use in their most important exchanges. Above all, schools must involve their pupils in dialogue, and teach them to argue amongst themselves by analysing the discourse of the Other, both in order to learn to handle the national language and to be able to perceive the Other, as that is a pre-condition for living together.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 279)

UNESCO's Commission on Education argues a similar point.

We have to learn to live together by developing our understanding of others, and of their history, traditions and spirituality. By doing so, we can create a new spirit which, thanks to our perception that we are increasingly dependent upon one another, can make a joint analysis of the dangers and challenges of the future, encourage the realization of joint projects or the intelligent and peaceful handling of the inevitable conflicts.

(UNESCO, 1996, p. 18)

What such a future requires from education is not socialisation into pre-existing social structures and norms directed towards the preservation of a particular society, but rather the development of the capabilities that will equip students to construct their identity as a Subject within a global context and to communicate freely with others in the construction of new forms of sociability.

So long as schools are defined by their socializing function, it is obvious that their organization and norms will be defined by 'society', which actually means the administration. If, however, schools are centred not upon society, but upon individual Subjects, it becomes clear that the way they work must be decided by those who teach and learn in them – that is, by those who spend most of their lives in schools or who are preparing for their personal futures there.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 283)

The implication of this argument is that teachers, rather than be subject to the administrative regulation of either particular state, or a particular community, must have their independence guaranteed. But that independence must be open to scrutiny and democratic debate. Thus autonomy within a democratic debate that facilitates intercultural communication, the freedom of which is guaranteed by law, is fundamental to effective schools that prepare us to live together. Indeed ...

The independence of teachers, like the independence of the judiciary, is an essential pre-condition for democracy, whose primary task is to restrict the power of the state and social powers of all kinds.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 285)

Finally,

A school that is no more than an administrative service is unacceptable

(Touraine, 2000, p. 287)

CONCLUSION

The thrust of this chapter has been towards examining the perils of regulation by markets (and their proxy organization- the nation state) or subservience to partisan communities. The future is dependent on our resistance to these two forms of administration. As Touraine argues:

... the only way to overcome both the absolute power of markets and the dictatorship of communities is to enlist in the service of the personal Subject and its freedom by fighting on two fronts, against both the desocialized flows of the financial economy and the closure of neo-communitarian regimes. The two struggles complement each other.

(Touraine, 2000, p. 290)

Education, and most particularly, teacher education, is inevitably caught up in this struggle. Despite the increasing focus demanded by state administrations on the technical curriculum teachers every day face the reality of their students' struggles to form their identity from the fragments of various cultures in which they are enmeshed. The primary task of schooling is to help students develop the capabilities that will allow them to integrate, at the level of personality, those differing fragments, and to operate effectively within both the economic and the social and cultural structures of an increasingly global world. Schools therefore need to model forms of cultural communication that allow the democratic negotiation of individual commitments. They need, therefore to be more than simply an administrative system. Indeed, their autonomy from such a system must be guaranteed.

In order to function effectively in such schools, teachers must be prepared in ways that enhance their own capabilities for cultural communication and democratic negotiation as well as in the curricular knowledge and technical expertise required to enhance the knowledge of their students. If this is to be achieved then teacher educators themselves must continue to be part of a broad conversation about the nature of personal, cultural and social development as well as that over economic objectives and socialisation into dominant cultural and national norms.

The role of government here is not to regulate the technical detail of teacher education as an administrative service but, rather, to regulate the conditions of teaching and of teacher education in ways that preserve the autonomy of educators, enabling them to continue to take part in such a debate, and to incorporate such cultural communication into their own sense of self as a Subject and as a professional.

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10. GLOBALISATION AND THE RESHAPING OF
TEACHER PROFESSIONAL CULTURE: DO WE
TRAIN COMPETENT TECHNICIANS OR
INFORMED PLAYERS IN THE POLICY PROCESS?

The tendency in education writing on globalisation has been to examine the congruence of educational policies in western societies (Marginson, 1997; Dale, 1999, 2000) and the international effects of global governance of education by powerful transnational institutions such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development and the European Union (Lawn, 2001). The authors tend to identify massive changes in approaches to educational governance that have resulted in changed professional practice. The changes are said to include the establishment of a broadly common policy and management agenda that is characterised by ‘new managerialism’, devolution and rigid accountability structures (Thomson, 2001), entrepreneurialism, and a commitment to a particular approach to ‘school effectiveness’ (Angus, 1993; Morley and Rassool, 2000). There are few studies, however, of the dynamics of educational life in micro-political contexts that enable or challenge or bring about (much less resist) the kinds of teacher professional reshaping and renorming that are typically associated with globalisation. I attempt to analyse such micro-shaping in this chapter, which, through reporting an ethnographic study in a site of educational practice, examines how school managers and teachers dealt with government policy intervention and, in the process, both willingly and unwillingly implemented significant educational change. The implications of the case study for teacher education are discussed.

With few exceptions, education writers ascribe to ‘strong’ globalisation theories (Wilding, 1997; Stryker, 1998) that generally emphasise the dominance of the global economy over national and international politics. There is a tendency to present globalisation as economic determinism, homogeneous in its effects throughout the planet. Such globalisation theory tends to be essentialist and reductionist as it implies a totalising structure that imposes its will without much if any consideration of agency, local politics or resistance. As Wilding (1997, p. 411) summarises this argument:

The term [globalisation] is most commonly used to describe certain trends in economic, political, social and cultural development. The term is also used, however, to explain such trends – they are as they are, the argument runs, because of this force we call globalisation.

Such conceptions of globalisation give little attention to ways in which global agendas might be asserted or resisted and played out in particular regions or sites, such as schools or clusters of schools, rather than simply being received and implemented. Globalisation is typically presented as an external phenomenon that results, at the school level, in such neo-liberal features as managerialism, competition and market arrangements. The complex shifts between, say, 'welfarism' and 'new managerialism' (Gewirtz and Ball, 2000) that may come about at the school level may be closely described and explored in terms of 'discursive shifts' (Gewirtz and Ball, 2000) but rarely explained. And because so many writers reduce explanations to strong, totalising versions of globalisation theory, these things are described more or less as if they simply 'are'; as if they are current features of the social and educational landscape that exist in the globalisation era and which need to be mapped and described rather than explained in context. Their meanings are rarely analysed in sites of educational practice.

Such distal accounts of change in education often rely on generalised discourses of globalisation to explain the self-disciplining effects of such 'new neo-liberal technologies of institutional control' (Beck, 1999) as new managerialism. For example, in critiquing 'school effectiveness', Morley and Rassool (2000, p. 169) state as given that 'neo-liberal policy meanings have redefined not only the educational process but also teachers' consciousness as workers'. Their approach to the analysis of new managerialism assumes the successful realisation of the outcomes that are envisaged in putative 'regimes of truth' that are seemingly imposed on schools and within which people are seemingly captured without demur. Or, as Bacchi (2000, p. 52) puts it, 'those who are deemed to "hold" power are portrayed as the ones making the discourse, whereas those who are seen as lacking power are described as constituted in the discourse'.

A major exception to the 'globalisation explains all' trend is Roger Dale. When it comes to seemingly common global education policies, Dale (1999, 2000) emphasises the importance of investigating how and why a particular meaning system may have come to appear dominant in particular places. He insists that the effects of assertive capitalism on education, exerted either directly or indirectly through the impact of globalisation on states, occur 'through mechanisms that can be *specified and traced*' (my emphasis). Following Dale, this paper argues that at both the micro and macro levels educational change is concerned with the negotiation and contestation of educational meaning and educational politics. This argument has important implications for teacher education.

METHODOLOGY

I endeavour to illustrate that any educational change, even within the current era of globalisation, must be accomplished in the dynamic world of complex human agents. To varying extents, we all share and contest overlapping multi-cultures, values and aspirations, and the complex politics of everyday life. The ethnographic data reported in the chapter indicate that teachers and principals have the capacity to influence

organisational norms, practices and structure, while also simultaneously both adapting to and influencing strongly institutionalised professional expectations within schools. Ethnographic analysis of such processes and discourses, *through* which, not *by* which, social relations and identities are constituted, may shed a little light on how management and organisational change gets 'accomplished' in schools.

The approach to gathering data was to observe as much as we could at 'Grandridge Secondary College' and speak to people there as often we could. We interviewed seventeen people on tape, some on many occasions, and had numerous other conversations. The interviews took place in offices, vacant schoolrooms or homes and were tape-recorded. We spoke to people informally before and after meetings, in staffrooms, in the yard, stairwells and corridors. We conducted interviews first with several individuals in key positions within the school and, at the end of each, asked these interviewees to nominate other people with whom they thought we should talk in order to gain a diversity of views and opinions. We made a list of names most often mentioned and went as far down the list as we could in the time available. Many on the list did not have formal interviews but did take part in conversations. Interviews were transcribed and interviewees checked the transcripts for fairness, relevance and accuracy. We then drew on the transcripts and observation and conversation notes. In this chapter, pseudonyms are used for the school and for participants. No real names are used except for very public figures.

Grandridge Secondary College

By the beginning of the 1990s, despite periodic conflicts between management and teachers, staff at Grandridge Secondary College had been working for more than two decades to institutionalise a general set of progressive educational practices and agendas that many teacher activists had been asserting in Victoria and Australia since the 1960s. Grandridge had become widely recognised among educators as a 'leading school' not just in contributing to the development of progressive and socially-just education, but also, through the commitment, innovation and sheer hard work of its staff, in helping to make progressive education respectable and broadly legitimate (Angus and Brown, 1997). Among staff there was a widely felt sense of commitment to improving the lot of the 'western suburbs' (a term used to describe a large region of Melbourne characterised by low SES), an emphasis on student centred pedagogy, a belief that curriculum reform could contribute to social as well as educational reform, and a belief that the education profession, including teacher unions, needed to be active in policy debates. Grandridge teachers tended to see themselves as being at the forefront of educational thinking and educational activism. They were committed to making Grandridge a great school and were generally committed to the progressive educational ideals that had gradually taken hold of a large part of the teaching profession (Angus and Brown, 1997).

In Victoria, a measure of the contribution of activist educators like those at Grandridge to the policy process is that, in the early to mid 1980s, teachers, through their unions, had become regarded as legitimate participants with government in educational innovation and change. Such 'partnership', as I have indicated, did not come

easily. It was an outcome of a period of contestation throughout the 1960s and 1970s. Therefore, the school Jack Regan took over as principal in 1989 boasted a very strong union branch with membership of 100% of staff. Jack now attributes Grandridge's success during that time to the efforts of key individuals whom he regards as catalysts and curriculum leaders. He is able to list a dozen such people in key curriculum areas. One of these says of Jack:

He came to a school which was very dwindling in numbers and struggling. And a lot of talented staff here were involved in improving the sorts of programs that the school could offer and widening the types of people that the school would appeal to, to come here. And over several years a really brilliant job was done by all.

The election of the Kennett government in Victoria in late 1992 signalled the end of any sense of partnership between teachers and government. Before it was elected, members of the Kennett-led Coalition (Liberal and National) parties emphasised that the new Government would introduce fundamental changes in education and the public sector generally. This point had been made perfectly clear by the leader of the Victorian Liberal Party, when he stated unequivocally prior to the 1992 election that:

Left wing advocates of progressive education have captured the curriculum with the aim of using it to restructure society according to their socialist ideals ... In contrast, the Coalition acknowledges that education must promote the common beliefs, values and knowledge on which our society is based.

As the October 1992 election grew nearer, the likelihood of a change of government grew greater. Teachers were expecting the worst. There was no secret that education would be dealt with harshly. The broad policy introduced by the new government for reforming school education had the evocative title of 'Schools of the Future' (SotF). Every government school in the State had become a so-called School of the Future by the government's third year. The policy was intended to curtail the 'social engineering' influence of 'radical' teachers and teacher unions, and to return the control of schools to communities. 'Quality' education was to be achieved by the adoption of 'world's best practice' in the management of schools. In this hostile education policy environment, and in the midst of an immediate round of school closures and a wave of teacher redundancies (55 schools were closed in three months and 17 per cent of teachers were removed from the system over 3 years), many Grandridge staff looked to their principal, Jack Regan, to provide some direction.

The *Schools of the Future Information Kit* (DSE, 1993) states that the 'aim of Schools of the Future is to improve the quality of education for students by moving to our schools the responsibility to make decisions, set priorities and control resources'. There was little if any reference to educational processes, pedagogy, teaching or learning, or relations among students and teachers. Terms such as marketing, accountability, outcomes, efficiency, appraisal and competitiveness, however, were used freely in the policy documents and supporting materials. Improved educational

outcomes and efficiency would be achieved, it was emphasised, by establishing 'an accountability framework' which would include, as its most crucial element, the 'School Charter'. This was referred to as the 'business plan' for the school. The Charter would set the benchmarks against which the school was to be judged by clients and by the system. In fact, the charter was regarded under the policy as a 'contract' between the school and both the local community and the Victorian government.

The principal of Grandridge Secondary College, Jack Regan, had previously relied on his powers of persuasion and his reputation among the staff as a savvy player of the Education Department games in order to influence staff opinion. He employed this style in bringing the staff to accept his recommendation, as soon as the Kennett government had been elected and had introduced its flagship Schools of the Future policy, to become a 'pilot' school in the program. For at least two reasons, looking back, this episode, and particularly the writing of the first School Charter as required under SotF policy, seem to have been critical incidents in reshaping the school's values and practices. First, they enabled an airing of alternative value positions that resulted in the first major step towards consolidating 'new' business-like values in the school culture. Second, although the School Charter was written in terms that many staff intended as defensive of the school's established educational values and culture, it was nonetheless the first clear example of group compromise on previously cherished positions. These points require some discussion.

Becoming a pilot School of the Future: the school charter

Jack was the central player in the decision process. He was remarkably insistent that Grandridge Secondary College join the pilot SotF program. The change of government did not alter his basic pragmatic belief that: 'It is better to be inside the tent pissing out than outside the tent pissing in.' This was the theme of a strongly argued memo he sent to all staff prior to a forum at which the decision whether Grandridge would enter the pilot program was to be made:

*FOR THE PAST SEVEN YEARS A SYSTEM OF WINNERS AND LOSERS
HAS BEEN OPERATING*

there is no zoning

funding is enrolment driven

*Plus in the past five years we have 'recruited' students from other schools
thus we are more than twice as 'rich' as we might have been [had our
enrolment remained stable over that period] ... The point here is that we
don't have to wait for Schools of the Future to see winners and losers.
Rich and Poor. WE HAVE IT NOW.*

*The fact that we are presently in the WINNER Category is no cause for
complacency.*

*The DSE has suggested a consultative (Pilot program) process. To say
'we don't like your ideas' is not politically smart at all.*

Participation in a pilot program is not tame acceptance. Involvement with a pilot program is good democratic practice. Boycotting is always an absolute last resort, and is rarely successful.

All of the above points were made at a specially convened Curriculum Policy Committee. More than 45 teachers attended. Speakers generally acknowledged dissatisfaction with much of the policy while at the same time recognising that the best way of influencing the Schools of the Future Program was to sit at the table and influence the decisions.'

(Staff memo 12/92)

Jack had a long record as a consultative, union-friendly principal and was trusted by staff. Because of his persuasiveness, he quickly secured general acceptance of the view that joining the Schools of the Future program was the pragmatic thing to do. He was able to highlight important continuities within the foreshadowed changes that might occur under the new government. Grandridge Secondary College could, and would, he asserted, remain a player in education debate and make the policies 'less bad'. Jack was advocating strategic compliance. For many staff, the message that they could work to shape the policy from within was a winner. Jack had sold this message heavily and lobbied very hard prior to the forum, but, as one of his critics put it, 'the vote wasn't even close'. Even one who was ambivalent about Jack's argument was able to conclude: 'Jack's built up a lot of points. He'll be forgiven for some mistakes'.

The next stage was to write the School Charter. Again, Jack took the lead. According to one teacher on the Charter writing group:

We went into the meeting and Jack had the charter written out and he said 'we're going to have percentage increases in this, and percentage increases in that, and percentage increases in the next', and then Graham just said, 'Well, it really sounds like Stalin doesn't it? You know, its a five-year plan, and really what's going to happen is our production quotas are going to be made in order to be able to fit the model'.

I cannot emphasise too strongly that the central point about the Charter was that it would be the school's business plan. There can be no doubt that the Charter was produced (at Grandridge and other schools) in an educational policy environment that was heavily coercive. As I have emphasised, the incoming conservative government had made it very plain long before it was elected that schools would be in for a major shakeup. In keeping with Jack's message of practicing strategic compliance, and recognising the seachange that the election of the Kennett government symbolised, a number of staff saw the writing of the Charter as requiring a balancing act between 'giving the government what it wants to hear' and in subtle ways affirming the values that had been asserted at Grandridge over a period of more than two decades. Even the strongest critics of the new directions that were explicit in SotF accepted that the school had to present itself to its external public, and to government, as entrepreneurial, customer-oriented, businesslike, and outcomes-focussed. Terms like these were

already becoming internally legitimised and, as time went on, became increasingly normalised. The process and conclusion of the Charter discussion were therefore a critical chapter in the continuing process of legitimate naming, in which the 'seeable and sayable' (Oakes *et al.*, 1998, p. 270) were first restricted through the tactic of strategic public compliance, then secondly through the process of public documentation. Gradually, through ongoing internal review of the newly-stated priorities and concern about meeting the resultant performance targets, management views were consolidated around market and business concepts. Meanwhile, the previously asserted educational and social justice notions were becoming less central, more dissonant and began to lose their sacred status in the prevailing professional discourse.

Of particular note here was the very early, unemotional discussion about whether the overall slogan for the School Charter (the theme that would pervade the document) should refer to the school's 'performance orientation' or to its 'social justice values'. Eventually, after clinical discussion of what would 'sell' in the community and what the government would tolerate, the majority of staff opted for the 'performance orientation' theme to best represent what the school was about. This decision, in which Jack was again instrumental, prompted one teacher to doubt the extent to which some staff at Grandridge had *ever* been committed to values of social justice:

It suits them not to have to pretend any more. It very much suits the school to not have to pretend any more.

This teacher was bitterly disappointed at the reluctance of staff to affirm in the Charter what she had thought had been, and still should be, the guiding principle of the school. Her comment implies that the social justice debate was an old debate, and that there had long been different sides.

In retrospect, it seems that by agreeing to locate themselves 'inside the tent', and by agreeing to take on board the market and business orientations of SotF policy for purposes of public legitimacy, members of staff had, at least to some extent, 'bought in' to aspects of the change and the new norms that it represented *even while* adopting a defensive position. This point seems critical in attempting to explain the 'enabling' of change. Although not welcoming or necessarily accepting the change, teachers were recognising it as a force that had to be reckoned with. They were meeting it, and making preparations to deal with it. In keeping with Jack's urging, they were beginning to anticipate and read the changes, and to respond to the new priorities by being 'seen to be doing what the government wants' – but they were 'doing' nonetheless. So, regardless of how it started out, the emphasis on business priorities as a form of defensive or rhetorical strategic compliance soon resulted in staff engagement in pursuing the plans and priorities, particularly as it became perceived as increasingly important that the school attract students and legitimate itself to its external market and the increasingly important 'third parties' (Offe, 1996) of business, public opinion and government.

School Council and management

As persuasive and trustworthy as Jack appeared in the micropolitical context of Grandridge Secondary College, it soon became obvious that staff did not want him to

be totally unchallenged. The election of staff representatives to the new School Council, soon after the School Charter had been drawn up, provided an interesting window on staff thinking. Three staff members ran for two vacant positions. Two of these had been outspoken opponents of the Schools of the Future policy at the forum discussed above. The other was a strong supporter of the principal (soon to be elevated by Jack to the position of Acting Assistant Principal). The teacher who had spoken out most strongly against Jack at the staff forum attracted the highest staff vote. Jack's supporter attracted the lowest vote and was eliminated from the running.

But if staff had expected that there would be vigorous debate at School Council of policy positions, including Ministry directives, they were soon disappointed. School Council management powers had been increased substantially under SotF policy, but policy debate and discussion of government regulations were excluded at meetings in order to facilitate the 'business' of the Council in time-efficient ways. The view of most (but by no means all) Council members was that its main role was to provide good, effective management of the school and to faithfully implement the School Charter. The Council President, a local professional and parent of a child at the school, repeatedly put this view during meetings as 'simply common sense'. He actively discouraged the use of the School Council by teachers as a forum for contestation of government views or the actions of school management. His habit of referring to the School Council as 'the Board' is indicative of his no-nonsense orientation. He streamlined procedures by ruling that all correspondence, including Ministry correspondence, would be tabled at Council but not discussed, and, when he deemed necessary, by guillotining debate. According to the president: 'Well, what are these teachers on the council for? They're only pushing a particular barrow and it's boring to everybody'.

One matter that the 'barrow-pushing' teachers on School Council would have liked to have pushed further was Jack's use of his enhanced autonomy to create two new management positions. In particular, the designation of one of them as 'Operations' was interpreted by some teachers as signalling a shift in what was officially valued within the school. At Grandridge, the quality of curriculum had long been regarded as central to the school's strength. This is what Jack and numerous teachers claimed had previously made Grandridge distinctive. The designation of an Assistant Principal position as 'operations' was interpreted by many teachers as a message about the type of teacher contributions that would be recognised and rewarded under the new regime. Steve, one of the teachers on School Council, claimed:

It's the 'bean counters' largely who have been the ones who have been promoted into the middle management positions. They have almost no interest in curriculum at all ... because your curriculum output is not something that measures you as a success [any more]. It's your sort of ability to be able to do administrative tasks, like for example, working a computer; being able to do rolls or to be able to do a timetable. And despite the fact that that's become much easier, because there are programs and so on, it's given extraordinary credence around here.

Russell, the new Acting Assistant Principal (Operations), had no illusions about how staff generally regarded the 'mundane' daily organisational work:

I'm the Assistant Principal Acting Operations. In other words the timetabler, daily organiser, looking after the things like desks, furniture, and make sure the rooms are right, and the lights are right so the classes can run. There's a lot of the staff that say 'what a load of garbage, you can give that to a cleaner'.

Russell expressed the view that his reward was long overdue, yet there was a sense of apparently mutual resentment between him and a number of teachers who prided themselves on their records of curriculum work. Again, it seemed clear that antagonism between Russell and some other teachers was due to older contested positions, in which Russell had been in the minority, as much as the current situation. Russell categorised his opponents as follows:

They won't say it publicly, but they operate out of the assumption that they're doing the working class a favour turning up ... like some sort of precious, self opinionated group who really thought we were 'God's gift'.

In a sense, then, Russell and his opponents were continuing an old debate in which, for Russell, it seemed the wheel had finally turned.

Most teachers we spoke to did not support giving enhanced status to timetabling and other administrative tasks. These skills, to them, were not, and should not be, at the core of teacher professional identity. Yet they are skills that are important and necessary in any school staff. In the assertion of professional cultural capital, new priorities were being asserted by which to judge the credibility and validity of the different elements of teachers' work. Unlike in the past, the sanctity of 'curriculum work' in the teacherly repertoire was being challenged by the new centrality of other aspects of the work. Under Schools of the Future policy, the curriculum was becoming more centralised, more regulated, and more focussed on specific outcomes.

Jack defended the 'operations' appointment:

That operations stuff is crucial. That involves furniture, lighting ... it's organised in that sense. A person comes in the morning, they get their extras slips, they know what classes they've got, and there will be twenty-six chairs and a clean room. You know, all that. Predictable.

A changed view of what constitutes a good teacher seemed to be emerging. One recently-appointed teacher (who transferred from a closed school) put the following view without apparent irony:

Well, I mean, there are things like that you are good at, doing the rolls, and that you do your yard duty meticulously and you don't have to be called, and that you encourage students to pick up papers, and that your classes are quiet. In other words the school runs easily without administrators having to check up on people. That would make you a good teacher.

One teacher who was respected by old radicals like Steve, and who also seemed highly valued by Jack, partly because of her timetabling and other administrative skills, was deeply offended by a change that, to her, crystallised the extent to which the values that underpinned public schooling had changed. This otherwise moderate teacher, and a strong supporter of Jack, said:

I don't think I've been more appalled by anything than the idea that Principals can write off tax for private school fees for their kids ... I find that just totally disgusting!

Rosemary's reference to tax 'write off' is to a salary packaging scheme for principals that enabled them to arrange for certain expenses (in this case private school fees) to be deducted from their salaries prior to income tax being applied. The arrangements were not available to teachers and were seen as contributing to creating a distance between teachers and managers. But Rosemary's 'disgust' is at the principle of the scheme assisting State school principals to send their own children to private schools. It is difficult to convey on paper the incredulity in Rosemary's voice as she expressed her dismay that Grandridge had become such a 'different' kind of organisation in which such a thing was possible.

In retrospect, the gap that was opening up between managers and the rest was hardly surprising. There was a strong rhetoric of managerialism in SotF policy, of allowing managers to manage and enabling principals to be 'true leaders' of their schools. Teachers often commented on the contract and salary packaging arrangements, and performance bonuses of members of the principal class. The gap was by now undermining, at least to some extent, trust between staff and management. The fact that staff and managers at Grandridge once shared a largely common industrial and political perspective made any perceived gap between them now seem even deeper. Indeed, staff attitudes to the administrative team had in some cases become suspicious or even cynical. I have already noted the apparent depth of feeling over the creation of additional assistant principal positions. And one view we heard expressed strongly was that teachers who contributed most to the school's recovery during the previous lean times had been ignored in the later reforms. But opposition from the school union branch was by then minimal because, according to one of the leading unionists, '[Jack's] got staff over a barrel'. The union had few bargaining chips against the administration because, as Jack was quick to point out:

I get frustrated sometimes. I have fights with them. You know, 'oh, there'll be flack about this and they might go on strike'. Look, I've got a contract. If they go on strike and upset the enrolments and things, who loses? Not me. I might lose emotionally, but you're going to cost them their jobs by talking down the school and all that sort of stuff.

Any union threat of industrial action could be represented by Jack, and seen by many in the wider school community, not only as putting teachers' jobs in danger but also as a direct and disloyal attack against the school. Teacher loyalty was becoming perceived as loyalty to the individual institution. And the union, even at Grandridge,

seemed too weak to assert a wider view of loyalty to ‘education’ and the ‘teaching profession’. As mentioned, in elections for School Council, staff voted for unionists who had been outspoken opponents of the school’s entry to the Schools of the Future program, and who seemed most likely to stand up to management. But these representatives’ inability to constrain the principal in Council had been shown up early in the piece by the vote on the acting assistant principal positions. Gradually, the branch adopted a more conciliatory approach to issues it couldn’t win. At the next union elections, staff decided they wanted a conciliator rather than a firebrand or progressive educationalist to lead the branch. A sense of distance between managers and others was explicit in SoTF policy, and had also been reinforced by the contentious Assistant Principal appointment of Russell. Jack had been prepared to go out on a limb to ensure Russell was rewarded. He says he knew the reaction would be hostile but that this time he was unmovable:

They didn’t like the idea that I could decide ... They got upset, and I said that I didn’t consult because it would have been a charade. I wanted it. I told you what I wanted – I’m having it!

This was reportedly the first time in more than 6 years as principal that Jack dug his heels in and exercised administrative fiat.

Market reputation

In market terms, Jack not only wanted to ensure that the school’s reputation was ‘good academically’ compared with competitor schools, but he was also seeking points on which Grandridge could be ‘unique’ or at least ‘distinctive’. On occasion this required a trade-off between educational and market priorities that didn’t strictly coincide. For instance, there was the question of how best to use the discretionary funds generated through entrepreneurial activity. In answer to a question about whether he would purchase additional teaching resources, Jack said:

I don’t think you’d pay staff. No, I think you’d have lawn tennis courts out here rather than asphalt ones. Or more grass, you know. But, every school’s got teachers.

‘More grass’ could make Grandridge distinctive in a way that having more teachers could not. No one we spoke to at Grandridge questioned the underlying assumption that the school needed to compete effectively for its share of enrolments. Indeed, it was interesting to note that, despite the early arguments (discussed above) over whether the ‘overarching slogan’ for the School Charter would be ‘social justice values’ or ‘a performance orientation’, no one who was interviewed approached the question of admissions from a social justice perspective. Instead, even the critics seemed to take on board the managerial, competitive logic. Some, like the radical unionist, Steve, now criticised the management for not competing effectively enough. He accused management of lack of marketing imagination, and came up with his own proposal for how the school could be marketed

more effectively:

Look, what's our comparative advantage over other schools? What is the comparative advantage here? The obvious thing to a parent who really doesn't know the curriculum (everyone's got the widest curriculum in Victoria, blah, blah, blah, blah) is the grounds here. And what's happening is we're getting all that area developed out here, and I said, 'What you do is get a glossy three minute video. And you use that as part of the transition program'.

In this comment there is a strong echo of Jack's observation about 'green grass' and the fact that 'every school's got teachers'. As teacher critics began to adopt the previously somewhat foreign language of managerialism, they were contributing to the shifting of the relative status of professional values.

The perceived centrality of 'bean counters' now, *vis a vis* the previous professional centrality of 'curriculum people', represented a powerful shift in professional capital and personal identities of many teachers *even though* the critical mass of teachers may not have agreed with the shift of legitimacy. This is particularly the case since teachers at Grandridge, almost without exception, were there because they had fought to get positions at the school because its staff had long been regarded as being at the cutting edge of educational thinking and professionalism. Many of these teachers had come to regard themselves as being among the designers of contemporary education in Victoria. They were people who could claim to have made a difference in the field. But the agenda asserted by the Kennett government and SotF policy had pulled the rug from under them. They were precisely the kind of educational activists that the government despised for their so-called 'social engineering'. There were many teachers on staff who had been at the forefront of curriculum innovation for a long time, and whose reputations as good practitioners extended outside the school. Some of these teachers, previously recognised as educational leaders, were now complaining that they felt mistrusted and undervalued.

DISCUSSION

Many of the pressures that were reshaping conceptions of teacher professionalism at Grandridge Secondary College during the 1990s seem to have resulted in professional as well as industrial disempowerment of teachers, and to have had ambiguous results. In the main, despite skepticism and disappointments about developments, many staff maintained their traditions of educational enthusiasm and still liked to see themselves as policy critics. Part of Jack's rationale for entering the Schools of the Future pilot program was the recognition that these were indeed tough educational times in which Grandridge could use its reputation in order to exert an active influence on the ongoing emergence and reinterpretation of policy. This would be in keeping with the tradition of Grandridge and its staff being found at the forefront of professional debates. Teachers had generally interpreted the policy changes in the 1990s negatively. Many were resistant or defensive, yet they were complicit in contributing to changes in organisational and professional practice and identities.

Part of being a member of a profession is being able to assert what Bourdieu might call its professional culture or, more precisely in his terms, to define the professional field in terms of its cultural and symbolic capital. Members of the teaching professional field, for example, define, assert and defend the body of norms and knowledge that give the profession its internal and external legitimacy. Therefore, although professional knowledge and norms may be contested from different positions within the profession, the profession's legitimacy rests largely on its sense of its own distinctiveness. Thus, although contested, members are likely to try to keep asserting the status of their broad professional body of knowledge and, if they can't, then the nature and status of the profession becomes more problematic as 'the cultural capital of the [professional] field is lost' (Oakes *et al.*, 1998, p. 263). Teachers at Grandridge would not seem to be at that point yet. But the professional field has certainly been challenged and shaped in subtle ways. What were previously the main forums for discussion, and often contestation, of educational issues and changes, School Council and Union meetings, were now tame arenas. The core of what was presumed to make 'a good teacher' had been challenged by new parity being given to 'beancounter' skills. The importance of market competition, including the need to attract 'good' students to the school, had been recognised as a pragmatic imperative. This last was a strong illustration of the actualisation of the 'performance orientation', which, rather than the concept of 'social justice values', had been agreed to as the theme for the School Charter, initially for pragmatic and defensive reasons. The cultural capital of the professional field was being problematised.

The key point here is that the constituents of what had been regarded at Grandridge as comprising 'a good teacher' were being revalued. The previously asserted professional capital, in Bourdieusian terms, was being contested and reconstructed. As Oakes *et al.* (1998, p. 273) put it:

redefining the [professional] field's dominant capital may not directly affect actors' intrinsic properties [e.g. a teacher's knowledge about and commitment to inclusive curriculum] but it does affect their relational properties (their position), because it affects their overall capital, and therefore their standing in the field. This, in turn, will have implications for an individual's sense of positional identity.

Importantly, internal critics who had most strongly asserted previous professional values and discourse were also adopting the language of market, managerialism and other neo-liberal themes of Schools of the Future. Most importantly, the effects on them, as well as on less committed colleagues and on Jack, were experienced not only as the constraints of a coercive policy regime, but also as the institutional buying into the policy rhetoric, which defined what was important to talk about. For instance, all sides agreed that there was cultural kudos to be had by the school appearing to be entrepreneurial. Entrepreneurialism and business management, in the new era, endowed some sense of legitimacy on managers and on the school in the wider community. The policy emphasis of accountability in direct, accounting terms, like budget reports, shortfalls in achievement of performance targets, and comparative scores in State-wide testing and public examinations, helped make the school directly answerable

to an external audience (particularly the informed and ‘concerned’ citizens who responded positively to the rhetoric of educational crisis, and those aspirational citizens who needed reassurance that the school’s academic performance was first rate). Being answerable to your professional peers, your fellow educators, hardly mattered now. Perhaps the most startling illustration of this point was the fact that it was not difficult, in a premier educational institution like Grandridge Secondary College, to decide whether beautifying the already lush grounds or purchasing additional educational resources was more important: there was agreement that more ‘green grass’ would make the school distinctive and attract students.

Some staff (but by no means all, as I indicated above) who identified strongly with the formerly asserted professional culture, and who saw themselves as ‘curriculum’ people, ‘felt uncomfortable and tended to become less involved as they no longer understood the rules of the game’ (Oakes *et al.*, 1998, p. 280). Some others ‘not only embraced the new field but helped give it shape’ (Oakes *et al.*, 1998, p. 280). Some of these, like Russell, who was promoted to Assistant Principal, were clearly winners in the new ‘game’. Through examining how contextualised micropolitical processes began to shape the new ‘game’, as I have attempted to do here, we might begin to understand how organisation and professional identity get shaped, and we may grasp a sense of the cultural and political mechanisms ‘that can be specified and traced’ (Dale, 2000) rather than simply explained by globalisation forces. Nonetheless, as I have emphasised, the everyday social politics that I have described above are connected to, but not determined by, the macro-politics of globalisation, the weakening of the nation-state, the fragmentation of civil society, the assertion of alternative social, political and educational norms, the reduction of education to a site of economic planning, the control of schools and teachers, and the like. The reconstruction of education as a social institution fits neatly into the neo-liberal cultural agenda, but the point I most want to make is that we are all complicit in such reconstruction in particular sites. Teachers and trainee teachers, and education academics, need to appreciate this.

NOTE

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11. ACADEMICS' PERCEPTIONS OF PRIVATE UNIVERSITY ESTABLISHMENT STANDARDS AND TEACHING QUALITY

INTRODUCTION

“Standard” is defined as a level of quality and is often applied with the concept of “criterion”. Although it is associated with the concept of “quality”, the term needs to be considered independently since it has been given much attention in the last decade. Standards might have been described in today’s rhetoric as high, maybe even as world class, but are rather narrow in scope of the subject areas covered (Linn, 1999). The standard of an enterprise is the measure or criterion (or set of criteria) against which the enterprise is to be judged. It is the performance of the enterprise against the standard in question that determines whether the enterprise is of high quality or not. In higher education, it could be observed that comparable institutions are being assessed against the same standards and being found to be of differing quality, their performances varying when judged against the standards in question. The distinction between standards and quality can be explained as outcomes and processes. The outcomes may not come up to the expected standard, or may just comply with an acceptable standard, but the processes should remain at the highest quality (Barnett, 1992). Day (2004) made some observations on the government standards agenda, such as:

- measurable standards account for limited amount of teaching, learning and achievement,
- without committed teachers of the highest quality, standards are unlikely to be raised and the challenges presented by changes in society will not be realized.

There are variations between quality management applications in different countries. It is almost impossible to talk about having the same standards at all Higher Education Institutions. Elmuti, Kathawala and Manippallil (1996) reported that since many higher education institutions were involved in total quality management initiatives, it is likely that many more will be engaged. House (1994) claimed that, “current policies in the USA, aimed at higher education productivity are badly mistaken in the effects that policy makers hope to achieve, as happened so often in the past. In short, these policies may lead to less rather than more productivity in higher education”. Although each university has its own definition and application of standards, there are points on which they all agree. An example of this is given below:

First university foundation standards in general are;

- *size*
- *subject provision*

- *history and statement of purpose*
- *institutional mission*

Second,

- *program foundation*
- *staff development*
- *academic preparation*
- *credibility*
- *foundation and preparation of the self study teams*
- *conduction of the self study*
- *identification and summary of the evidence*
- *identifying the discrepancies*
- *determining the appropriate corrective action*
- *recommending action for program enhancement*
- *preparation of an action plan (www.cas.edu)*

(The Council for the Advancement of
standards in Higher Education)

According to the Quality Assurance Agency key features in teaching, learning and assessment in higher education are:

- *The teaching, learning and assessment strategy (aims, links to learning outcomes)*
- *Teaching (staff contribution, professional activity/research, materials, resources, student participation, activities)*
- *Learning (student workload, guidance, resources)*
- *Assessment (clarity, promoting learning, measuring, rigour, moderation / external examining)*

(Drew, 2001)

Another study reported Student Learning Standards as follows:

- *curriculum design, content, organization*
- *teaching, learning and assessment*
- *student progression and achievement*
- *student support and guidance*
- *learning resources*
- *quality management and enhancement*

(<http://www.qaa.ac.uk>).

University today is defined as the institution, which produces, transfers and applies knowledge for the economic, social, cultural, scientific and technological development of the society through education and produces research and social services according to international standards. These standards have been inevitably associated with finance in many areas. British retrenchment has already resulted in reduced funding, transformed governance, and loss of faculty tenure and flight of academics to other

countries. The British government accepted the fact that only a few countries would be competitive internationally (House, 1994). While carrying out their function, universities are supported by the government in many countries because of the advantages they have provided. This support could be given in two ways. The government can either establish the university itself or provide the opportunity for a private university to be established.

The real issue for higher education is economic: Higher education is extremely expensive. Can the society afford it? Does the society want to, even if it can? In a society with a massive national debt and declining economic prospects, the answer seems to be that society does not want something this expensive. Productivity can be improved either by producing more or cutting costs. Fundamentally, the government and public want to reduce costs.

(House, 1994).

Therefore, private universities emerged. Although private universities are seen by some to be totally private, they are non-profit institutions. They are called foundation universities in Turkey (Turkish Ministry of Education, 2000). Private universities are deemed to be private institutions, which aim at earning profit oriented through education. However, according to Turkish Law, Article 130, private universities are non-profit institutions, which are dependent on the higher education principles and legislations of the country except for administrative and financial matters. The common misunderstanding is that people overlook the fact that private universities are also government institutions. A private university made the following explanation on its web page:

The term private university is wrong. The basis of private universities is law. They are under the control of government. Private universities are institutions that use people's money and assets for others, with the purpose of help.

(Karakutuk, 2001).

Education, and in particular higher education, is also being driven towards commercial competition imposed by economic forces. According to Feeman, this competition is the result of the development of global education markets on the one hand, and the reduction of governmental funds that force public organizations to seek other financial sources on the other (Owlia and Aspinwall, 1996). Similarly, Barnett (2000) notes that there is no universal value and the university just makes its own values in the world. This stance leads directly to the marketized university; the university's values are those that are sustained by the markets in which it can find a living.

Private university foundation standards and their teaching quality have been under debate for the last few years in Turkey. Finance is accepted as being one of the main factors determining the quality of "research and teaching" in higher education institutions. Academic salaries, laboratory, library, computer facilities and the level of research funding for each academic or student at universities serve as the main determinants of quality, which directly or indirectly enhance the "teaching quality". Collecting and

considering student expectations and preferences of teaching style could be an effective means of giving students a voice in course delivery and help focus course team discussion on teaching, learning and assessment (Sander *et al.*, 2000). Standard based reform is needed in relation to the factors above and those listed below:

- *It is critical for higher education to become more involved in the dialogue regarding standards-based reforms. It must be recognized that more colleges are not very selective, many of them struggling to attract enough students.*
- *Colleges and universities that are highly selective will find little help in making admission decisions from the results of performance standards that essentially all students are expected to meet or from standards that place students into one of a small number of categories such as the proficient and advanced levels of performance.*
- *The close coupling between high school performance and college opportunities also has potential downsides as well as potential benefits.*
- *Although the goal of having the same high standards for all children is appealing, it is not clear that a single set of standards is appropriate for all students at the end of the school.*
- *The adoption of performance standards requirement could exacerbate differences between, those who come from privileged backgrounds and those who come from disadvantaged backgrounds. Schwartz (1993) recognized this potential dilemma and suggested that an implication of the school reform agenda for higher education is that as standards are raised, colleges and universities will need to find new ways to work with schools and other community institutions to ensure that large numbers of students are not left behind.*

(Linn, 1999).

The debate about quality in teaching and learning is an ongoing one, but it is clear that no university can avoid reviewing its mechanisms for ensuring competence (or even excellence) in teaching and learning, particularly at the point of delivery (McIlveen *et al.*, 1997 cited from Pennington and O'Neil, 1994). It is at least plausible to argue that in order to warrant the title "institution of higher education", there are certain activities - connected with learning, understanding and human development - which an institution necessarily should be promoting and that those activities should be conducted with regard to minimum standards (Barnett, 1992). Much of the current literature diverts attention away from institutions' resources, culture, history, networks and goals because "quality" is defined as a matter of distinction based on departmental performance rather than affiliation. Keith's (1999) study revealed that departmental ratings are primarily tied to institutional reputations. Similarly, Lock *et al.*, demonstrated that teaching provision was more likely to be judged "excellent" if:

- clear links were visible between institutional aims and curricular content
- at least one third of individual classes showed good preparation.

However, Higher Education Institutions sometimes fail to realize this due to lack of financial resources, which serve as one of the main problems for them. By allocating resources via students, foundations and the private sector, private universities take a portion of the burden from the government, which also brings about the issue of quality and standards in higher education institutions. The growing number of private universities in the last 5 years is an indicator of the government's prior policy in higher education. It is primarily due to this reason that substantial help is given for the foundation of private universities, which also has been much under discussion in the academic world. Some people believe that founding private universities creates inequality among students. Since it is unfeasible for the government to provide education in public universities for all, foundation of private universities seems necessary. In many countries, university education is provided by individuals. In the United States National Higher Education Report, individual responsibility for helping the government on this issue is expressed by:

Everyone must shoulder his or her own share of the importance of the situation described herein. If leaders, policy makers and the general public satisfy themselves by blaming others, the situation will not change. In order to maintain access to higher education at a reasonable price, everyone will have to do more, make more sacrifices and work harder.

(Report on the National Costs of Higher Education, 1998).

As mentioned in the report, access to Higher Education is everyone's individual right. Yet this right could be violated unless high quality teaching standards are maintained. The issue of quality teaching brings forth the question of standards. The question of keeping the same standards in teaching at all the Higher Education Institutions center is a key problem for higher education.

Teaching quality is not only dependent on the high quality of an academic but also on the facilities of an institution. Basic factors in the quality of research and teaching in higher education institutions are the academic salary, laboratory, library, computer facilities and the amount of research funds for each student. This list could be extended. There is a correlation between maintaining the quality at universities and offering these through modern techniques. Effective teaching at universities is a complex, intellectually demanding and socially challenging task. Second, effective teaching consists of a set of skills that can be acquired, improved and extended (Brown and Atkins, 1991). On a different perspective, the situation is more difficult in Turkey when finance is taken into consideration. It was also emphasized in the national report that financial constraints serve as the main barriers for higher educational institutions. Research, teaching and learning strategies cannot be fully implemented when physical problems exist (Turkish Ministry of Education, 1991).

Many public universities feel the need for a substantial increase in financial aid for public universities. Finance and teaching quality can be regarded as inseparable counterparts.

Quality cannot be derived from a universal model, quality cannot emerge from theory and abstraction, and quality is the result of a series of actions responding to precise

social needs in a very particular moment. Real quality is here and now (Dias, 1994). This can be directly applied to the Turkish higher education system. It is not reasonable to expect private universities to reach international standards in a short time. What they must do is to try to explore ways, which will ensure them moving towards perfection by supporting their academics, students and employees.

In the 1970s concern over standards was limited to teaching; as research could be appraised by the traditional criterion of publication. This has been dramatically changed after the 1980s with the “accountability” movement, which began in 1979. This has been emphasized in the Leverhulme Report (1983) with these words: “Prime responsibility for standards must rest with the higher education community. Nevertheless, there is a legitimate external interest, and the higher education community benefits when its quality is clearly visible”. In the Jarratt Report on “Efficiency Studies in Universities” (1985) the responsibility of staff training was mainly put on the universities shoulders:

- *Recognition of the contribution made by individuals,*
- *Assistance for individuals to develop their full potential as early as possible,*
- *Assistance for the university to make the most effective use of its academic staff.*

(Moodie, 1988)

Fundamentally, teacher commitment has been found to be critical predictor of teachers’ work performance, absenteeism, retention, burn out and turn over, as well as having an important impact on students’ motivation, achievement, attitudes towards learning and attendance (Day, 2004).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY, METHOD AND SAMPLE GROUP

The purpose of this study was to determine academics’ perceptions of private university foundation standards (such as physical facilities related to instruction and research, professional development opportunities for academics, learning opportunities for students and budget allocation to research and teaching related activities). In order to collect data for the research, by making use of the literature and research related to the subject, questions were prepared so as to scrutinize academics’ perceptions towards teaching quality at private universities, and a series of unstructured interviews were undertaken with 10 academics ranging from professors to assistant professors. After considering their comments about the draft, some changes were made to give the questionnaire its final form. The pilot study enabled us to shape the initial draft of the scope of activity constituted by the public and private universities. Of the 200 questionnaires administered, 112 responses were completed and returned. This represents a response rate of 75%. 112 academics who work for those universities constitute the sample group. It is assumed that academics answering the questionnaire were objective and the items in the questionnaire were appropriate to test the perceptions of the academics. The scope of this research is limited

to one public and two private universities in Istanbul and the aim is to provide a picture of the sample group, not to determine characteristics of the private universities and consequently the study is limited to the knowledge of the academics on private universities.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data derived from the questionnaires were analyzed by using SPSS (Package Programme for Social Sciences Windows Release 10.0). In the analysis of the statistics, Percentage (%) and Frequency (F) calculations were made and Kruskal Wallis, T Test, One Way Anova Analysis and Chi Square were used to determine the meaningful differences.

FINDINGS

A. Demographic findings

Title: out of 112 academics, 24% of academics were professors, 14% associate professors, 19% assistant professors, 6% lecturers with PhD, 15% lecturers, and 22 % research assistants.

Faculty: 18% of the respondents were from the Faculty of Engineering, 29% from Faculty of Science and Literature, 26% from Faculty of Educational Sciences, 20% from Faculty of Business Administration, 7% from Faculty of Foreign Languages.

Institution: 55% of the academics work at public universities whereas 45% work at private universities.

Experience: 26 academics in the sample have 1–5 years; 24 have between 6–10 years; 28 have between 11–20 years; 20 have 21 or more years of experience.

B. Research and instructional facilities

In this section it should be noted that findings related to research and instructional facilities are directly proportional to the budget allocated, which consequently affects the teaching quality and the qualifications of an academic.

More than half of the respondents agreed that “research and teaching” are highly regarded by private universities. Mann Whitney U tests conducted between private and public university academics revealed significance. Academics who work at private universities believe that teaching quality is given priority at private universities (Public: Mean rank: 49.32; private mean rank: 65.40; p : 0.007).

48% of the respondents indicated that laboratories and research centers at private universities are equipped with modern technology, which is another positive indicator for teaching quality. 27% of the academics regarded the budget allocated for the development of libraries as satisfactory.

70% of academics think that class sizes at private universities are at the ideal size. 66% of academics believe that student-academic ratio is proportional at private universities. 60% of the academics expressed their opinion that, social and economic opportunities provided at private universities enable students to progress.

B.1. Private universities cooperation with industrial institutions Teaching quality is closely related with the cooperation between universities and industrial institutions, which provide students with during and after graduation in-service opportunities along with professional development opportunities for the academics. When asked to what extent academics found private universities cooperation with industrial institutions satisfactory, it was found that there is an acknowledgeable difference between the academics' views depending on the university they work for. For private the mean score was 3.54 on a 5 point scale and for public it was 3.06 ($F = 0.486$; $t = -2.434$; $p = 0.01$). Being in close contact enables academics to acquire new skills by means of practice as well as providing funds that would ultimately increase the academic quality standards for research.

B.2. Academics' familiarity with the teaching quality at private universities As a result of Chi Square Test, there was a significant difference between academics having administrative duties and being familiar with the teaching quality at private universities. More than half of the respondents who had administrative duties (69%) indicated that they knew the value of quality teaching, compared with 42% of academics who did not have administrative duties. The reason for this might be that they have to follow all the laws and regulations related to higher education. During the interviews conducted almost all the professors stated that they have taken active roles at the foundation stage of private universities and they are aware of the importance of teaching quality at private universities. They expressed their concerns about the maintenance of professional development standards due to the increase in the number of private institutions in recent years.

C. Research and instructional applications

In this section, academics' views on the instructional applications, which are influential on teaching quality at private universities, were examined.

C.1. Maintenance of teaching quality standards Academics were asked whether private universities maintain the standards they have promised at the foundation stage. 45% of the academics think that the universities are fulfilling the high quality research and teaching principles they set during the foundation process. Mann Whitney U tests done related to the faculty variable showed that views of academics from the faculty of education differed from the academics from the departments of business administration, engineering and science and literature. Academics from the faculty of engineering have a more positive view about the maintenance of the objectives put forward during the foundation process, while academics from the faculty of education had a comparatively negative attitude.

C.2. Total quality applications at private universities 33% of the academics in the study believe that Total Quality Management is conducted satisfactorily at private universities. The data showed that academics' views on whether Total Quality Management principles are applied satisfactorily in teaching related activities differed according to the years of experience the academic had. Unlike academics with 11–20

years and also 21 and above years of experience, academics with 1–5 years of experience find total quality applications in teaching at private universities unsatisfactory.

D. Evaluation of quality processes at private universities

Evaluation of quality processes regarding research and teaching related practices reflect the portfolio of an institution in terms of professional development. Nearly half of the academics (43%) found these practices satisfactory. A significant difference was found between the views of the academics on the evaluation of private universities based on the rank they held (Professors: Mean rank: 31.48; Research Assistants: Mean rank: 21.12; U: 203.00; P: 0.007). Professors believed that evaluation of teaching quality at private universities was satisfactory, more so than research assistants. Their academic titles as well as their being better acquainted with the laws and regulations of the university may be reasons for professors finding teaching quality as satisfactory.

Professional development opportunities for academics at public and private universities aims to improve research and teaching practices, and have a “lego effect”. Significant differences considering support for professional development of academics was based on the university variable (Public: Mean rank: 64.39; Private: mean rank: 46.72; U: 1061.000; p: 0.003). Academics who work for public universities believed that they cannot teach as effectively as they want since they cannot be relieved from the burden of supporting the financial development of their university. Another finding confirming this result found that almost all academics who work at public universities stated that by starting evening courses, public universities create additional income resources for them and this leads to an increase in the teaching hours and the proportional decrease in their time and motivation to do research. Since teaching quality is related to doing research and reflecting it in lectures, this finding reveals the constraints which affect teaching quality negatively.

E. Tempting opportunities provided to academics at private universities

In relation to the item asking whether tempting opportunities are provided to the academics at private universities significance was related to title (Professors: mean rank: 30.91; Research Assistants: Mean rank: 21.74; U: 218.500; P: 0.021). Professors provided positive opinions about private universities that can be explained in terms of salary and title; the higher their rank, the more salary they get. In order to encourage qualified academics into their institutions, private universities provide many opportunities for academics who are at the top of their careers. On the other hand, the same opportunities are not available to the academics, who are at the beginning of their careers. Yet, according to the interviews conducted with the research assistants, despite getting the same amount of money at either public or private universities, they are given better opportunities to do research at private universities. Despite the irresistible salaries and administrative duties, some professors expressed their uneasiness about changing their institutions during the interviews. The mean-score (3.74) for this statement is a mirror which highlights some of the academics' dilemmas. Only 28.5% of

the respondents stated that they had professional development opportunities at their institutions.

F. Academic structuring at private universities

Another finding that demonstrates the effect of finances on teaching quality is related to academic structuring. 60% of the respondents stated that academic and administrative structuring are considered to be the main priorities of the private universities during the foundation process. 63% of the respondents agreed that academics are given professional opportunities at private universities. This might be the reason why some academics prefer to continue their careers at private universities. It could be inferred that there is a correlation between having more opportunities for professional development and improving teaching. Mann Whitney Tests done related to university variable confirms this finding as well (public university: Mean rank: 64.39; private: mean rank: 46.72; U: 1061.00; p: 0.003). Academics who work at public universities believe that they cannot achieve the desired development needed to meet professional requirements when compared with the academics who work at private universities. During the interviews conducted, academics stated that they could only continue with their professional development activities if completely depending on their own efforts.

G. Private universities and the issue of inequality

All of the questions asked in the study formed a natural basis for the major question on whether private universities created inequality among students and academics. 59% of respondents expressed their commitment towards the foundation of private universities. Academics, who work at public universities believed that the foundation of private universities created inequality whereas academics at private universities did not (Public university: mean rank: 66.36; private university: mean rank: 44.27; U: 938.500; p: 0.000). Since academics in private universities have the opportunity to observe the functioning of their institutions, since they know the number of scholarship students they take and how they take advantage of students' school fees by having high salaries, they may not be in the best position to express their feelings.

DISCUSSION

This study suggests that there are three main areas which together comprise the context of learning and teaching opportunities, that is, accumulating enough professional development opportunities in order to direct it towards the existing students, on campus teaching and learning facilities and being able to allocate sufficient budget to upgrade quality standards. These should not be seen as discrete items, but as inter-connected. The most significant aspect of this study is that these three areas impinge on each other and are fed by financial support. Although academics at private universities believe that laboratories and research centers at private universities are equipped with government funded modern technology, they are not fully satisfied with the facilities that are provided for the public universities.

Despite the fact that private universities seem to benefit from the government's budget a great deal more and duly offer high quality courses, it would be misleading to assume it applies to all private universities. This study also reveals academic concerns about the quality standards at private universities and analyzes the extent to which the infrastructure and the facilities at private universities have established high quality teaching by highly qualified academics. A study reporting the essential elements in learning noted that "if we agree that 'adequate infrastructure' is necessary for quality education, then we must inevitably evaluate how that infrastructure serves the students, i.e. how many books are in a library building and how the institution provides students access to such resources and to what extent those resources are relevant to learning experience, again it may be that students play a role in determining quality in this domain" (Pond, 2002). Yet, having all the teaching related facilities does not necessarily guarantee high quality teaching and high quality academics. One other constraint related to departments is the limitation regarding professional development opportunities promised during the foundation process. Academics from the faculty of engineering have a more positive view about the maintenance of the objectives whereas faculty of education academics held a more pessimistic attitude. This can be seen as a reflection of departmental quality policy and discrimination of equal career opportunities. Popular departments are perceived to be given more opportunities to academics which again triggers the chain reaction implication on the components of department, enrollments, research, teaching, professional development opportunities and such.

Another difference comes across in the professional development opportunities granted to private universities that are a great deal more than the public universities despite the lack of guarantee it delivers on the high quality academic aspect. Academics at public universities survive to do research and share it with their counterparts in spite of limited financial conditions. Statistics regarding journal publication numbers obtained from, Social Science Citation and Arts & Humanities indexes for 1998 and 1999 showed that of the four universities only one private university ranked at the top of the list while the rest were public. This result and similar ones in the following years have proved that such generalizations about private universities should be treated more cautiously in future speculations. While many universities accept and apply "quality" to research and teaching related facilities and put the emphasis on the places where knowledge is produced and disseminated via academics and the administrative staff, there are still some universities, which use "quality" as a means to attract more students to be enrolled through the effective use of the media. Such institutions function as free enterprises and unfortunately perceive students as their clients. Another study conducted on senior academics in England revealed that senior managers in older universities expressed far greater concern than those in modern universities about increased student numbers leading to a lowering of standards (Lomas and Tomlinson, 2000).

Although more students get the chance to study with the foundation of new private universities, these universities can only accommodate a limited number of students from high-income families. It is argued that such attitude towards the enrollment of

this particular group of students creates injustice in terms of allocation of government funds. Nevertheless, it is also thought that it takes a long time for a private university to be able to compete with the public universities in terms of being educationally and financially compatible with them. As far as academics, there is an assumption that more financial opportunities are provided which results in bringing about greater self-esteem and more sufficient career opportunities. Since a heavy teaching load is mostly felt as a primary burden at great number of private institutions, academics claim that they are not able to allocate ample time to their research and development. There seems to be a conflict between universities' research encouragement policies and their implementation. Research related to performance indicators showed that although research tends to be a major priority for many university academics as a vehicle of career advancement, the application of performance indicators had reinforced the "research over teaching" mentality or even made it worse. More time devoted to research would mean less time left for teaching (Taylor, 2001).

Academics not being involved in decision-making processes at private universities is considered to be another factor which hinders professional development. This is justified by a study (Bakioğlu and Hacifazlıoğlu, 2001) that showed a small amount of academic participation in the decision making process. In comparison, public universities seem to be more democratic, which is due to the permanent staff policy in public universities. However, this policy may bring undesirable outcomes; for example, contracts are renewed every three years without considering academics' professional studies, which results in lack of concern about losing their jobs. By doing research or/and by developing their lectures. Academics who work in private university pay more attention to their colleagues and their students' views about their lectures in comparison with academics who work in public universities. ($F = 1.957$; $t = 2.606$; $P < 0.05$). From this perspective, students serve as a mentor for an academic with the mutual exchange of experiences and constitute the main pillars for an academic to improve one's teaching and supervising skills. A successful faculty evaluation can have many benefits. One of the main advantages is that it can provide the research base for in-service and professional development programs for academics (Macpherson *et al.*, 2000).

As in the case of permanent staff policy, public institutions face a lot of difficulties. High number of students in classrooms, which affect the performance of academics, is one of the most important problems in public universities. Consequently, lecturers cannot teach effectively in large classes or have enough office hours and as a result the mentoring role fades away. In private universities, however, the number of students in each class is maximum 25; therefore lecturers are not confronted with such problems. Ample monetary related devices in private universities are considered to be a great advantage for academics, administrative staff and the students which lead to a better and more productive educational setting. An academic who is forced to teach in a large class becomes a "robot" feeding their own knowledge to the students without being aware of such artificial transformation of information, which could be quite de-motivating and it has a negative effect, not only on the students, but the academics as well. It may be for this reason that some academics at public institutions see the foundation of private

universities as a process which creates inequality between students. The issue of allocating students in classes was also reflected in another study. Very large classes were disliked since it was harder to ask questions, and fully concentrate on the matter under discussion, due to students chatting and disturbing others (Drew, 2001). Another study (Bakioglu and Hacifazlıoglu, 2002) conducted on teacher candidates and academics from the Faculty of Education revealed a number of constraints. Mean scores based on a five point Likert Scale type showed that both academics and students saw that large classes, heavy teaching loads and limited economic opportunities were perceived to be the main constraints experienced by the academics, which could be an obstacle to appropriate professional development.

Finance was determined to be one of the main factors which cause the failure of quality processes. Many countries, both developed and developing, are concerned about the scale of public expenditure and are questioning the priority given to higher education. In Asian countries, education is competing for limited funds because very heavy expenditure is needed for essential infrastructure and development. There is pressure to reduce the funds going to higher education to expand primary education and to give greater priority to adult literacy programs (Ayarza, 1994 cited from Gannicott and Trosby, 1990 Meek, 1992). It was reflected in this study that shortage of funds hampers academics desire to do research. This finding appears to be in correlation with another study on academic levels of satisfaction regarding research, which indicated that nearly a quarter of academics perceived themselves to be productive in maintaining academic studies (Bakioglu and Hacifazlıoglu, 2001). Academic salary was determined to be another factor which hinders teaching quality in this study, which is one crucial aspect of teaching's attractiveness (OECD, 1992). This was also confirmed in another study conducted in Sri Lanka. The findings revealed that universities were faced with an acute shortage of funds and that existing financial systems and procedures were control oriented rather than promoting efficiency and quality enhancement (Chandrasiri, 2003).

Although finance was mainly mentioned in relation to high quality teaching in this study, further studies are needed to examine the teaching quality and professional development opportunities provided at private universities. This study is limited to the academics' views regarding the opportunities provided at private universities in terms of professional development from the basis of teaching and research opportunities. Since there are many new universities, faculties, higher education institutions and departments in Turkey and since the number of these will inevitably grow in the near future, these institutions should be evaluated in terms of quality. Quality includes everything from administrative to academic functioning. Therefore, evaluation plays a crucial role in maintaining the standards. It was found in the study that only a small number of the research group find institutional evaluation on teaching satisfactory. However, it has been observed via the interviews that evaluation done by the Council of Higher Education was perceived to have run mostly as an administrative inspection organ. Rather than expecting all the support from the Council of Higher Education, some universities try to meet certain standards by opening special departments by their own means, which in a way creates a superficial quality. There seems

to be a rising confusion on maintaining quality standards, which constitute the main pillars of a higher education institution. Many interrelated concepts connect one another when considering institutional quality such as the quality of research and quality of teaching, which indirectly points out the importance of the qualified academics. High individual quality leads departments to improve their quality standards and quality departments produce graduates of high quality. Changing a variable in one direction will inevitably lead to a change in the other variable therefore the best place for an institution to start career development is the academics' performance and attitude towards quality (Bakioğlu, 1996). The University Council of Jamaica demonstrates a mixed control: government ownership but statutory status, and with practicing educators compromising assessment teams. The council uses threshold standards for registration of institutions and accreditation of programs. It makes possible the separation of the standard setting and verification process, for which it is responsible, from the delivery process, which the colleges manage, but it also makes provision for institutional inputs (Roberts, 2001). Same problems concerning Africa are seen as well. One of the most significant factors affecting the quality of universities in Africa is the wide institutional diversity recently brought about by the large number of private higher education institutions incorporated into the system. This has heightened the concerns about the lack of accreditation mechanisms and adequate and reliable information about educational quality within this new context (Ayarza, 1994).

It would be impossible to talk about global professional standards without considering the exchange among academics and students. Student mobility in itself promotes academic quality. It enables diversity to be an asset, enhancing the quality of teaching and research through comparative and distinctive approaches to learning (Graz declaration, 2003). Exchange among the partners is extended on a wide spectrum from being a quest academic, to attending international conferences, to conducting conjoint projects. A previous study with academics working for public universities (Bakioğlu and Hacifazlıoğlu, 2002) revealed that professors have more contact with their colleagues from other countries while only 40% of the associate professors stated that they do have the satisfactory interaction with their counterparts. 70% of the assistant professors sometimes keep in touch with the colleagues from other countries. The importance of encouraging young researchers in academic studies was also pointed out in the European University Association Report, where career paths for young researchers and teachers, including measures to encourage young PhDs to continue working in or return to Europe needed to be improved (Graz declaration, 2003).

Accreditation and standardization issues constitute a multi-dimensional problem in higher education institutions, not only in developing countries but also in developed countries. Within Europe, there is multiplicity of higher education systems and curriculum structures and not all countries have fully operational quality assurance systems in place. While the existing Quality Assurance systems demonstrated some common characteristics, mainly in terms of the methods and mechanisms used, the higher education systems which they serve are different in respect to structures, aims

and objectives and the character of programs. These differences make it difficult to describe common indicators of quality and to facilitate comparison and transparency at the international level (Campbell and Wende, 2002). It is at least plausible to argue that in order to warrant the title "institution of higher education", there are certain activities – connected with learning, understanding and human development – which an institution necessarily should be promoting and that those activities should be conducted with regard to minimum standards (Barnett, 1992). In many countries, universities see research as the price of their survival and their continued social relevance (Braddock and Neave, 2002). Yet neither the university nor the school is the site for full professional development, instead it is the synergy and collaboration of participants from across various sites that create a new and powerful learning space-inquiry community (Smith, 2004). In this respect collaborative learning via academic exchange serves as the stepping-stone in an academics' career. As widening access to higher education enables new groups of students to enter university, the issue of standards cannot be avoided (Chevailler, 2002).

The application of various mechanisms such as performance indicators and teaching grants and awards, which encourage academics to acquire new skills and perspectives not only in research related activities but also channeling it to the teaching dimension, would create a quality culture in which both research and teaching would be accepted as the main pillars of an academics' professional identity. It should be noted that without the teaching function, the continuity of knowledge will be broken and the store of human knowledge dangerously diminished (Gamage and Miningberg, 2003). Academics as teachers serve the basis of globalization in terms of exchange of research and culture. The paper "Internal Procedures for Maintaining and Monitoring Academic Standards" acknowledges the quality of academic staff is a crucial factor in standards in higher education: "The academic standards of courses and the standards which students achieve will be affected by the commitment, teaching skills and performance of the staff involved, and given the interdependence of teaching and research, by their research interests and activities" (Moodie, 1988). Bates (1997) also concluded that in the near future the world will need prospective teachers, with a holistic and global understanding of education, and lecturers are involved in this framework as well.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The importance of higher education in people's lives and a nation's development should not be undermined. The basis of the problems of higher education is lack of financial resources. In most countries, although higher education is supported by states, it is not fully funded. In Turkey, to make higher education fair and equal for everyone, a new path should be followed. Those who have low income may take support from the state, those who have average income can borrow money from the state and those who are well off might pay money to their institutions. In this way, everyone who wants to study will get the chance to continue his or her higher education. Since the facilities of universities will improve, they will be able to give high quality

teaching. Most families need to become informed about these possibilities and those with the financial means should make an effort to set aside something for their children's future (Mutlu, 2000). The individual should be confident that higher education is not only an expense but also an investment. The long-term financial return on the investment far exceeds the price students and families pay ([www.acanet.edu/Washington/college costs](http://www.acanet.edu/Washington/college_costs)).

One of the important factors in the quality of education is the lack of opportunities for an academic's professional development. We cannot expect an academic who has not done research to be qualified in lecturing. A lecturer refreshes his knowledge through the research he/she does. He/she brings his /her research to the class and becomes the initial source himself/herself and works with considerable resources. Surely, being the initial source means new and up to date knowledge (Bakioglu and Baltaci, 2000). Basic factors in the quality of research and education are the academic's salary, laboratory, library, computer facilities and research fund per student. There is a correlation between maintaining the quality at universities and offering these through modern techniques. In the United States same problems can be observed. Among the research universities there is "quality competition" that takes a number of different forms: bidding for prestigious faculty members and promising students and vying for research contracts and facilities. This competition requires financial resources, of course, but success facilitates the acquisition of those resources (Hanson and Meyerson, 1990). The quality of higher education can be likened to swimming in water and whether this means swimming in an ocean or a pool depends on the university's attitude towards professionalism. This professionalism includes not only qualified academics but also the physical facilities, social and cultural activities, health centers, social clubs and administrative staff of the university. These also serve the basis for teaching quality.

The existing resource mechanism at public universities is highly centralized and this imposes controls over professional development practices without proper consideration of long-term sustainability.

The Council of National University Quality Assurance should be established and supported by the Council of Higher Education. The membership fee paid by universities should form the budget of this council. A committee within this council should make necessary changes in law to enable universities to make decisions (such as opening a new department, closing a department or joining departments) in a short time according to the evaluation results of the Council of Higher Education and government (Koksoy, 1998). Seminars and workshops must be given to everybody from academic and administrative staff to cleaning staff to meet the international standards. Academics like teachers should also have leadership training to ensure that these capabilities are delivered on a wide scale (Townsend, 2004). While following all these procedures the thin line between the notion of quality management and quality culture should not be passed.

Higher Education Institutions, when compared to the past, fulfill their multi functional responsibilities as contemporary educational environments. A university, which will provide contemporary education, should maintain a unity with its

academics, students and physical environment and social atmosphere. This unity is based on the multi dimensional participation of both students and academics. In a contemporary university, participation and cooperation should not only be within the institution but within the frame of coordination and cooperation opportunities between universities. In the administration of the university and the formulation of regulations, administrators who know the universities should take part. This participation should be considered within a wide spectrum related to fields ranging from the participation of students in lessons, participation in various social activities at the university, corporate research and preparation of the curriculum for administration.

The government should support the foundation of private universities by forcing them to pay taxes to build new public universities. This will provide more students with the right to go to a university. Most of the academics at public universities are not against this process as they are aware of the students who have to have their degree from a university abroad. One of the fundamental issues in higher education system is the lack of formal system quality control for students that would enable them to attain certain academic standards via teaching and teaching related activities. European Credit Transfer and many partnership agreements signed among Turkish universities and the American universities indirectly force universities to reach certain quality standards in terms of medium of instruction, programs, academics and the extra curricular activities. In this way higher education institutions devise their own ways of standards with the contributions of their own culture.

The foundation of private universities has a positive impact on the country's economy since the investment in higher education remains in the country. Quality competition has some valuable social benefits and the rationale for it is, to a considerable extent, the improved access to financial resources that goes along with success (Hanson and Meyerson, 1990). The impact of government funding appears to be less penetrating in higher education. Universities are left with considerable autonomy to allocate the funds they receive. Yet heavy reliance on government funds often leaves substantial autonomy intact. (Levy, 1986). Finance is a substantial determinant of teaching quality, not only in developed countries but also in developing countries. European Countries offer their help to developing countries to increase their teaching quality as can be seen in article 149 of the Council of European Union decision of 2002, which stipulates that The Community and Member States shall foster cooperation with third world countries with a view to contributing to the development of quality education in Europe (Council of European Union, 2002).

The following components serve as the basis for updating standards:

- *procedures assessing whether standards should be renewed, what the specifications for the new standards and whether the newly produced standards meet the criteria*
- *methods for the development of standards*

(Westerhuis, 2001).

In order to develop the newly founded universities' standards and teaching quality, the above elements should be thoroughly followed and possible ambiguities of the specific standards in many countries should be clarified. As a consequence, the graduates can have the right to have equal employment opportunities. As universities survive to meet international standards to keep up with the changes brought along with globalization, globalization itself could create an internal quality culture within an institution. Within the process of globalization, cooperation rather than competition among the higher education institutions should be encouraged.

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SECTION THREE

TEACHER PREPARATION: GETTING
THE BRIGHTEST AND MAKING THEM
THE BEST

12. MENTORING IN TEACHER EDUCATION:
AN EXPERIENCE THAT MAKES A DIFFERENCE
FOR FLEDGLING UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

INTRODUCTION

It is only in the last few years that Australian universities have begun to recognise the value of mentoring relationships for learning organizations. Up until then there was a lack of recognition of the potential of mentoring. Matters (2002, p. 1) who views mentoring as the cornerstone of teaching and learning excellence, recognised that “enhanced learning outcomes derived from mentoring experiences and demonstrated by mentors and mentees in workplace teams in a multiplicity of organizations have been ignored.” Mentoring programs designed to improve university student retention rates are now being put in place, while other programs aim to assist individual staff (both academic and general) to achieve their potential.

The context of this chapter is one mentoring program that was designed to assist first year students with their transition to tertiary studies. When the university-wide program was first introduced, the Faculty of Education decided to trial the mentoring program with all the Bachelor of Teaching (Secondary) Science students, a selected number of students enrolled in the Bachelor of Physical Education, and 25% of the students enrolled in the Bachelor of Education (Primary) degree. To get the mentoring program up and running with the B. Ed Primary students, first there was the selection process, whereby 54 students were randomly selected and sent letters inviting them to participate in the program. Second, those students who agreed to participate were placed into mentoring groups of approximately six students. Third, each group of mentees met with an academic staff member who had volunteered to be the mentor for the group over a six-week period.

This chapter focuses on the experiences of one group of B. Ed Primary mentees, as well as the role their mentor adopted. The process of group interaction in the mentoring program is described from the perspective of the mentees who gave written feedback by email. From the mentees’ perspective, these social interactions succeeded in assisting them to feel confident enough to continue with their studies in the preservice teacher education course. One mentee wrote:

*I think it would be awesome for everyone to be involved in a mentoring group. A lot of the time I don't think we needed 'guidance' but it was just great social interaction with people you would otherwise not have met”
C 3/5/02.*

Participation in the mentoring program helped the mentees develop their identity as university students. Each mentee’s identity evolved in every new encounter with

other members of the mentoring group. These students discovered that the process of sharing their experiences, concerns and understandings, has a ‘pedagogical power’ that helped them learn the importance of information being presented in connected ways, rather than as isolated bits of data. They also came to know that an effective group process leads to collective knowledge or ‘insights’ (Palmer, 1998). Feedback from the mentees showed that they considered the informal mentoring process to be both supportive and empowering.

MENTORING FROM AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The term ‘mentor’ has a long history, going back to Homer’s famous poem the *Odyssey*. When King Odysseus left to fight in the Trojan War, his friend Mentor was trusted with the care of his son, Telemachus. During Odysseus’ ten-year absence, Mentor was a stand-in for Odysseus, and he had to “personify the kingly quality of wisdom” (Smith and Alred, 1994, p. 103). Although not a biblical word, mentoring appears to be a biblical concept (Mallison, 2002, p. 28). “Mentoring was a way of life in Bible times.”

There are stories of followers of God who took younger followers under their wing, providing counsel, challenging beliefs, and demonstrating a lifestyle of faith. As each generation faced the challenges of discovering what it meant to be God’s people, they benefited from the wisdom and experience of those who came before them.

(Lawrie, 1998, p. 4)

In the Bible there are numerous examples of mentoring. These include the relationship of Barnabas to Paul, Paul to Titus, Elizabeth to Mary, Naomi to Ruth, Moses to Joshua, as well as David to Johnathon. In biblical times mentoring occurred in a variety of ways. Ruth saw Naomi as a person who she wished to model her life on.

*Where you go, I will go
Where you lodge, I will lodge
Your people shall be my people, and your God my God*
(Ruth 1:16)

Naomi was a type of mentor for Ruth and guided her as she learnt many life-skills, such as how to make decisions and respond to various situations in a new culture. Naomi gave Ruth self-confidence, taught her about God, and through shared experiences showed Ruth how faith becomes part of life. A good example of mentoring is Jesus’ close relationship with his twelve disciples, especially Peter. “Peter is challenged to do things that he does not believe he can do, to discover new things about God, and to live as a disciple of Christ” (Lawrie, 1998, p. 4). Timothy and Paul also had a strong mentoring relationship that started when Timothy journeyed with Paul. As their relationship developed Paul gradually gave Timothy more responsibility for ministry. “He corrected Timothy when things went wrong, but above all he respected, valued, supported and encouraged Timothy. And Timothy grew in stature and wisdom” (Lawrie, 1998, p. 4).

Pastor Shank of South Coast Community Church, California, defines mentoring as a transfer of wisdom from one person to another.

Mentoring is purposeful, intentional, and planned; mentoring is a transfer of wisdom based on one's life experiences rather than the transfer of knowledge systems or behavioural techniques; and mentoring happens in a one-to-one personal relationship through time.

(Shank, cited in Otto, 2001, p. 17)

In modern times, in the 1980s, formal mentoring programs were introduced in the American education sector. Later, in the 1990s, similar programs were developed in Australia.

What the literature says about mentoring

Mentoring is now becoming a popular concept among learning organizations that are interested in retaining their students and supporting them in their studies. Although the concept of mentoring has a range of definitions, in western culture the term 'mentor' is generally associated with a person who has knowledge or expertise in a specific area. Terms such as guide, advocate, master, sponsor, confidant and promoter are being used to describe the mentor's role. In the context of mentoring these roles are special because the mentor's skills are being focussed on the specific needs of the mentee (Welty and Puck, 2001). In the mentoring process a person of experience, prominence or influence (the mentor) furthers the mentee's growth and development. In the process the mentor becomes more attuned to the mentee's needs. Parker Palmer captures the uniqueness of the mentoring relationship:

Mentors and mentees are partners in the dance of spiralling generations, in which the old empower the young with their experience and the young empower the old with new life, reweaving the fabric of the human community as they touch and turn.

(Palmer, 1998, p. 25)

Salzman (2002) highlights the key aspects of mentoring when he describes it as a relationship, involves sharing, and leads to the development of both the mentor and the mentee. The sharing aspect is consistent with Forster who describes the mentor-student relationship as:

Allowing students to direct and extend their learning under the guidance of another person with expertise in a particular area of talent. The sharing exchange capitalises on students' strengths and the ability of experts.

(Forster, 1998, p. 17)

In Australia there have been some reports of studies involving mentoring programs in university education courses, such as the report by Reynolds and Grushka (2002). In one study Aniftos (2002) focussed on the benefits of mentors, not only for the individual participants but also for the learning organization. After examining the role of mentoring in relation to job satisfaction for the academic and the organizational

outcomes, Matters (2002) concluded that mentoring is beneficial for both parties. Matters used her Millennium Mentoring model to contextualise the most successful and influential types of teaching and learning in education and includes beginning teachers.

Internationally there has been an increasing focus on mentorship and mentoring practice. Fritzberg (2003) described his experience with mentoring as a shift from impersonal policy to personal relationships. Hager (2003) explored faculty-student mentoring relationships in a community of practice in the Graduate School of Education. Mentoring can also be important for online learning communities as revealed in Chang's (2003) model of distance learning.

A MENTORING PROGRAM AIMED AT HELPING STUDENTS THROUGH TRANSITION

Research has shown that fledgling university students may experience difficulties with the transition to a tertiary education environment for a variety of reasons. One reason relates to the need to make a connection with the university. A new student recalls how she felt on her first day at university.

Arriving at university for the first time after having spent 13 years at school was daunting to say the least. J 26/5/02

The staff-student mentoring program reported here formed part of an Australian university's first year transition process and was set in place to assist students to adapt to the academic environment. The university responded to statistics relating to first year students withdrawing from their studies by devising a First Year Initiative which included supporting staff in establishing successful mentoring programs for new first year students. The following tables provide a profile of the extent of student loss through discontinuation in the year 2000 (Tables 12.1 and 12.2).

The university Teaching and Learning Management Plan recommended the mentoring program as policy. The aim of the mentoring program was to assist students to feel academically and socially connected to the university and their chosen course, at the most critical period of their transition, the first six weeks. The mentoring program was piloted on all campuses in 2002, with all faculties expected to allocate an

TABLE 12.1 Withdrawing first year students by location

Location by campus	Count	Percentage of campus enrolments who withdrew
1	243	19
2	116	27
3	42	14
4	76	20
5	518	17
External	253	11
Total	1248	16

TABLE 12.2 Withdrawing first year students by gender

	Count	Percentage of withdrawals
Male	485	39
Female	763	61
Total	1248	100

academic member of staff (the mentor) to each student (the mentee). Initially it was assumed that in most cases the mentor would teach at first year level and therefore be the one with whom the students would have contact in their academic studies. However, this was not necessarily the case.

Guidelines for the mentoring program suggested that during the first week of the semester the mentor was to meet the allocated mentees in order to establish a relationship and set up a schedule or method of contact for the next six weeks. The critical component of the program was that students are made to feel welcome and know that someone is interested in how they are handling their units and courses. Each mentor was to determine the most appropriate form of contact, such as face-to-face, telephone, email or hard mail. In the following section first, the intended outcomes for the learning organization are identified and second, the collaboration, nurturing and shared responsibility that occurred within one mentoring group is examined.

From the perspective of the learning organization, the outcomes that can be achieved through this mentoring process include:

- Outcome 1 Students feel part of the faculty and University as a whole.
- Outcome 2 Students are confident to approach academic staff and discuss issues.
- Outcome 3 Students attend lectures and actively participate in the academic program.
- Outcome 4 Academic staff members are aware of issues facing new students and the support services available to assist students and staff.

RECRUITMENT OF STUDENTS AND STAFF MENTORS

It was the responsibility of each faculty to work out how it would implement the mentoring program. The Faculty of Education set up a Committee that decided, due to a large intake of first year students (more than 400) and only a limited number of volunteer mentors, that it was not possible to match the suggested six to one staff ratio. Therefore a 'pilot program' was offered, and 25% of those enrolled in the Bachelor of Education Primary degree were arbitrarily selected to participate in the mentoring program. All Bachelor of Teaching (Secondary) Science students were contacted and offered mentors because this cohort had been identified, according to previous data, as having a lower 'transition' rate. A selected number of students enrolled in the Bachelor of Physical Education were also invited to participate in the mentoring program.

Most staff mentors were 'recruited' on the basis of the Committee's prior knowledge in relation to the following questions. Who would be willing to be involved? Who

8 February, 2002

Dear student,

Welcome to the University and the Faculty of Education. We hope you will have a successful year!

This year, the Faculty of Education is initiating a trial 'Mentoring' program involving a small group of randomly selected first year students. The program is intended to run over the first six weeks of Semester One. The purpose of this staff-student mentoring initiative is to introduce new students to at least one staff member who can:

- Help you to make the transition to university life.
- Give you useful information, or refer you to the appropriate person to help you with specific questions.
- Help you with appropriate learning and time management skills.
- Help you to make sense of your new learning environment.

I would like to invite you to participate in this new initiative. As a staff 'mentor' I can help you settle into your course and the subjects that you have chosen. I will be working with approximately six other first year students in this trial program, so if you choose to participate, we can meet as a small group. The amount of time involved and type of contact (eg. via email, phone calls, or face-to-face) can be negotiated over the six weeks. Participation is completely up to you, but we hope that this program will help new students such as yourself to feel more 'at home' at the university.

If you would like to participate in this trial Mentoring program, or would like more information, please ring or email me BEFORE Wednesday, February 20th.

My contact details are as follows:

Phone number:
Email address:
We can then arrange a time and place to meet during Orientation week.

Best wishes,

Figure 12.1. An example of a letter to a potential mentee

saw this as an important aspect of first year teaching? Personal contacts between staff were critical in terms of recruiting enough mentors to cover the 'pilot program'. "However, the Committee feels that this is not good enough in terms of the university's commitment to FYI. If it does really matter then staff should be informed, recruited, trained and acknowledged in terms of workload for this initiative" (Allard, 2002, p. 2). Initial contact with potential 'pilot study students' was via a letter signed by the 'mentor' (refer to Figure 12.1). Below, two B. Ed Primary students recall their initial reactions on receiving their letters of invitation to participate.

As a first year student I was invited to participate in a program to help ease me into University life. In February when I received a letter in the post that invited me to participate in the mentoring program, I was very surprised and thought why me? I wasn't sure whether I should take part

in the program. I decided that I would, I thought that if there is anything that will support me in the process of adjusting to university life then I would take it. J 13/5/02

I was a bit hesitant about the mentoring when I first received the letter in the mail. Would the people be nice?? But I thought that since my first year at Uni in 1999 has been such a strain I should embrace anything that might help me settle in better this time around. I am really glad I did. C 3/5/02

Follow up included either phone calls or email contact, and in all instances at least one face-to-face discussion. The Mentoring Package on the Orientation Website was very helpful in the initial stages of informing staff about the mentoring program and clarifying what was expected of them.

Benefits of a heterogeneous group

As one of the volunteer mentors, a few days after the letters had been posted I telephoned my assigned B. Ed Primary students to organise the first meeting, which was to be held in Orientation week. During this meeting the group decided we would meet for one hour at 2pm on Mondays, weekly for the first two weeks and then fortnightly.

In order to address the mentees' agenda the focus of each session was generally left open until the particular session. In the second week the group number increased unexpectedly when two female students (who had not received letters) requested to join our group. A positive response meant that our group consisted of six females and two males. Of these eight, six students regularly turned up for the mentoring sessions. (Unfortunately once syndicate groups were formed for the Education Studies major unit, one of the males could no longer attend due to a timetable clash.)

The group can be described as heterogeneous, because it consisted of several mature age students (two had transferred from other universities and one was returning to study after working as a bank manager) and two students who came directly from school after gaining their Victorian Certificate of Education. Below two mentees describe the value of the group being heterogeneous.

The program involved a group of first year students that were all studying towards the same degree, but most of us had different backgrounds. A couple of girls were straight out of school; a few of us were in our early 20s and had been working for a few years and another who is a father with a previous history of working in the bank. This mixture was useful in the way that we were able to share different experiences.

J 13/5/02

I think to have a mix of people was important as we were introduced to each other in a welcoming and friendly manner that fostered a feeling of safety and friendship within the group as a whole. People from different age and backgrounds found a group where they could share their experiences. I think that for some it meant that they had a friendly face to speak

to. (I noted several of the shy girls felt that they could speak up by the second meeting).

A 1/6/02

THE MENTORING ROLE

One assumption made in the mentoring initiative was that all academic staff are competent as mentors. This assumption cannot be taken for granted because effective mentors must have certain qualities, as Tilley identifies.

Mentors need to be committed to the educational exercise and to take an interest in the personal and professional development of the mentee. Mentors need to be flexible enough to tolerate and appreciate the uniqueness and individuality of the mentees.

(Tilley, 2002, pp. 17–18)

For an effective mentoring relationship to develop it is crucial that the mentor has good interpersonal skills and the ability to:

- Listen very attentively.
- Deal with differences of opinion in a non-judgemental manner.
- Ask open-ended questions rather than closed ones.
- Focus on the mentee's agenda.
- Show flexibility and be creative.
- Use these interpersonal skills for the benefit of the other person.
- Leave the mentoring role when it is no longer appropriate or requested as sometimes 'Letting go' can be a difficult element of mentoring.

Throughout the mentoring process described here no fixed guidelines directed my role as mentor, and there was no set structure for each session. Several mentees describe how they felt about the mentoring program and indicate that the 'lack of formal structure' actually encouraged meaningful interaction.

The mentor program worked for our group despite the lack of formal structure or framework given to the staff. This was due mainly to Dr Jane's honest and caring nature shown openly from the very first meeting. She was genuinely interested in learning about how 1st years found the university especially during the first few weeks and the orientation week program.

A 1/6/02

Even though the program does not have any formal structure that we have followed, I think that it has been useful in having it that way. As it allows the people involved to introduce personal fears and questions.

J 13/5/02

I'm not sure if it would work as well if people were forced or required to attend. I think what made our group work so well was that we wanted to meet and it wasn't some big structured thing.

C 3/5/02

Perhaps one reason for the success of this particular mentoring group was that I was not teaching any first year units and therefore not assessing the mentees' work. As I did not teach the mentees in their academic program they did not feel threatened, and they could talk openly and honestly about their assessment tasks.

Progressing to deeper levels in the mentoring sessions

During the mentoring sessions the group focused on the concerns and issues that arose in day-to-day University life that the mentees wanted to talk about, as shown by their comments below.

We had weekly or fortnightly meetings in which we would share questions or problems we had been having in particular subjects and would be able to reassure each other that we weren't the only ones feeling lost or confused.

J 26/5/02

The fortnightly meetings were great. Relaxed, and just an opportunity to tell each other what's been going on. In that way I think it was really a great social thing. Plus it was fantastic having somewhere to ask questions that came up and not sound like an idiot.

C 3/5/02

As time progressed such discussions moved to a more personal level, as can be seen in the session outlines below:

- Week 1 Meeting as a group. "Getting to know you" (name, major focus etc.)
- Week 2 Sorting out any problems. Are your timetables worked out?
- Week 4 Talking about families, living arrangements and means of transport to University.
- Week 6 Removing fears about assessment and discussion about how to meet assignment commitments and deadlines. Two mentees brought their lunch and we discussed the eating venues at the University. Some mentees felt apprehensive about going to the Student Restaurant so we planned to have lunch there the next session.
- Week 8 Eating lunch together at the Student Restaurant.
- Week 9 Celebrating mentee's birthday as part of a break up party.

ANALYSIS OF THE MENTORING EXPERIENCE
IN RELATION TO THE LEARNING ORGANIZATION'S
INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the end of the semester the mentees' comments about the program were examined to see how their mentoring experiences related to the intended outcomes of the mentoring program. Analysis revealed that the main outcomes for students were that they felt connected to the faculty and that they were 'regularly' attending university lectures and tutorials. The achieved outcomes are identified below and supported by mentees' written feedback.

*Outcome 1 Students feel part of the faculty and
University as a whole*

One of the most encouraging outcomes was the increased confidence and development shown by the two mentees who had come to university directly from secondary school. They volunteered to speak at the university's Open Day and willingly shared their experiences of university life with 130 people in the Faculty of Education's Information session.

The mentor program has been a fantastic way to ease into uni life with a group of others in the same position as myself.

J 26/5/02

What I found very useful is the fact that we were introduced to a variety of different people, but also it gave you a good start in feeling comfortable at University.

J 11/5/02

For me the mentoring experience with first year education students was very positive and enjoyable. Our regular chats fostered a sense of connectedness that enables each group member to settle in quickly and happily to university life.

Mentor 18/10/02

*Outcome 2 Students are confident to approach academic
staff and discuss issues*

The meetings were set up weekly, where we would meet for under an hour and share our feelings and experiences.

J 13/5/02

By having someone from the education faculty to go to with queries was also a huge relief in those first few tentative weeks.

J 26/5/02

*Outcome 3 Students attend lectures and actively participate
in the academic program*

I thought the Mentor program was a really good way to meet and talk to people you mightn't otherwise have the courage to talk to. When uni starts and you know no one it can be really scary and no one wants to admit that they need help. Having the mentor program then gives people the chance to meet more people and discuss common issues with other people who otherwise would be feeling lost too! It's really nice too, to be able to talk to a group of people who you might not normally speak to. My first experience at Uni (1999) was that it was really hard to make friends. For me that was one of the big bonuses of this mentoring

group. It gave me faces I recognised, people I could sit with in lectures and tutes.

C 3/5/02

I've formed some great friendships through the mentoring group and it's somewhat reassuring to be able to walk into a class and know that you have someone to sit with.

J 26/5/02

I found that even students that had meetings only two or three times benefited in that they were able to recognise a number of students around, and some have formed friendship groups in classes.

A 1/6/02

Outcome 4 Academic staff are aware of issues facing new students and are familiar with the support services available to assist students and staff

From the discussions I learned that there is a mature age students' room with microwave facilities. I also became familiar with other support services available.

Mentor 18/10/02

ANALYSIS OF THE MENTORING EXPERIENCE IN
RELATION TO THE
STUDENT-MENTOR ENCOUNTER

In this section discussion is consistent with Parker Palmer's view of mentoring as:

Mutuality that requires more than meeting the right teacher; the teacher must meet the right student. In this encounter, not only are the qualities of the mentor revealed, but also the qualities of the student are drawn out in a way that is equally revealing.

(Palmer, 1998, p. 21)

In the mentoring program reported here the mentees developed positive relationships, not only with their mentor but also with each other. Mallison (1998, p. 8) argues that: "Good mentoring involves bonding, connectedness, rapport, mateship, affinity, things in common and genuine concern." The relationships that developed within this particular mentoring group were dynamic, shared, and grew to be stimulating and empowering. Trust developed very quickly and the mentees felt comfortable and confident to express their concerns openly to members of the group. This relaxed situation led naturally to 'peer' mentoring, with the mentees spontaneously engaged in both giving and receiving. Students visibly enjoyed being in one another's company. They always arrived promptly for the sessions which is a sign that these students valued the rich mentoring experience.

As a mentor who views mentoring as holistic, the mentoring process was deliberately mentee-centred, rather than performance-centred. This view is consistent with Mallison (1998, p. 87) who contends that: “The ideal mentor is a functional mentor, responding to the needs of the mentees in varying situations.” I adopted the role of ‘encourager’ and provided the mentees with the freedom and space to develop their confidence and self-esteem. According to Palmer, an effective mentor endeavours to identify the mentees’ real needs by being a good listener in dialogue.

Forced to listen, respond, and improvise, I am more likely to hear something unexpected and insightful from myself as well as others. My identity is more fulfilled in dialogue.

(Palmer, 1998, p. 24)

Each member of the mentoring group brought their own perspective to the sessions. Because the mentees offered their opinions freely and openly shared their experiences, the group became knowledgeable about the learning organization. Palmer refers to this collective knowledge as insights.

If you can get all of these people and their perceptions to multiply exponentially in a good group process, it is sometimes possible for a collection of amateurs to come up with solid insights.

(Palmer, 1998, p. 126)

In the process of sharing experiences, concerns and understandings the students witnessed the ‘pedagogical power of the community of truth’ because “the human brain works best with information presented not in the form of isolated data bits but in patterns of meaningful connection, in a community of data, as it were” (Palmer, 1998, p. 127). The mentoring group described in this chapter developed pedagogical power that helped the mentees to learn together. “Learning together also offers them a chance to look at reality through the eyes of others: instead of forcing them to process everything through their own limited vision” (Palmer, 1998, p. 127). This sharing enabled the mentees to develop their own identity as fully-fledged university students. The mentoring process that these preservice teacher education students experienced should empower them to become teachers who understand the importance of meaningful connection and good group process. As such they will be in a position to put this knowledge into practice in their own classrooms.

CONCLUSION

The rich mentoring experience described in this chapter was beneficial for the first year Pre-service Teacher Education students involved. Over time, through their willing participation in the mentoring process, they understand that collaborative interaction can be a positive learning experience. During the mentoring sessions the mentees frequently addressed one another’s concerns, rather than always turning to the mentor for the solution. The collaborative group situation had ‘pedagogical power’ because different perspectives were shared, resulting in the mentees feeling

positive and connected to the university. At the end of the first semester most mentees in this group revealed that they felt confident and comfortable about their studies. Students learned that a sense of connectedness is fostered when mentees are encouraged to share their concerns within a mentoring group.

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JANETTE RYAN

13. EXPLORING 'LIFEWIDE LEARNING'
AS A VEHICLE FOR SHIFTING PRE-SERVICE
TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS OF
TEACHING AND LEARNING

INTRODUCTION

Recent times have seen a questioning of content-driven, discipline-based curricula in schools. There have been moves away from these approaches towards curricula based on the skills and strategies required in a changing world (ACDE, 2001). This has resulted in initiatives in several Australian States aimed at promoting 'new learning' approaches in schools. One of the Australian Council of Deans of Educations (ACDE 2001, 2004) 'new learning' and 'new teaching' propositions relates to the encouragement of 'lifewide learning', or learning 'beyond the classroom'. This chapter describes how these 'new learning' propositions, and in particular, the concept of 'lifewide learning' can be utilised to shift pre-service teachers' (PSTs) conceptualisations of teaching and learning.

During the past decade in particular, there has been much debate in education about the types of skills that school students will need to equip them for their future working lives (ACDE, 2001). In Australia, for example, new approaches to teaching and learning have included the New Basics program in Queensland, the Essential Learnings programs in South Australia and Tasmania, and the Essential Learnings framework in Victoria. These approaches call for an integrated approach to curricula to better adapt students to the requirements of a changing world so that they can become active and socially responsible citizens (DeLors, 1996). Such approaches involve the development of intellectually stimulating, 'rich' and 'real life' tasks, and a focus on skills such as independent learning and problem-solving.

One of the 'new learning' propositions upon which such curriculum development should be based, according to the ACDE (2001), is that learning should be lifelong and lifewide. Although the concept of lifelong learning is well established (Candy, 1991), the concept of lifewide learning is new and appears to be still relatively unexplored. The ACDE propositions hold much hope and scope for the development of new conceptualisations of teaching and learning but there appears to be little reporting of the results of their operationalisation.

Observations of classrooms that have adopted 'new' approaches to learning, under guises such as, for example, the 'thinking curriculum' and with the laudable aims of encouraging the development of deeper thinking skills amongst children, reveal that these approaches can still result in mechanistic and disengaged responses from children. Such approaches purport to be moving away from content-based, discipline specific curricula, towards more integrated and 'real life' or 'authentic' tasks.

Where 'new' aims and concepts are overlaid on existing understandings of teaching and learning, however, unless there is a reconceptualisation of teaching and learning, they run the risk of reversion to conventional approaches.

For PSTs, it is imperative that they embrace these new approaches to learning from the beginnings of their professional practice. As PSTs will have largely experienced conventional approaches to teaching and learning through their own schooling, they need to be encouraged to shift their understandings of teaching and learning. The 'new learning' propositions, and the concept of lifewide learning in particular, can be useful vehicles to effect this shift.

Bachelor of Education programs generally aim to encourage deeper learning amongst their pre-service teachers and deeper understandings of teaching and learning. PSTs need to be encouraged to explore their own approaches to teaching and learning, especially in the professional experience (or practicum) component of the course. They need to be encouraged to move away from preoccupations with technical assessments of their teaching practice during the professional experience and to focus upon the learning that occurs within it.

This chapter reports on how this was carried out in one program, using a reconceptualised education studies unit based around the New Learning propositions. It explains how these were introduced into unit content and assessment tasks, and describes the resultant shift in the PSTs' attitudes towards teaching and learning. The unit offered a platform and an opportunity to introduce new conceptualisations of teaching and learning. The concept of 'lifewide learning' was used as a vehicle, through the introduction in a new education studies unit in the second year of the course, to try to encourage this reconceptualisation. The unit not only encourages PSTs to embrace lifewide learning as part of their studies in the unit, but also requires them to introduce the concept in their professional experience work in schools. At the end of the first year of operation of the unit, PSTs were surveyed about their views on the unit to determine whether there had been significant shifts in their views on teaching and learning and the nature of these changes.

BACKGROUND

The Bachelor of Education course within which the unit is placed aims broadly to promote deeper understandings of teaching and learning amongst PSTs. It encompasses a new model for professional field experience aimed at changing the focus away from a 'technical', competency-based, assessment of the placement, to the learning that occurs within it by both PSTs and their students in schools.

According to Martinez *et al.* (2001), most of the literature on the teaching practicum does not focus on the teaching success experienced by teaching students during their practicum experiences. Instead, they argue, there is a focus on an outcomes-based approach to assessing students, where competencies and standards are used to measure student outcomes, or specific performance skills, rather than the effectiveness of the teaching undertaken by student teachers, or their own learning during the placement. Slee (1998) describes the impact in education of what Lyotard (1984) refers to as the 'cult of performativity', that is, the shift from 'the

teacher as an educated professional towards one of the competent practitioner' (Slee, 1998, p. 264), with an 'expanding raft of outcome indicators that permeate all levels of education work' (p. 263), reducing teaching to 'technical work'.

As part of this new course, the professional experience program aims to develop deeper learning amongst PSTs. The program begins very early in the first year of the course, and continues throughout the academic year. The course includes both P-6 and P-10 streams, but the placement in second year for all PSTs is in a primary school. Education studies units support the program and facilitate deeper learning and connections between the learning that occurs at university and within school placements. The new unit is specifically designed to encourage more collaborative and reflective approaches to teaching and learning in schools and to encourage PSTs to explore their own approaches to teaching and learning through innovative and creative teaching strategies.

At the end of the first year of the new course in 2001, first year students were surveyed on their responses to the new degree program (Brandenburg and Ryan, 2001; Ryan *et al.*, 2001; Ryan and Brandenburg, 2002). One of the strongest findings that emerged from PSTs' responses was their positive reactions to the new professional experience program. This program entails PSTs spending a day each week in a primary school from early in the first semester in Year 1 of the course, and continuing through Year 2. PSTs undertake the program in 'buddy pairs', under the 'mentorship' rather than the supervision, of the classroom teacher. This approach involves not just a change in nomenclature, but a change in the positioning of relationships within the professional experience. It is designed to move from a model where the 'neophyte' learns from the 'expert', to the learner constructing their own learning in partnership with their peers, and under the guidance and support of their mentor. This approach is designed to facilitate deeper learning within the professional experience and to move away from a reliance on technical, 'checklist' approaches to assessing competencies. PSTs overwhelmingly reacted positively to the new professional experience program (Brandenburg and Ryan, 2001), and their responses were marked by high levels of enthusiasm, expressions of confirmation of career choice, and feedback on the positive relationships built up during the year with teacher/mentors and children in the classroom.

NEW APPROACHES TO TEACHING AND LEARNING

PSTs are encouraged to explore innovative and creative approaches to teaching and learning. As part of this, they are required to implement 'lifewide' learning (ACDE, 2001, 2004), that is, learning beyond conventional classroom-based, teacher-directed environments. According to the Australian Council of Deans of Education (2004), lifewide learning is about 'learning across life' and requires a 'new perception of education' (p. 21). The Council's 2001 'New Learning' charter, however, only briefly described what the concept of lifewide learning might entail.

['New learning' recognizes] [T]hat learning will be lifelong and lifewide, acknowledges the greying of the population and the short

shelflife of technological skills. In an era signified by rapid change, the need to promote autonomous learning is paramount – citizens must learn to learn, throughout and across their lives. Lifewide learning recognizes the need for much greater flexibility and diversity of educational experiences: learning should occur in parks, in pool halls, and outside of traditional institutions.

(ACDE, 2001, p. 2)

The concept of lifewide learning offers much promise but is relatively unexplored in the literature and appears to still require a well-articulated theoretical basis. There also appear to be few examples of attempts to operationalise the concept although there have been individual attempts by schools to incorporate learning outside the classroom. There are some conceptual parallels with other approaches to learning and knowledge, such as the concepts of knowledge building communities (Cambourne, 2001) and situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991) which both encompass notions of learning beyond conventional classroom structures. Ryan (2002) notes, however, that despite some moves within schools to incorporate learning outside of the classroom into curricula (such as through VET programs in schools) student teacher learning continues to be contained most often within the confines of school classrooms. There have been some moves by universities elsewhere, however, towards more community-based programs such as at Victoria University (Ryan, 2002) and at James Cook University (Matters, 2002).

The unit *Creating Learning Environments* builds on PSTs' learning in the professional experience in the first year, and encourages approaches to teaching and learning based on the 'new learning' propositions (ACDE, 2001). The unit runs alongside the weekly placement in schools. The main learning task of the unit is a requirement that PSTs design and deliver an innovative education program or project in their school which embodies the new learning propositions. PSTs' projects must incorporate innovative and creative learning approaches and be informed by the theoretical perspectives underpinning the unit.

The unit is grounded in experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984) and is informed by the areas of productive pedagogies (Luke, 2002), knowledge building communities (Cambourne, 2001), inquiry learning (Murdoch and Hornsby, 2000), realistic pedagogy and reflective practice (Korthagen, 2001) and the 'new learning' propositions (ACDE, 2001). The intention behind the unit is to provide opportunities for PSTs to investigate and develop innovative approaches to their teaching practice based on the principles espoused in these theoretical areas. PSTs' projects have to be firmly based on the principles of experiential learning; develop knowledge building communities amongst the PSTs themselves and their students in schools; involve rich and engaging real-life tasks; and be innovative and future-oriented. Not all projects are successful, but PSTs are encouraged to learn from both 'successes' and 'failures' as part of the experiential and reflective learning cycles. They are encouraged to see risk-taking and experimentation as an unavoidable and desirable component of innovation and creativity. They are also encouraged to take on

more active roles within schools and to develop more collegial relationships (Martinez *et al.*, 2000).

The unit is also built on Dewey's (1938) view that experience followed by reflection results in growth. This perspective underpins the pedagogical approaches and experiential learning forms the nucleus of the unit and the project, and is followed by reflection where students are encouraged to reflect on the positives and negatives of their project work and its outcomes. The experiential approach also recognises that PSTs' previous experiences of schooling and education will have a major impact on their subsequent learning.

The fact that learning is a continuous process grounded in experience has important educational implications. Put simply, it implies that all learning is relearning. How easy and tempting it is in designing a course to think of the learner's mind as being as blank as the paper in which we scratch our outline.

(Kolb, 1984, p. 28)

Lander *et al.*, (1995) note that there is much rhetoric in university learning environments about the need for constructivist approaches to learning but little evidence of this occurring in practice. Students have reported, however, that their learning is improved when 'learning experiences were practical and experiential' (Clarke, 1998, p. 102). Rather than replicate, imitate and assimilate, the PSTs are encouraged to experience, reflect, question and collaborate. Their knowledge is progressively constructed, not transmitted from the 'knowledgeable other' or 'expert'.

An important aspect of this learning journey is to challenge PSTs' views (Brandenburg and Ryan, 2001; Ryan and Brandenburg, 2002) and existing beliefs and images of teaching (Young, 1995). These students had completed an intensive 'apprenticeship' regarding the teaching and learning process in the first year of their course. Their own learning was influenced by their social and cultural environments. For many, their previous experiences of teaching and learning were destined to be replicated in their own practice and many had felt that this was entirely satisfactory (Brandenburg and Ryan, 2001). The professional field experience provided the opportunity to be inducted into the professional learning environment where skills, attitudes and methods of teaching and knowledge could be developed rather than merely transmitted. The intention was to avoid the creation of the 'dutiful technocrat' (Hayes, 2002, p. 5) and instead provide opportunities for the development of creative professionals, capable of collaborative teamwork, who are responsive to learners' needs, and reflective and flexible in multiple learning environments.

The unit is also designed to facilitate the development of supportive professional relationships and to move away from the apprentice/assessor model. 'Building relationships begins with a genuine concern to listen, to be aware of the changing nature of the classroom context, and to be interested in, and responsive to, the needs of the students.' (Loughran and Russell, 1997, p. 59) Assessment is designed to be developmental rather than regulatory.

In the absence of concrete examples of lifewide learning to guide the development of the unit and the PSTs' work in schools, PSTs work in groups to develop their own conceptualisations of the concept and its translation into work with children in schools. The *Creating Learning Environments* unit involves PSTs investigating, developing and delivering a school-based project that meets a particular curriculum or education need of the school. PSTs generally work on projects in pairs or groups under the guidance of their teacher/mentor. The delivery of the unit itself is also designed to explore alternative methods of delivery, moving away from the transmission or 'banking' (Freire, 1970) approach to teaching and learning, towards a model designed to encourage knowledge building communities and independent learning (Cambourne, 2001). It is designed to provide maximum support for and encouragement of alternative teaching and learning approaches. Information sessions (on needs analysis design, experiential learning, lifewide learning, working with school communities, and the inquiry learning process) accompany formal lectures. Tutorials are supplemented with sessions where PSTs discuss and workshop their ideas, practice teaching 'active' and 'engaged' learning tasks to their peers, and share their experiences and insights from their observations in schools. In these sessions PSTs are encouraged to participate as equal partners in their learning, in their roles as emerging practitioners, to become 'knowledge building communities' (Cambourne, 2001).

Learning is largely experiential (through the weekly experience in schools and peer group discussions in groups of eight following this), with de-briefing and reflection built in. Dialogue during the debriefing sessions is directed by the PSTs. Their needs are discussed, anxieties and 'critical moments' shared, readings linked to the professional experience program are distributed and discussed as a group, and oral and written reflections are used in the continuing development of the unit. There is a deliberate attempt to foster collaborative learning, to facilitate PSTs' learning from each others' experiences as well as their own.

The most under-used resource in higher education is the students themselves. A great deal of research and development work on peer teaching has been done in Australia and elsewhere, and the conclusion is that students are more effective teachers than we are!

(Ramsden, 1995, p. 6)

The project planning, implementation and presentation requires professional project standards, and culminates in a professional presentation of the project outcomes. The project also gives PSTs an opportunity and space within the school curriculum to develop their own innovative approaches to teaching and learning, rather than falling into a tendency to mimic the approach of their supervising teacher. Many PSTs report that the project gives them an opportunity for the first time to feel like an equal at the school, and not an outsider or interloper, as they work side-by-side with teachers at the school, and make a positive contribution to the school.

Teacher/mentors also received training early in the new mentoring program about the changed expectations of the relationship between mentor and PST and the need to support PSTs in risk-taking in developing new approaches to teaching and learning

(see Smith and Zeegers, 2002). The program is designed to provide maximum support to PSTs, rather than working from a position where judgements are made about PSTs' performance. 'Community coordinators' also support PSTs in their placement. These are people who have substantial experience working in schools (such as ex-principals or part-time teachers) who provide support and feedback to PSTs in their schools. A final, formal 15-day practicum at the end of the second semester moves PSTs into a more structured program where they are then able to also demonstrate their abilities in conventional classroom environments.

The unit and its learning and assessment tasks are designed to enable PSTs to develop skills and abilities that would better equip them to deal with the increasing uncertainty (Cope and Kalantzis, 2000; ACDE, 2001; Kalantzis and Harvey, 2002) they will be facing in their future teaching careers. The nature of new knowledge and the changing world of work and social environments and expectations (Cope and Kalantzis, 2000; ACDE, 2001) will mean that future teachers will not only need to respond to rapidly changing conditions, increasing diversity, and the 'thicker connections' required in a global world (Gee, 2001), but will have to be able to equip their own students accordingly as well. The need to become more self-reliant and self-directed is evident, as well as the need to shape 'certain kinds of persons' rather than merely transmit knowledge.

[A] new range of skills will be required, to do less with departing defined knowledge than with shaping a kind of person. In the knowledge economy, excellent learners will be autonomous and self-directed – designers of their own learning experiences, in collaboration with others as well as by themselves (Gee, 2000:51) ... This is not to deny that many contemporary educators are already reflective practitioners, proactive towards change, and well connected towards the broader community. The need for these attributes will surely become more acute.

(Kalantzis and Harvey, 2002, p. 8)

By enabling PSTs to use and operationalise these new approaches to teaching and learning within the unit and within their work in schools, it provides an opportunity for them to link theory and practice and thereby provides the trigger for their own lifelong and lifewide learning.

STUDENT RESPONSES

In order to inform the future development of the unit, PSTs' views about the content and processes of the unit were obtained at the completion of the first year of operation of the unit. PSTs' responses to the new unit, and the overall program, were collected via a range of sources towards the end of the semester, where they were asked to write about their views on the unit and the professional experience. One tutorial group (n = 12) completed an open-ended 'freewrite' where they were asked to complete a detailed, written reflection. The whole second year cohort (n = 90) also met during the final week of lectures and were asked to write about their philosophy of teaching

(their attitudes towards teaching and learning); their views about the strengths or weaknesses of the program; and their suggestions for improvements.

A thematic analysis of this data revealed a number of emergent issues. These were:

- Positive responses to the professional field experience;
- PSTs' perceptions of the nature of their learning;
- Responses to learning and assessment tasks; and
- Changing attitudes towards teaching and learning.

Responses to the professional field experience

Responses to the professional field experience were overwhelmingly positive, as they had been in the first year of their course (Brandenburg and Ryan, 2001). Students commented that they felt the experience was positive and an opportunity to connect their learning at university with their experiences in school. They also commented on the usefulness of the reflection cycles, especially with their 'buddy' peer.

My mentor was extremely helpful towards both my teaching experience and my work at the university and has been an exceptional role model for me as a future teacher.

I also found the 'buddy' pairs to be an effective way to approach the field-work experience as it gave me an opportunity to reflect on my own teaching methods as well as having somebody in the same situation to reflect on and observe at the same time.

The nature of PSTs' learning

The requirement for most of the learning in the unit to be collaborative was, at least initially, difficult for some PSTs. PSTs responded well, however, to the peer discussions which enabled a sharing of ideas and experiences, especially in relation to their project planning and implementation. They were able to learn from the perspectives and conceptual understandings of their peers and consequently broaden their own understandings.

The different skills and theories that each of us brought into a discussion helped each other ... This made me feel better because I was able to voice what things overwhelm me.

Group work has never been my forte, however this really worked and I would like to see it continued into the future.

I like the idea of self directed learning and think it is important to our learning that we are able to explore the nature of teaching and learning individually.

Responses to learning and assessment tasks

Although the learning and assessment tasks were initially unfamiliar and prompted some confusion and negative reactions, once PSTs were engaged in the project work, they became more accepting of the new approaches, especially the school-based

project. They were able to recognise the new skills that they had acquired through the independent, self-directed nature of the learning tasks.

One of the turning points in regards to my learning in this unit was the initial discussion of the project assignment. Initially I was anxious about this assignment ... but now think that it has been one of (if not the most) meaningful work(s) I have completed at uni.

Our project ... is a worthwhile task to undertake as it gets you to use initiative while working within the school community. Having to take the steps to successfully implement the project is very beneficial for our communication skills as we are dealing with the principle [sic], classroom teachers and parents, all of which are the key to a successful teaching career.

Once I began working on the project I found I was much more engaged with the lectures.

DISCUSSION: CHANGING ATTITUDES TOWARDS TEACHING AND LEARNING

PSTs descriptions of their attitudes towards teaching and learning (their personal philosophies of teaching) also displayed a shift in their attitudes from first year where they were more concerned with their own achievement of specific competencies (Brandenburg and Ryan, 2001). That is, it shifted from a focus on themselves as teachers, to a focus on the learning of their students. In the first year of their program, PSTs had been reluctant to experiment with their own approaches to teaching and learning, preferring to watch and learn from experienced teachers whom they regarded as 'experts'. They were overly concerned with issues such as classroom management and their mastery of 'competencies', including factors such as voice projection and lesson closure. In their second year, they developed a more critical approach to classroom practice, as well as their own practice. Their weekly discussions displayed a deeper level of thinking and reflection, including discussion of the consequences of their actions in the classroom and possible alternatives. Many articulated a changing focus away from the classroom teacher and towards the children and the learning environment, and a greater appreciation of the relevance of theory to practice. They also reported a change in focus away from preoccupations with the immediacy of the classroom and towards the possibilities for lifelong and lifewide learning.

Examples of their descriptions of their philosophy of teaching were typically identified as:

'Creating a diverse, inclusive learning environment for all students.'

'Catering for students' individual learning needs.'

'Being open to new ideas, concepts and teaching/learning approaches..'

'Having the passion and skills to develop an innovative and effective classroom environment, conducive to learning.'

'Inspiring students to become life-long learners.'

Some individual examples were:

[My philosophy] is to be a person that embraces the opportunities given to me and to enrich the lives of my students. I want to make learning fun, interesting, accessible and flexible in delivery so that all learning styles are accommodated. Teaching/learning encompasses all aspects of life, so the classroom is only a minor part of the equation and learning can be lifewide and lifelong. My endeavour will be to be flexible, approachable, compassionate and most importantly to make education for my students something they can build on for the rest of their lives and also open up the world for them.

I want them to see me as someone who knows some of the answers, but not all of them. I also want to be a teacher that other teachers respect, and can come to for help with things they know I am good at.

My personal philosophy of teaching involves building strong links between school, home and community. It is a philosophy that revolves around enjoyment of learning in a variety of settings. I believe in the promotion of learning for life, including all groups within society – being catered for equally. Everyone has the right to learn. Learning should be in context, it should be useful.

[My philosophy is] to be an effective communicator not only in the classroom but in the school community as a whole as well, to inspire not only learning but also life-skills, or to equip my charges with the necessary knowledge and skill to successfully continue on beyond my direct influence.

CONCLUSION: 'NEW' APPROACHES BECOME THE 'NORM'

Although there was some initial resistance by PSTs in the first year of the unit to the unfamiliar requirements and procedures of the unit, especially in relation to taking responsibility for their own learning, the outcomes for these students in terms of their learning were significant. They enthusiastically embraced and practised lifewide, experiential approaches within their professional field experience work in schools. Many PSTs reported that although the project was hard work, and they were initially uneasy about the level of independence required, it was the most positive aspect of the unit. Projects undertaken included tree plantings, paintings of murals, walkathons, field trips, concerts, re-cycling programs, a school radio station, a salinity project, a school 'frog bog', theme days and other community and school-based projects. PSTs reported that there were high levels of engagement amongst children during the conduct of the project and its associated activities. Many reported that it was the most valuable learning experience that had had so far in the course. PSTs

overwhelmingly commented on the usefulness of the range of skills that they had developed in designing and implementing their projects. Schools responded positively to the projects carried out by PSTs, with many of the projects having enduring benefits for the school.

Schools now eagerly anticipate the arrival of second year PSTs and look forward to new projects, or the continuation of previous ones. In turn, PSTs in later years report their sense of pride in seeing the continuing legacy of their efforts in schools. Indeed, the program has to some extent become a victim of its own success as in some instances when PSTs arrive in schools they can find that their mentors have already decided on a potential project that they believe needs to be carried out in the school. PSTs sometimes have to sensitively negotiate how they can meet the needs of the school and the children while implementing their own ideas.

The intention, in relation to this program and the unit, was to provide a cohesive program rather than a discrete collection of disconnected units, and to continue the process of challenging the PSTs' perceptions about learning about teaching by encouraging questioning, reflective responses. The discomfort with unfamiliar methods and tasks reported by PSTs in the first year of the program has now given way to an acceptance of such approaches as the 'norm' as later year PSTs report each year to the new cohort on their projects in previous years and describe their experiences and successes.

It is clear, however, that PSTs at least initially require substantial 'scaffolding' when teaching and learning approaches and expectations are unfamiliar. Once PSTs become familiar with these new approaches, they are able to confidently and enthusiastically appropriate them in their own teaching and learning philosophies and approaches.

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14. PRODUCTIVE PEDAGOGIES: SEEKING
A COMMON VOCABULARY AND
FRAMEWORK FOR TALKING ABOUT
PEDAGOGY WITH PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION

*We need to have curriculum **conversations**, ... get them **talking** in staff meetings about how they adjust their pedagogies to get better results – showing and mentoring the rest of us about how it can be done. To do so we need to have a common **vocabulary** and framework for looking at and **talking** about pedagogy. ... We need ... curriculum **conversations** about what we did differently.*

(Luke, 2002, pp. 9–10 emphasis added)

The centrality of teaching, the explication of what good teaching involves, and the valuing of teachers' knowledge are recurrent themes at teacher education conferences. Gore *et al.* (2001) argue that preparing teachers who can produce high quality outcomes for all of their students requires teacher educators to give greater importance to what they do and say about good classroom practices; that is, what teachers do, matters.

Australian teacher educators and teachers are become increasingly familiar with the notion of Productive Pedagogies, itself the product of longitudinal research on school reform recently undertaken in Queensland, Australia. More generally, Government Departments of Education have begun to acknowledge the importance if not its centrality, of good pedagogy for successful teaching.

In this chapter, the value of Productive Pedagogies as a meta-language for developing pre-service teachers' knowledge and understanding of teaching is examined; whether it is a language that is not only intelligible but also efficacious for beginning pre-service teachers or whether its dimensions and elements merely constitute another isolated vocabulary.

The chapter first provides the background to the development of Productive Pedagogies and reviews the research focussing on Productive Pedagogies in the training of pre-service teachers. It outlines how the first year pre-service teachers were introduced to the concepts of the pedagogical language of Productive Pedagogies, while reflecting on the cultural capital of pre-service teachers and the implications of a critical language for pre-service teachers with which they might be equipped to *read* education, pedagogy and schooling. It concludes by analysing the students' observations of teaching practice to ascertain if Productive Pedagogies' language is

not just useful in the development of pre-service teachers' understanding of teaching, but whether this reconceptualisation of pedagogy can be efficaciously introduced to first year students as Gore *et al.* (2001) conclude is necessary.

PRODUCTIVE PEDAGOGIES

Productive Pedagogies is derived from the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (QSRLS) (Lingard *et al.*, 2001a, b); a 3-year intensive observation of 24 representative state primary and secondary schools, representing the largest and most detailed school reform study in Australia, containing almost 500 pages of perhaps the most exhaustive and important education research undertaken.

The study was concerned with how student learning, both academic and social, could be enhanced. Its original contribution was to specify which aspects of teaching require schools' urgent attention; the higher the level of intellectual demand expected of students by teachers the greater the improved productive performance and, hence, improved student outcomes (Lingard *et al.*, 2001a, pp. x–xv). The base assumption of the research was that this enhancement required quality classroom teaching. The QSRLS defines quality student outcomes in terms of a sustained and disciplined inquiry focused on powerful, important ideas and concepts which are connected to students' experiences and the world in which they live.

Quality learning experiences, what the QSRLS has termed *productive pedagogies* is then crucial to improved student outcomes for all students, but in particular those most 'at-risk' of failure; those from socially, culturally and economically disadvantaged conditions, who were the least likely to be exposed to intellectually challenging and relevant material (Lingard *et al.*, 2001b, pp. 103–5).

Productive Pedagogies in various forms has gained national recognition in Australia as a framework for teacher professional development. Since 2001 there have been limited but significant contributions to this discussion focussing on Productive Pedagogies in the education and training of pre-service teachers (Wilson and Klein, 2000; Gore *et al.*, 2001; Sorin and Klein, 2002). Gore *et al.* (2001, p. 8), conclude that:

Productive Pedagogy needs to come early in the teacher education program in order to be more fully integrated into students' knowledge base for teaching. If it is just another framework, just another theory, just another list, then students are likely to draw on it as they might any other approach. Instead, if students are to treat Productive Pedagogies as foundational to all of their efforts in teaching, it needs to be: (1) clearly positioned in that way from the beginning of the teacher education program; (2) used as a device to guide all aspects of the teacher education curriculum; and (3) modeled in the pedagogy of teacher educators.

Luke adds that Productive Pedagogies is:

*an approach to creating a place, space and **vocabulary** for us to get talking about classroom instruction again. It isn't a magic formula (e.g., just*

*teach this way and it will solve all the kids' problems), but rather it's a framework and **vocabulary** for staffroom, inservice, pre-service training, for us to describe the various things we can do in classrooms – the various options in our teaching 'repertoires' that we have – and how we can adjust these, ... to get different outcomes. This isn't a "one approach fits all model of pedagogy". It has the possibility of providing a common ground and **dialogue** between teachers, school administrators, teacher educators, student-teachers and others ... about which aspects of our teaching repertoires work best for improved intellectual and social outcomes for distinctive groups of kids.*

(Luke, 2002, p. 4 emphasis added)

SETTING THE SCENE

In 2002, the first year primary pre-service teaching foundation studies at Monash University (Peninsula Campus) included for the first time an introduction of the concepts of Productive Pedagogies while students were experiencing first-hand the incumbent pedagogies of in-service teachers during the fieldwork component of the course. Two hundred students, including early childhood and primary bachelor of education degree students, were exposed to this new conceptualisation of pedagogy that suggests that there is no one correct pedagogy that will meet the needs of all students in all sites of education.

As teacher educators, we wanted to know whether Productive Pedagogies is an intelligible language for pre-service teachers in the context where its origins are in the observations by experienced teachers of experienced practitioners. We wanted to establish whether it is really possible for first year pre-service teachers – many coming directly from their final year of secondary school – to make any sense of this new language about professional practice.

Significant for us was the issue of "literacies" of pre-service teacher education students raised by Zipin and Brennan (2001) in particular with reference to dominant cultural capital (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990). The preservice teachers at Peninsula Campus are increasingly often first generation students. Many are mature age, converting from other jobs or upgrading qualifications to degree status, some with children and part time jobs needed to provide for the family and/or themselves. A significant proportion of our students may not have the required cultural capital brought from their backgrounds (both home and school) which enable them with the kinds of dominant knowledge practices on which university study generally relies (Zipin and Brennan, 2001). About two thirds of the students are primary B.Ed. while the rest are early childhood B.Ed. Most are of Anglo background, with a small number of older first wave NESB students, as well as an increasing but even smaller number of full-fee paying international students (most of Asian origin). Our task was to introduce these students to a critical language of teaching (Zipin and Brennan, 2001). We also found that many of our students lacked habits and capacities to *read* the world in terms of a dominant and empowering cultural capital (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) where

‘people’s primary habitus or dispositions for being in the world are created through engagement in practices seen as a normal part of their societal location in family and early childhood’ (Zipin and Brennan, 2001, p. 6). Like most other tertiary students, pre-service teachers will not usually have been exposed to ideas that challenge a dominant hegemony. With more teaching positions becoming available, it is likely that these new teachers will be appointed to the most educationally disadvantaged areas. Zipin and Brennan (2001) conclude that these new teachers will (unwittingly) be placed in those areas where school pupils themselves do not come with strong backgrounds and expectations of success and without intervention we continue a cycle of reproducing critical *illiteracy* among pre-service teachers and in turn their future pupils. Our task, through the critical language of Productive Pedagogies was to develop in our students a consciousness that systemically, without overt acknowledgment, schools reproduce social-positional inequality through all sorts of mechanisms that encode the privilege of dominant cultural capital (Apple and Beane, 1999). This new language has:

the potential to interrupt schools’ automatic privileging of some cultural dispositions as high cultural capital, by broadening what counts as valuable and also providing access to those for whom different literacies are not automatically available.

(Zipin and Brennan, 2001, p. 8)

While our primary focus was on the issue of pedagogy where the pre-service teachers considered and critically reflected on *repertoires of practice*, we also were compelled to critically reflect on our own pedagogy at a tertiary level as a modeled paradigm for practice. Recent research in pre-service teacher education (Gore *et al.*, 2001, p. 7) reinforces our view that the current priorities on generic teaching methods and strategies, together with an emphasis on class and student behaviour management and lesson planning is derived from a view of education as the transmission of relatively unproblematic and fixed content’ to our pre-service teachers.

Pre-service teachers, the research suggests (Wilson and Klein, 2000; Gore *et al.*, 2001; Cherednichenko and Kruger, 2002; Sorin and Klein, 2002), want practical activities, lesson ideas and resources that they can use in the classroom and spend much of their time at the level of “just tell me how ...!”. We set out to challenge the notion that learning to teach is a lock-step process, addressing the ‘preconceptions and dominant discourses in teacher education’ (Gore *et al.*, 2001, p. 7) in order to restore theory or *belief* as central. Gore *et al.* (2001) conclude that there is strong evidence that pre-service teachers highly value the concept of Productive Pedagogies as a framework to guide teaching and as the basis for their future work. We wanted to know whether this too would be the case for our students, whether they would conclude ‘that pedagogy matters; not only regarding what is learned but perhaps more importantly how’ it is learned (Wilson and Klein, 2000, p. 1).

Engaging our first year students in a substantive conversation, about the how of pedagogy in the classroom through intellectually challenging material, was based on the assumption that they can learn this even before they’ve learnt *the most basic tricks of the trade*.

What was taught – what was learned?

As part of their foundation studies, we introduced the students to the four dimensions of Productive Pedagogies and the elements within each of those. The four dimensions of productive pedagogies are:

- intellectual quality
- connectedness
- supportive classroom environment
- recognition of difference.

In presenting this material to the students, we became aware that for some students the connections between the dimensions, between the elements within these dimensions and across dimensions was not made explicit by the productive pedagogies course material, the various reports, the Education Queensland website and other available material on productive pedagogies.

This became an issue for us when students asked us ‘if I’m teaching a lesson, should all dimensions of productive pedagogies be evident in my lesson?’ We decided as a group that this was probably unreasonable to expect of any one lesson. However, over a period of lessons they might expect to see each of those dimensions evident. The QSRLS states that productive pedagogies is not a formula to follow and one would not expect these elements to be seen every time, all the time in every lesson, nor would they be used in the same way in different settings with different students (Lingard *et al.*, 2001b, pp. 113–4). The QSRLS suggests that not every dimension is equally required for success for all socio-cultural groups. In other words, it is quite tenable that only one, two or three dimensions would be sufficient for some groups of students, but not all (Lingard *et al.*, 2001b, p. 3). It states categorically:

... that whilst a number of the elements within each dimension should be present in classrooms at all times, there are instances in certain contexts and stages within a sequence of lessons that some elements might be more appropriate than others.

(Lingard *et al.*, 2001b, p. 135)

While each of the dimensions is readily defined on ideal grounds, there is no research basis for believing that school systems (anywhere) have been overly successful in consistently providing high levels of all four dimensions to large proportions of school students (Zyngier and Gale, 2003).

The research literature demonstrates that where teachers have mechanistically applied Productive Pedagogies, it has become a ‘shiny object which teachers desire to utilise in classroom practice [only to] lose its lustre as a new and more desirable method comes along’ (Loughland and Reid, 2002, p. 1).

The four dimensions problematised

We sought to convey to our pre-service teachers that our interpretation of Productive Pedagogies certainly does not try to replace one hegemony with another. Rather, our understanding of productive pedagogies is that it offers a counter-hegemony

(Giroux, 1990), which is cognisant and inclusive of the viewpoints of the most marginalized learners. At the same time, we suggested that all students must acquire the requisite *abstract and analytical knowledge* if they are to have access to the dominant cultural capital of society [typified by the instructional video *Good Morning Miss Toliver* (1992)] (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990; Giroux, 1990; Shor, 1996; Apple and Beane, 1999; Teese and Polesel, 2003).

The assignment task

All students in the unit were required to observe in-service teachers taking at least four lessons. In these observations, students were asked to use the dimensions of Productive Pedagogies to describe and analyse what they observed in the lesson, and critique their observations detailing the extent to which those dimensions and elements were evident (or absent) through annotated examples describing the situations how they were employed by the observed teacher and enacted by the student(s). Finally they were to conclude what their analysis might mean for teachers in general and for their own future as a teacher in particular. Most of the students were able to complete the set tasks to a high level in academic terms.

The remainder of the chapter focuses on the written responses of the students, (fictitiously named Bob, Carol, Ted and Alice from the 2002 cohort and Anna, Simon, Mary and Jasmine from 2003 in order to differentiate between the 8 students' work) and selected to see how appropriately they were able to use the concepts of Productive Pedagogies to discuss their observations of teaching practice. We weren't so much interested in whether they were accurate representations of the teachers' practices because we don't know actually what transpired in the classroom but to get their views of what happened.

PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' VIEWS ON PRODUCTIVE PEDAGOGIES

The questions that guided our analysis of the students' assignments included:

- what were the things that were paramount in their minds when they went looking?
- (what kind of things did students identify as either being present or absent?)
- how did pre-service teachers understand the relationships between dimensions and elements of productive pedagogies and
- how might this compare with Gore *et al.*'s (2001) conclusions (see above) about their research with their fourth year pre-service teachers?

This analysis of the very rich material presented by the pre-service teachers only looks at the language and vocabulary used. No attempt has been made to further deconstruct what they are saying about their understandings of Productive Pedagogies as a basis for pre-service teacher education. Clearly this remains to be done.

What were the things that were paramount in their minds when they went looking?

Jasmine writes that 'despite initial doubt about whether [Productive Pedagogies] would be apparent [in the Early Childhood Centre] I see that there are ample examples. ... I have also realised that no amount of theory can compare with looking for and

analysing ... on placement.’ Further she observed that ‘children can demonstrate that they realize there are underlying principles behind the activities they do when they explicitly take the concept from one activity and try to apply it to a different situation.’

Rejecting the “just tell me how” approach Simon states that:

... as a teacher I needed to recognise the importance of always providing an atmosphere of “real” learning. For a student, learning should not just be absorbing information delivered to them, but rather teaching should facilitate the student’s own abilities to create their own real and relevant understandings.

Mary agreed that ‘not all Productive Pedagogies dimensions will necessarily be included in each lesson, but should be seen as integral aspects of an overall philosophy towards the classroom discourse.’ Agreeing that recognition and engagement with difference is the most significant explanation both theoretically and practically for academic achievement of at risk students, Mary states that ‘Productive Pedagogies has proved vital to my understanding of an inclusive school environment – that fairness is not necessarily achieved by treating everyone in the same way.’ Anna suggests that Productive Pedagogies ‘allowed children to challenge their personal ideologies, while exploring others’ and that ‘rather than checking a list teachers will use it as an implementation of their beliefs.’

What elements and relationships did students identify as being present?

Clearly the students readily and successfully identified the dimensions and the relevant elements as being present. Commenting on her observations on the dimension of *Intellectual Quality*, Carol commented about the lesson she observed that:

... students display deep knowledge regarding when they establish and form relatively complex connections between the central topic and tasks at hand ... where students are required to ... discover the relationship ... , to display their understanding and required students to manipulate information and ideas in ways that transform their meanings. ... allow them to be able to construct explanations for their procedures and draw conclusions on what they have done and why.

While Ted found that ‘encouraging students to make links ... and divergent thinking to take place developed higher order thinking’, he also points out the links between dimensions such as ‘complex interactions, incorporating knowledge and understandings from previous topics, ... from books they had read and television programs they watch, contributed substantial and valuable knowledge to the discussion’ as not just deep knowledge and deep understandings but connected to the lives of the children outside of the school. Further, Carol commented that:

... substantive conversation occurred when the teacher and students interacted to develop a brainstormed list of relevant ... words ... and when the students discussed words with the neighbouring person and

finally when the students had to speak to the person correcting their work. Meta-language [was] evident when the teacher explores how language can be used in different circumstances ... and for different purposes, ... cover[ing] meaning structures ... , how sentences work, ... [all] are solid indications of meta-language within the lesson.

Jasmine observed ‘a boy who grouped the building blocks by colour. ... [while other] children bit pieces out of their bread so they represented people and cars.’ She observes that ‘these children have discovered that blocks and bread can have more than one meaning.’

Although observing for intellectual quality, Alice noted that she ‘included the other three dimensions where I could see an outstanding inclusion or exclusion of ... teaching’. Alice observed that ‘for many children being able to share ideas and discuss their thinking and how they think with their peers is not as threatening as checking with the teacher’, noting ‘how important interaction between peers is to the learning process.’ She observed that the types of ‘discussion that occurred encouraged and pretty much required the children to think below the surface level ... pushing to a deeper level, ... deepening their knowledge and understanding.’

Commenting on recognition and engagement with difference Alice notes the links to *Supportive Learning Environment* such that:

... the lessons were structured in such a way that the students were pretty much in control of their own learning development ... exhibiting student direction because they had some control over what they were learning, ... providing the examples (even if the teachers were fishing for them).

This, she suggests, exemplifies academic engagement because the:

... children were attentive, they showed genuine enthusiasm ... asked questions, contributed to the discussion, helped out their peers ... to try and do things that they may not have had to consider before.

Adopting a critical and reflexive language, Alice relates that some students noted that ‘knowledge is constructed and that there can be multiple view points which can contrast and potentially conflict ... [but] the fact that the children could directly connect the examples and improvements to their own work demonstrated that they understood the task, that there was a connection to the children’s world.’ Similarly, Mary writes that:

... the teacher used the occasion of a Maori boy’s birthday to discuss counting in another language ... I saw this as evidence of the teacher acknowledging the value of diverse cultures within the group as the student was happy to demonstrate his knowledge of Maori.

Ted notes as an example of knowledge being problematic that ‘the teacher explained that there could be many ideas and points of view, each with merit and as a class we need to listen to everyone and understand that there is “no one view or right

answer” ‘. Reflecting on his own ideas, Ted writes that:

I [now] recognize that a supportive classroom environment is more than a place where the walls are brightly coloured, and students’ work is prominently displayed, [but] ... a classroom where children’s learning was encouraged in a supportive non-threatening environment, ... when students looked confused the teacher re-read a page to emphasise words or concepts and then asked open-ended questions ... foster[ing] an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust and support between the teacher and the students.’

What was missing?

Not only could the pre-service teachers identify and talk about elements of Productive Pedagogies that they observed, they were also able to discuss the implications of missing elements. Carol writes that:

Knowledge as problematic ... was an element that was hard to detect. [It] involves an understanding that knowledge is something constructed and developed by learners and is fixed around a body of information. [Although] the actual lesson was based around a central body of information supporting knowledge as problematic, it wasn’t constructed or developed by the learners. The teacher was the source of the development ...

Demonstrating a clear understanding, Carol goes on to suggest how she might have used the same exercise but:

... let the children choose the words and the tasks they must perform with those words ... and depending on the words selected could also cover the knowledge being subjected to political, social and cultural implications ... I would give the students the opportunity to construct their own learning and base [this] around their ideas.

Ted also noted that although ‘the element of metalanguage was missing [in the lesson he observed] it could easily have been incorporated by the teacher ... drawing attention to the words, ideas and actions ... when they were using higher order thinking. All the students were able to suggest how they might have modified the lessons to incorporate the various elements so that the ‘missing element could have enriched and empowered the children’s ... understanding.’

CONCLUSION

What can we conclude about the value of Productive Pedagogies as a meta-language for developing pre-service teachers’ knowledge and understanding of teaching? Is it an intelligible and efficacious language for first year pre-service teachers who have not been exposed to any prior teacher knowledge or do its dimensions and elements

merely constitute an isolated vocabulary, another framework, theory or just a *shiny object*? (Loughland and Reid, 2002, p. 1).

Carol understands the difficulties in and the requirement to not necessarily include each dimension and its related elements in every lesson and stated that however:

... it is easy to see that incorporating every element of each dimension requires a long, researched plan when constructing lessons. Much more than I previously imagined. [By] taking your time to think about the purpose and aim of your lesson, you can include each element even if it is only for a short time or minimal level. [But] by doing so you are providing the students in your class with the best opportunity to develop each of the elements.

On the other hand does Anna only see Productive Pedagogies as another (important) strategy that can easily be incorporated into every lesson?

It is important for teachers to have access to tools such as Productive Pedagogies to understand that effective learning can take place ... Productive Pedagogies would be an inherent and natural part of good teachers' lessons – an essential tool which can be largely integrated into any lesson.

Bob comments that his analysis positively affected himself 'as a teacher ... giv[ing me] a perspective on the qualitative practices in the classroom.' Perspicuously, he adds that:

... some teachers may not live by the "Productive Pedagogies bible", but their ways of teaching and enthusiasm towards teaching bring out the element of good teaching from the Productive Pedagogies set regardless. I have realized why some or most children don't like to or can't handle mathematics ... it doesn't have any connection in their daily lives ... unless the knowledge can be used in their world outside of [the world of] school.

The observation and analysis task of productive pedagogies gave our students the opportunity to engage in substantive conversation about their own learning and the teaching of their supervising teachers. It provided them with deep knowledge, deep understanding and with a meta-language 'to stand back and reflect on the things that we do' (Loughland and Reid, 2002, p. 1). It allowed the pre-service teachers to construct and deconstruct classroom learning situations while promoting higher order thinking. For example Mary writes that [this]

... analysis of a classroom discourse heightened my awareness of the value of Productive Pedagogies for me as a pre-service teacher and life long learner ... I was able to see the importance of how the teacher conducts the lesson as just as important as the content. ... The importance of continually questioning and reflecting upon the motivation underlying

my pedagogy. ... Have I created a challenging, inclusive, relevant supportive and engaging environment?

Without the meta-language of productive pedagogies our pre-service teachers may have been confined to mere observation of what was obvious to them in the classrooms they visited, without being able to critically *read* what it was that actually was taking place between the teacher and the learner(s). Without the language of Productive Pedagogies, the pre-service teachers perhaps would never have been able to articulate so clearly what in fact was *missing* from their observed lessons.

Quoting Gore *et al.* (2001) Simon explains that their results showed that:

... pre-service teachers believed [certain elements] were restricted in their use by the age of the children and subject content and that Productive Pedagogies as a whole was linked to teaching strategies ... it is important to recognise that Productive Pedagogies as a whole should be encompassed in all areas of teaching and learning. Productive Pedagogies should not be viewed as a pick and choose smorgasbord of teaching content and strategies. The evidence of Productive Pedagogies within a classroom is evidence of good teaching and learning.

Some of our students' response to Productive Pedagogies was on the level of a *shiny new object* or formula for good teaching ("just tell us how do we do this") and is mirrored in the misconception among practicing teachers and many teacher educators that Productive Pedagogies is merely another instrument or framework to be applied *as writ* (Loughland and Reid, 2002). Hence Bob concludes that 'I see Productive Pedagogies as an important *teaching aid* that enriches student learning and makes teaching a more satisfying and fulfilling profession (emphasis added).

Moreover, there remained a view, at least among some of the pre-service teachers studied, that it is in fact necessary to include all the dimensions and all of the elements of each dimension in every learning experience. Ted writes in conclusion that:

... all the elements of Productive Pedagogies ... were not evident in this lesson, possibly because the teacher was unaware of Productive Pedagogies and the elements they contain ... I believe with some planning and reflection it is possible to apply all the elements.

Alice comes to a similar view that:

... when Productive Pedagogies are taken into consideration at the planning stage, the likelihood of a more effective learning experience for students is greatly increased ... [and] that by structuring lessons in accordance with the Productive Pedagogies it enables teachers to be very much in tune with their students.

Ted reflecting on pedagogy as problematic concludes that:

I am still coming to terms with the theory of Productive Pedagogies – [although] it has taken me thirteen weeks to fully appreciate them, I find

myself on unfamiliar ground. ... The challenge is how to apply them ... At present they are like the pieces of a jigsaw puzzle and ... I find it difficult to make the "big picture". As a first year student teacher I acknowledge my limited understanding and knowledge of teaching, I am now beginning to understand that the elements of Productive Pedagogies just don't magically appear in a lesson. ... The responsibility lies squarely with the teacher to make a difference to student learning.

This introduction to Productive Pedagogies did produce results that seemed to be quite outstanding compared to our previous experiences of trying to introduce first year teachers to pedagogy. The pre-service teachers studied here confirm the conclusions of the QSRLS, that Productive Pedagogies is not something new or groundbreaking, but the identification and expression through the use of a vocabulary and language to describe what good teachers have always been doing in their classes with their students. Productive Pedagogies is we believe 'more than just a vernacular knowledge of teaching made formal ... but a language for reflecting on their practice' (Loughland and Reid, 2002, p. 1).

These pre-service teachers were able to utilize the vocabulary of Productive Pedagogies to successfully describe their observations in the discursive language of Productive Pedagogies, as a powerfully reflexive and generative language that provided them ways to talk about what was and wasn't there in the classrooms observed. In our view, these students were engaged themselves in a powerful, and empowering substantive conversation about pedagogy. Productive Pedagogies was perceived by them as compatible with all levels, teaching styles and content, even in the early childhood centre. These pre-service teachers may indeed as Gore *et al.* (2001) conclude, be better equipped to make learning and teaching more connected to the real world than teachers with years of experience.

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ROBERT P. PELTON

15. FROM PERFORMING TO PERFORMANCE:
CAN THE REPOSITIONING OF TEACHER
CANDIDATES CREATE A MEASURABLE IMPACT
ON CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT WHILE DEVELOPING
POSITIVE TEACHING DISPOSITIONS?

INTRODUCTION

Teacher candidates (student teachers) have a long history of struggling to perform their lessons well, that is, to look teacherly and hope that children remain quiet for the duration of their lesson. Although faculty in higher education, along with their counterpart teachers who mentor teacher candidates, would like to have their protégés understand the importance of impacting children in a positive way, a disconnect exists in that teacher candidates perseverate on “*How did I do?*” rather than “*What did the students learn?*” during clinical practice.

An experimental restructuring of the field placement component for a group of education majors at a small private college shifts the focus from teacher candidates “performing” their lessons, to *their* impact on young learners. The sine qua non of this program is the pairing of teacher candidates with selected underachieving children and having them participate in Collaborative Action Research. Teacher candidates’ one-on-one teaching encounters with children proved to provide a multitude of educational opportunities for both the candidates and students. Results of this partnership surpassed all participants’ expectations. Not only did the teacher candidates positively impact children’s achievement, a central goal of *The No Child Left Behind Act*, but the experience generated relevant and exciting “real world” material for the teacher candidates’ reflection, study and refinement under the guidance of professors and school-based practitioners. Evidence of the success of this program included: a measurable impact on children’s skill development; changes in teacher candidates’ dispositions toward children, teaching and their own learning; significant support for the program by teachers and administrators and a rich and motivational skills-building experience for teachers in training. The results were documented – a constant challenge to Professional Development School partnership work (Teitel, 2001) – and the design can be exported to other schools whose programs have similar goals.

BACKGROUND

The Read to Achieve program, discussed in this chapter, grew out of a public elementary School Improvement Team’s efforts to renew their annual School Improvement Plan

and target the issue of reducing the literacy gap for under achieving children. Joining the parents, teachers, administrators and community members on the team was a professor from a local college's teacher preparation program. The team analyzed past student assessment scores and noted that, on the whole, students demonstrated steady improvement over the years, but there was a consistent gap between African American male students' reading scores and their peers.

The obvious solution, providing remedial services by expanding an existing tutoring program, proved unworkable due to budget constraints. The education professor suggested that teacher candidates could provide high quality one-on-one tutoring for children needing remedial skills development. Research suggests that the achievement gap between poor and minority students and other students would disappear if all students received high-quality teaching (Haycock, 1998). Teacher candidates, who are trained in the delivery of the most recent research-based reading instruction strategies supported by the National Reading Panel, represent an untapped resource to school programs. Though untested, the idea quickly gained the support of the team members who realized that the teacher candidates, with the support of their college professors and the in-service classroom teachers, could create a high quality learning experience for both teacher candidates and underachieving students. Out of this, the Read to Achieve Program was born.

ACTION RESEARCH AND THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SCHOOL MODEL

A child's success in both school and in life is dependent upon his ability to read (Northrup, 2000). Therefore, every resource in and around our schools must be focused on this goal. A Professional Development School (PDS) partnership between a public school and a College of Education is the ideal climate to address this issue because its relationship defines itself according to its stakeholders' needs. This concept, school and college partnerships, is nearly a century old (Kaplan and Owings, 2001), and the contemporary PDS is, or should be, *symbiotic* (Sirotnik and Goodlad, 1988). The PDS model provides opportunities for teachers and administrators to influence the development of their profession and for college faculty to increase the professional relevance of their work (The Holmes Group, 1986). The resulting effort can be an increase in teacher quality and an impressive impact on student achievement. In the Baltimore County School System in Maryland, the PDS movement is gaining strength and providing measurable results (Neubert and Binko, 1998). PDSs are an untapped resource that can have an immediate and measurable effect on increasing the academic performance of children.

As the Read to Achieve Program unfolded as a Professional Development School initiative, the college professor guided the teachers and students through an Action Research Model of applied inquiry (Teitel and DelPrete, 1995). The program was based upon two goals. First, guiding teacher candidates into becoming high quality teachers and second, improving the skills and the educational achievement of children. The reflective process of Action Research has proven to be very effective when used

to address school renewal and teacher research (Sagor, 1992; Calhoun, 1993). It is apparent that with the increasing emphasis and student test scores and its linkage to practice, educators are quickly becoming “teacher researchers” in their own classroom. For these reasons, teacher training programs must include reflective practice, whereby action informs understanding and understanding assists action. Experience in this type of work is very powerful to teachers in training, because the locus of control for their own learning is in their hands, not solely in that of their professors. Further, within this model, teacher candidates have the opportunity to apply what they have learned in their college coursework in a constructivist milieu. Through this process, the learners [teacher candidates] can make sense of teaching experiences in terms of their existing understanding. In an active process, teacher candidates construct meaningful teaching practices by linking new ideas with their existing knowledge (Naylor and Keogh, 1999). As teacher candidates move between campus and field placement, they are able to use their knowledge and insight to implement refinements to their teaching. This practice enables the teacher candidates to see how the theory they learn has applicability in real world teaching experiences. They begin to understand why, in methods courses on campus, professors emphasized knowledge, best practices, inquiry and reflection. At the school-site, their mentor teachers use their experience to help the teacher candidates implement their understanding of children and learning theory to the real-world environment. By helping students create this type of connection between theory and practice in education, they reciprocally inform and strengthen each other (Sirotnik and Goodlad, 1988). As a result, the teacher preparation program becomes a real, rather than an ersatz, constructivist learning milieu. In this environment, teacher candidates are being prepared to enter the field as high quality teachers, prepared to impact children’s ability to achieve, with an understanding of the difference between plans for teaching and designs for learning.

President Bush’s No Child Left Behind Act requires schools to make adequate yearly progress and prepare all children to be able to achieve at proficient levels of performance. It also allocates federal dollars to effective programs and practices. This increased accountability for student performance and of teacher quality requires research-based practice that can provide immediate results. Teacher training programs must respond quickly by preparing their graduates accordingly. Participatory Action Research enables teacher candidates to understand the connection between teaching and learning. It also provides a platform to document their results.

FROM TUTOR TO TEACHER: FROM PEDAGOGY TO PRACTICE

We have seen the impact of programs such as America Reads, where minimally trained college students can have a positive impact on helping at-risk children learn to read better (Fitzgerald, 2001). This type of intimate learning experience has proven to be an effective form of instruction and a viable solution to preventing reading failure (Pikulski, 1994; Wasik, 1998). Teachers in training not only have a desire to

work with children, but they are in the unique position of having mentoring support as they develop their teaching competencies.

In the Read to Achieve Program, under the guidance of professors and school-based faculty, teacher candidates implement one-on-one skill development sessions in an informed and structured approach while participating in their own Action Research. Through this process, they employed experiential and reflective strategies, creating feedback loops in which they learned from the evolutionary process of their teacher research. According to Vygotsky (1978), an early proponent of constructivism, learning takes place as a continual interplay between the individual and others in the zone of proximal development (ZPD). He defined “proximal development” as the intellectual potential of an individual when provided with assistance from a knowledgeable person (Vygotsky, 1978). Teacher candidates in the PDS model become self informed about their impact on children because their training was reflective in nature, guided from knowledgeable professors and school-based practitioners, and had applicability for them, in real world settings. It has become common knowledge that the ability to reflect is essential to learning (Lambert and McCombs, 1998).

In preparation for their clinical practice, teacher candidates take a variety of education methods courses on campus and study constructivist learning theory and how it manifests in practice. Constructivism, as noted by Ernest (1995), underlies classroom practice that supports the student in developing knowledge from both the guidance of the teacher and the interaction with the experiential world. Further preparation of teacher candidates included a workshop on effective tutoring and strategies to help children identify books that they find interesting or “motivating.” The school’s reading specialist conducted this workshop. The concept and the model of the workshop were designed collaboratively; the college professor contributed the educational theory and ‘best practices’ as found in leading instructional research, and the local school reading specialist contributed the effective strategies gleaned from her training, but more importantly, her real student experiences. These parallel models enabled teacher candidates to witness and experience, first hand, the direct relationship between theory and practice. Thus, teacher candidates had the chance to apply, as constructivist learners, within the confines of a real school experience, theories and best practices learned previously only through books and lectures in college coursework. The value of this model is that it improves, simultaneously, teacher practice and teacher preparation and brings to children the most relevant and effective teaching strategies. This gives teacher candidates the background to enter the field with a depth of experience in personalizing education that makes them “high quality” teachers. Teacher candidates also witness first hand the positive effect of the collegiality between institutions.

COLLABORATIVE ACTION RESEARCH AT WORK

The Read to Achieve Program’s evaluation design is an integral part of the program’s implementation. A model of Collaborative Action Research (Calhoun, 1993) was implemented, to maximize the school-college partnership assets. This type of

teacher-researcher model is cyclical in nature and cultivates reflective and thoughtful practice. Action Research is a deliberate, solution-oriented method of inquiry, which includes problem identification, systematic data collection, reflection, analysis, data-driven action, and the re-identification of the problem to assess the substance and sustainability of an intervention or strategy (see Figure 15.1).

As part of the process, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Twenty students, from third and fifth grades, and ten teacher candidates participated

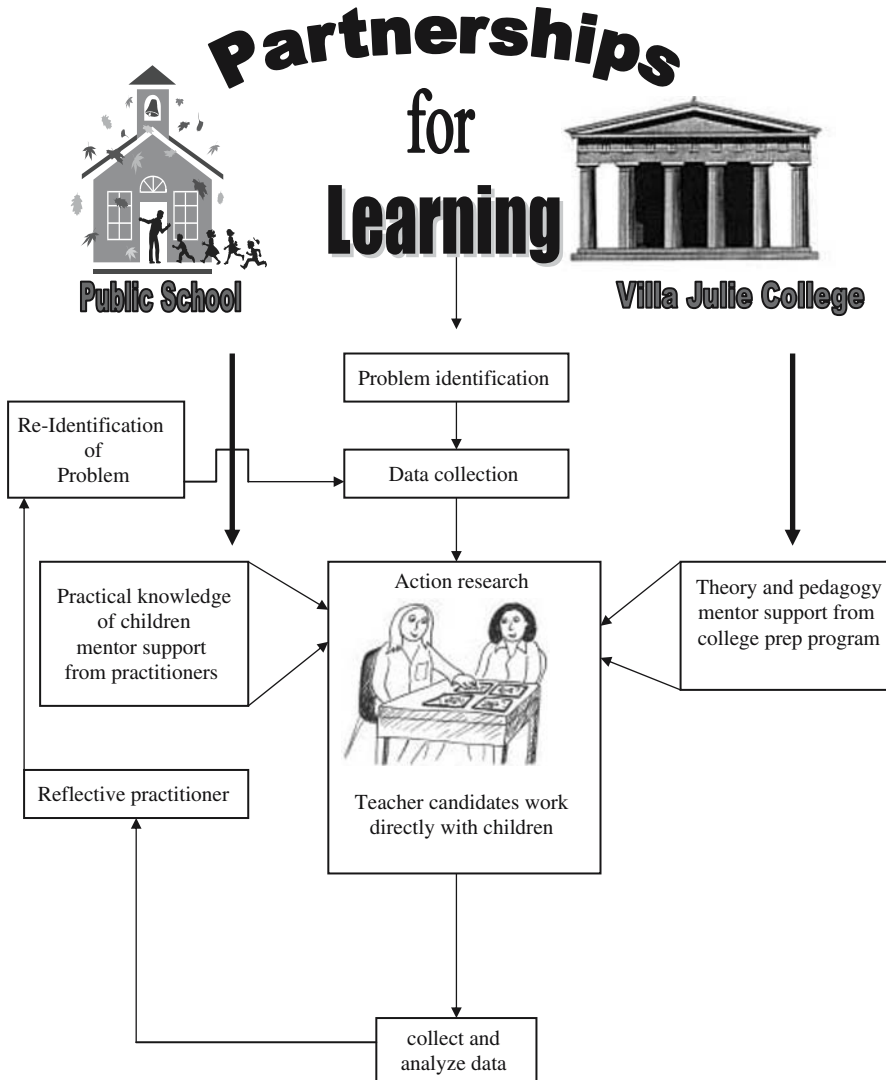


Figure 15.1. The Action Research model used in the study

in the study. Student selection was based on the reading achievement gap identified via disaggregated State assessment test results. All of the children in the study were African American males.

Three sources of data were examined. The first source of data came from pre-post STAR Reading assessments. The STAR Reading Assessment, a computerized adaptive test, was individually administered to the entire group of twenty students. The term 'Adaptive,' in this assessment, refers to the design that the difficulty level of subsequent questions depends upon the correctness of the student's response to previous questions. Based on the responses to 25 questions, the program provides a student's Scaled Score. The Scaled Score is the most fundamental score produced by STAR. All other scores – Grade Equivalency, Percentile Ranking, Normal Curve Equivalency and Instructional Reading Level are derived from the Scaled Score.

A careful review of students' pre-test scores on the STAR demonstrated that two nearly identical subgroups could be formed based on students' aptitude. One group was identified to receive tutoring service, the experimental group (N = 10); the second group was assigned as a control group (N = 10) and was designated not to receive services.

The group receiving services was chosen by means of a coin toss. The ten children in the experimental group received individual and personalized tutoring sessions facilitated by teacher candidates. The tutoring sessions were scheduled for one forty-five minute period per week for eight-weeks.

The second source of data came from small group interviews and semi-structured focus groups with parents and teacher candidates. The third and final source of data was a survey distributed to the teachers of the candidates in training. This survey was conducted after the intervention. The goal of this survey was to gain the perspective of veteran teachers on questions related to the substance and sustainability of the Read to Achieve program.

RESULTS

The School Improvement Team (SIT) decided that a comparison of Pre-post Grade Equivalencies (GE) determined by the STAR would provide a clear and meaningful measurement of student growth. GEs signify how a student's test performance compares with that of other students nationally. For example, if a 5th-grade student has a GE of 7.6, his score is equal to that of a typical 7th grader after the sixth month of the school year. This score does not mean, necessarily, that the student is capable of reading 7th grade material. It does indicate that his or her reading skills are well above average. The pre to post Grade Equivalencies (GE) of the tutored students improved by over a half Grade Equivalency (.5) during the eight-week period. Additionally, the GE of the experimental group was shown to outperform that of the control group GE by 63% (see Figure 15.2).

The data associated with the Teacher Satisfaction Survey (Table 15.1) show clear and certain support of the effects of the Read to Achieve program. There was a 100% response rate of this survey, eighteen teachers participating. As can be seen by the

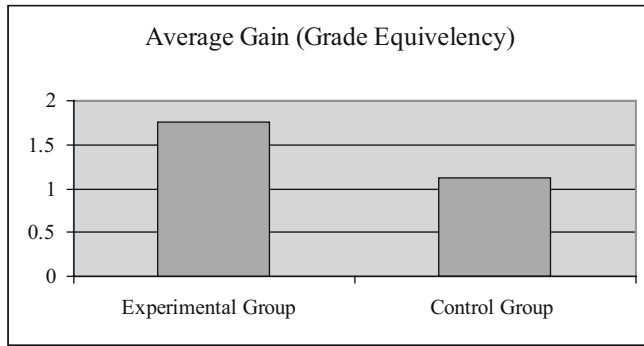


Figure 15.2. Improvement in reading over the 8 week period

TABLE 15.1 Teacher satisfaction survey

Question Disagree	Number Strongly Agree	Number Agree	Number Unsure	Number Disagree	Number Strongly Agree
Q1. VCJ field placement students have a positive impact on the children they tutor.	9	8			1
Q2. Conducting Collaborative Action Research is an appropriate use of field placement students' time.	10	9			
Q3. Field placement students build teaching competencies by implementing Action Research with children.	10	9			
Q4. Field placement students should conduct Action Research in subjects other than reading.	10	6	3	1	
Q5. Children participating in the program look forward to their tutoring session.	8	4	6		
Q6. The VJC/Cedarmere Collaborative Action Research should be continued.	11	8			1
Q7. VJC students benefit by conducting Action Research students.	11	7	1		
Q8. Children benefit by VJC students tutoring them.	12	7			

response to question three, “*Field placement students build teaching competencies by implementing Action Research with children*” and question two, “*Conducting Collaborative Action Research is an appropriate use of field placement students’ time,*” 55% of the teachers Strongly Agreed, while 45 percent Agreed. If there was

any doubt as to how this program is embraced among teachers in the school, Question 6, "*The VJC/Cedarmere Collaborative Action Research should be continued*", receiving a 94% positive response rate, corroborates teacher support.

Further data elucidated from the Teacher Satisfaction Survey verifies the positive impact on children of the Read to Achieve Program. Not only did 94% of the teachers report that their children benefit by having the college students tutor them, but the response to question 4, "*Field placement students should conduct Action Research in subjects other than reading*," reveals that a majority of teachers would like to see Action Research more widespread, impacting children with needs in other areas as well.

In addition to the Teachers' surveyed, parents and tutors provided impressive anecdotal evidence that continued to confirm the positive impact on children of the Read to Achieve program. In focus groups conducted throughout the implementation of the program, parents enthusiastically reported statements such as, "My child wants to read more", "My son seems more confident in general, as well as in his ability to read", and "Prior to this program, I didn't know what my son liked to read." These testimonials are particularly impressive as the parents, in an orientation meeting held with school and college staff prior to the program's implementation, had been skeptical of the new, untried model and concerned that it might stigmatize their children. The anecdotal records reveal that parents no longer held these concerns after their children participated in the program.

The teacher candidates/tutors' statements were particularly impressive: "I was able to interact with parents, and so I could better understand and help the student;" "I felt as if I were really teaching and making a difference", "This is so much better than preparing sample lesson plans in my coursework", and, "I felt as if I were really teaching someone. This is very different than preparing and performing lessons." The tutors are excited about the benefits to them as future teachers, and, by extension, to their present and future students. As one tutor said, and others agreed, "all of us in this Professional Development School now not only understand, intellectually, theories and strategies, we can apply them so that students are really learning." The teacher candidates noted that they became more and more effective in applying personalized instructional strategies to students' learning because they had both their college professor, who worked closely with them in their course work and in the field, and the classroom teachers who provided practical insight and treated them as part of the school community.

It became clear to all those involved with this project that this experience developed enthusiasm, as teacher candidates who participated in this project reported that their excitement about teaching resulted mostly from their one-on-one interactions with students during skill development sessions. Although enthusiasm for teaching is an intangible rather than a measurable disposition, it is certainly a characteristic many would agree a high quality teacher should possess. One teacher candidate made clear in her reflection journal, "It is amazing when I really see him learn as a result of the specific things I do with him. He is starting to really understand what he reads." This clearly documents the impact an experience such as this can have on the disposition of teacher candidates

The testimonials quoted above bear no causative impact on student achievement. However, when this anecdotal evidence, along with the Read to Achieve standardized data and Teacher Satisfaction Survey were presented to the school's administration, the School Improvement Team, the school staff and faculty, the local college professors and the teacher candidates, the decision was swift and clear: Intern implemented Action Research within the Professional Development School should continue.

IMPLICATIONS

President Bush's education initiative, *The No Child Left Behind Act*, creates an opportunity for those of us in teacher preparation programs to look once more at this problematic landscape and take a leading role in addressing the most pressing needs of neighborhood schools. It is our obligation, as educators, to exemplify the best theories and reflect on our successes while improving and refining them. We need to examine the components of teacher education, ask what works, and then restructure our programs for greater impact on both our teacher candidates and on public school children.

Teacher candidates are often overwhelmed by being "observed" by their college supervisors. They become obsessed with the formality of this process. Student learning subsequently becomes secondary to "getting through" teacher observations. This ritual diminishes the value of the teacher preparation experience to "rites of passage." We know that lesson planning, classroom management, and differentiated instruction are keys to successful teaching, but there is no single element more awe inspiring than having a direct impact on children's achievement. The Read to Achieve Program demonstrates that quality action research not only impacts children's achievement, it also generates relevant and exciting "real world" material for teacher candidates' study, reflection, and refinement under the guidance of their professors and school-based practitioners. Thus, the teacher preparation program offers action-based leadership in addressing the most pressing societal needs in education while creating a dynamic learning experience that contributes to the preparation of highly qualified teachers.

CONCLUSION

"We are enthusiastic and energized by the results of our own Read to Achieve Program," states the elementary school's Principal. As designed and implemented within the Professional Development School setting, the PDS partnership is tapping the strengths of the teacher preparation program to play a vital role in student achievement. The teacher candidates are part of two exceptional worlds: the college campus provides theory, knowledge, access to the best of research, professors and mentors eager to facilitate, guide, and teach; the 'real world' provides experience in the classroom, students with diverse learning styles and needs, classroom teachers as mentors, and administrators eager to have the best and brightest new teachers become part of their future faculty. A program such as this provides powerful clinical

practice for teacher candidates and a highly affective learning environment for children. It goes beyond the current scope of teaching preparation by making public education the shared responsibility it needs to be in this time of diversity and globalization. It engages the local school district, the college and/or university that prepares teachers, the parents, and the teacher candidates in a collaborative and accountable effort. It is a successful demonstration of how educators can become leaders in our own field, not in spite of, but in confluence with, new federal legislation. In the Read to Achieve Program, instead of spending more money, we reposition our assets to make our already existing college and school-based programs work more pointedly for children while also creating highly qualified teachers.

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16. MAORI STUDENT RETENTION AND SUCCESS: CURRICULUM, PEDAGOGY AND RELATIONSHIPS

BACKGROUND

In 2001 the Ministry of Education of Aotearoa/New Zealand, commissioned a tertiary education initiative to support research projects that focus on the retention and success rates of Maori and Pacifica students in tertiary institutions. This chapter reports on the findings of an investigative case study conducted in one department of a provincial tertiary educational institution. The case study sought to answer the question: “What are the issues confronting Maori student participation and retention in one department in this institution?” The findings suggest that curricular transformation, classroom pedagogy and relationships are critical areas for development if we are to realise enhanced retention and success for Maori students. The case study also highlights the need for building teacher capacity through professional development in the tertiary environment, particularly in the areas of relationship building and discursive pedagogical practice.

INTRODUCTION

The enrolment of Maori in tertiary education has increased dramatically in recent years, but participation and achievement have continued to be problematic (Hawke, 2002). This investigation of the factors that influence retention and success of non-traditional students in general and Maori students in particular, is needed to identify possible actions that may serve to address current trends.

Literature that discusses issues relating to student participation and retention at tertiary level most often cites student characteristics as determinants of success or failure. Evidence that students may be at risk of withdrawal or failure in the education system include factors such as: being unprepared for tertiary study; lack of social skills needed to negotiate access and resources in the institution; financial problems and psychological state including loneliness, isolation, low self esteem, lack of motivation and family problems (Promnitz and Germain, 1996; Hall *et al.*, 2001; Hawke, 2002). According to Hawke (2002), Maori students (as well as other ethnic groups) may experience further barriers, including negative stereotyping of identity and ability, family obligations, lack of family support for finance or study and little opportunity to contribute “to social or political change” (p. 3).

This approach promotes a view of students as lacking in skills, knowledge and attitudes that would support their success and retention. Advocates recommend increased student support services and programmes to help at-risk students overcome factors

such as self-doubt, lack of study skills and inappropriate attitudes to academic study. It is considered then, that students need to acculturate to the environment of tertiary study in order to gain “institutional fit and commitment” (Lake, 1998, p. 1). This deficit perspective positions the problem or difficulty within the student and releases teachers and institutions from scrutiny (Simon, 1990; Smith, 1991; Bishop and Glynn, 1999).

Further investigation of the literature however (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Abbott-Chapman and Edwards, 1998; Beasley, 1998; Hill and Hawk, 2000; Hall *et al.*, 2001; Hawke, 2002, cited in Simon, 1990; Promnitz and Germain, 1996; Bishop and Glynn, 1999), reveals the emergence of a critical approach that seeks to expose structural/systemic factors that impact on student participation and success. Authors note that so-called non-traditional groups of students have now become the “vast majority of our students” (Smith, 1991, p. 2). These authors seek to shift the focus away from the shortcomings of students and instead onto the role of the institution in promoting success.

Three areas for institutional change are identified as fundamental to address issues that influence participation and retention of non-traditional students, including Maori. These are curricular transformation, classroom pedagogy and relationships (Smith, 1991; Bishop and Glynn, 1999). In the following discussion we look at each of these aspects of change.

CURRICULAR TRANSFORMATION

It is crucial that the curriculum itself is transformed, not only to acknowledge the diversity and value of experience and knowledge of students who are other than traditional mainstream, but more importantly, to reduce student alienation, not “simply adding courses that plug holes in the curriculum ... [but] asking new questions that more naturally embrace ... the perspectives of those at the margins by placing them at the centre” (Smith, 1991, p. 4). Maori (and minority) students need to see themselves reflected in the curriculum through acknowledgment of their prior learning, their values and experiences, their traditions and cultural icons, in order to effectively engage with the curriculum and develop commitment to their study and achievement (Bishop, 2002).

The vision for change in curricula is underpinned by the inclusion of prior experiences and knowledge of all students that can enable co-creation of knowledge, cultural constructivism and experiential learning (Ladson-Billings, 1995, cited in Bishop and Glynn, 1999; Stables and Scott, 2002). Discussion of such a vision inevitably leads to issues of power relations in classrooms as to who determines the control and evaluation of content and assessment (Smith, 1991; Bishop and Glynn, 1999). These authors also point out that even where appropriate content is included in curricula, classroom pedagogy will further influence student participation.

CLASSROOM PEDAGOGY

Bishop and Glynn emphasise that power sharing and participation are “fundamental to learning for all students” [and] “power relations cannot change unless both parties

participate” (1999, p. 132). Thus, the role of the teacher in the classroom is central to the process of practising pedagogy and negotiating power sharing in relation to learning.

There is growing recognition that people learn in different ways and that best practice pedagogy includes effective participation, early feedback and transparent assessment (Smith, 1991; Stables and Scott, 2002; Hall *et al.*, 2001). Traditional delivery was based on an assumption that a lecture conveyed information most efficiently to individual learners. The acknowledgment of differing learning styles now requires a range of alternative ways of learning and teaching. This process has been distorted, however, sometimes resulting in the stereotyping of Maori students as kinaesthetic or oral learners. Some researchers refute this stereotyping as simplistic and discriminatory, asserting that alternative ways are examples of best practice that should be seen as important for the success of all students and not simply as remedial techniques for helping at-risk individuals (Smith, 1991; Abbott-Chapman and Edwards, 1998; Bishop and Glynn, 1999).

Smith (1991) labels this an issue of quality delivery. She points to a traditional perception, that there will be conflict between promoting diversity and maintaining standards, and emphasises that expectations of excellent performance would be an indicator of success in managing diversity. The study by Ladson-Billings (1995) also makes this link, describing teacher expectations where “students were not permitted to choose failure in these classrooms” (cited in Bishop and Glynn, 1999, p. 153).

Inextricably linked to classroom pedagogy is the diversity of teachers themselves. Diversity amongst staff is often referred to as an important factor in supporting non-traditional students. Smith says that it is not enough to provide (minority) role models; rather, institutions must take seriously the need for power to be “shared by a diverse mix of persons ... at all levels and in all dimensions” (1991, p. 5). In addition, institutions are exhorted to retain and develop minority staff, to overcome their sense of isolation and alienation and to actively seek the benefits of intellectual and social diversity. Thus diversity may become embedded in the culture of the institution through the diversity of relationships it encourages amongst its individuals.

RELATIONSHIPS

Relationships are the third factor identified in the literature as having an impact on student retention and success. It is in the context of an institutional culture that nurtures diversity, that teaching practice and services may be developed that will genuinely meet the learning needs of all students. The role of support services has been given differing importance in various reports. What has been consistent, however, has been the importance of relationships between students, between teachers and students and between students and the institution (Promnitz and Germain, 1996; Abbott-Chapman and Edwards, 1998; Hall *et al.*, 2001).

Students learn from other students. They talk about problems, tell each other about services and respond to mentor and peer support schemes (Promnitz & Germain, 1996; Abbott-Chapman and Edwards, 1998; Hall *et al.*, 2001).

Similarly, students respond to teachers who treat them as individuals. They feel validated by a teacher who sees the person, not the disability or difference, who follows

up absences or inquires about health or personal issues, and who provides feedback from an early stage in the relationship (Promnitz & Germain, 1996; Abbott-Chapman and Edwards, 1998; Hall *et al.*, 2001).

Students make use of the services provided by the institution if they have information about what is available and if they perceive those services as mainstream and not compensatory (Promnitz & Germain, 1996; Abbott-Chapman and Edwards, 1998; Hall *et al.*, 2001). Some studies report an increasing reluctance for students to identify as members of targeted groups, preferring to make use of mainstream services (Abbott-Chapman and Edwards, 1998). Such choices are also identifiable in the enrolments at a New Zealand University, where Maori students are choosing mainstream programmes and rejecting specialist Maori education strands. This resistance to extra or compensatory services and courses appears to confirm the assertion of Bishop and Glynn (1999) that reforming education to focus on the marginalised, in fact perpetuates their marginalisation.

This does not mean however, that support services should not be developed. They have become “an important element in defining an institution’s quality and competitiveness” (Promnitz and Germain, 1996, p. 2) and should be “not located in a discourse of welfare but in a discourse of rights” (Abbott-Chapman and Edwards, 1998, p. 3). Students’ relationship with the institution is negotiated through the people and services that provide clear guidelines to institutional expectations of them, development of learning skills and success in their studies. The confidence that student support is central to the core business of the institution (not an add-on for the deficient) may be a determining factor in effective participation and retention. Thus the individual’s relationship with the institution may be seen as a composite of their engagement with the curriculum, their involvement in classroom practice and the relationships they form with other students, with teachers, and through their access and valuing of the support services and qualifications that encourage commitment to the institution.

The comprehensive analysis of issues that affect student participation and retention in the literature points to many external factors. Abbott-Chapman and Edwards (1998, p. 2) add an important rider to the discussion:

We should not, however, underestimate the ability of disadvantaged students to overcome the obstacles to access and participation they may meet, and the importance of the development of self-help groups and strong sense of ‘perceived personal control’ in education.

This overview of the literature has demonstrated that genuine integration of diversity into the curriculum and classroom pedagogy of an institution, in partnership and relationship with diverse individuals at all levels of the institution, provides a model of how an institution may respond, in an endeavour to address issues of participation and retention of marginalised students. Examples of specific factors that relate to Maori students’ experiences have been identified, in particular the importance of relationships that support students in the institution. In addition, the imperative for quality practice and high performance expectations were identified as potential benefits for all students.

METHODOLOGY

The research design of this study was guided by the case study approach utilising a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The principal reason behind this dual design was linked with the focus of the study: to give increased understanding of the issues confronting Maori student participation and retention in a provincial tertiary educational institution in Aotearoa/New Zealand. The research question was in part, one of measuring participation in quantitative terms of how much and how many. It was also about qualitative issues of uncovering insights, making discoveries, understanding and interpretation (Burns, 1994). The duality of design in this study has allowed the best of both research paradigms to be incorporated. The quantitative perspective enumerated the statistics of the research, while the qualitative approach conveyed understanding of the impact of these statistics from multiple perspectives.

A situational case study approach has been employed in this study because it presents, examines and interprets the specific personal experiences and preferences of Maori students in one department. The cohesive collation of all respondents' viewpoints provides a starting point for an understanding of issues confronting Maori student participation and retention, and can aid in the implementation of improved practice and learning opportunities (Merriam, 1988).

Ethical considerations

The data collection processes implemented throughout this inquiry have been guided by the ethical principles for researchers at the research site and aligned to those adopted by the American Anthropological Association. A summary of the guidelines pertinent to this study and how they were applied is presented in the following.

Consistent with most qualitative investigation in the field of education, this research project was overt in nature. The researchers discussed the study with the Head of Department and also identified themselves to potential respondents via written correspondence. A major element in overt research is 'informed consent'. Through informed consent, potential informants are made aware that their participation is voluntary, confidential and that their anonymity will be maintained (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992). This information was conveyed in a letter that was sent to each potential respondent seeking their cooperation in the data collection process.

Selection of respondents

Contact with potential respondents was made by letter explaining the nature of the research and seeking their cooperation as respondents. Letters and accompanying questionnaires were sent to 470 past and currently enrolled Maori students who had taken, or were currently undertaking a programme of study in the identified department.

Respondents were selected from a broad range of criteria including:

- all students who identified as Maori on their enrolment from
- male and female
- all age ranges

- full time and part time students
- students enrolled in any programme offered in the department, including business, computing/information technology and tourism and travel programmes.

Whilst 470 questionnaires were distributed, only 56 were returned completed. Larsson and Helmstad (1985) comment in relation to small sized qualitative research work, “the small number of individuals ... make generalisations impossible from a statistical standpoint” (p. 7). Whilst recognising that responses to written questionnaires do not necessarily give sufficient evidence of conclusive or generalisable explanations for the lack of retention, this case study which looked at one specific department in a medium sized regional tertiary organisation, could be replicated in broader situations to identify further trends and generalisations.

Data collection

The primary method of data collection was a postal questionnaire, supplemented by document collection of available printed information. A postal questionnaire was selected as the primary method of data collection because of the potentially large number of respondents spread over a wide geographical spread.

The task of developing and implementing the questionnaire was accomplished following six key steps including: determining the questions; drafting the questionnaire items; sequencing the questions; designing the questionnaire; revising the instrument and developing a strategy for data collection and analysis. In addition, documents rather than records were analysed to aid understanding. Data about Maori student participation and attrition was acquired through available printed documents including annual reports, and attrition surveys. For this study, the most important use of the documents was to provide a sound understanding of historical trends and also to augment the information acquired via the questionnaire.

Data analysis

Merriam (1988) writes, “thinking about one’s data theorising is a step toward developing theory that explains some aspect of educational practice and allows one to draw inferences about that activity” (p. 141). Further, Taylor and Bogdan (1984), state that the goal of data analysis is to “come up with reasonable conclusions and generalisations based on a preponderance of the data” (p. 139). Speculation then, is the key component to contributing to theory in a qualitative study.

The analysis and interpretation of research data in this study sought to explain and describe the nature and variety of issues confronting Maori student participation and retention in the selected department, within a set of conceptually specified analytic categories (Huberman and Miles, 1994). The analytic categories were developed in two ways. First, the completed questionnaires were examined and analysed, and from this initial raw information emergent themes or categorisations were identified. Quotes were clustered together based on their similarity and separated from each other according to their incongruity. From the groupings of quotes, elemental meanings were extracted and criteria for each group established.

Second, the categorisations were defined in part through the literature review. The literature revealed a number of barriers to Maori student participation and retention

in post compulsory education. Consequently, the implications of the literature review were also considered when the analytical categorisations were established.

The form of analysis for this study was a quantifiable one initially, moving into a qualitative interpretation. The case study findings should not be treated as conclusive, but rather as a reflection of a perceived cultural situation that warrants further investigation. As Denzin and Lincoln (1994) note, when interpretations are arrived at, it is important to remember that “there is no interpretive truth ... there are multiple interpretive communities ...” (p. 15).

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The utilisation of one postal questionnaire may be considered a limitation of this study. Some may argue that insufficient information is gleaned in a single snap shot questionnaire to provide credibility of findings. The aim however, was to capture an initial response to questions asked within a limited timeframe.

Lack of face to face interviews, or focus group discussions may be seen as a further limitation in this study. Interviews or focus groups could have added further dimensions to the study and may have gleaned more in-depth responses. A future study could well explore similar questions with some focus groups to aid in triangulation of data collection.

The employ of non Maori researchers may be perceived by some as a limitation of the study. This research was conducted however, as an institutional initiative engaging non Maori researchers. Further research conducted from a kaupapa Maori perspective, could extend and enhance the understandings and benefits for Maori student retention and success.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings from this study reveal that Maori students in a provincial tertiary organisation are represented in lower level (levels 2–5), short courses (1–2 years). Greater numbers of Maori females (75%) are accessing these courses than Maori males (25%). Most of the Maori males participating in tertiary education in this study are in the 35–40 year old age bracket, whilst the greater number of Maori females are in the 29–34 year old age group.

The data indicate three key findings. First, in spite of the curricula being grounded in a dominant culture paradigm, Maori students are continuing to engage in academic study. Second, classroom pedagogy fails to support Maori students through discursive, co-constructive practices that embrace high expectations of students. Third, relationships are pivotal to Maori student success.

CURRICULAR TRANSFORMATION

The majority of respondents (89%) in this study were enrolled in business related courses. 11% of respondents were enrolled in tourism and travel programmes offered

in the particular department of study. Of the 56 responses received, half of the male respondents had returned for a second year of study and slightly more than half of the female respondents had enrolled in a second year of study. The data indicate that in spite of curricula being grounded in the dominant culture paradigm, Maori students are continuing to engage in academic study. Students are however, able to clearly articulate their dissatisfaction with a curriculum that fails to acknowledge a Maori epistemological perspective. The following citations highlight the need for Maori students to see their culture reflected in the curriculum:

I have found very little in the way of expression of Maori culture.

There was no cultural content [Maori] ... all western and American case studies.

It would have been excellent if Te Reo was added to the programme ... or a noho marae ... there wasn't any cultural understanding.

These examples highlight the perspective of those still at the margins (Smith, 1991) of their educational experience and the inherent barriers that such positioning creates. It is abundantly evident that academics have a responsibility to engage in curricula transformation that both acknowledges and embeds a Maori epistemology.

The power of enculturation into the dominant culture was exemplified in the comments of another respondent who evidenced a markedly different perspective. S/he said:

I consider favouritism to Maoris [sic] to be sick. We all as New Zealanders have the same opportunities in education from the day we start school at five years old. Some of us make use of our education system and others ignore the opportunity provided.

This example supports Abbott-Chapman and Edwards (1998) claims that students may be resistant to compensatory services or to being part of a targeted group. Clearly, for this respondent research focussing on Maori student retention and success was considered compensatory and perpetuating Maori marginalisation.

CLASSROOM PEDAGOGY

Teaching styles

Consistent with Bishop and Glynn's (1999) research supporting discursive teaching practices, the data indicate that the majority of respondents showed a strong preference toward tutorial, interactive group work and computer aided learning. This finding was consistent with the data that identified the most commonly utilised methods of teaching by staff as lectures, tutorials and interactive group work.

A second cluster of data indicated that for some students, individual research, group research, lectures, study groups, contract learning and audio visual teaching and learning were the preferred modes of learning and/or delivery. Again, this was generally consistent with the data that identified the teaching/learning methods staff most commonly used.

Case studies, field trips, noho marae (visits to Maori cultural centres), guest speakers, seminars and presentations, and role plays were identified as the least preferred teaching/learning methods by respondents. The data suggest that respondents expressed a preference for the teaching/learning style that they most commonly experienced in the classroom, with possibly little appreciation, understanding or valuing of what other pedagogical practices may offer.

Some respondents indicated that their success in study was hindered because of certain classroom pedagogical practices:

They [tutors] have no regard for Maori students.

I felt like I didn't understand a lot of the theory.

Too much information and not enough time to learn ... too rushed.

Expectations

The literature (Smith, 1991) highlights the importance of performance and quality not being compromised when working with diverse groups of students. Similarly, Bishop's (2001) research identifies high student expectations as a key to quality outcomes for Maori students. This study revealed that for some students, low expectations were a barrier to their success. For example, respondents said:

The sense that the required standards to be met at university were not expected at xxxx [this organisation]. There are lowered standards and less demanded excellence.

I have found the environment apathetic, particularly toward bi-cultural students such as myself.

For another student, perceived different expectations for Maori and Pakeha was a barrier. S/he said "I have found I have to do more than Pakeha students to achieve the same results".

Respondents' expectations of themselves also influenced their likelihood of success in this study. The following examples highlight the significance of self expectation on student success.

My sheer determination to see the papers through and endeavour to get as many modules as I could ...

Self discipline and personal desire to achieve good results ...

My own desire to further my education ... enjoyment of courses and support of teachers and of other students all helped me [succeed].

Relationships

It is commonsense that sound relationships between a teacher and student are pivotal to student engagement in the learning process. A key finding from this research is that whilst unequal power relationships (Bishop and Glynn, 1999) inhibit Maori student success, for example, one student said, "prejudice by a tutor made it difficult,"

positive teacher – student relationships serve to encourage retention and success, as evidenced in the comment, “the tutors ... were interested and developed relationships with students, meaning they were approachable and tolerant of student stresses and needs.” Clearly then, the establishment of positive, reciprocal relationships between students and teachers is fundamental for students to develop self efficacy and subsequent success.

As Abbott-Chapman and Edwards (1998), Hall *et al.* (2001) and Promnitz and Germain (1996) note, caring relationships are pivotal to student success. Students respond to teachers who see the person, not the *disability*. One respondent in this study pertinently exemplified this point commenting “the tutors gave good support and understanding of my disability.”

Positive relationships with classmates, employers and family/whanau also served as a support factor to student success in this study. The notion of positive power sharing relationships (Bishop and Glynn, 1999; Hill and Hawk, 2000) is a prerequisite to Maori student retention and success as the following respondents commented:

My classmates, tutors and whanau support helped me.

I would say support is given to students of my nationality.

I received wonderful help and support from my employer who I know was dedicated to helping me achieve my goals.

Student’s relationships with personnel in the organisation, classmates, employers, family/whanau and significant others, is unquestionably fundamental to their retention and success in a tertiary environment. The challenge lies in facilitating the discourse that will build organisational capacity in addressing this key to Maori student retention and success.

CONCLUSION

Whilst a certain degree of student attrition and/or lack of success is inevitable in any tertiary environment, the current levels evident in New Zealand statistics are unacceptable. This study highlights the need for a paradigm shift in current ways of thinking and practice about Maori student retention and success in mainstream organisations. The findings suggest a need for curricular transformation, discursive pedagogical practices and the development of reciprocal, power sharing relationships, if we are to begin to address the student retention and success issue. We suggest that a starting point lies in raising teacher capacity through professional development.

As we develop consciousness raising amongst teachers about issues such as curriculum co-construction, high student expectation, acknowledgment of prior knowledge, high cultural visibility, discursive classroom practices and equal power sharing relationships, we will begin to address the very issues that lie at the heart of Maori student retention and success. Indeed, what is urgent is a change in the discourse from a deficit focus on Maori student attrition and lack of success, to one of acknowledgment of the power of relationships and pedagogy in Maori success. As we

support teachers through professional development, to be reflective in and on their practice, we will build teachers capacity as agents of change and so begin to celebrate enhanced Maori student retention and success in our tertiary institutions.

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17. THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS IN JORDAN: A CASE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

The term “teacher education” was traditionally used to mean pre-service teacher preparation, before being a teacher and joining the teaching profession. This approach meant four years of preparation and forty years of teaching, without any development or change in the teacher’s knowledge or ways of dealing with students, or methods of teaching and evaluation.

On the contrary, teacher education now means a continuous process of professional growth beginning with undergraduate studies and culminating in retirement (Burke, 1987). The reason for this is that the needs of teachers change all the time, and these changes prompt different requirements that go in parallel with these changes.

It must be considered that a certificate in any field of study is not enough to prepare any person to be a teacher, because it is not the knowledge alone that makes somebody a teacher (Anderson, 1989), rather he/she must have other qualifications that can’t be achieved without rich school experiences and continuous development in order to accomplish the goals and purposes of education.

The process of teacher preparation is one of the most controversial issues among education theorists all over the world. Bruke (1987), for example, sees that it must include:

- A period of basic and pedagogical preparation;
- Successful induction into teaching positions and tasks throughout the career;
- Continuing personal and professional renewal in knowledge and teaching skills; and
- Redirection of tasks and expertise as the changeable society dictates.

The period of basic pedagogical preparation usually includes three main components: content, pedagogical and practical. Woolfolk (1989), on the other hand, indicated that there are two models of teacher preparation programs:

- The Integrative Model: This model begins by preparing students at the Bachelor’s level through studying courses in education, as well as other specialized courses, where students spent their time largely studying the content. Integrated programs may or may not include a full time field training at the BA level. Sometimes it might be followed by a fifth (and sometimes a sixth) year in which students concentrate on professional teacher education courses and at least one internship experience. This model is diversified within the programs it offers such as:
 - a) Programs during which the training period might be with charge or without;

- b) Students can obtain their BA degrees in 4 years as well as their MA at the 5th or 6th year. They may also obtain both degrees concurrently upon the completion of the program;
- c) Students may not obtain any degree upon graduation, but only a limited number of graduate credits.
- The Consecutive Model: Under this model, the academic preparation is first completed at the BA level, then the professional preparation follows after the attainment of the BA in the specialized field, where teachers spend one year or more in teaching preparation. This model is also quite diversified as there are different types of programs such as:
 - a) Programs in which the candidates obtain their MA degree upon completion, but they may also not obtain any academic degree and may only be considered ready for teaching;
 - b) Students may undertake additional courses in the academic stream, although this is rare;
 - c) The program may be primarily field work.

Both models have advantages and disadvantages; for the Integrative Model more time may be available for the familiarization with the teaching process. However, the Consecutive Model facilitates the process of transforming students who had never previously considered the teaching profession at the BA level to enter the profession after graduation, In addition, it provides teachers with more time to master the academic and education courses necessary to make them teach well.

On the other hand, many educators believe that moving into the consecutive Model is more costly and therefore discourages the economically disadvantaged students from joining the teaching profession, hence the chances of talented persons entering this profession are decreased. Moreover, it makes transferring the effect of learning to the classroom more difficult.

Anderson and Mitchener (1994), in their excellent review of research on science teacher education, mentioned that Feiman-Nissmer (1990) surveyed five conceptual orientations for teacher education:

- The academic orientation: This orientation focuses on transmitting knowledge and developing understanding. It emphasizes the subject-matter background of the teacher, and favors didactic instruction, teaching how to think, inquiry, and the structure of the discipline. In summary, it is oriented to developing a strong subject-matter background than to learning pedagogical skills.
- The Practical orientation: This orientation focuses on the skills of teaching. It tends to focus on the experience in the classroom as the source of learning to be a teacher. It is commonly associated with various forms of apprenticeship systems of teacher education. The risk here is that the novice teacher will imitate the experienced teacher without reflecting on what is experienced.
- Technological orientation: This orientation aims at producing teachers that can carry out the tasks of teaching with proficiency. It draws heavily on the results of research on effective teaching, and includes the competency-based teacher education

approach, which gained recognition a generation ago and is getting renewed attention in the current education reform efforts.

- The personal orientation: This orientation focuses on the teacher as a learner, and the teacher's own personal development is a central part of teacher preparation.
- The critical/social orientation: In this orientation, the teacher is one who works to remove social inequities and promote democratic values in the classroom. He also fosters group problem solving among students. There are various types of this orientation that are quite different, but they share the same purpose, that is: preparing teachers to change society.

It is clear from the preceding discussion that there are many approaches to teacher education used to prepare teachers and to develop their performance during their work as a teacher at schools, and there is no consensus among educators about which approach is better than others, although many contemporary proposals for the reform of teacher education suggest that the undergraduate education major should be eliminated, and a variety of models for graduate teacher education have been proposed in recent years by individuals and groups such as the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, 1983; The Holmes Group, 1986; and Carnegie Forum on Education and Economy, 1986 (Zeichner, 1989). But this movement was rejected by many other educators like Travers and Sacks (1987), Tom (1986) and Hawley (1986).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON TEACHER EDUCATION

There is a great deal of research in the field of teacher education in many countries and in different fields related to this field. One of the excellent reports published in the last few years is the report prepared by Wilson *et al.* (2001) from Michigan State University for the U.S Department of Education and the Office of Educational Research and Improvement. The researchers examined more than 300 published research reports and found that 57 of them met their criteria. They organized their summary of these reports around five major questions that address key aspects of teacher preparation:

What kind of subject matter preparation, and how much of it, do prospective teachers need? They found that the research shows a positive connection between teachers' preparation in their subject matter and their performance in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2000). But there is little evidence in the research about the kinds or amount of subject matter needed to prepare teachers effectively. Monk (1994) found that contrary to the prevalent belief that increasing academic preparation was always best, there are many indicators that teachers could possess the course content from many different sources, one of which is the academic preparation at the university. He also found that subject matter study by student teachers beyond four to six courses had little effect on the achievement of their students. Research suggests that there is a need to change teacher preparation in subject matter. But this does not mean having a major or studying more subject matter courses.

What kinds of pedagogical preparation, and how much of it, do prospective teachers need? They found that having courses in areas such as instructional methods, learning theories, foundations of education, and classroom management does matter, both for their effects on teaching practice, and for their ultimate impact on student achievement (Adams and Krockover, 1997; Grossman and Richert, 1988). One of these studies revealed that these courses are good predictors of teaching performance (Guyton and Farokhi, 1987). Ferguson and Womack (1993), on the other hand found that educational coursework accounted for 48% of the variance in teaching performance from the point of view of education supervisors, and 39% of the variance from the point of view of the subject matter supervisors. On the other hand, subject matter major explained 1% and 9% of the variance of the outcome variable as rated by the subject matter supervisors and education supervisors. Grossman (1989) found that new secondary English teachers who did not have teacher education are not able to make English school subjects accessible to their students. They used teaching strategies that they had experienced as learners at schools. Studies revealed that there is no consensus between educators on the content and arrangement of the academic courses in the programs of teacher preparation. One of the reasons for complications in this area is that there is no agreement on the meaning of educational preparation, and every institute of higher education differs from the others in the kind, number, and content of these courses.

What kind, timing, and amount of clinical training best equips prospective teachers for classroom practice? Both experienced and newly appointed teachers see clinical experience as a powerful element of teacher preparation. There are different clinical training periods found in higher education institutions. Some of them last eight weeks, while others last a complete year. Some occur early, and others are connected to specific university coursework. What constitutes "Field experience" varies from one institution to another, some of them are designed to develop skills in instruction and classroom management, and others are designed to give practical reality to concepts encountered in university coursework. Several studies found that the clinical training experiences are limited, disconnected from university coursework, and inconsistent. Prospective teachers face difficulties in implementing what they had learned at the university when they begin teaching (Borko *et al.*, 1992). One of the studies found that when the student teachers become overwhelmed with the challenges of learning to teach, they revert to the methods of teaching used at the schools in which they were taught (Eisenhart, *et al.*, 1991).

What policies and strategies have been used successfully by states, universities, school districts, and other organizations to improve and sustain the quality of prospective teacher education? Studies in this area were limited, but there was a significant difference in retention and career satisfaction favoring five-year program graduates (Andrew, 1990). Studies call for further research in this respect to link state or institutional policies with teacher preparation variables (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

What are the components and characteristics of high-quality alternative certification programs? Research in this area shows that the alternative route attracts a diverse pool of prospective teachers in terms of age and ethnicity (Guyton *et al.*, 1991). They also have a mixed record for attracting the best and brightest teachers (Shen, 1997), and there are higher percentages of alternatively certified teachers teaching

in urban settings or teaching minority children (Shen, 1997). The evaluation of performance of alternative and traditional routes produces mixed results (Hutton *et al.*, 1990), but many alternative route programs have high dropout rates (Stoddart, 1990).

The Education Commission of the States (ECS) published another report on teacher preparation research in The United States in 2003. This report addressed the following eight questions:

- To what extent does subject Knowledge contribute to the effectiveness of a teacher? It was found that there is moderate support for the importance of solid subject-matter knowledge, and it is not clear how much subject matter knowledge is important for teaching specific courses and grade levels.
- To what extent does pedagogical coursework contribute to teacher's effectiveness? There is also limited support for the conclusion that preparation in pedagogy can contribute significantly to effective teaching. This opens the door to the consideration of alternative preparation routes, which emphasize on-the-job training, and have a limited pre-service component.
- To what extent does high-quality field-based experience prior to certification contribute to a teacher's effectiveness? The research fails to provide the kind of evidence necessary to answer the question. Most of the influence of this experience is expressed as changes in beliefs and attitudes that have no proven correlation with teacher effectiveness. This also invites consideration of including alternative route programs in which pre-service field experience is minimal.
- Are there "Alternative route" programs that graduate high percentages of effective new teachers with average or higher-than-average rates of teacher retention? There is limited support for the conclusion that alternative programs produce teachers that are ultimately as effective as traditionally trained teachers. Research suggests that the following features are important to successful alternative route programs:
 - a) strong partnership between preparation programs and school districts,
 - b) good participant screening and selection process,
 - c) strong supervision and mentoring for participants during their teaching,
 - d) solid curriculum that includes coursework in classroom basics and teaching methods, and
 - e) as much training and coursework as possible prior to the assignment of participants to full-time teaching.
- Are there any teacher preparation strategies that are likely to increase the effectiveness of new teachers in hard-to-staff or low-performing schools? Research suggests that the efforts to train prospective teachers in these schools can be beneficial.
- Is setting more-stringent teacher preparation program entrance requirements, or conducting more-selective screening of program candidates, likely to ensure that teachers will be more effective? Two studies found correlation between the strength of teacher's academic success and direct or indirect success in teaching. There were no studies found that addressed the impact of more-selective screening of candidates for teacher preparation programs.
- Does the accreditation of teacher preparation programs contribute significantly to the likelihood that their graduates will be effective and will remain in the classroom?

The research studies on this issue are limited, and there is no implication for policy can be drawn from the available research.

- Do institutional warranties for new teachers contribute to the likelihood that recent graduates of those institutions will be effective? This issue was not a subject of any appreciable research, thus, it is difficult to ascertain anything about it.

In Jordan, many studies were conducted to evaluate pre-service and in-service teacher education programs. El-sheikh (1994), for instance, conducted a study to evaluate teacher certification programs in the Jordanian universities. He used a questionnaire to detect the views of student teachers, and faculty members about the programs. He also attended some classes of both groups and found that the aims of such programs are not stated clearly, the relative weights of the academic and pedagogical components differ from one university to another, and the teaching methods used by faculty members are mainly theoretical. The graduates of the programs are skilful in class management, and implementing audio-visual aids and textbooks. But they are not skilled in evaluating their students.

Al-Smadi (1999) also conducted a study aimed at evaluating classroom teacher preparation at the Jordanian University. Questionnaires were used to detect the views of student teachers, school principals and faculty members about this program. He found that the aims of this program are not stated clearly. The program's content is not suitable for the school curricula, and the teaching methods used by the faculty members are mainly theoretical. Finally, the graduates of the programs are not skilled in evaluating their students.

A third study was conducted by Aghbar and Shboul (1996) to investigate the role of teacher preparation programs in developing school performance from the point of view of the graduate students and school principals. They found that studying Islamic Education, Arabic Language, Social Studies, Mathematics, Science, Physical Education, Art Education, and Music is beneficial for the students. The students also benefited from courses such as: Methods of Teaching Islamic Education, Arabic and Social Studies. Measurement and Evaluation, Class Management, Educational Psychology, Curricula and Teaching Methods, Philosophy of Education and Developmental Psychology are also beneficial. The graduates were skilful in planning for teaching, Class management, implementing audiovisual aids, pupils' evaluation and using textbooks.

On the other hand, there are many studies that tried to evaluate programs of in-service teacher training in Jordan. Al-Nahar *et al.* (1992), for example, conducted an evaluation study for training programs launched by the Ministry of Education. The most important outcomes of the training program as perceived by trainees are sharing experience and concerns with other colleagues and the acquisition of new teaching methods. Trainers were judged to be inefficient. Lecturing and discussion methods were frequently used in training.

The results of other studies that evaluated the training programs (Wshah, 1991; Al-Ahmad, 1993; Al-Olwan, 1994; Al-Kailani, 1995; Abo-Shhab, 1995; Hamadneh, 1996; Al-Hardan, 1997; Abo-Alsheikh, 1999) can be summarized as follows:

- Training for developing thinking and catering for individual differences was more effective for Mathematics teachers than Arabic and English teachers.

- Mathematics teachers showed real progress in planning, implementing audio-visual aids, class management, stimulating pupils' motivation, and pupils' evaluation competencies. Teachers of Arabic, Social Studies and Physical Education showed some progress in these competencies.
- Aims of the training programs were not obvious.
- Training methods were generally theoretical and the trainers need more training to master the training methods.
- There is a weak relationship between the training materials and the trainees' needs.
- Training centers lack the necessary facilities and equipment needed for training.
- Timing of training is not appropriate for the trainees because the training sessions are held in the end-of-week vacation.

NEW TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher as a Reflective Professional

Both Carnegie Commission and Holms Group reports proposed that teachers must be competent and able to make judgments on behalf of their students. In order to do that, the Holms Group (1986) recommended that they must possess deep understanding of children, the subjects they teach, the nature of learning and schooling, and the world around them. The Carnegie commission (1986) added to these recommendations that teachers must be able to learn all the time. Both groups seem to suggest the model of teacher as a "Reflective" or "Thoughtful" professional who has the following qualities:

1. Engaged continuously in the process of learning.
2. Decision maker.
3. His/her thoughts, knowledge, judgments and decisions have a profound effect on his/her way of teaching and on his/her students' achievement.

Reflective teachers reflect on and analyze the effects of their teaching and apply the results of these reflections to their future plans and actions (Clark and Peterson, 1986). They have professional knowledge in a wide variety of areas, including pedagogy and content as well as skills in planning, evaluating and making decisions interactively during teaching (Peterson and Comeaux, 1989).

Metacognitive skills, such as weighing consequences, predicting outcomes, planning alternatives, and examining one's own beliefs, theories, and assumptions characterize reflective teachers who become reflective gradually, beginning with declarative knowledge (knowing what), then develop procedural knowledge (knowing how), and finally acquire the metacognitive knowledge (Anderson, 1983).

Shulman (1987), on the other hand, defined seven domains of teachers' knowledge as follows:

- Content knowledge, or understanding of the subject matter.
- General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization, that appears to transcend subject matter.
- Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as "tools of the trade" for teachers.

- Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding.
- Knowledge of learners and their characteristics.
- Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from the working of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the characters of communities and cultures.
- Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds.

Each of Shulman's domains may be crossed with three kinds of knowledge (declarative, procedural and metacognitive knowledge) ending with a 7×3 matrix representing 21 categories of professional knowledge required for the reflective teacher (Peterson and Comeaux, 1989).

The teacher as learner

One of the primary requirements for teachers is to have sufficient knowledge to pass on to students. The knowledge that teachers acquire during their study at the university is not enough to make them successful teachers. Procedural knowledge and appropriate application of it is also necessary for teachers to be successful. These kinds of knowledge were traditionally suitable enough for teachers in the past, but now it is necessary for them to be life-long learners. There are many reasons for adopting this slogan:

- The unlimited and fast changes happening all around teachers that make it necessary for them to understand these changes and be able to reflect this understanding in the teaching process.
- The changes in educational psychology that occur from time to time and give new directions for the teaching process at schools which oblige teachers to up-to-date knowledge regarding these changes.
- Technological changes like computers and the Internet, which began to be the main media for teaching and learning, and the teacher needs to master these tools to be effective.
- General changes in education like those happening in student evaluation and testing, national standards, and policy changes.
- Changes in the subject matter that the teacher teaches at school.

Such changes were part of the reason that made the Carnegie commission (1986) recommend that teachers must be able to learn all the time. Based on this recommendation, many programs of in-service teacher development were conducted all over the world. Zemelman *et al.* (1994) found that six key conditions and approaches help teachers grow and change. The first three focus on the external structural conditions in the school, and the second three on the internal consciousness of individual teachers. These are:

- Teachers need regular time together to talk, compare ideas, and cooperate with each other because they work alone in the classroom.

- Teachers must collaborate with each other on tasks that have concrete results in the classrooms.
- School leaders must support changes that let teachers feel safe to experiment.
- There is a need to support and strengthen teacher's latent professionalism by viewing teaching strategies as more than private preferences but strategies to be compared, analyzed, and adapted to the teacher's own style, by regarding the school staff more as a community and less as a hierarchy, and by seeking improvement because there is always more to learn.
- Teacher development is more effective if in-service programs use concrete experiential activities, rather than starting with educational philosophy or research data.
- After experiencing new classroom strategies, teachers need to reflect, to analyze, and to compare in order to build knowledge and understanding.

The teacher as researcher

Action research is at the center of many innovations in teacher certification and professional development (Shirly, 2002). Teachers as researchers observe and analyze their plans and actions and their subsequent impact on the students they teach. By understanding both their own and the students' classroom behaviors, teachers as researchers make informed decisions about what to change and what not to change. They solve their own problems, link prior knowledge to new information, and accept failures as learning experiences. Teachers as researchers ask questions and systematically find answers. They observe and monitor themselves and their students while participating in the teaching and learning process. They question instructional practices and student outcomes.

The major goal of this approach to teacher education is the preparation of teacher researchers with increased understanding of the school, the knowledge base of teaching, the students they teach, and themselves as practitioners in a profession.

There are several models for anchoring the teacher education curriculum with the concept of teacher as researcher. One of the programs that introduced students to teaching with an inquiry-oriented method of analyzing social inequities and injustices in existing school settings was conducted through the techniques of ethnographic research. Questionnaires, classroom maps, and sociograms were used for collecting data. As the student teachers saw patterns emerge from the data collected, they began to interpret their findings using the theory from assigned readings to explore interpretations of these patterns.

Another teacher preparation program introduced student teachers to the "teacher as researcher" approach in a first semester educational sociology course. The course provided students with a grounded approach for observing, analyzing, and decision-making.

Each example describes pre-service students conducting research projects as core elements of their teacher preparation programs as they were learning to teach.

In each example, however, pre-service students viewed themselves, their students, and the schools placed within the context of inquiry, knowledge-based decision-making, and change. (Anonymous, 1997).

In some teacher preparation programs, courses already exist that include collecting and manipulating data. Some of these courses focus on testing and measuring an individual's performance; others emphasize data collection strategies as requisite information-gathering tools upon which to base subsequent education decisions before entering the schools. Data collection may take the form of counting the number of times an hour a student engages in an inappropriate behavior or the ratio of teacher talk to student talk in verbal interactions. Teachers may use these same recording strategies to determine the percentage of students per day in an entire class engaging in appropriate or inappropriate behavior. If teachers want to improve class behavior, they could identify and implement a management strategy or a motivational system. After a few weeks of observing daily behavior patterns, the teachers could evaluate the strategy's success. Similar measurement strategies could be useful in a number of classrooms within a school.

PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE AND TEACHER PREPARATION

In 1986 Shulman described Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) as the way of representing and formulating the subject that makes it comprehensible for others (Shulman, 1986). In 1987 he listed it as one of seven knowledge bases for teaching. These are: content Knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curricular knowledge, Knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational context, and knowledge of philosophical and historical aims of education (Gess-Newsome, 2001).

Since then, PCK became a commonly accepted construct in education literature, and it has been used as a major organizing construct in the literature on teachers' knowledge (Borko and Putman, 1995).

As the construct of PCK was developed, refined, and examined, it also acted as a stimulus for the development and evaluation of teacher preparation programs. Gess-Newsome and Lederman (2001) presented three-teacher preparation programs based on PCK: The elementary science teacher preparation program conducted by Zembal-Saul, Starr and Krajcik, the secondary science and mathematics teacher preparation program conducted by Niess and Scolz, and the secondary science teacher preparation program conducted by Mason. The three programs did not reveal the importance of integration of subject matter and pedagogy.

Gess-Newsome (2001) proposed a continuum of teacher knowledge. On one extreme of this continuum there is no PCK, and teacher knowledge can be explained by the intersection of three domains: Subject matter, Pedagogy and Context, and teaching builds on it as the act of integrating knowledge across these three domains. She called it the integrative model. At the other extreme PCK is the transformation of the three aforementioned domains into a unique form. She called it the transformative model. The first model is similar to what is happening when we mix several ingredients together to get a new substance, but with each ingredient still having its initial properties and distinguishable from other ingredients, while the second model

is similar to what happens in a compound when the mixed ingredients disappear and can't be recognized as a result of their reaction.

Each of these models has a different effect on teacher education. Preparing teachers using the integrative model needs deep and flexibly organized understandings in subject matter, pedagogy, and context in addition to the tools necessary to integrate them. Research on the implementation of this model did not produce the desired results. Support for the transformative model is based on the assumption that teaching knowledge in a purposefully integrated manner will develop the skills and knowledge necessary for student teachers to be effective.

INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

There are different types of teacher preparation programs internationally. Table 17.1 shows various types of programs for the initial preparation of teachers in the United States (Feistritzer, 1999).

Table 17.1 shows that 12% of the institutions of teacher preparation have a 2-year community college program leading to a 4-year university program; 78% have 4-year programs leading to certification to teach; 45% have 4–5 year programs leading to certification to teach; 11% have 5-years programs leading to certification to teach; 47% have post-baccalaureate programs leading to certification to teach but not graduate with a degree; and 43% have post-baccalaureate programs leading to certification to teach and a graduate degree.

As for the applicability of the content of these programs, there is no consensus among educators in this field. Some say it is not the duration but the courses undertaken by the prospective teachers that have the greatest influence on their ability to teach (Allen, 2003). On the other hand, there is a consensus between educators that the number of hours taught by the student teachers is hardly sufficient to judge their teaching capacity. In fact, they should continue learning as long as they work as teachers, and not stop at what they studied at the university (National Science Education Standards, 1996). Furthermore, the National Science Education Standards in the US refers to the fact that professional progression for science teachers requires integrated knowledge in science, learning, and teaching methods; and the application

TABLE 17.1 Types of teacher programs in the USA

2-year community college program a leading to a 4-year university program	4-year university program	4–5 year university program	Higher university program	Higher studies program leading to a diploma without an academic degree	Higher studies program granting diploma and a scientific degree
12.2%	77.7%	44.4%	11.4%	47.4%	43%

of this knowledge in real life situations. These are the proper components for the preparation of science teachers, and one might say this applies even to teachers of other disciplines as well.

The Center for Education Information in the US indicates that there are four primary components for programs of teacher preparation regardless of the level of teacher preparation. These components are:

- General Courses.
- Academic Courses.
- Educational Courses.
- Teaching Practice.

Table 17.2 shows the required hours for each of the teacher preparation levels.

It can be seen from Table 17.2 that the postgraduate programs require 20 credit hours less than undergraduate programs. In both types of program the greatest proportion of credit hours go to general courses, then to academic courses, education courses, and to clinical (teaching practice) courses.

The number of weeks students spend in clinical practice differs from one university to another, with the highest number being around 14–16 weeks. Table 17.3 shows the number of weeks spent by teaching students in teaching practice, and the percentages of candidates in each group (Feistritzer, 1999).

It can be seen from Table 17.3 that the number of weeks of clinical practice varies from less than 6 weeks to more than 25 weeks, but the highest percentage of students experience 15–16 weeks in schools.

In Scotland, the overall aim of courses of initial teacher education is to prepare students to become competent and thoughtful practitioners who are committed to high quality teaching for all pupils. This will be accomplished through the acquisition of the competences that encompass knowledge, understanding, critical thinking and practical skills. The initial teacher education in Scotland is provided by teacher education institutes, in partnership with schools and education authorities. The duration of teacher preparation there is (4) academic years of full time study or equivalent part-time study. Courses prepared for this purpose contain independent studies, professional studies, subject studies and school experience. They are delivered using a variety of teaching and learning approaches, including independent study, information technology and fieldwork. School experience provides students with the skills, understanding and content being developed in the courses, especially, skills in class

TABLE 17.2 Distribution of credit hours for programs of teacher preparation in the USA

	General studies			Major			Professional studies			Clinical			Total		
	*P	M	S	P	M	S	P	M	S	P	M	S	P	M	S
Bachelor's	51	51	52	37	38	39	31	28	24	15	14	14	134	131	129
Post-graduate	42	42	42	33	32	32	32	28	26	23	12	12	115	112	109

* P: Primary M: middle S: Secondary

TABLE 17.3 Weeks spent by teaching students in classrooms

	Average	Less than 6%	7–8%	9–10%	11–12%	13–14%	15–16%	17–24%	More than 25
Bachelors	14.5	0	0.3	11	18.4	21.2	39.5	6.1	3.1
Post graduate	15.6	0	1.3	11.5	16.8	16.3	36.7	8.3	8.8

management and curriculum matters, which are best developed in schools. At least 30 weeks must be devoted to school experience. More than half of it occurs in the final two years of the program (Hopkins, 1989).

Ongoing teacher education in Scotland puts heavy emphasis on school-focused activities and on school-focused development, providing opportunities for:

- The modeling and demonstration of new techniques.
- Concrete suggestions on how to apply new teaching techniques.
- Practice in non-evaluative environments.
- The provision of immediate classroom feedback.

In Germany, teaching preparation extends to 5 years, of which theoretical studies take usually 3 years inclusive of academic and educational courses, and the last two years are spent in field training. However, that training isn't continuous but is distributed over the course, some during theoretical studies and some after their completion. After the completion of this training, students sit for an exam, which qualifies them to enter the teaching profession. The content of the theoretical program at university includes:

- academic content;
- discipline teaching content;
- general education content; and
- educational psychology.

The student is required to specialize in two academic disciplines, one as a major and the other as a minor, the two combined comprise of 40% of all the teaching hours (ISB, 1993).

In Bavaria, one of the German states, there is an academy of in-service teacher training that coordinates the in-service teacher training of all teachers in Bavaria. It works in collaboration with the State Institute of School Education and Educational Research and School Supervisory Service. The Academy carries out the in-service training at the centralized level. This supplemented by activities at regional and local levels. Every two years an interdisciplinary program is developed that considers current education and social questions and encourages their discussion in the classroom.

In Taiwan, there are normal universities, which prepare secondary teachers, teachers' colleges, which prepare elementary and pre-school teachers, and general universities, which prepare both kinds of teachers. Teacher preparation courses include general courses, education professional courses, and specialized courses. All graduates who have completed the aforementioned courses are supposed to fulfill the internship

requirement in primary or secondary schools or kindergartens for one year. There are many new trends in teacher preparation in Taiwan:

- *Upgrading of teacher education to the graduate level*
- *Integration of the added practicum with teacher preparation courses*
- *Establishment of a teacher career ladder and differential staff system*
- *Establishment of a teacher certificate renewal system through further studies*
- *Shifting emphasis from teaching how to teach to how to learn*
- *Establishing a new teacher education system for the computer age*

(Wa *et al.*, 2001)

In Jordan, there are two main streams of teacher preparation program: class teacher, for those who will teach one of the first three grades all subjects, and field-teacher, for those who will teach pupils in one discipline area for grades 4–10. The two streams have the same contents (general courses, academic courses, educational courses, and teaching practice), but a significant difference in the number of credit hours for each of these components is found from one university to the other. Table 17.4 shows the number of credit hours required for class teachers related to each of these components in the public Jordanian universities (Hassan, 2001).

Table 17.4 shows that there are big differences between the four components of class teacher programs in these universities. The average reveals that the education component is predominant followed by the academic component. This is not the case in the United States in which the general studies are predominant (see Table 17.2).

In the field-teacher program, graduates are educated to be teachers in the following fields: Arabic Language, English Language, Mathematics, Science, Islamic Education, Social Studies, Arts, and Vocational Education.

Parallel to these programs, the Ministry of Education and public universities have established a program to promote the qualifications of all teachers holding a

TABLE 17.4 Distribution of credit hours of classroom teacher programs in Jordanian public universities

University	General courses	Academic courses	Educational courses	Teaching practice	Total
Jordan	36	51	39	12	126
Hashemite	33	51	48	6	132
Yarmouk	21	72	39	6	132
Mu'tah	31	39	60	9	130
Al-Albait	36	15	75	3	126
Al-Husein	27	39	60	6	126
Average	30.7	44.5	53.5	7	128.7

Note: Teaching practice courses are included within the education courses and it has been separated here for purposes of clarity.

community college diploma to enable them to obtain the BA degree. The teachers study about (80) credit hours, with minimum general courses, less educational and academic courses, and take no teaching practice, because they are teachers already. However, this program has faced much criticism and it has been generally felt that it held no real merit for increasing instructional performance instead only helping to increase the salaries of the graduates. The ministry, in cooperation with the Human Resource Development Center in Jordan, has conducted several evaluative studies of this program.

El-Sheikh's (1994) study "Impact Evaluation of the Higher Certification Program at the Public Universities in Jordan" investigated the extent to which the in-service higher certification program has been successful in building up teaching competence of basic education teachers from the point of view of the teachers, the principals, and the faculty members. Classroom sessions (lectures) were observed, and interviews with school principals and faculty members were carried out. The findings showed an improvement in graduates' capabilities to use examples, instructional aids, different educational methods as well as accepting students' views. Graduates also displayed mastery of the content of the program in Arabic language, Islamic Studies and Social Studies. However, mastery of content was rated weak to medium in Mathematics, Physical Education, Sciences, Arts, Vocational Education, and Music. In general, the academic courses in the program were not tailored to teachers' academic needs in schools, but were there fulfill the needs of the programs being undertaken at university. In fact, some courses taken at university were unsuited to resolving school needs and were therefore useless. Some of these programs suffered from the absence of a common understanding among the stakeholders of the aims and objectives of the program. The theoretical part of the program was predominant and it emphasized the written test, which evaluates memorization of the matter rather than understanding it.

Hassan's (2001) study, "In-service Teacher preparation and certification, and training in Jordan" used similar methodology to Al-Sheikh. The findings were consistent with the findings of most of the previous evaluation studies in this field (El-Sheikh, 1994; Aghbar and Shboul, 1996; Al-Khawaldeh, 1996; El-sheikh *et al.*, 1996; Al-Smadi, 1999). Specifically, these programs indicated that:

The in-service training program contributed significantly to the achievement of the education reform's goals in the areas of preparing teachers to handle new curricula and textbooks.

The two programs of certification and training contributed to the improvement of teaching practices of teachers. Although most of the interviewed officials felt that the programs had little impact on teacher's work. School principals, on the other hand, believed that the programs had significant impact on teacher's work.

Both programs suffered from the lack of clearly stated objectives, lack of balance between factual and practical knowledge with dominance for factual knowledge, and insufficient use of evaluation strategies.

Training materials were not related to the actual training needs of teachers. Teacher preparation programs had a sufficient common core of educational courses both in class teacher and field teacher programs. But they lack coherence and balance with regard to the academic part in the field teacher program. There is much variance in

courses at universities. Generally, this part is relevant and appropriate to Jordanian school curricula and subject of study in most cases.

In light of these two studies, the Higher Education Council in Jordan ceased the field-teacher program, and moved in the direction of using the Consecutive Model, which relies on preparing teachers academically in a particular discipline first, then qualifying them through another one-year program of (24–30) credit hours, which qualifies them to teach.

Consequently, problems arose between educators and policy/decision makers; including, that the two studies were conducted on in-service teachers who are required to take about (80) credit hours in addition to their community college qualification, while, pre-service students completed (132) credit hours. Furthermore, the quality of in-service students tends to be inferior to those at the pre-service level, based on their GPA in the “Tawjihi” exam (end of the secondary stage exam). Moreover, the in-service program didn’t include field practice and therefore have no impact on already acquired poor teaching habits. In addition, the motivation for both groups is quite different as the former focuses on increasing their salary while the latter is more concerned about attaining a quality teaching credential for the purpose of pursuing a career in teaching.

In the light of the above arguments, it is necessary to investigate the effect of the Council’s decision by comparing the following groups for teacher performance: Holders of a BA academic degree, holders of a field-teacher BA degree, and holders of a BA academic degree in addition to a diploma in education after the BA. In this regard, the current study has been conducted to answer the following questions:

- Are there statistically significant differences among the 3 groups of teachers from their viewpoint of their teaching effectiveness?
- Are there statistically significant differences among the 3 groups of teachers from the students’ viewpoint of their teaching effectiveness?
- Are there statistically significant differences among the 3 groups of teachers from the school principals’ viewpoint of their teaching effectiveness?

IMPORTANCE OF THE CURRENT STUDY

The importance of this study lies in answering a set of questions related to the process of preparing pre-service teachers and determining the best methods that can be used within the Jordanian environment to fulfill this task. Also it can save the large sums of money that the government will spend if the results reveal that the integrative model of teacher preparation is better than the consecutive model. These savings will come through shortening the period of study to 4 years rather than 5. Furthermore, this will provide a model to be followed in decision making methodology in the context of educational policy and can be employed in lieu of generally misleading impressions to reach dependable, credible findings.

TABLE 17.5 Teacher distribution according to their qualifications

	BA	BA + Diploma in education	Field teacher	Other	Total
Zarqa	2534	582	846	1044	5006
Al-Badia Al-Shamalia	817	32	258	343	1450
Total	3351	614	1104	1387	6456

METHODOLOGY

Population and sample of the study

The study included all teachers in schools in the Zarqa and Al-Badia Al-Shamalia Directorates of Education in Jordan. There were 6456 male and female teachers that were distributed as shown in Table 17.5

For the purpose of this study, 30 male and female schools were randomly selected from these directorates. Opinions of all school principals, 3 teachers in each school from each teacher group, as well as 10 students for each teacher were surveyed. The sample group was: 30 school principals, 90 teachers and 900 students.

Instrumentation

Three primary instruments were constructed for this study:

Student teacher questionnaire: It consisted of 5 questions related to basic areas of a teacher's tasks:

- A The degree to which the students benefit from the teacher.
- B The degree to which the teacher mastered the course content.
- C The teacher's use of suitable teaching methods.
- D The teacher's methods in dealing with students and classroom problems (academic and discipline).
- E The teacher's evaluation of students.

Teacher questionnaire: It consisted of the last 4 issues on the student questionnaire, together with one that changed from the degree to which the students benefit from the teacher, to the teacher's ability to plan his/her teaching. It was considered that students were able to judge the quantity of benefit obtained from the teacher but weren't able to judge his/her ability to plan. On the other hand, teachers and school principals were more able to judge the teacher's ability to plan his/her teaching, but weren't able to judge the degree to which the students benefited from him.

School Principal questionnaire: Principals were asked to answer the same questions which the teachers were given.

Respondents were asked to answer these questions on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from excellent to very weak. Each level of response was given a certain number as follows: excellent (5), very good (4), good (3), weak (2), very weak (1). The respondents were asked to assign one of these numbers for each criterion.

Validity and reliability of the instruments

In order to achieve the validity criterion for these instruments, the education literature was reviewed to determine teachers' effectiveness (El-Sheikh, 1994; Hassan, 2001; National Middle School Association, 2001; Al-Musawi, 2003). Then five criteria were selected to judge teacher's performance:

- Teacher's ability to plan for teaching.
- Teacher's mastery of the course content.
- Teacher's use of varied teaching methods.
- Teacher's methods in dealing with students and classroom problems (academic and discipline).
- Teacher's evaluation methods.

These areas were presented to 6 experts in teacher education at Al-Isra Private University and 3 faculty members at the Hashemite University. They all agreed on using these criteria to judge teacher performance, but 4 of them suggested a change in the first criterion about "planning to teach" by replacing it with the first criterion for students, which is "the degree to which students benefit from their teachers". This suggestion was taken up. These procedures were sufficient to consider these instruments valid in measuring teachers' effectiveness.

As for the reliability of these instruments, they were first applied to pilot samples, which consisted of 90 male and female students, 30 male and female teachers, and 10 male and female school principals. Two weeks later, the questionnaires were applied again on the same sample and the reliability coefficient of the 3 questionnaires were computed and found to be: 82%, 87%, and 84% for students, teachers, and school principals' questionnaires respectively. These values are considered adequate for the purposes of the study.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The means, and standard deviations were computed for teachers' self-assessments for each question separately and for all questions together, and are shown in Table 17.6.

Table 17.6 shows that teachers' self-assessment was generally high. It exceeded 4 (very good) in 4 out of 5 questions, and it was lower than this only in the 4th question, which is related to the teacher's methods in dealing with classroom problems. In order to know the significant differences among the means of teachers' self-assessments in the 5 areas in general, a Multivariate analysis of variance was conducted and it was found that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha < 0.05$) among the three groups of teachers in their self-assessments in the five areas. In order to determine in which areas these differences are, Univariate F-tests were conducted and it was found that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha < 0.05$) among the teachers self-assessments in general and in the planning for teaching, using varied appropriate teaching methods, and dealing with students and classroom problems. Scheffe's test was used for post-hoc comparisons and it was found that teachers from the second group (BA-academic) did not excel in any of the 5 areas on

TABLE 17.6 Means and standard deviations of the teachers' self assessment of their performance

	1		2		3		Total	
	M	SD	M	SF	M	SD	M	SD
Q1	4.74	0.046	4.56	0.01	4.25	0.11	4.559	0.27
Q2	4.68	0.014	4.55	0.15	4.58	0.01	4.600	0.25
Q3	4.17	0.068	3.95	0.27	4.28	0.06	4.134	0.39
Q4	3.81	0.230	3.52	0.27	4.11	0.03	3.813	0.48
Q5	4.17	0.084	4.14	0.26	4.21	0.15	4.179	0.40
Total	21.58	1.255	20.42	2.56	21.56	1.29	21.185	1.40

the instrument. However, the first group (field teachers) excelled over the second group in the areas of planning for teaching and dealing with students and classroom problems, and over the third group (BA and Diploma in education) in the planning for teaching. On the other hand, the third group excelled over the first group in the area of dealing with students and classroom problems and over the second group in the areas of using varied teaching methods, and dealing with students and classroom problems (not in planning). As for the overall mean, the first and third group teachers excelled over the second group teachers. However, there were no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha < 0.05$) between the first and third groups of teachers in their self-assessment.

The second question of the study related to students' assessment of teachers, and means and standard deviations were computed for each question separately and for the questions as a whole, as shown in Table 17.7

Table 17.7 shows that students' assessment of teachers was generally high, as it exceeded 4 (very good) in all areas, which is higher than the teachers' assessment of themselves. In order to know the significant differences among the means of the students' assessments of their teachers in the 5 areas as a whole, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted and it was found that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in the students' assessment of teachers among the 3 groups in the 5 areas included in the instrument as a whole. In order to determine in which areas these differences are, Univariate F-test was conducted and it was found that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha < 0.05$) among the means of the students' assessment of teachers in general, and in the areas of using appropriate teaching methods, dealing with students and classroom problems, and students' evaluation. Scheffe's test was used for post-hoc comparisons and it was found that teachers from the second group did not excel in any of the five areas of the instrument as seen by the students. Meanwhile the first group excelled over the second group in 3 areas: The use of appropriate teaching methods, dealing with students and classroom problems, and students' evaluation. On the other hand, the third group didn't excel over the first group in any area, but excelled over the second group in the area of dealing with students and classroom problems. As for the overall mean, the first and third group teachers excelled over the second group teachers.

TABLE 17.7 Means and standard deviations of the students' assessment of teachers' performance

	1		2		3		Total	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SF	M	SD
Q1	4.51	0.78	4.46	0.84	4.55	0.75	4.51	0.79
Q2	4.78	0.56	4.71	0.62	4.76	0.57	4.75	0.58
Q3	4.55	0.77	4.34	0.91	4.44	0.66	4.45	0.79
Q4	4.53	0.88	4.06	1.13	4.37	0.83	4.32	0.98
Q5	4.61	0.66	4.47	0.86	4.53	0.69	4.54	0.75
Total	23.99	2.54	22.04	2.57	22.67	2.66	22.57	2.62

TABLE 17.8 Means and standard deviations of the school principals' assessment of teachers performance

	1		2		3		Total	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Q1	4.41	0.40	4.10	0.78	4.60	0.32	4.39	0.73
Q2	4.20	0.51	4.57	0.39	4.60	0.25	4.46	0.64
Q3	4.23	0.46	3.63	0.31	4.17	0.56	4.01	0.71
Q4	4.30	0.42	4.20	0.65	4.43	0.25	4.31	0.66
Q5	4.27	0.48	3.97	0.52	4.13	0.53	4.12	0.72
Total	21.47	6.40	20.48	5.15	21.93	3.10	21.29	2.27

To answer the third question of the study that is related to the school principals' assessment of teachers means and standard deviations were computed for each question separately and for the question, as shown in Table 17.8

Table 17.8 shows that school principals' assessment of teachers was generally high, as it exceeded 4 (Very good) in all areas, but was lower than 4 for BA holders in question 3 which is related to the use of appropriate teaching methods. To determine the significant difference among the means of school principals' assessments of teachers in the 5 areas as a whole, Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted and it was found that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in the school principals' assessment of teachers among the 3 groups of teachers in the five areas included in the instrument as a whole. In order to determine in which areas these differences are, Univariate F-test was conducted and it was found that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha < 0.05$) among the means of the school principals' assessment of teachers in general, and in the areas of planning for teaching, the mastery of course content and using appropriate teaching methods Scheffe's test was used for post-hoc comparisons and it was found that teachers from the second group did not excel in any of the five areas of the instrument as seen by the principals. The third group excelled over the second group in 2 areas: The use of appropriate teaching methods and students' evaluation and over the first group in the area of dealing with students and classroom problems. On the

other hand, the first group didn't excel over the third group in any area, but excelled over the second group in the area of students' evaluation. As for the overall mean, the first and third group teachers excelled over the second group teachers.

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

This study aimed at comparing three different methods of teacher preparation. It compared teachers who hold BA degrees (field teachers) with teachers who hold BA in their major and teachers who hold an education diploma certificate with their BA degree. To achieve this end, the opinions of teachers, their students, and their school principals were surveyed.

The findings showed agreement at times and disagreement at others when assessing the 3 groups of teachers in different areas by teachers, students, and school principals. Concerning the benefit gained by students from teachers, students didn't distinguish between one group of teachers and another, as they didn't see there were clear differences among the 3 groups of teachers in this area.

Concerning the planning for teaching, only the teachers and the school principals were asked about this. The students weren't asked because they didn't have access to the teachers' preparation booklets nor to the methods used by them. The field teachers (first group) assessed themselves higher than the teachers in the other two groups. The teachers from the third group (BA and educational diploma) assessed themselves higher than the teachers in the second group (BA-academic). The school principals were in agreement with the third group teachers that they were more capable of planning for teaching than the second group teachers, but didn't agree with the first group teachers. This is in accordance with the previous findings that school principals believe that third group teachers are the best. However, the teachers and the students weren't in agreement with them about that.

Concerning the area of mastery of content, there were no statistically significant differences among teachers in the three groups from the viewpoint of teachers and students, but school principals indicated that the third group teachers (BA with educational diploma) excelled over the first group teachers (Field teacher) at the level of ($\alpha < 0.05$). This finding calls for further research about the reasons that made the school principals the only group to have this opinion, while neither the teachers nor their students saw it to be true?

In the area of using the appropriate teaching methods, the students and school principals alike were in agreement that the first group teachers excelled over the second group teachers. Teachers and school principals were in agreement that teachers of the third group excelled over the second group teachers.

Concerning dealing with students and classroom problems, students and teachers were in agreement that teachers in the first and third groups excelled over the second group teachers. However, the students indicated that the first group teachers excelled over the third group teachers. Meanwhile teachers indicated that the third group teachers excelled over the first group teachers. School principals didn't assess any group more highly than the other.

Concerning the ability to evaluate students appropriately, students were the only ones to indicate that first group teachers excelled over the second group teachers. Meanwhile, there were no statistically significant differences in teachers' self-assessments or the school principals' assessment of them.

If we were to take all these factors collectively for students, teachers, and school principals, we would deduce that students and teachers see that teachers of the first and third group teachers are in fact superior to the second group teachers. As for school principals, they believe that the third group teachers are more competent than teachers in the first and second groups. The findings didn't indicate that the first or third group teachers are more capable than the others from the viewpoint of students, teachers, or school principals.

One may conclude from these findings that there was similarity between the first and third groups of teachers, but they excel over the second group teachers in general. These results can be understood in light of the nature of preparation each group undertook. Teachers of the second group were not familiar with the educational ideas related to teaching methods, student evaluation, or dealing with students and classroom problems since the only source of experience for them is on-the-job experiences. It would seem this is insufficient to prepare teachers in various areas. Hence, the superiority of the first and third groups is due to the fact that they were prepared academically as well as professionally.

In spite of the fact that the third group teachers were assessed to have mastered the academic content more than the first group teachers, this finding has not been verified because if true, teachers of the second group are supposed to have excelled over the first group teachers also because they have the same academic level as the third group. This superiority was not substantiated by teachers themselves or by students. This may have been caused by the Halo effect which made school principals assess the third group higher in this area because they hold a higher academic degree than the other two groups. Thus, the issue of superiority of teachers who hold an educational diploma with their BA degree over those who hold field teacher BA degrees stays unresolved, and needs to be studied further in order to be clarified.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

In the light of the above findings, the following recommendations can be suggested:

There is a need to continue the field teacher program, but with some modifications of its components to include a greater percentage of academic courses (not less than 60% of the credit hours). The content to be included in the courses could be agreed upon by the faculty members in the faculty of education and other specialized faculties that offer such courses. A part of the program should be developed for studying the course content that the student teacher will be teaching after graduation.

The findings of this study show clearly that the programs where educational and academic courses are taught simultaneously excelled over the programs that include academic courses alone followed by educational programs. But the findings did not indicate which of the Integrative or the Consecutive models is more preferred.

The conclusion from this is that there is need for further research to determine which model is preferred in order to help decision-makers to implement instructional programs.

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18. MENTORING AS THE KEY TO A
SUCCESSFUL STUDENT TEACHING PRACTICUM:
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

ABSTRACT

This paper will argue for the importance of the mentoring process in pre-service training and addresses specific questions as to the roles and expectations of the key figures in the student teaching practicum in order to ensure successful outcomes. To gain an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of different programs, a cross country analysis has been performed, which includes models from Canada, the United States, and Hong Kong. Utilizing document analysis and the author's narrative inquiry of her experience as a university facilitator, this paper demonstrates that the essence of a successful teaching practicum is effective mentor-student teacher relationships and the forging of a close association between schools and the academic world. A conceptual model for an ideal student teaching program is presented and discussed, centering on the key players: school coordinator, mentor teacher, field experience associate and university facilitators working closely together with common goals for the student teacher. The conclusions reached should help promote a greater awareness for the significance of an effectively prepared and supported mentoring program for the Bachelor of Education level.

Rationale for the Paper

In order for teachers to be sufficiently prepared for the challenges of the teaching profession, it is vital that student teachers receive comprehensive pre-service training. According to Vonk (1993) the teaching profession starts with pre-service training, induction, and continued in-service training. How to better prepare student teachers for the world of the classroom is important, as it is this stage that determines induction success and teacher retention. It is considered that "the performance in student teaching is the single most important criterion for predicting success in inservice [*sic*] teachers" (Day and Brightwell, 1978 as cited in Weller, 1983, p. 213). Student teaching is considered the pivotal component of a teacher education program. The practicum or student teaching is "when theory meets practice and idealism meets reality" (Fallin and Royse, 2000, para. 2). Field experience is perhaps the most vital element in the education of student teachers. Through their practicum, student teachers learn and reflect upon the roles and responsibilities of being a teacher (University of Alberta, 2004b).

A synthesis of literature and research regarding student teaching practicum programs in varying subject areas is included in order to provide information on what

makes a successful teacher practicum. A comparative analysis of post-secondary teacher education practica is made in three jurisdictions: Canada, the United States, and the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR). The University of Alberta's (Canada) student teacher program is used as a reference point. The purpose is to identify the strengths and weaknesses of different approaches or models, and to utilize research and current programs to strengthen both student teacher practica and schools-university relationships. The mentoring process is evaluated using the following guiding questions: (1) What strategies do successful mentor teachers use to approach student teachers? (2) How can field experience become a success for student teachers? (3) How do different models outline the roles and responsibilities of key players? (4) Which qualities should be encouraged in student teachers? (5) How can communication between the university and the teaching profession improve?

A hybrid model for the student teaching program is outlined. This model deals with major responsibilities for the mentor teacher who is considered to be an exemplary teacher, with a university supervisor specializing in a curriculum area and one with a general pedagogy background (or the combination of the two criteria), as well as a school coordinator. Furthermore, an adequate time frame should be allowed for the practicum in order to enable the student teacher to gain the requisite skills.

THREE PRACTICUM PROGRAMS

The University of Alberta Field Experience Program

The University of Alberta's 2003–2004 student teaching program uses the Collaborative Schools Model (CSM), with the principles of the "whole school experience" and of "reflective practice" (University of Alberta, 2004a). The reasoning behind this approach is:

The whole school experience for field experiences is seen as a means through which we can better prepare Student Teachers to meet the challenges of the profession and is a movement away from the traditional apprenticeship model of teacher education. Such a focus provides opportunities for Student Teachers to visit a number of classrooms within the school and observe a variety of teaching styles and techniques. A whole school experience, therefore, allows Student Teachers and school staff to extend the field experience beyond the walls of the individual classroom.

(University of Alberta, 2004a,

"The Whole School Experience" section, para. 1)

The other guiding principle is reflective practice, characterized as "the ability to stand apart from the self: where students (and faculty) are asked to critically examine their actions and the context of those actions" (Berlak and Berlak, 1981 as cited in University of Alberta, 2004a). To enable student teachers to reflect on their

responsibilities and performance, they are required to keep a Professional Reflective Notebook, issues from which are discussed with the mentor teacher and university facilitator. In addition, student teachers are encouraged to develop both Professional Growth Plans and Professional Teaching Portfolios.

Duties and responsibilities for field placement are provided to school personnel in handbooks, and all information is available on the field experiences web site. Arrangements for student teaching placements are made by the Undergraduate Student Services office, specifically the field experience associate. The University of Alberta field experience model incorporates four vital professional components in the education of the student teacher. These are mentor teachers, school coordinators, university facilitators, and field experience associates. Together, these four players are the key to the CSM model (University of Alberta, 2004d).

The mentor teacher provides front line advice, support, and feedback to the student teacher. Mentors assist student teachers in developing classroom management skills, gaining familiarity with teaching resources, lesson planning, and reflective practice. Mentors are tasked with providing guidance and modeling professional behaviours through the development of supportive relationships, and are responsible for holding the key evaluatory role.

The duties of the school coordinator include identifying qualified mentor teachers amongst school professional staff and providing support to mentor and student teachers. Acting as a bridge between the school and university, school coordinators are charged with the practical and professional arrangements for student teachers within the host school. Coordinators, acting at the school level, ensure that student teachers are integrated into the school community and are involved with required school projects and activities.

The university facilitator's role is that of liaison between the university and school. Facilitators ensure that all components of the field experience model are functioning as prescribed. University facilitators play important roles as mediators and enable open communication between all parties. Frequent dialogue with mentor and student teachers is crucial to providing a range of supportive activities. These buttress the efforts of the mentor teacher in the areas of reflection, classroom skills, feedback, and evaluation. Facilitators are required to observe student teachers and provide feedback. As of 2004–2005, facilitators are obliged to visit with student and mentor teachers on an individual basis each week. Weekly meetings with the entire student teaching cohort are also vital elements in the field experience model where reflections are shared and observations discussed. Further, facilitators meet the field experience associate once every two weeks at one of the facilitator's assigned schools to discuss concerns and questions. Facilitators undertake informal evaluations of student teachers unless a formal evaluation is deemed necessary (University of Alberta, 2004e). Communication within the student teaching cohort is [A1]stressed as a means of ensuring a supportive and collaborative atmosphere.

The field experience associate is the university's coordinator who provides leadership for facilitators. The associate's task is to ensure that the different levels of the field experience model are working in harmony with each other. Working closely

with the university facilitator, associates are available to address concerns of all parties and maintain close communication with schools. Associates also play a vital function in developing and implementing field experience policies. Field experience associates, as of the 2004–2005 academic year, are advised to make regular visits to each school in their zone.

At the University of Alberta there are four routes to the Bachelor of Education degree, which include two professional terms. In Alberta, a Bachelor of Education degree is usually required to teach in schools under provincial jurisdiction. The following four routes are available: a 1 + 3 program, where students enter the Faculty of Education in the second year; 2 + 2, where students transfer from affiliated colleges; a 5-year joint degree program; and a 2-year after-degree program (Undergraduate Academic Affairs Council, 2004).¹

The Bachelor of Education program offers various education core courses where students can specialize in secondary or elementary education. The first student teaching program is the Introductory Professional Term (IPT) lasting five weeks. Week one of IPT is an orientation and participation week. Between weeks two and five, teaching time is increased to 50% and students are required to teach three to four connected lessons in a curriculum area. The focus for student teaching is “Planning instruction, teaching lessons, managing the classroom, accommodating students with special needs, and assessing student progress” in both the courses and the Field Experience (University of Alberta, 2004c, para. 2). Reflective journals and self-evaluation are crucial elements in both IPT and APT practicum placements.

The Advanced Professional Term (APT) lasts nine weeks. During this term the student teachers gradually increase their teaching time up to 80%. They are required to plan a lesson and teach units of study. Areas to master include classroom management, planning, individualized teaching, different teaching methodologies, and assessment of student learning. APT students enrolled in the special education minor are also asked to plan and conduct a remedial assistance program with an individual special needs student. This involves approximately eight to ten, one-on-one sessions.

The Professional Development School Model

The Professional Development School (PDS) Model for teaching is one that is found in the United States. A definition used by the Fairleigh Dickinson University (n.d.) of a PDS School is:

an educational institution exemplifying a learning community which provides a productive and rewarding professional environment for staff, an effective learning environment for students, and a working partnership with parents and community in support of learning for all members of the school community. (p. 4)

The analogy of medical school teaching hospitals is often used with the PDS field experience (Darling-Hammond, 1989, Goodlad, 1990; Holmes, 1990; Kennedy, 1990; Zimpher, 1990 as cited in Abdal-Haqq, 1991). The supporters of PDS make the case for the field experience component of teacher education to be conducted in the

second year of the graduate level program, with pre-service teachers placed within schools as part of a professional requirement. Proponents argue for the inclusion of exceptional leading teachers as part of the instructional staff at selected schools. These core teachers act in the same manner as in Collaborative pre-service teacher education, and are one of the keystones of the PDS Model (Huling, 1998). Goals of PDS are to strengthen pre-service and in-service teacher education, to improve theory, and to serve as structural archetypes for positive and effective cooperation between the teaching profession and administration. Various models are found in the United States, such as the Dispersion Model, and the Partner School Model. The PDS Model creates the best synergy between schools and the university (Georgia College and State University, 2004).

Sandholtz and Wasserman (2001) conducted a study comparing traditional methods to the PDS Model. It was found that both ranked highly, however cooperating teachers and student teachers had enhancement ideas for the traditional program that matched the descriptors of the PDS program. One point suggested is that the practicum be longer. Traditional teacher programs provided insufficient time and teaching experience. They “oversimplified the realities of teaching” and left beginning teachers thinking they were inadequately qualified (Lanier and Little, 1986, Griffin, 1989; Bullough, 1990; as cited in Sandholtz and Wasserman, 2001, p. 54). The PDS Model requires graduate programs to have either a year-long rigorous student teaching or an internship (Cobb, 1999). Students in both the PDS and the traditional program are in their fifth-year programs that have a bachelor’s degree and have passed exams (Sandholtz and Wasserman, 2001). The PDS program includes six extra weeks in the practicum. Notable differences exist in the two programs. According to the PDS program, the student teachers arrive at schools at the start of the school year, observe at the beginning of the year, and they are involved with end of year activities. Teachers noted the benefit of starting when pupils do, so that student teachers witness how the classroom climate is set at the start of the year in areas such as classroom management and routines. They also partake in staff activities such as staff meetings, and parent meetings. The Sandholtz and Wasserman study found that the length of the PDS program provides pre-service teachers “time to experience and work through common problems while they have a strong support system” (p. 59). Although the traditional programs overlap with the PDS one, and students take the same required courses as the traditional program, the traditional program offers courses before the practicum lasting eight to 16 weeks, with little or no “staged entry into teaching responsibilities” (p. 62).

The Professional Development School model is moving towards shared supervision by university supervisors and cooperating teachers, with the latter taking on greater observation and assessment responsibilities and the former becoming more of an integral part of the school structure and professional staff (Melser, 2004). Furthermore, the PDS program, as compared to the traditional model, provides for expanded university supervisor and cooperating teacher duties and support for the pre-service teacher, with incremental increase of student teaching responsibilities (Sandholtz and Wasserman, 2001). First, the university supervisor operates mainly

out of the school, enabling more student teacher observation, communication with mentor teachers, courses and seminars. The seminars focus on problem areas. In the PDS Model, the student teachers are observed weekly by the university and teacher supervisors with multiple types of assessment. The same study highlighted that even mentor teachers gained from increased university facilitator presence. Second, the cooperating teacher's role is expanded and the duties intensified under the PDS Model. They participate in instruction, direct the practicum, and collaborate in team conferences. Importantly, cooperative teachers confer with the trainees. Third, it is the cooperating teachers who arrange for the student teachers to work and observe other mentors, thereby providing extra support. Although the Sandholtz and Wasserman study found problems with both models, the above points were considered to be beneficial to the student teacher as it allowed them to be better equipped to deal with their future role.

Hong Kong models

The Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIED) and the Hong Kong University (HKU) models are described in this study, with some elements from the Northcote College of Education (NCE), and the Hong Kong Technical Teachers' College (TTC). Student teachers at the HKIED begin their first field experience after half a year of study at the institute (Tang, 2002). Initial school visits for observation and discussion are followed by a period of school attachment for familiarization in classroom and school activities and assisting mentor teachers. Student teachers are then assigned periods of block practice, upon which their assessment is based, in which they conduct classes, plan units and lessons, and become an integral part of the day-to-day events and extra-curricular activities of the school (Hong Kong Institute of Education, 2002). The administration of the practicum at HKIED consists of different levels. Overall guidance is the responsibility of the Center for Development of School Partnership and Field Experience. Management is headed by the dean of the school, then the program leader, followed by the program coordinator. Field experience is the duty of the field experience coordinator while academic departments provide the supervisory staff. A handbook is available for all participants in the field experience (teachers, student teachers, supervisors, and schools). Supervision is standardized with a handbook and reporting form.

The role of the field experience coordinator is to put into practice the policies and guidelines set out by the Center for Development of School Partnership and Field Experience. Field experience coordinators organize working groups, which help set out policies and procedures. Coordination of field experience amongst the parties involved (schools, academic departments, student and mentor teachers) is primarily the responsibility of the field experience coordinator. In essence, field experience coordinators "... bridge theory with practice in field experience" (Fung, 2002, p. 6).

Field experience coordinators at the school level assign supervisors to the student teachers. Supervisors usually assign student teachers according to their subject speciality. At NCE and TTE, distinct supervisors are involved (Yeung and Watkins, 2000). The teaching practice supervisors (electives) are concerned with evaluating

the abilities of student teachers in subject oriented teaching skills and knowledge while teaching practice supervisors (methodology) are primarily concerned with assessing the student teacher's general teaching abilities and aptitudes. HKIED also utilized three supervisors, two subject supervisors and a general practicum supervisor (Tang, 2002). Supervisors provide liaison with the school administration and staff, support student teachers, monitor learning objectives, teaching strategies, and learning outcomes, offer advice, engage in pre- and post-lesson conferences, and, ultimately, assess and determine "the student teacher's readiness and suitability to enter the profession" (HKIED, 2002, p. 9). Four supervisory visits, two for each subject, are incorporated into the supervision schedule. Supervisors complete a required Report Assessment form and grade the student. According to Fung's survey (2000), the supervisor's role in supervision depends on context as "... for final year students the supervisor is more important as gatekeeper while for new students more for formative development, that means to give advice for development and give assessment for gate-keeping" (p. 7). The two subject supervisors and the practicum supervisor, who is in charge of general teaching supervision, supervise the student. For supervisors, the most important factors in rating teaching aptitude are: subject knowledge, enthusiasm, communications skills, teaching methodologies, and classroom management. At NCE/TTC supervisors provide guidance as well as assessment for student teachers (Yeung and Watkins, 2000). Supervision, in general, is seen as an important part in providing direction for teacher development as well as in assessment and offering feedback (Fung, 2000).

Form teachers in the NCE/TTC practicum are "... under no obligations to provide supervision or guidance to their students" (Yeung and Watkins, 2000, p. 232). The level of assistance from form teachers depends on the unique characteristics of each school involved in the practicum. This is perhaps the greatest weakness of this model. As Yeung and Watkins (2000) argue, the experience of expert teachers is invaluable and can be of great benefit to students. At HKIED, link teachers are nominated at each participating school. These teachers are the link between the institute and the school. They ensure the smooth running of the field experience from the school end. They also have the ability to request mentor training from the institute (HKIED, 2002, p. 10). Supporting teachers are the front line support and guidance for student teachers. They observe student teachers at least once a week, offer pre- and post-lesson discussion, and are involved in tripartite conferences with HKIED supervisors and student teachers. Supporting teachers are not required to take part in formal assessment. The HKIED School of Early Childhood Education's Institute Preschool Professional Interface (IPPI) scheme involves the use of school principals as mentors to student teachers but they are not in charge of assessment (Yip, 2003).

An alternate Hong Kong model is that provided by the Faculty of Education, Hong Kong University (HKU). The overarching framework is that of School-University Partnerships. Goals include: to create a "reciprocal, collaborative and developing relationship with schools"; to encourage a "professional learning community"; to foster school enhancement through the formation of school mentors; and to "provide a holistic experience to student-teachers during their teaching practicum" with the

aide of teacher mentors and university tutors (University of Hong Kong, 2004a, para. 1).

This partnership model's key players are the school principal or school practicum coordinator, teacher mentors, and university tutors (University of Hong Kong, 2004b). The school administration provides preliminary groundwork by selecting experienced teachers to become mentor teachers, and possibly by providing an orientation session to student teachers. The principal or school coordinator provides direction to the student teachers. Teacher mentors and university tutors are in charge of providing mentoring and supervisory support, the former involving the attributes of becoming a teacher, the latter dealing with specific classroom issues through questioning teaching plans as they relate to learning outcomes (University of Hong Kong, 2004b).

Teacher mentors have various mentor and manager roles. They provide student teachers with opportunities for professional growth, they observe with comments, they act as "role models, counsellors, critical friends, instructors, and managers" (University of Hong Kong, 2004b, para. 4). Learning occasions are made possible by the teacher mentors by allowing student teachers to observe their own teaching through guided pre- and post-lesson discussions where the lesson plan focus, objectives, learning activities, and outcomes are elaborated. This method follows the Tyler rationale of curriculum planning (see Tyler, 1975). Mentor teachers also make arrangements for student teachers to observe other teachers in a variety of settings and get them involved in activities such as meetings. Both teacher mentors and university tutors observe lessons and provide "tripartite conferences" or individual verbal and or written feedback to the student teacher that they utilize in their reflection (University of Hong Kong, 2004b, para. 4). Teacher mentors observe student teacher lessons at least once a week, with the purposes of providing "formative and constructive feedback" for further student teacher growth (University of Hong Kong, 2004b, para. 15). Furthermore, lesson observations enable student teachers to critically reflect based on the pre-lesson conference. When problems arise, teacher mentors provide guidance and counselling.

University tutors are involved in the practicum process. Their main roles are: to facilitate student teacher professional learning; to make supervisory visits to assist the learning of teaching and to assess student teachers; to work with mentor teachers in gaining a holistic understanding of the student teacher's progress; to conference; to liaise with schools for forming a professional relationship; and to hold mentoring workshops.

A PERSONAL NARRATIVE: BEING A
UNIVERSITY FACILITATOR AND
LEARNED EXPERIENCES

During the fall and winter semester, the author was a University Facilitator at the University of Alberta. Her responsibilities revolved around seven schools and 25 student teachers enrolled in IPT or APT in different subject areas. The majority of

student teachers had good or excellent evaluations. The most successful ones appeared to have some of the following attributes: strong planners and organizers, hard-working, enthusiastic, open-minded (Willems *et al.*, 1986), and innovative.

One mentor teacher who had an APT student teacher (social studies major) with tremendous growth as a professional and an excellent evaluation told the author that they debriefed every day after school for over an hour, deliberating over future plans and reflection on lessons. Both the teacher and student had innovative ideas that seemed to enrich the lessons of the pre-service teacher. For example, during the first observation, the teaching methodology was lecture. The student teacher asked for ideas from the author. Because she also majored in social studies, she could provide him with resources and strategies. The University of Alberta requires that students employ various pedagogical methodologies in their teaching. That is why the student tried structured group presentations, review games, and a teacher-led activity that included paired work. This same student teacher reflected on classroom management and was not afraid to shut down activities such as the game when the noise level rose. He used a backup plan instead. His personal qualities and hard work and planning helped him significantly.

Another APT student teacher (physical education major) also received a high evaluation. Although the supervision was outside my subject area, the author learned much about what makes an exemplary physical education teacher from this pre-service teacher. First, she was positive in attitude and towards her students. In her reflections and actions, she showed care towards each pupil. One school student who was not physically inclined was encouraged privately by the student teacher. Second, she reflected carefully, sharing her thoughts and reflective journal. At the beginning, the student teacher was concerned with classroom management, but later she was able to address these issues by using ideas from her observations and by reflecting. For example, she used planned ignoring with a pupil who was formerly suspended, and it was effective. Third, this student teacher was thorough in her research and planning. The physical education teachers shared their resources, which were utilized, as were outside manuals and the Internet. The plans led to a well structured volleyball lesson with attendance, warm-up, skill demonstration, paired activity, group activity, game, and closure (skill review). Lessons were varied. Fourth, this student teacher volunteered for activities such as intramurals. Fifth, she had good rapport with her supervisors, peers, and charges. A team approach added to the student teacher's performance. In addition, her mentor teacher was a strong role model and was supportive.

In the same department (physical education), one mentor teacher had three very strong IPT students. Two worked together and were commended by the vice-principal. The mentor teacher had much to do with their success, for the mentor-student teacher relationship is symbiotic, promoting the development of both (Healy and Welchert, 1990 as cited in Vonk, 1993). The mentor teacher had high standards, he asked the students to get involved during observation week with attendance, warm-up, and other activities, as suggested by Willems *et al.* (1986). After structured teaching, the student teachers were given continuous constructive feedback on how to improve. The mentor

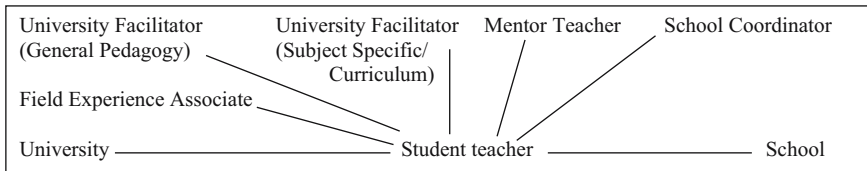


Figure 18.1. Successful pre-service teaching depends on school-university partnerships.

teacher ensured that lesson planning was complete. The mentor's enthusiasm and knowledge of the subject were evident, as was his coherent teaching philosophy.

There was one school coordinator whose qualities put her in the model category. She was a vice-principal who taught part-time, and was available to carry on her school co-ordinator role beyond the norm. She recruited the mentor teachers. At the beginning of the term, she met the student teachers and informed them that they could seek her advice. She was always available for meetings with the university facilitator, which opened up the lines of communication, and participated in scheduling as well as observations of other teachers. In addition the school coordinator monitored the student teachers' progress by observing all the pre-service teachers for some part of a lesson.

A HYBRID MODEL

Elements of different programs are included in a hybrid model. As indicated by the Sandholtz and Wasserman (2001) research, the Professional Development School (PDS) Model for teaching has many advantages. Therefore, many features of this teacher pre-service program should be included in the model. One element is extending existing teaching practicum time past the traditional time frame. The average practicum time in the U.S. is 14.5 weeks (Roth and Swail, 2000). Hynes-Dusel's (1999) interviews of cooperating teachers revealed that they believed that the three month field placements were too brief, and should be extended to a year. Another feature to add from the PDS Model would be problem-solving seminars (Sandholtz and Wasserman, 2001). Elements from the PDS and CSM providing the whole school experience are also helpful in building a model with increased experience and support. The Field Experience Coordinator would have duties identical to the CSM.

It is beneficial for student teachers to have both a subject area and a general university supervisor, much like at HKIED with two subject supervisors and the practicum supervisor. This would especially be true for the secondary school level, where subject specializations are required. Although two supervisors are more costly and labour intensive, the overarching goal is preparing the best calibre of teacher education program. The author, in her role of university supervisor, saw the limits of supervision outside her specialization. After conferencing with a music student teacher she realized that it was hard to provide suggestions. A music specialist would have been more effective in offering specific ideas, though the mentor teacher that is matched up with the student teacher's major or minor ideally provides such support.

Ongoing interaction between faculty members and teachers in professional development contexts provides a reciprocal benefit. This growth in knowledge can be fostered with formal opportunities for teachers to collaborate with faculty on shared research, presentations, and publications like at Fairleigh Dickinson University (2000). Partnerships would be created to solve a lack of reciprocal communication between university channels and innovative pre-service or in-service teachers. This is important in order to nullify critiques that university personnel are detached from innovations in the field or realities. One study (Cornell, 2003) found that even though most liaisons were practitioners, the opinion existed that the liaisons and the university were not versed in classroom methodologies, nor were the university activities useful. In another study, cooperating teachers felt that student teachers were ill-prepared for their practica and that the university taught the “ideal,” not “reality” (Hynes-Dusel, 1999).

Studies in Hong Kong have supported the following major forms of school-university partnerships (Day *et al.*, 2004): (a) at Hong Kong University, the School University Partnership Evaluation Research Project (SUPER) revealed the benefits to student teachers and teacher development as a whole of collaboration between secondary schools and the university; (b) the School-University Partnership Scheme (SUPS), and (c) the Unified Professional Development Project (UPDP) and “Partnership Schools”, where teacher fellows were offered mentorship programs. The major benefits of school-university partnerships, as Day *et al.* noted, include developing both student teachers and mentor teachers, and the system as a whole by facilitating collaboration among teachers and between teachers and administrators. These examples give weight to increased school-university partnerships.

The Importance of the Mentor Teacher

In a hybrid model, the role of the mentor teachers is central to the success of the practicum. Cooperating teachers are considered to have the most effect on student teachers during their field experience (Yee, 1969; Seperson and Joyce, 1973; Karmos and Jacko, 1977; Alper and Retish, 1980; Copeland, 1980; Dispoto, 1980; Koehler, 1984, as cited in Mitchell, 1993). Mentoring goes beyond the passing on of technical skills and information (Brown and McIntyre, 1988 as cited in Vonk, 1993). Mentors assist the beginning teacher to develop their “own flexible repertory of teaching and classroom management skills, to develop a proper insight in their pupils’ learning processes and a perspective on him/herself as a teacher” (p. 8). It is also the cooperating teacher’s responsibility to introduce the student teacher to the school’s requirements and regulations. Weasmer and Woods (2003) report that most cooperative teachers participating in their study perceived their role as that of “models, mentors, and guides” (p. 175). The successful teaching practicum must have at its core a well-developed and successful mentor-student teacher relationship as studies indicate, “the availability of the mentor to sustain regular, ongoing, and continuous support was essential” (Yip, 2003, p. 40). Guidelines for the mentor teacher include (Fallin and Royse, 2000): awareness of the university’s program; finding policies and suggestions; providing formative evaluation; offering constructive criticism and encouragement.

Additional guiding principles support the student teacher (Willems *et al.*, 1986): informing pupils about the additional teacher; creating space and providing resources; discussing philosophies of teaching practice (example teaching methodology); building open lines of communication with all the key players; handing over responsibility gradually and with support; co-planning and giving demonstrations of various teaching strategies.

Mentor teachers take on major responsibilities in adding to the development of pre-service teachers, and therefore should ideally be exemplary teachers and should be competent in the following areas: a cooperative approach; planning, “interpersonal relations and conference skills;” evaluation methods; pedagogical techniques; classroom management; and “professional role modeling” (Weller, 1983, p. 213). Criteria for mentors are based primarily on their reputation as capable teachers with a coherent philosophy of teaching, with achievements *inter alia*: content mastery, curriculum planning, and professional development (Feiman-Nemser, 1996; Tillman, 2000 as cited in Mullinix, 2002).

University facilitators

The role of the university facilitator is that of liaison, communicator, evaluator, and resource person for the student teacher. In some models, facilitators arrange for the placements (Willems *et al.*, 1986). In most models, university facilitators are the “go between” for the university and the school. They act as personnel that conference before, during, and after the practicum, with all the key players and with the student teachers. After observing lessons, and during student teacher meetings with the mentor teachers, they offer advice based on research and teaching experience. If the role of the university facilitator is to go beyond that of advisor, they should evaluate jointly with the mentor teacher. In a hybrid model, the curriculum university facilitators would not just engage in subject-specific support, but also content and subject-specific critique. However, certain characteristics define a strong student teacher, and that is why a general university facilitator has a role in pedagogical theory assistance and observation. In sum, “the university supervisor’s main task is to open and maintain communication between parties” (Willems *et al.* (1986)). It is important to provide handbooks to the school and to observe regularly. In addition, the university facilitator should have an introductory conference with the student teacher and the mentor teacher to set goals, (Willems *et al.*, 1986) responsibilities (Fallin and Royse, 2000), and communicate the university mandated incremental teaching load. Specific expectations should also be included.

School coordinator

The hybrid model selects a vice-principal to recruit mentor teachers, and to oversee the workings of the placements, as well as acting as an additional resource. Vice-principals who teach part-time are perfect candidates for the position. If teachers want to be school coordinators, they should be provided with some release time to fulfill their obligations. School coordinator roles include (Willems *et al.*, 1986): meeting with the university supervisor to review the student teacher’s assignment; duties and responsibilities;

reviewing the student teacher's plan; meeting the mentor teacher to provide support; and observing the student teacher at least once.

Field experience associate

Under the hybrid model, the field experience associate is the liaison between the university, the school, and the relevant personnel within them. In effect, they would communicate, conference, answer queries, or deal with situations before they arise. However, beyond ensuring the continued growth of the student teachers, they would also, through formal and informal means, foster research collaboration between schools and universities as well as providing opportunities for professional development.

ESSENTIALS TO INCLUDE IN THE PRACTICUM

Certain requirements, other than teaching, administrative or supervisory roles should be included. One component is mandatory lesson planning for all classes (Yeung and Watkins, 2000). As one mentor teacher elucidated, student teaching is the time when teachers should learn how to write them. It is also a requirement in some jurisdictions. Moreover, as one school coordinator explained, administrators can use them, in case of absence, to track work completed. Lesson plan templates could be provided, but the format of the plan left up to the student teacher. However, some elements of lesson planning should be required, such as an instructional objective to tie to the curriculum, which provides the rationale for the content of the lesson and sets the course of action. A second requirement should be unit planning. This sets the groundwork for later unit and yearly planning. It is advisable to put these in as guidelines for all the key players to follow. Third, reflective journaling would inform observation and action. The importance of reflection has gained much currency in recent years (Adler, 1991). Schön (1987) maintained that positivism and a technical-scientific method of teacher education have not provided the necessary skills needed by teachers. Rather, an approach he likened to "professional artistry" is more productive and better able to equip teachers to meet the demands of the profession. A core ingredient of such an approach is reflection. Reflection can be both long term and analytical (reflection-on-action) and immediate, resolving a challenge at the moment of teaching (reflection-in-action) (McDuffie, 2001).

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The practicum is a key component of teacher education. There are future implications for teacher success and retention. Head teachers report that newly qualified teachers with field-based program backgrounds operate like teachers with two or three years of experience (Huling, 1998). Moreover, a Texas study (Fleener, 1998 as cited in Huling, 1998) revealed that the attrition rate was lower for those with longer practica in their teacher programs than traditional campus-centred program graduates. In a hybrid model, the time frame would be over 15 weeks and includes important parts of the

school year. The hybrid model combines aspects from different types of student teacher programs with an emphasis on mentor-student teacher relationships, as well as curriculum, general university facilitators, school coordinators, and field experience associates. The reciprocity of communication should give university personnel insight into the practical teaching requirements, and mentor teachers and school coordinators knowledge of the new innovations they need to keep current. A close and continuous relationship between the practicum's cast and the university will ensure that the practicum experience stays fresh and relevant.

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19. PREPARING PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS AND
MEETING THE DIVERSITY CHALLENGE
THROUGH STRUCTURED SERVICE-LEARNING
AND FIELD EXPERIENCES IN URBAN SCHOOLS

Historically, university teacher education programs have been at the forefront in preparation of teachers in the United States. However, traditionally-designed schools and colleges of education have been under scrutiny in recent years for not adequately preparing students to teach. A majority of graduates of schools of education believe that traditional teacher preparation programs left them ill-prepared for the challenges and rigors of the classroom. According to data from the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), fewer than 36 percent of teachers feel “very well prepared” to implement curriculum and performance standards (NCES, 1999). This lack of preparation is, in part, due to lack of structured field experiences and lack of such experiences in diverse settings. Twenty years ago, *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) articulated goals for improving education in the United States. This report addressed goals for schools and students, but did not address higher education or the quality of teachers. Only recently has the national emphasis on teacher quality begun to address the need for diverse field experiences.

The concern that teachers are not well-prepared is echoed by new teachers and national studies: “The most talented prospective teachers are discouraged by the lack of rigor of the courses offered in many schools of education” (NCES, 1999, p. 8). One reason schools and colleges of education have not successfully prepared teachers has been due to the traditional focus of the curriculum. This in part has led to the development of alternative certification programs. Pre-service teachers have had few opportunities to work with “real live” students in “real live” schools. Pre-service teachers read about schools, study cases, view videos of students and hear lectures about schools. They write multiple-page lesson plans whose application proves irrelevant in the real world of a school. They spend only a small percentage of their university career in schools learning from classroom teachers and working with students. Traditionally, such contact time comes relatively late in training, in the form of a semester’s experience in a practicum or “practice teaching” experience. And often that experience takes place at a university laboratory school that is quite different from the kind of public school in which the students will very likely work upon completion of their training.

New teachers, having spent a limited amount of time in schools, arrive on the school house steps with perspectives developed when they were students. In the early

months of the school year, it is not uncommon for the new teacher to experience depression and self-doubt, or outbursts of crying. The stresses and strains many new teachers experience are similar to the phenomenon known as “culture shock”:

Culture shock is the “feeling of dislocation that people experience when they initially encounter a foreign culture. Peace Corps volunteers, foreign students, tourists, and newly arrived immigrants often report that when first thrust into a strange life patterns of a foreign culture, they feel numbingly disoriented, forced to assimilate too much too soon, and afraid they have made a drastic mistake by going to a strange country” (Ryan and Cooper, 2001, p. 32). Unfortunately, too many new teachers feel they have made a drastic mistake wasting energy, lives and numerous resources at many levels. Such mistakes can be prevented. The way to overcome new teachers’ culture shock is to consistently immerse pre-service teachers in schools. Any quality teacher preparation program includes numerous and diverse field experiences, spread throughout the period of training.

University graduates who major in education often lack knowledge in the content field they will be teaching. In order to prepare teachers who are competent in their discipline, Tulane University reestablished a teacher preparation program in which students major in a content field in preparation for secondary school certification (grades seven to twelve). The program was designed to accommodate a major in any of the following areas: Cellular and Molecular Biology, Chemistry, Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Dance, Economics, English, French, History, Italian, Latin, Mathematics, Political Science, Physics, Sociology, or Spanish. It also included an innovative major in psychology leading to early childhood certification. As students complete their majors, these candidates in the teacher preparation and certification program interact with colleagues from all disciplines. While large colleges of education have to overcome the barrier of being a separate college, this program is a part of arts and sciences and serves to enhance a student’s degree.

RESPONDING TO NATIONAL ACCREDITATION AGENCIES AND STANDARDS

The NCATE (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education) is recognized by the United States Department of Education as an accrediting body for colleges and universities preparing teachers. It is a coalition of more than 30 national associations representing the education profession at large. Central to the mission of this body is the improvement of teacher preparation programs. Two of NCATE’s six performance-based standards address field experiences and diversity. An educational unit of a university preparing teachers must “design, implement, and evaluate field experiences and clinical practice so that teacher candidates and other school personnel develop and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to help all students learn.” An educational unit must also “design, implement, and evaluate curriculum and experiences for candidates to acquire and apply the knowledge,

skills, and dispositions necessary to help all students learn. These experiences include working with diverse higher education and school faculty, diverse candidates, and diverse students in P-12 schools.” (NCATE, 2000, p. 10).

Additionally, NCATE has partnered with “48 states to conduct joint reviews of colleges of education in order to integrate state and national professional teacher preparation standards and increase the rigor of reviews of teacher education institutions” (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2000). It is important to note that the NCATE 2000 performance-based standards have been a strong impetus for universities nationwide to redesign teacher education programs. Gone is the day when a teacher candidate spends only one final semester in the classroom engaged in student teaching.

RESPONDING TO FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND COMMISSION RECOMMENDATIONS

Recognizing that every American family deserves public schools that work, the *No Child Left Behind* Act of 2001, the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, pledges *highly qualified teachers* in every classroom by the 2005–06 school year. “All children should have the opportunity to learn – regardless of income, background, or ethnic identity.” (U.S. House of Representatives, 2001). The report of the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (Hunt, 2003, p. 7) defines “highly qualified beginning teachers” as teachers who:

- possess a deep understanding of the subjects they teach;
- evidence a firm understanding of how students learn;
- demonstrate the teaching skills necessary to help all students achieve high standards;
- create a positive learning environment;
- use a variety of assessment strategies to diagnose and respond to individual learning needs;
- demonstrate and integrate modern technology into the school curriculum to support student learning;
- collaborate with colleagues, parents and community members, and other educators to improve student learning;
- reflect on their practice to improve future teaching and student achievement;
- pursue professional growth in both content and pedagogy; and
- instill a passion for learning in their students.

Tulane University’s Teacher Preparation and Certification Program was established to prepare students to function as highly qualified teachers according to the criteria of NCATE and the *No Child Left Behind* legislation. Through a rigorous major in an academic subject and through a variety of service learning experiences, students are well prepared for the challenges of the secondary school classroom. Unfortunately, these innovative undergraduate programs were rejected by state entities in Louisiana, since they did not include all of the traditionally required

courses for teacher certification (such as courses in basic mathematics). In order to maintain the creative aspects of the program, it was necessary to move the program to the post-baccalaureate level. With this change, students must complete one to two semesters' additional college work in order to become eligible for teaching certification.

SERVICE LEARNING AS A PARTNER WITH TEACHER
PREPARATION PROGRAMS

As the Teacher Preparation and Certification Program developed at Tulane, a parallel development was taking place at the University. Tulane's Office of Service Learning was established in 1998, to implement goals specified in Tulane's strategic plan, including the strengthening of undergraduate education and the elaboration of university-community collaborations. Service Learning is defined as "a credit-bearing, educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility" (Bringle and Hatcher, 1995).

Teaching at Risk: A Call to Action was released by The Teaching Commission in 2004 and, among significant recommendations, includes raising standards in preparation programs which encompass "drawing clear connections between what future teachers are taught about pedagogy and what research shows to be effective, and offering opportunities to learn and observe in a real world setting" (The Teaching Commission, 2004a, p. 35–36). Service learning is particularly useful in teacher preparation, emphasizing the application of course concepts in the service activity, careful planning that assures relevance of the service activity to the course and the value of the service to the community, and opportunities for oral and written reflection on the service experiences. For their service activities, Tulane students mentor/tutor students, work in classrooms to gain an understanding of students, teachers and schools, and complete reflective journals in which they integrate service with course concepts. Through these experiences, they begin to understand how students learn, how effective teachers teach, how to structure lessons, and how to assess students. They begin to overcome school "culture shock" through experiences in a variety of diverse school settings.

Tulane's Teacher Preparation and Certification Program includes four courses that require service learning field or clinical experiences in a school. Several of these also require students to register for an add-on credit for service learning. For example, in the course EDUC 200 – Introduction to Education, students concurrently take EDUC 389-Service Learning in Public Schools, for which they complete forty service learning hours during the semester. Table 19.1 provides a list of the program's service learning courses and a description of the school sites with which students work.

TABLE 19.1 EDLA 389 – Lesson scoring rubric for on-site service learning

STUDENT NAME	
SCHOOL	TEACHER
SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT/CLIMATE	
INTERACTIONS WITH STUDENTS	
WAYS ESTABLISHED RAPPORT/CONNECTED WITH STUDENTS	
WHAT PRE-SERVICE	
<u>TEACHER DID</u>	<u>WHAT STUDENTS DID</u>

— (10) Lesson planning evident — (10) Introduction/focus — (10) Use of technology and/or handouts — (30) Activity	— (10) Objective clear — (10) Eye contact/poise — (10) Organized — (10) Closure/review/assessment
ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:	

Description of field sites and performance activities

Pre-service teacher candidates are required to complete field and clinical experiences in numerous diverse schools in New Orleans. The Teacher Preparation and Certification Program and the Office of Service Learning form a strong partnership to enhance the learning experiences of Tulane students while providing a service to the New Orleans community. Schools have been selected to provide a range of experiences for pre-service teacher candidates so as to prepare them to work in any setting as a future teacher. Experiences such as these allow graduates to overcome the school/culture shock experiences felt by many new teachers who were not given such field opportunities and requirements, thereby increasing teacher retention. Teaching experiences become more rigorous throughout the program and are evaluated to determine the impact on preparing strong teachers and the effect on PK-12 achievement. School partners in the Program represent:

- urban, high poverty and low proficiency level populations,
- low poverty, mid to high socioeconomic and diverse minority populations,
- special needs and gifted populations,
- magnet school populations,
- charter schools,
- leadership academy school promoting full inclusion and
- schools designated as in need of improvement.

Field placements

Pre-service teacher candidates are assigned to individual classrooms in schools by the Teacher Preparation Program's Coordinator of Field Experiences, the Senior Field Coordinator in the Office of Service Learning in association with School Site Coordinators. Site coordinators are partner school teachers or administrators who, in collaboration with the Program's Coordinator of Field Experiences and the Senior Coordinator of Service Learning from the University, determine at the partner school level the correct match for a teacher candidate with a cooperating teacher. Cooperating teachers are screened according to their current teaching assignment, evidence of their use of effective teaching practices in the classroom, level of certification, and the expressed desire to assist a potential candidate. Along with the Teacher Candidate Evaluation form to be completed by the cooperating teacher, an overview of the Program and suggestions for appropriate activities are made available to the cooperating teachers before candidates arrive in the classroom. Cooperating teachers and principals are also invited to attend any Program seminars in the corresponding course and/or the rap sessions supported by the Office of Service Learning.

Partner schools have been selected to complement the university program based on the diverse philosophical and educational experiences that can be offered to the candidate over the timeframe of the program, the contractual agreement from the site to support the Program and Service Learning, and the evidence of effective teaching and leadership practices.

At the beginning of each semester, candidates and the site coordinators meet on the work site campus. The teacher candidates report individually to their assigned teacher in their partner school on the first contracted day. Site Coordinators meet throughout the semester with the candidates on a predetermined schedule and reflect on potential revisions to the candidates' behavior, attitude, or placement needs. Site Coordinators are contacted monthly by the Senior Field Coordinator from Service Learning who remains in weekly connection with the Program's Coordinator for Field Experiences to sustain a multi-level support system for the candidates. Preparatory meetings among the three coordinators occur at the beginning of the school year, are sustained throughout the year, and end with a debriefing in May after the University semester has ended. At that time, the Teacher Candidate Evaluation form completed by Cooperating Teachers to support the preparation process for teacher candidates is reviewed for potential revisions of the Program. The successful collaboration and strong working relationship between programs was achieved through open communication and including staff from each program in the operations and monthly meetings of one another's offices.

Performance Activities and Assessments

The sequence of coursework is designed to provide crucial service learning experiences in public schools from the point of entry. The first education course, EDLA 200 – Introduction to Education in a Diverse Society and the accompanying co-requisite EDLA 389 requires a total of 40 hours of service learning. In the final exam, students

are asked to articulate experiences gained in the public school site and juxtapose that with theory discussed in the university classroom. This final exam question and the field experience/service learning requirements count approximately 50% of the total course grade. The “project” for service learning hours is teaching a lesson on site and is assessed in the manner of a teacher being appraised utilized the rubric *EDLA 389 – Lesson Scoring Rubric for on-site Service Learning* (See Table 19.1).

Courses with field components become exponentially more difficult in that they carry and require increasing responsibility for pre-service teachers. Candidates observe, serve as classroom assistants (working with the teacher), tutor one-on-one and small groups, and conduct a 30-minute lesson in a class. Progression through the program into methods courses require candidates to spend 50–120 clock hours each semester administering assessments, collaborating with practicing teachers, some who are Nationally Board Certified. Candidates observe/participate in grade level/vertical team meetings, parent conferences, parent association meetings/events and extra-curricular activities. Candidates spend one entire school day teaching (and being assessed by practicing teachers) in a public school, which includes videotaping and self-reflecting on their performances and dispositions. Candidates participate in professional development experiences offered by the school site alongside practicing teachers and can observe and participate in effective teaching practices that meet the needs of all students regardless of ethnicity, special needs, or social economic status. They submit timesheets and survey evaluations to the Office of Service Learning for the course. Assessments for the service learning field experience are incorporated into each course, with reflection evident in the course grading process. Detailed *performance activities* and *assessments* are detailed in the *Field Experiences Grid* in Table 19.2. As indicated there, pre-service teachers begin and end their course of

TABLE 19.2 Field experiences grid

Course numbers and titles	Listing of site-based performances field experiences/ activities	Assessments for field experiences	Grade levels	Number of hours req for site-based experiences
EDLA 200/600 Introduction to education in a diverse society	Observations (2 hours each) in four schools; 3 public and 1 child care center.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Completes observation checklists on school climate, teacher-student interactions, special needs children. • Writes comprehensive report. 	7–12 6–8 PK	6 hours 2 hours

Continued

TABLE 19.2 Continued

Course numbers and titles	Listing of site-based performances field experiences/activities	Assessments for field experiences	Grade levels	Number of hours req for site-based experiences
	Serve as classroom assistants, work with/tutor 1–3 students.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develops initial and final belief statement/philosophy of education in writing. • Uses Blackboard Learning for developing technology expertise • Participate in debriefing (rap) sessions. • Oral Exit Interview discussing experiences, juxtaposed with theory. • Feedback from public school site coordinators and senior coordinator from the Office of Service Learning 	7–12 K-3	20 hours placement managed through the Office of Service 20 hours placement managed through the Office of SL
EDLA 389 Service learning in public school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaches 30–60 minute lesson in public school classroom commensurate with certification level seeking. • Journal of observation notes, reflections, and brain based lesson according to established class guidelines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lesson observed (rubric completed) by program's field experiences coordinator • Feedback from public school site coordinators • Paper reflecting on teaching experience. 	Sec: 6–12	ECE: K-3
PSYC 320/620 educational psychology	Tutor groups or individual students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objective and essay questions on midterm and final exams. 	PK-5 K-5 6–8	20 hours through the office of service

Continued

TABLE 19.2 Continued

Course numbers and titles	Listing of site-based performances field experiences/activities	Assessments for field experiences	Grade levels	Number of hours req for site-based experiences
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Class writing assignments on service learning experiences • Class reports by students • Responses to Reflective Journal 		learning
PSYC 321/621 child psychology	Tutor groups or individual students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objective and essay questions on exams • Class discussion • Writing assignments • SL Journal entries 	6 wks–4 years K-5	20 hours through the office of service learning
EDUC 340/640 classroom management	School visitation to observe master teachers in the field with checklist (3 blocks or 6 periods).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complete observation checklist • Questions on exams • Learning logs 	PK-3 6–8	4/12 hours per student
EDUC 380/680 methods of reading instruction	Observe and teach in classroom for 30 minute blocks. Plan, observe and participate in preservice and teacher inservice professional development, administer assessments (Dibels and Gates), monitor student progress in individual and small group tutoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Portfolio • Critique of unit lessons plans • Observation Journal • Supervised teaching • Individual assessment project • Standard assessment • Feedback/evaluations from site coordinator and cooperating teachers 	K-3 6–8	Required co-requisite EDUC 381 - 120 hours for ECE OR EDUC 382 - 10 hours for secondary Time sheets/transportation managed through OSL placements managed by Eve Gitlin, Course professor
EDUC 381/681 reading practicum for early childhood		Co-requisite EDUC 380 for ECE certification	K-3	120 clock hours Time sheets/transportation managed through OSL

Continued

TABLE 19.2 Continued

Course numbers and titles	Listing of site-based performances field experiences/activities	Assessments for field experiences	Grade levels	Number of hours req for site-based experiences
EDUC 300/630 emergent literacy & language arts development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 20 hours of observation and participation with children age two to eight • Select 12–20 books appropriate for preschool/kindergarten/primary. Read to children at site 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complete observation checklists for literacy centers • Complete a running record session with one student • Complete trial balloons Evaluation forms with children 		20 hours managed through <i>OSL</i>
EDLA/ENLS 316/616 children's literature	Reading to/with individual students/classes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written assignments • Class discussion • Critiques/evaluations of Children's books by children • Exams 	2 years–5 years, K-3	20 hours
PSYC 323/623 observation & documentation in PK	Observe, record behavior of one child	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Record behavior, complete skills & environmental checklist • Log grading 	3–6 years	26 hours
PSYC 325/625 psychology of early childhood	Observe & tutor. Students serve as classroom assistants, individual reading tutors	Service Learning journals	6 wks–4 years 6 wks–4 years K-3	20 hours
PSYC 335/635 methodology and practicum in PK	Observe, participate in activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design lesson plan for activity in each learning area in classroom • Work directly with classroom teachers in Newcomb Child Care Center 	3–6 years	78 hours
EDUC 350/650 Methods of Early Childhood Education/Curriculum Integration K-3rd	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 3 microteaching lessons (5 min, 15 min, 25 min) to peers. • Unit/lesson presented to actual students at 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professor/Instructor and peer feedback using a rubric • Reflection paper critiquing video of lesson 	K-3	40 hours Time sheets and transportation managed by <i>OSL</i> . Placements

Continued

TABLE 19.2 Continued

Course numbers and titles	Listing of site-based performances field experiences/activities	Assessments for field experiences	Grade levels	Number of hours req for site-based experiences
	School	presentation		coordinated with site coordinator
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written paper describing implications of diversity in professional practice comparing/contrasting field experiences & theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Units/lessons evaluated by practicing teachers, and course professor and site coordinator utilizing rubrics • Review of edited video and reflections; comments provided 		
EDUC 390/660 ECE Methods II: methods of math and science	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work with math and science teachers and students • Develop lesson, tutor and teach to small groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop/present math/science thematic unit, including creative thinking processes, inquiry, and the physical/natural world 	K-3	80 hours
EDUC 391/661 (2 hours) practicum & assessment in math/science	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop two centers, one math and one science inquiry • Construct/present developmentally appropriate science/math lesson plans, reflecting national/state standards • Unit/lesson presented to students at the school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compile box/file of age appropriate lessons, activities, and games • Review four articles from professional literature, reflecting developmentally appropriate practice, current trends, processes, research, technology and best practices observed in science/math 		Times sheets and transportation managed by <i>OSL</i> Placements coordinated with site coordinator

Continued

TABLE 19.2 Continued

Course numbers and titles	Listing of site-based performances field experiences/activities	Assessments for field experiences	Grade levels	Number of hours req for site-based experiences
PSYC 339/639 adolescent psychology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tutor groups or individual students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Units/lessons evaluated by the professors using rubric • Objective and essay questions on exams • Class discussion • Writing assignments • SL Journal entries 		20 hours through the office of service learning
PSYC 320/20 childhood behavior disorders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tutor groups or individual students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SL Journal entries 		20 hours through the office of service learning
EDUC 601 methods of secondary instruction I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three microteaching labs and accompanying lesson plans • Unit/lesson presented to students at the school, evaluated by the professors using a rubric • Electronic Portfolio • Formal paper on diversity and learning differences in professional practice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Labs videotaped and written reflections included in journal. Journal entries reflect readings labs and class experiences 	6–8	70 hours Times sheets and transportation managed by OSL Placements coordinated by school site coordinator
EDUC 609-613 series: methods of teaching in content field	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop understanding by design unit and teach one lesson to students in the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning teaching, and assessing lessons in content area, appropriate to 	6–8	70 hours

Continued

TABLE 19.2 Continued

Course numbers and titles	Listing of site-based performances field experiences/activities	Assessments for field experiences	Grade levels	Number of hours req for site-based experiences
	field • Shadow/work with Tulane professor	either junior or senior high students • Self critique utilizing videotapes and rubric • Self-reflection journal and written observations with ratings by instructors	8–12	20 hours

Courses carry two numbers to allow them to be taken at the undergraduate or graduate (post-baccalaureate) level.

study with education and psychology courses grounded in service learning experiences with varying activities in diverse schools. Assessments are ongoing and candidates are responsible for documenting their own knowledge, skills and dispositions for teaching throughout the program coursework in an electronic portfolio. As candidates progress through courses they become increasingly more comfortable, confident and professional until their student teaching experience is a culmination and documentation of teaching successes, rather than the traditional first experience in a classroom.

THE IMPACT OF SERVICE LEARNING EXPERIENCES ON STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND PLANS

The research team at Tulane's Office of Service Learning has carried out several studies to measure the impact of college students' service learning experiences. The Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) was developed to measure attitudes, skills, and behavioral intentions that might be affected by participation in service learning (Moely *et al.*, 2002a). Students responded to questionnaire items by indicating their agreement with statements on five-point scales. Factor analyses of data from two samples of students at Tulane University (N 's = 761, 725) allowed us to define six scales:

Civic Action. Intentions to become involved in the future in some community service or action are assessed. The scale is focused on plans for involvement in community programs and providing assistance to others.

Interpersonal and Problem-Solving Skills. Respondents evaluate their ability to listen, work cooperatively, communicate, make friends, take the role of the other, think logically and analytically, and solve problems.

Political Awareness. Respondents evaluate themselves on items concerning awareness of local and national current events and political issues.

Leadership Skills. Respondents evaluate their ability to lead and their effectiveness as leaders.

Social Justice Attitudes. Respondents report their agreement with items expressing attitudes concerning causes of poverty and misfortune and how social problems can be solved.

Diversity Attitudes. Respondents describe their attitudes toward diversity and interest in relating to persons of other cultural backgrounds.

In a study by Moely *et al.* (2002b), college students completed the CASQ at the beginning and end of a semester, reporting their views regarding civic and interpersonal skills and attitudes. Students who carried out service learning ($N = 217$) showed increases over the semester in their plans for future civic action, assessments of their own interpersonal and problem-solving skills and their leadership skills, and agreement with items emphasizing societal factors that affect individual outcomes (social justice).

Thus, the service learning experience appears to develop positive attitudes concerning civic engagement, while also enhancing personal conceptualizations of self, others, and societal issues. These findings are consistent with those of previous studies (Eyler and Giles, 1999; Stukas, *et al.*, 1999). How might the service-learning experience contribute to such increases? Service learning gives students many opportunities to interact with people different in age, social class and race from those they see every day, providing opportunities for development of *social and problem-solving skills* including communication, role-taking, and conflict resolution.

Tulane student A, who is in the teacher certification program, commented about her service learning experience as giving her the opportunity to interact with students with whom she would not have worked otherwise:

The children at School XX want to learn and the teachers there are making learning fun, while at the same time emphasizing the importance of each lesson. These seventh graders are kids that I would never have had the chance to interact with, relate to, or learn from, if it had not been for service learning. Each Tuesday and Thursday I take back so many important experiences and observations critical to my future as a potential teacher.

The service experience requires students to show initiative, creativity, and flexibility in dealing with new or unexpected situations, gives them responsibility for determining the most effective way to accomplish the goal of their service, and thus, helps develop their *leadership skills*. Increase in a *social justice* perspective indicates an increased awareness of social institutions, customs, and power distributions that contribute to poverty and inequities in our society. Service learning has given these students many opportunities to see how communities are affected by the quality of major institutions such as the public educational system, thus increasing their awareness of social justice issues.

Tulane student B expressed her feelings about working in diverse communities:

One of the students reads at a very low level, but he has made some progress over the course of the semester. Working with him every week has given me the chance to form a relationship with him as well as to see him progress. Being at School XX has helped me to examine on an experiential level issues of poverty and racism as we discuss them on a theoretical level in class.

Student C believed the school where she worked “provided a unique environment to study the impacts of neighborhoods on development by having extended school hours used as a buffer against potential negative influences.”

Our research consistently shows that service-learning students evaluate their courses more positively than do comparable groups of students who are not participating in service learning. Moely *et al.* (2002b) found that students engaged in service learning showed greater satisfaction with their courses, reporting higher levels of learning about the academic field and the community than did students not participating in service learning. Gallini and Moely (2003) showed that while service-learning and non-service-learning students did not differ in total study time for all of their courses, service-learning students reported significantly more study time for the service-learning class, and viewed their courses as more academically challenging. Elyer and Giles (1999) report similar findings – students enjoy their service learning courses, report substantial learning from them, and make efforts to seek out further service experiences.

As a second semester service learner, Student D had the opportunity to work in two very different schools, tutoring an 8th grader at one school and working with an after-school program at another. She describes her experiences:

Tutoring at both places has been and continues to be a challenging and educational experience, which has taught me about who I am and my position in the world. My experiences have not been easy but it was being forced out of my comfort zone which has enabled me to grow as an individual. When I first heard that I was going to have to sacrifice even more time out of my already tightly-packed schedule, I was not thrilled. I became somewhat overwhelmed and even considered whether or not this was for me. Yet ... I knew that I needed to take a step out and find out if I truly wanted or had the skills to become an educator. I remember listening to my professor telling us how she had many students who thanked her for mandating service learning.

I was somewhat nervous because I had heard that this school had a tough reputation, but I was also curious to see and experience this new environment. I walked into a school where as far as I could see I was the only white individual. I have to be honest that this was an intimidating situation and one that I had never been in before. I grew up in a rather racially diverse community, but had never experienced being the minority.

I still struggle with feeling uncomfortable every time that I go, but I believe being confronted with this situation has given me a new perspective. I realize how easy it is to become sheltered by college life, where the population by far does not represent the city of New Orleans. Service learning has enabled me to experience more than just the tourist areas, but real people of New Orleans.

My student has taught me about a new level of patience, understanding, and compassion where all three are necessary when trying to the best of one's ability to comfort someone in difficult situations. Even though I was able to be there for her in times when she was struggling, I honestly doubted whether or not I was making even a small difference in my student's life I did not realize how important my presence actually was to her until I attended the going-away party for the mentors held by the School XX staff before winter break. I remember walking in and seeing my student's eager and excited face, as she introduced me to her mother and sister. It was at that moment I realized that all the times that I went, even when I was tired or had homework to do, were very much worth it.

Overall it comes down to this: How it is possible to make a difference in a person's life even if you think what you are doing is not very significant. I guess I always heard in theory about how it just takes a willingness to make a difference. It always sounded good, but I really never understood until I experienced it for myself.

The experience Student D described here is repeated throughout campus as students work in schools. Service learning provides opportunities for them to apply concepts that they learn in their courses to their service, reflect on the concepts they are learning and develop a deeper understanding of course material and its application to real-world issues and concerns. A well-planned service-learning course, in which the service activity is coordinated with course concepts, will challenge students and develop their interest and motivation in course content, produce positive attitude changes concerning societal issues and civic engagement, and enhance student satisfaction with the university experience.

Participation in service learning has a profound and lifelong impact on students. Student E views her experience as a gift:

Tutoring is the gift of sharing what you know with someone, and watching as your knowledge and ideas merge with theirs. The eighth graders at School XX give me so much wisdom and perspective. Though I hold the title of tutor, I feel as though I walk away each week from School XX learning more than teaching They give me a glimpse into their lives and their world, which are so different from my own or anything that I have experienced. Each student with whom I have worked has so much energy and personality ...

... my time at School XX has given me one of the biggest gifts I could ask for: A potential career choice. Through working at this school and others,

I have really discovered a love of children and an appreciation of what they have to offer. They have made me want to be a teacher, and with that, I hope that I can give something back to some other kids one of these days.

The partnership of teacher preparation and service learning has proven to be of paramount importance in preparing pre-service teachers for overcoming culture shock and successfully working in America's schools. In a study of service-learning in teacher education, Root, Callahan, and Sepanski (2002) found that "Eighty percent of subjects noted that their views of P = 12 students had changed as a result of their service-learning experience" (p. 232).

CONCLUSION

Teachers have great responsibility for shaping the minds of generations of students and are the world's most valuable commodity. Teacher preparation that emphasizes both strong content knowledge and extensive experiences working in schools in conjunction with academic courses will produce the highly qualified teachers we need to meet the challenges of today's society.

The quality of teachers in our schools affects every aspect of our society, from jobs to national security," said Louis V. Gerstner, Jr. former chairman of IBM and chairman of The Teaching Commission. The nation will not continue to lead or to create jobs if we persist in viewing teaching-the professional that makes all other professions possible-as a second-rate occupation.

(The Teaching Commission, 2004b, p. 1)

Utilizing service-learning as a model of quality field experiences is crucial in meeting the diversity challenge and "like the students they will someday teach, teacher education students are more likely to act their way into new ways of thinking than to think their way into new ways of acting" (Anderson, 2000, p. 12).

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20. TEACHING INTERNSHIPS AND THE LEARNING COMMUNITY

Recent education reforms have meant that many universities are re-examining, refining and implementing teacher education courses that are aligned with the curricular, pedagogical and organizational reforms influenced by past educational research. At the same time an increased emphasis has been on the development of university school partnerships leading to improved relations between schools and universities through the introduction of initiatives such as an internship program. Since the 1990's various Australian professional and government groups have recognised the importance of internships in the preparation of teachers (Australian Council of Deans, 1998; Queensland Board of Teacher, 1999). However there is considerable confusion over the meaning of an internship.

For the purpose of this chapter we define the internship as

... extended field based and context-responsive professional learning experiences negotiated collaboratively by stakeholders in the culminating phase of preservice teacher preparation ... The intern is mentored and immersed in a broad range of teachers' professional work activities. It involves a shift in status for the preservice teacher with increased opportunities for autonomy, responsibility and accountability but with a safety net. The classroom teacher's relationship with the intern moves from evaluative to collegial.

(Board of Teacher Registration, 2003, p. 7).

Internships have become a feature of a number of preservice teacher education programs offered by Australian universities since the mid 1990's. For example both the University of Western Sydney (Cameron, 2001) and Charles Sturt University (Mitchell *et al.*, 1996) incorporate a ten week internship program into the final year of a Bachelor of Education program. Hatton (1996) writes of an internship program offered at the University of Sydney as part of a Master of Teaching program. More recently, James Cook University has introduced an internship program as part of its Bachelor of Education program (Matters, 2001). These internships share the common features of engaging TE students in a practicum that is offered in the final year of a preservice TE program over a prolonged period of time, shared or sole responsibility for the class and where the relationship changes from student/supervisor to intern/mentor.

A successful internship provides an opportunity for developing a three-way partnership between the university, school and TE students through the incorporation of classroom learning, teaching theory with real-world experience. Cole *et al.*

(1999) suggest that no partnership can exist where only one partner benefits. Therefore a successful intern partnership requires a partnership that is collaborative, mutually advantageous and shares governance and evaluation of the program. An intern partnership such as this has the opportunity to provide a number of benefits for the T E student, the supervisor/mentor, the practicum school, the university and teacher employers. T E students gain real world experience through their immersion in a sustained practical work experience within a school culture where they can develop a range of personal and professional attributes. They are able to work in a classroom setting in which they have the opportunity to put theory into practice. Frequently the sustained period of teaching during the internship provides the connection between university course work and classroom teaching that has not often become evident in prior practicum experiences. As well they develop an awareness of a workplace culture and can appreciate the fluidity of the rapidly changing world of work. In short they learn how to be flexible. Finally they become aware of opportunities to build a strong network of collegial support that can be drawn on in the future.

Classroom teachers have the opportunity to develop professionally by giving back to their profession through mentoring. They also benefit from an injection of new ideas that enhances their own professional growth and development. In addition teachers have time to initiate new projects that will be of benefit to the school community. As well they become an extension of the university teacher education program through their role as mentor to the T E student and they participate in the management of the internship program thus entering into a three-way relationship alongside the T E student and university. The reputation of a university's academic program can be strengthened and the academic reputation of the university increases. Academics have the opportunity to see their students develop and mature as they put subject theory into practice. Finally, teacher employers benefit from having a pool of talented graduate teachers eligible for employment. Here, the added benefit of an internship to employers is that the extended period of practice in schools can provide important information related to the teaching attributes of graduate teachers that will contribute to employers making informed decisions regarding staffing needs.

The need to develop a level of understanding and cooperation with the school, the academic program and the T E student is required for a successful partnership to develop during the internship. In the past universities have usually adopted a senior role while working with schools. However this hierarchical structure can be broken down with a more cooperative structure for a successful intern partnership. Working this way has the potential to develop the type of learning community that Hough and Paine (1997) state is required for schools to prepare students to take their place in a new socio economic era marked by both rapid local and global change. Further, schools need to develop as adaptive learning organizations that operate within a wide ranging learning community whose boundaries transcend those of the immediate school environment. Similarly universities must also prepare graduate teachers who can take their place in a changing society.

THE POLITICS OF A LEARNING COMMUNITY

Many education researchers endorse the notion of learning community. Achinstein (2002) refers to a *learning community* as the common purpose and mutual activity that unites a group towards similar interests and goals. The important components of a learning community are the tools, technologies, rituals and conventions that develop and maintain structures that foster interdependence and collaboration based on common values, norms and orientations towards teaching, students and schooling. Learning communities are related to a context of current reform efforts aimed at educational change by restructuring schools and professionalising teachers through developing cultures of learning and practice. The argument is that teachers feel more positive about the outcomes of educational change for children and their profession if they can access teacher networks, enriched professional roles and collegial work (Darling-Hammond, 1996). Thus professional teachers become change agents and reformers of education because they take on an active research role in their daily practice thereby learning from inquiring into the nature of learning and the effects of teaching. The theme of change is repeated by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) who argue that teachers in a learning community who engage in inquiry into their practice become agents for change in the classroom and the school. Here the learning community takes on a social and political stance as it becomes involved in the ways knowledge is constructed, evaluated and used. At the same time the roles of participants in the community inform the type of change that results from the learning.

The importance of learning communities to teaching is that they encourage life long learning and facilitate the adaptation to change which is a critical component for success. Harvey *et al.* (1998) point out that an added benefit of learning communities is that while they sustain links with higher education facilities through the provision of placement opportunities for students, they also ensure students are given support and are provided with meaningful learning experiences. Likewise, Darling-Hammond (1997) argues for schools that develop a learning community of support and professional development. A school community that participates in an internship program contributes to the professional development of experienced teachers who serve as mentors, teacher leaders and co-researchers to cohorts of T E students and beginning teachers. A learning community such as this provides richer learning experiences for teachers as well as children and T E students. King (2002) further argues for a professional school community in which inquiry into practice takes place so that teachers can work collectively toward shared understanding and commitment in order to improve student learning. Inquiry of this type frequently takes place in an internship when both the classroom teacher and T E student are challenged to reflect on the effect their practices have on classroom learning.

LEARNING COMMUNITIES AND TEACHER ISOLATION

Dobbins (1997), Grundy (1999) and Liebermann (2000) have explored the theme of isolation and the way in which the partnerships in learning communities can overcome

this. Dobbins describes traditional school cultures as individualistic. She claims that teachers are isolated because few chances are provided for collaboration and professional interaction. Grundy argues that learning communities must accept and foster the tension between individuality and collegiality. On the one hand teachers are required to make autonomous professional decisions. On the other hand student outcomes can be maximised through teachers working collaboratively. Liebermann acknowledges teachers' isolation and recommends school development and change that supports the concept of communities of learners that challenge isolation and improve teacher practice. We argue that the internship program has the potential to challenge the culture of isolation because it promotes the notion of a learning community. This occurs through increased collaboration in school university partnerships, shared responsibility for the internship program, professional development for supervising teachers and a rich school experience for T E students. In addition, teachers often become isolated because they are time poor and energy poor as a result of constant educational reform. The internship frequently provides teachers with additional time through the presence in their classroom of a T E student who takes on the role of co-teacher. Moreover teachers often experience a renewal of energy through the development of a quality relationship and the introduction of innovative ideas and current practices introduced by the T E student. The energy and enthusiasm can be heard in the following whimsical comments made by a mentor teacher who discovers she is not alone.

My co-teacher has been brilliant. If there was a problem she would recognise it and fix it. She just fitted right in. I didn't think there were many others who taught like me but she is like my twin separated at birth – except she's tall and blonde.

Mentor Teacher, 2001

THE AMBIVALENCE OF LEARNING COMMUNITIES

While learning communities contribute toward the growth and development of teachers and T E students there are other aspects that can be challenging. Binnaford and Hanson (1995) and King (2002) identify the ambivalent nature of a learning community as a site of both positive and negative social conditions. On the one hand the community can represent consensus, harmony and mutual understanding. Here dynamic growth and development occur in a supportive culture that encourages critical reflection and frequent questioning and inquiry of values, goals and practices.

On the other hand the community can enforce heterogeneity through imposing strict boundaries with little allowance for negotiation or interpretation. Ambivalence of this type can occur in teacher education programs. For example a taken-for-granted assumption is that teacher education programs prepare students for entry into a school community as participant members. T E students frequently learn that they will hasten their acceptance into a school community by immediately assuming the philosophy, style, methods and practices of the supervising teacher. Here the student

learns that to survive and pass the practicum or internship means adopting an apprenticeship model of teacher education where knowledge passes from expert to novice. In this case Binnaford and Hanson (1995) consider conflict and difference as a threat, with the power to exclude or silence some community members. The result is a decline in growth and development. Gallego (2001) refers to this model of enforced heterogeneity as an “apprenticeship of oppression” (p. 314) because students concentrate on survival rather than on their own development.

Achinstein (2002) argues that rather than being problematic, conflict that arises from the tensions, challenges and dilemmas of being part of a learning community are a natural and vital part of growth and renewal of the community. Further, conflict within a learning community has the potential to encourage teachers to engage in critical reflection. Such reflection frequently serves to challenge the taken-for-granted political and ideological assumptions that help shape teacher thinking and practice.

We argue that both the language and process of the internship can challenge the oppression and heterogeneity of some teacher education programs. The language of the intern program identifies the T E student as “co-teacher” rather than student. Here the message is given to the TE student that they are ready to take their place alongside the classroom teacher as a partner. The process also situates the teacher education student as a teaching partner rather than a novice with the expectation that there will be a sharing of the workload. The role of the classroom teacher shifts perceptibly from that of supervising teacher to mentor. The expectation of this latter role is that there will develop a teaching partnership underpinned by shared power rather than an expert/novice relationship. This can be heard in the following words of mentor teachers and co-teachers.

I have enjoyed working cooperatively with another professional.

Mentor Teacher, 2002

My co-teacher knows more about learning outcomes than most of our staff and is really useful in our program.

Mentor Teacher, 2002

I get on with my mentor teacher really well. However she is probably the most disorganised person I have ever met. I am actually helping her to become more organised.

Co-Teacher, 2002

A terrific professional relationship has developed between us. We respect each other's strengths and value the learning/insight we have gained from each other's weaknesses.

Mentor Teacher, 2001

In summary the process of the internship has the potential to develop a learning community that offers a school university partnership which supports teacher

professional learning. As well it challenges the power dynamics of teacher education programs at both an institutional and an individual level.

The following section discusses the structure of the internship, the role of the mentor teacher and co-teacher and the governance of the internship at Griffith University Gold Coast campus. Both the Primary and Graduate Entry Bachelor of Education programs have similar structures.

THE GOLD COAST INTERNSHIP HISTORY

In 1994, the Centre for Professional Development (CFPD) in the School of Education and Professional Studies, Griffith University Gold Coast campus offered its first internship as a voluntary program to a small cohort of Bachelor of Education (Primary) students. Since then four different models of the internship have been designed and now form a compulsory internship component of the Graduate Entry Bachelor of Education (Primary), Bachelor of Education (Primary), Bachelor of Exercise Science/Bachelor of Education and Master of Teaching. Throughout the development of the internship, the Internship Management Committee, consisting of representatives from Gold Coast Primary schools (government and non-government), Education Queensland and Gold Coast campus academics, has maintained a significant role in advising the Centre for Professional Development and the Internship Convenor on internship matters. These matters include policies, procedures and issues related to matching the co-teachers (teacher education student enrolled in the internship) with mentors (an experienced classroom teacher) as well as the process of the internship. A second committee, the Professional Studies Advisory group, also advises on matters relating to the internship. This ensures collaboration between all stakeholders involved in the partnership, so there is a sharing of common interests and goals.

Since the inception of the internship more than 700 graduate teachers have benefited from the sustained classroom practice that is offered by the internship in the final year of their teacher education program. The following comments are evaluations of the internship by co-teachers that indicate the perceived value of the internship.

My internship has been a time of tremendous learning but incredibly fulfilling as well. I feel in some ways like I have climbed Mt Everest: lots of hard work, blood, sweat and tears, but what a thing to have achieved! I could not have done it without Sue's support and encouragement, modeling and guidance. It has been a real team effort and I am thankful that Sue chose to share this journey with me.

Co-Teacher, 2002

I am able to see the "big picture" much better now. My focus has grown from preparing one good lesson to planning a whole day to planing the week and the unit. As I've grown I'm able to see and think further ahead about the needs of the students and where I'd like to take them.

Co-Teacher, 2002

I have grown professionally during this internship – very much so (am actually amazed at how much) – really feel like a teacher now!

Co-Teacher, 2002

The following section describes the dynamics of the internship as a shift takes place in not only the teaching responsibility of both co-teacher and mentor teacher but also in the roles of supervisor and student to mentor and co-teacher respectively.

THE INTERNSHIP PROCESS

In the internship a co-teacher and a mentor share a class for one school term. Mentors play a crucial role in helping the co-teacher take on the responsibility for all aspects of classroom teaching. The mentor teacher needs to know how and when to let go of their responsibility and transfer it to their co-teacher. For some mentors this can be most challenging. The challenge in a small number of cases arises when there is evidence that the co-teacher is not confident and is not coping well with the class. The urge to take back the responsibility for some is difficult for some mentors to resist.

My only concern is it is a long time for children to have instruction from a student teacher if they have difficulty teaching a particular concept.

Mentor Teacher, 2002

It is during the extended classroom based experience, that students shift from the role of teacher education student to that of a co-teacher (see Figure 20.1). In a small number of internships, co-teachers are ready almost immediately to take full responsibility for all aspects of classroom teaching at the beginning of the internship. In most cases at the beginning of the internship, the co-teacher and the mentor teacher generally start collaborative planning, teaching and assessing with the mentor teacher taking the lead (see Figure 20.1 – Phase 1). The ultimate aim is for the co-teacher to have complete responsibility for the whole class program in the last few weeks of the term

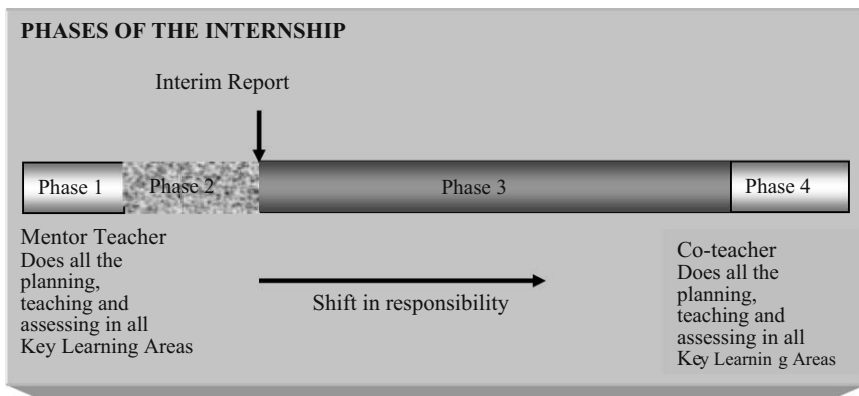


Figure 20.1. Phases of the internship

(See Figure 20.1 – Phase 4). In the intervening period a collaborative teaching phase occurs in the first weeks of the Internship (Phase 2). In week 4 an interim report is collaboratively written by the mentor teacher and the co-teacher to identify goals that both recognise are important for the co-teacher's development. The interim report evaluates the following areas: Preparation and Planning; Approaches to Teaching; Relationships with Students; Working Collaboratively; and Professional Qualities.

Following this report the co-teacher takes on the role of a beginning teacher (Phase 3). It is here that the shift in responsibility becomes apparent. This movement is dependent upon the skills and confidence of the co-teacher and reflects their professional maturity as a developing teacher. The following comment indicates the growth and shift in responsibility that a co-teacher experiences during the different internship phases.

Looking back, I can see how much I have developed in my skills as a teacher since the start of term. The more you teach, the faster you learn ... For me, the first few days I was mostly focusing on settling into the daily routine, and concentrating on preparing good lessons. By the second week I was teaching half days and then full days soon afterwards, but with Sue there to support the aspects I was unsure of, like the process of going through the homework. By the end of 4 weeks I was ready to take over the planning and majority of the teaching.

Term Two Co-Teacher, 2002

Before beginning an internship co-teachers receive a document titled *Authorisation to Teach* from the Queensland Board of Teacher Registration. This document allows them to assume full responsibility for the class following the completion of "safety audit" by the school coordinator and the mentor teacher. The audit assesses the co-teachers' competence in the areas of preparation and planning, approaches to teaching, relationships with students, working collaboratively and professional qualities. Hence co-teachers can be left alone in the classroom for significant time giving them the opportunity to experience the full load of the internship. The school and the university act collaboratively to publicly acknowledge the significant shift in role of the co-teacher from T E student to co-teacher. Schools frequently present the *Authorisation to Teach* document at a staff meeting to symbolise the co-teacher's growth and development and their changing role. The Centre for Professional Development provides a Griffith University 2002 Internship badge with the co-teacher's name and school.

The mentor teacher

Since the first internship in 1994, the supply of mentor teachers has often outnumbered the number of co-teachers. Interns have been sought both by schools and by individual teachers. The popularity of this program is in part because of the recognition of the benefits to the school, classroom and mentor teacher that result from taking on interns. These benefits are acknowledged in the following comments.

As a mentor teacher I was able to grow and learn during the internship. It was a rewarding experience.

Mentor Teacher 2002

Children benefited by having another person, personality and model in the classroom.

Mentor Teacher 2002

I have enjoyed working cooperatively with another teaching professional. Great for both parties in my case as our philosophies are similar and we had strengths in varying areas. So both of us were able to learn from each other.

Mentor Teacher 2002

The co-teacher was excellent. I really enjoyed working with her and learnt heaps. I hope one day to teach with her.

Mentor Teacher 2001

The matching process

The matching of the co-teacher and mentor teacher is one that is carefully and thoughtfully done to ensure a quality working partnership between the two. At the end of their third year, students complete a *Co-teacher Application* form for placement. This form allows the students to nominate the year level, class type, school type, and characteristics of the mentor teacher they hope to be matched with during their internship. These applications are sent to the School Coordinator of Professional Field Studies in the schools selected. The School Coordinator uses this information to identify suitable mentors. The nominated teachers are then consulted regarding their willingness to mentor an intern. The list of the mentor teachers, matched with their co-teachers, is sent back to the Centre for Professional Development (CFPD) for processing and final approval by the Internship Management Committee.

Cluster workshops

Gaffey and Porter (1990) discuss the necessity of mutually desired outcomes and shared understandings of the goal of the internship for ensuring quality mentoring. The shared vision and goals are integral to the success of the internship. Structures need to be set up to ensure shared dialogue and communication prior to and during the internship. Most importantly the communication needs to be three way, between academics, the mentor and the co-teacher for sharing the vision and goal setting processes. By doing this all stakeholders are able to contribute to the success of the program. For this to occur prior to the internship an academic facilitates several cluster workshops for both co-teachers and mentor teachers. These cluster workshops

make use of the internship as a vehicle for promoting and sharing the common interests, values and goals of the community of practice of both the school and the university.

The main aims of the cluster workshops during the internship are for the Centre of Professional Development to maintain contact with both co-teachers and mentors to encourage active reflection. During reflection participants articulate what has been learned through focussing on the objectives of their school community experience and critically reviewing their own progress as mentor or intern. In this case reflection becomes the method by which self-directed learning can occur. Participants critically reflect on their practice, reach reasoned conclusions and modify their practice to enable further opportunity for learning and development. The consequence of this reflection is that individual and collective confidence is enhanced.

The cluster workshops also become a time for information giving, problem solving and goal setting. Thus the outcomes of the cluster workshops include increased collegiality and collaboration. Many of the features of a learning community are outlined by Hough and Paine (1997) and can be identified in cluster workshops. For example, they suggest that a learning community consists of a shared vision, shared beliefs, personal mastery and team learning. These can be heard in the following comments.

Great to hear other teachers' experiences problems/successes etc and go back to launch into the next section of the internship

Mentor Teacher, 2001

It has been great to network with other mentor teachers and form common agreements about the internship program

Mentor Teacher, 2001

During the internship period a three-day mentor workshop is provided to all mentor teachers by the CFPD to further develop their skills of mentoring. The cost neutral aspect of the workshop is a significant feature. This can occur because the co-teacher takes responsibility for the class while the mentor teacher attends the workshop. A recent further development of this concept is to offer four days of workshops throughout the year to build on the reflective abilities of mentors. The outcome of the workshops is for mentors to become active professionals through developing a deeper understanding of themselves as reflective practitioners.

The internship launch

The launch of the internship has become an important event that symbolises the significance of the internship for the university, school and T E students. The launch involves a large group meeting of academics, the internship management committee, school coordinators, mentor teachers and co-teachers. This meeting is particularly relevant as it serves as a time for discussing with all mentors philosophical change from teacher education student to co-teacher. It also is one where mentor teachers, co-teachers and school coordinators from past internships speak of the highs and lows of their experiences.

The tension of the internship

Earlier in the chapter we referred to the tensions that can present in a learning community. In particular these tensions can be observed in the Gold Coast internship when the shift occurs in the final stage of the internship when the role of mentor teacher changes to that of evaluator. This role change takes place because the internship is used by employers as a process for ranking the teaching ability of prospective employees. The role of the mentor is to assign a numerical to the co-teacher based mainly on their teaching performance during the internship. The problem here is that the role of the supportive mentor as critical evaluator is paradoxical in nature. Future plans by employing authorities to utilise independent evaluators will overcome this role conflict.

Predictors of internship success

In evaluating the success of internships in general, Beard and Morton (1999) indicate the following criteria as essential: intern (co-teacher) academic preparedness, initiative, positive attitude, quality of school supervision and employers practices and policies. The academic preparedness occurs through the university courses that have close links to the six practicums prior to the internship occurring throughout the degree program. Some of the assessment for the courses frequently depends on work undertaken in the practicum. This acknowledges Gaffey and Porter's (1990) observation that the reason for the gap between university theory and teaching practice is the lack of communication and collaboration between stakeholders. In particular the internship overcomes this through its emphasis on effective communication between schools and the university.

Frequently the co-teachers' initiative and positive attitude are enhanced through spending their final practicum prior to the internship in their internship classroom. This allows them to become familiar with the classroom and have a good knowledge of the students and the mentor teachers teaching and mentoring style. This prior experience allows the internship to begin relatively smoothly. The quality of the school supervision is ensured when the mentor teachers are offered mentoring workshops to further develop their skills. In addition the cluster workshops provide opportunities for networking and sharing skills and expertise with other mentors. Employers' practices and policies are communicated to co-teacher throughout the duration of the degree program. A particular emphasis is provided prior to the internship when an information day is held for co-teachers. On this day representatives from BTR and prospective employers such as Education Qld and Catholic Education present students with relevant information regarding teacher registration requirements and the process of applying for teaching positions.

EVALUATION

The internship is evaluated through the use of an evaluation form that is completed by co-teachers and mentor teachers in the last cluster workshop. The evaluation form

provides teachers with the opportunity to comment on areas such as initiative in planning and teaching, ability to plan and teach independently, assessing student learning outcomes, implementing classroom and student management plans as well as becoming part of the school and overall rating for the internship. The information is collated and presented as data graphs (Figures 20.2 and 20.3) within a written report. The report goes to all schools, and is presented to Gold Coast campus school committee. The findings of the report are presented at a meeting of the Internship Management Committee who use these results to further refine the internship for the following

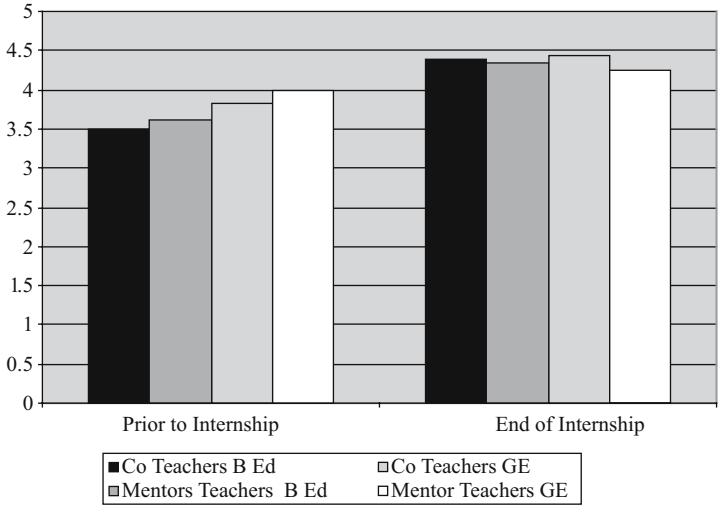


Figure 20.2. Becoming part of the school

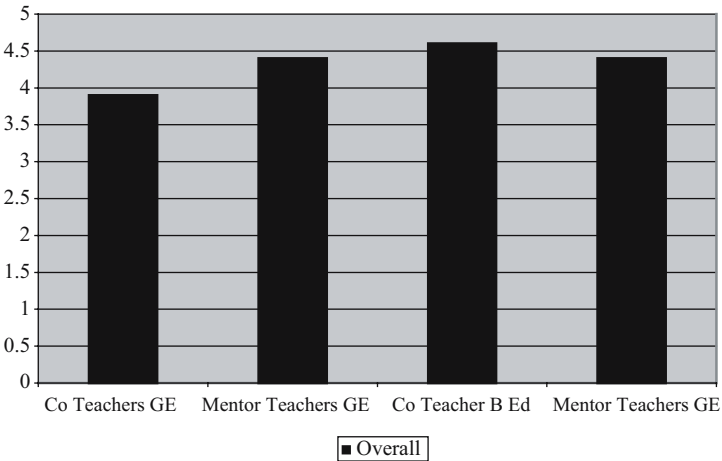


Figure 20.3. Overall rating for the internship

year. This ensures that the governance of the internship remains as a partnership between the university and the schools.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter we have argued that education reforms have led to many Australian universities introducing internships as part of their teacher education programs. In many cases the internship has encouraged the development of a learning community between schools and the university. Since its inception in 1994, the internship offered by Griffith University, Gold Coast campus has contributed to the development of a learning community that involves a three way partnership between the university, schools and TE students. Such a partnership provides professional growth and development for all stakeholders by providing opportunities for teachers to become mentors, for schools to be exposed to new ideas and innovative practice, for TE students to put theory into practice in a supportive learning context and university academics to witness the outcome of their teaching. As well the internship encourages shared governance of the teacher education program by legitimising the voice of TE student, mentor and academic. At the same time we acknowledge the impact that the tensions that exist within the internship have on the learning community. It is this acknowledgment that assists us to continuously reflect and improve the internship thus offering an experience that will continue to develop a quality learning community.

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SECTION FOUR

TEACHER INDUCTION: FROM NEOPHYTE TO
PROFESSIONAL IN THREE EASY STEPS

21. WORKPLACE CONTEXTS OF NEW TEACHERS:
 AN AMERICAN TRADITION OF
 “PAYING ONE’S DUES”
 INTRODUCTION

There has been great focus on the qualifications and quality of P-12 teachers for the last decade in the U.S. (Ingersoll, 2001) and according to Cochran-Smith (2004, p. 3), “a new consensus has emerged that teacher quality is one of the most, if not the most significant factor in students’ achievement and educational improvement.” A major goal of the United States’ *No Child Left Behind Act* signed in January 2002, is that all students will have “highly qualified teachers”. Highly qualified has typically been defined as teachers who have subject matter knowledge and verbal ability (cited in Paige, 2002). There seems to be an underlying message that anyone can be a teacher if she has or he has the appropriate subject matter knowledge, with pedagogy regarded as unnecessary or less important. Teacher educators and researchers have not been able to make a convincing argument to the public as well as to politicians that they do have effective programs to train and produce qualified teachers. Rice (as cited by Cochran-Smith, 2004) cautions that many aspects of a teacher’s background are important to consider – teacher preparation and experience, as well as test scores.

Ingersoll (2002, p. 17) argues “the prevailing policy response to staff classrooms with qualified teachers has been an attempt to increase the supply of teachers.” One way the federal government (U.S. Department of Education, 2002) has proposed to increase teacher supply is to offer alternate routes to certification and eliminate all requirements and policies that are not based on scientific evidence. Of course, this last effort has brought a host of criticisms and justly so (Darling-Hammond and Youngs, 2002).

At the same time the U.S. struggles with increasing the supply of “highly qualified” teachers, there is a struggle to retain teachers – especially those progressing through their first years in the profession. There is much debate about the teacher shortage, but most would agree that there is not a simple solution (Rosenholtz and Simpson, 1990; Curan *et al.*, 2000; Ingersoll, 2002, 2004). What is known with some confidence is that American schools will need approximately 870,000 teachers in the next ten years (Curan *et al.*, 2000). While in some geographical areas of the country, there is a surplus of teachers, because of “distributional problems”, it is often hard to get this overabundance of teachers to move to areas where they are most needed (Darling-Hammond, 1999). Hence, state licensure programs and policy makers have attempted to create beginning teacher induction programs (Gold, 1996; Darling-Hammond, 1999; Curan *et al.*, 2000) with the goal of minimizing new teacher attrition, as well as improving teacher quality for teacher candidates entering the educational

field. One might surmise that funding for such induction programs signals a belief that supported novices are more likely to be successful, quality teachers and thus more likely to maintain their employment as teachers.

Even if recruitment efforts could increase the overall number of teachers coming into America's educational system, if teachers are leaving at a greater rate, there is no gain. The question then becomes, why do teachers leave? Is it a question of teachers not having sufficient content knowledge? Is it because they haven't been well prepared? Or is it that they are overwhelmed by the challenges they face? It is the contention of the authors of this chapter that teachers, especially new teachers, can face insurmountable work challenges that often frustrate, and ultimately encourage even well prepared and supported new teachers to leave the field.

Induction programs have been proposed as a means for promoting new teacher retention and professional growth (CCTC, 1992). Most induction programs utilize a master or mentor teacher who provides direct support to the new teacher. In states like California, attrition rates demonstrate that 94% of first year teachers are still employed in public education compared to 89% nationally, and that 84% of the 1995–1996 teachers were still active in education after four years compared to 67% nationally (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2002b). Other states, such as Ohio and New York, and New Jersey, have also successfully implemented induction programs (Looney, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 1999). Elements of these programs include but are not limited to mentor teacher observations with constructive feedback, teacher reflection, emotional support, and assessment support. Major thrusts of these programs include helping the beginning teacher organize the classroom environment, plan and implement sound instructional lessons, actively engage students in the learning process, and facilitating communication among the teacher, the students, and their families.

Thus, formalized induction programs have been designed with the overarching goal of promoting new teacher development and retention. One might assume that such programs work with teachers who have been carefully and thoughtfully placed within contexts that will support their growth and retention, especially when the shortage of teachers is at a critical stage. Ingersoll (1999) and Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) argue that organizational context is most probably a strong influence on teacher attrition and that induction programs often have little or no influence in such cases. Yet, these authors would propose that appropriate assignments for new teachers are often not made – even within districts experiencing huge enrollment growth and districts that have committed to induction for their new teachers. In fact, this may be the seldom admitted, hidden issue of the teaching profession in America.

The purpose of this chapter, then, is to examine the placements of novice teachers within an induction consortium of 56 school districts. The literature suggests that giving new teachers protected assignments promotes teacher retention as well as long term satisfaction and perceived success. Yet our work demonstrates that even within an induction program that attends to teacher assignment with a goal of retention, novices continue to be placed in settings that include challenges other veterans in the same sites do not face. We attempt to delve into the how's and why's of new teacher

placement within these American schools, revealing potential justifications for continuance of this poor practice.

Therefore, this chapter will:

- Identify the situational contexts beginning teachers experience in their first years of teaching within an induction program;
- Investigate the relationship between the contextual challenges as compared to veteran experiences at the same work site;
- Determine whether providing districts with informational research about the contextual challenges of their beginning teachers influences future practices of the school districts.

Additionally, we will discuss our informal observations and interactions with the field to propose both realities and perceptions that result in continued inappropriate expectation for novice teachers – even within an induction program that attends to teacher assignments.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is a well accepted fact that beginning teachers are often given the hardest classroom assignments with more difficult students, often with few professional resources to help them (Reinman and Parramore, 1994). This practice has received some attention in the research (Clift *et al.*, 1995) but little consideration in the schools themselves. This may be due to lack of knowledge but also could relate to how schools and school districts are organized.

Ingersoll (1999) looked at the effects of school and organizational characteristics on teacher turnover and teacher staffing problems. Using the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS), he found that although teacher turnover could be accounted for by some teachers' characteristics such as age, grade or field level; significant effects were also due to school and organizational characteristics. In this case, he defined school and organizational characteristics as support from the school administration, salaries, student discipline problems and faculty decision-making. The data in his study suggest that recruitment alone will not resolve teacher staffing problems but improvements in organizational contexts will contribute to lower rates of teacher turnover, and will "ultimately aid the performance of the schools." (p. 24).

Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) examined workplace conditions and their relationship to teacher commitment. In a large scale study of 1,213 teachers from 78 elementary schools in Tennessee, the researchers found six organizational conditions of schools affect job commitment. Both novice and experienced teachers were studied using several instrumental indexes that looked at organizational supports. Results showed that novice teachers were more influenced by organizational factors such as managing students' behavior and principal buffering. Principal buffering explains actions by the administration to "reduce extraneous forces that may upset the pursuit of organizational goals." (p. 245). According to Rosenholtz and Simpson (1999), "principal buffering includes: attending to material requirements of instructional

programs, clerical assistance for routine paperwork, mobilizing outside resources, and protecting classroom time from unnecessary interruption.” (p. 245). On the other hand, experienced teachers are affected by organizational qualities that relate to core instructional tasks. In essence, Rosenholtz and Simpson’s study demonstrates that novice teachers are more vulnerable to the school’s situational context whereas experienced teachers are more resilient. Experienced teachers tend to worry more about issues and problems that impact their actual teaching of the curriculum in contrast to new teachers who cannot focus on the core instructional issues until the teaching context is under control.

Both of these studies give evidence that teacher attrition is probably more complex than once thought. Previous research suggested that new teachers often leave the field in their first five years of teaching (Huling-Austin, 1986) because of reality shock, inability to adjust to schools’ expectations, problems with student discipline problems, and general disillusionment about the profession. The profession has promoted induction programs to help the beginning teacher deal with these contextual issues as an accepted reality rather than working to systemically change the complex educational environments in which novice teachers often find themselves (Huling-Austin, 1986).

Fischer and Shipley (1995) argue that site administrators at both the district and site level need to be trained to understand that placements and assignments given to beginning teachers often determine the success of the beginning teachers. Grade or subject assignment, class composition, physical facilities, and extra duties assigned, can all negatively impact a novice teacher’s ability to cope in the classroom (Kurtz, 1983). It may be, though, that training administrators is not enough.

Informal discussion with personnel directors and site principals has revealed to these researchers some of the real issues that administrators face when placing new teachers. For example, the nine month calendar of most American schools prompts assignments on a yearly basis. The transient nature of Americans often results in changing and unpredictable school enrollments. In fact, enrollments can continually change throughout the first months of the academic year as parents register new students as much as two months late. Principals may find themselves two months into the year with increased class size, in need of new teachers. This requires reconstituting class make-up and can result in combination classrooms, those including more than one grade level. Parents and their children are distressed by change, often resulting in pressure on the administrator to assign the newly hired teacher to the combination class rather than veterans of the same site. Thus, the novice must handle the anxiety of the uprooted students and their parents, establishment of a class schedule and routine, and creation of a system for dealing with multiple curriculums while the veterans stay within the cozy, already established setting with content students and parents and one curriculum. Even administrators who resist parental pressure and have veteran teachers who are willing to take on the challenges may find that contracts developed by their district’s teacher unions may actually prohibit reassignment of veteran teachers after the start of the school year.

In fact, the problem of giving beginning teachers difficult challenges in their first years of teaching may be a philosophical internal belief system that permeates

American culture in other careers or attitudes that goes far beyond the field of teaching. People need to “pay their dues.” Everyone has to suffer the hard times as those who preceded them did. It makes us tough. It makes us better. It makes us appreciate the difficult road we had to maneuver once we attain a more reasonable situation.

THE CALIFORNIA CONTEXT

An anecdotal mentor training experience from an induction program illustrates this belief:

Approximately twenty-five mentor teachers were gathered as part of a training seminar. The topic for that day was protected assignments for beginning teachers. The trainers were sharing some of the literature on beginning teachers and the elements of school context that were most helpful, when a thirty-five year veteran burst out that he should have the best students and the best classes because he deserved it. According to him, new teachers needed to serve their time. Of interest, is that he was a school union leader in the district. Another support provider jumped up and shouted that the other mentor was a sorry excuse for a support provider and should not be in this induction program. He accused the mentor of being harmful to the beginning teachers assigned to him. The trainers eventually diffused the situation without the two support providers coming to blows, but the entire experience was difficult for all the participants.

This experience is not atypical within the trainings of our induction program. Each year, there are mentor teachers who feel passionately on both sides of the issue. Some would like to see more protected assignments for their mentees. They seem to recognize that their job of providing support would be lessened if their novices were in a more typical assignment. Others express concern that they had to go through similar difficulties in their first years and they have now earned their right to be in the more ideal settings. In fact, they suggest that challenging assignments for new teachers can help to “weed out” the weak, leaving only the best within the profession. It appears to be very similar to America’s “boot camp” mentality within the military. If recruits cannot make it through the physically grueling six week boot camp, they are not worthy of pursuing the military route.

Clearly, teachers in America have a wide range of views on what are appropriate assignments for entrants into their profession. There is a passion and commitment on both sides. The controversy was never more evident than when the state of California made a large scale effort to change policies involving school context for beginning teachers. In 2001, the state attempted to pass the *Standards of Quality and Effectiveness for Professional Teacher Induction Programs*. These standards were developed to identify both induction program standards and teacher competency standards for those within their first two years of teaching. Interestingly, two of the program standards specifically addressed challenging assignments for new teachers. Clearly, the state was acknowledging the importance of appropriate placements for novice teachers.

The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC) initially accepted the first version of the induction standards in September, 2001. Immediately, controversy

began with policy makers and collective bargaining units. There was substantial resistance from state bargaining units on numerous proposed changes to the standards including changes related to challenging assignments for new teachers. The primary concern voiced by the bargaining units was that the schools themselves need to continue to be responsible for local employment issues and the state should not be dictating any policy related to these issues. Administrative groups also had issue with the standards' direct assignment of responsibility for appropriate placement of novice teachers to school leaders.

The CCTC responded by "unadopting" the standards so that more discussion could take place among all constituents. A compromised text was developed and the new version of the standards was adopted in 2002a.

The following excerpts (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2002) demonstrate original text of the two standards and changes that were ultimately made after the standards were received by the field. *Italic type illustrates the standard and text. Brackets and bold type reflect changes or deletions:*

Standard 5: Articulation with Professional Teacher Preparation Programs

The local induction program articulates with local professional teacher preparation programs and collaborates regularly with local human resource professionals responsible for employing assigning teachers. The program staff advises new hires on eligibility and program and program credential requirements.

There were six program elements that detailed the component factors of Standard 5. Three items were deleted. Item 5 (f) was completely deleted from the proposal and it specifically addressed challenging assignments. It is described as:

5(f) [The program leaders(s) communicates with school district leaders and administrators regarding the nature and extent of challenging assignments that may jeopardize participating teachers' success or create the need for additional support services. These assignments may include combined classes, out of content field classes, multiple preparations, lacked of assigned classroom, shared resources and facilities, and highly challenging students.]

Clearly, specific definitions of challenging assignments and encouragement regarding the issue were omitted from standard 5.

Standard 11: Roles and Responsibilities of K-12 School Organizations

The induction program informs school administrators and policy boards in the design, and implementation, and ongoing evaluation of the induction program. K-12 school leaders set policies and take action to promote the success of participating teachers [through assignment practices] taking in participants' novice status into consideration, [and by providing additional time and resources to teachers assigned to more challenging settings]

There were four program elements with multiple components. Item 11 (b) had the most changes:

11(b) The K-12 school organization provides appropriate support services, [appropriate to the working conditions experienced by beginning teachers. Efforts are made to secure assignments for beginning teachers that optimize the chances for success.]

Standard 11 was also greatly altered in relation to this issue as mention of responsibility for assignment was deleted from the described role of K-12 school leaders.

Thus, these researchers concluded that not only were the individual mentor teachers with whom they worked invested in this topic, the profession as a whole viewed it as critical. It was these kinds of issues that made these researchers investigate the placements of novice teachers within the induction program in which they worked. Additionally, they wondered if their induction program could make a difference in the kind of placements that beginning teachers experienced. The question became, did a systematic, comprehensive, beginning teacher support program contribute to beginning teachers having fewer challenging assignments than what might be expected based on the literature?

BACKGROUND

The studied program investigated here is a part of a California-mandated effort to support beginning teachers in their first two years of teaching. The program is located in Southern California and serves a geographically diverse region with a total number of square miles of 40,506 miles or 65,186 kilometers. Within its first year, the program served 190 beginning teachers in 17 school districts through the use of 55 mentors. This induction program has received state funding continuously since 1993–1994. Within the 2001–2002 and 2002–2003 years, approximately 1200 beginning teachers and 575 mentors from 56 school districts were served in each year, respectively.

The California Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTP) published in 1997, provided the theoretical underpinnings for the process of support and assessment in induction. Since the inception of these standards, most districts have incorporated connected inservices for all teachers. Teacher education programs in the state have also adapted their programs and coursework to address the standards. The California Formative Assessment System for Teachers (CFASST), designed by Educational Testing Services in 1998, is utilized to guide support of new teachers within the program. This assessment system information has also been disseminated to most school districts and teacher education programs. For the purposes of this study, only the plan for mentor development and outcomes will be examined.

As the consortium was established, districts were asked to sign a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) which outlined budgetary agreements, services rendered as well as recommendations for selection criteria for mentors. The selection of mentors, however, is specifically governed by collective bargaining units.

Mentors initially completed a five-day summer training and four to five follow up trainings during the year to prepare and support them to implement a formative assessment system with new teachers. Specific objectives of the training included the following:

- Develop mentor skills in formative assessment strategies including classroom observation, lesson plan analysis, guided reflection, and goal setting.
- Prepare mentors to interact with beginning teachers through peer and cognitive coaching methods.
- Develop mentor knowledge and understanding of the California Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTP), the foundation of the induction program.
- Provide continual support and encouragement for mentors throughout the year of induction.

Mentors documented all work with their mentees over the course of the year. Written work included documentation of the following:

- the context of the new teacher's class, school, district, and community,
- standards-based connections noted during classroom observations,
- summaries and suggestions based upon gathered evidence,
- reflections of the new teacher
- standards-based assessments completed by the mentee with guidance of the mentor, and
- goals and action plans for completion by the beginning teacher.

An induction Governance Team was created at the inception of the program and included a director, teacher representatives (these Project Teachers are classroom teachers on assignment who serve assigned geographical areas) and six full time professors from a nearby university. A Governance Team was responsible for development and implementation of trainings to supplement state developed curriculum materials.

The authors of this chapter, worked continuously since 1993 in the training and began to be very interested in the stories that mentor teachers told about the workplace issues and challenges that their new teachers faced and what, if any, were ways that they could help them in those challenges. After, becoming more literate about workplace contexts, a research agenda emerged.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In order to investigate the placements of the induction program's novice teachers, a decision was made to survey their assigned mentors. The novices themselves might well have biased opinions. Mentors were seen as having more understanding of a "typical" placement within their school or district.

Mentors were surveyed at approximately the midpoint of the year in order to provide them with ample time to have developed knowledge of their new teachers' settings. During training sessions, mentors were asked to identify the contexts of each of their mentees' classrooms. (Mentors could be serving from one to four novices.) Survey instruments asked mentor teachers to rate whether or not any of

eleven challenging aspects were present in the teaching assignment of their supervisees to a greater degree than that of experienced teachers at the same site.

The following challenges were included on a survey using a likert scale.

- Teaching out of content area preparation
- Teaching out of grade level preparation
- Larger number of different types of preparations than experienced teachers at same site
- Combination grade levels
- Overflow classroom (taking students from over-filled classrooms)
- No real classroom (on stage, in hallway ...)
- Roving teacher (moves classroom periodically)
- Classroom doesn't include basic materials &/or resources (no lab or no texts while similar teachers have them.)
- Higher percentage of challenging students than most experienced teachers at the same site
- Larger number of students than most experienced teachers at same site
- Assignment has been changed more than that of most experienced teachers
- Other

If the mentor teacher strongly agreed the challenge was present, a value of five was assigned. If they strongly disagreed that the challenge was present, a value of one was marked. Three additional options were provided, and raters were asked to identify and rate any challenges not specifically described in the survey. A total "challenge" score was computed by calculating an average of the one-to-five responses given to the eleven challenge items.

RESULTS

Surveys were received for 475 new teachers in 2001–2002 and 1025 surveys were received for 2002–2003. The number of surveys turned in the second year increased substantially because district liaisons (persons responsible for coordinating individual district programs) encouraged mentor participation.

Using Figures 21.1 and 21.2, the most frequently identified challenge was having a higher percentage of challenging students than more experienced teachers at the same site (25% for 01–02 and 23% for 02–03). The next highest challenge in 01–02 was beginning teachers lacking materials at 21.8 percent, but this was reduced to 13 percent by the 02–03 year. Following in third were teachers who had combination classrooms, 21.2 percent in 01–02 and 16.4 percent in 02–03.

Except for the out of content area, all other ten categories dropped in overall percentages in the positive direction. The greatest change from 01–02 to 02–03 was in the category lacking materials (total change = 8.8 percent) and the second greatest change was in combination classrooms (total change = 4.8 percent). The researchers could not explain these overall changes from 01–02 to 02–03 as a result of any external factors within the individual school districts involved in the consortium except for the fact that the districts had been given aggregate data for the consortium and their

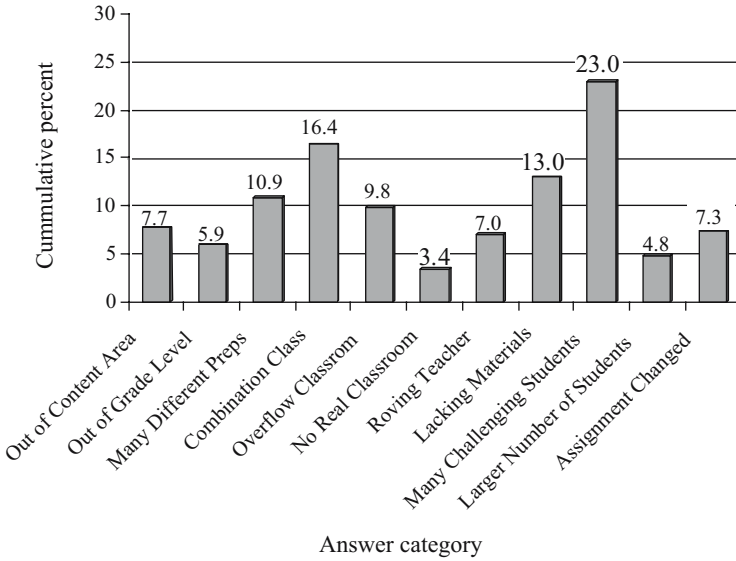


Figure 21.1. Teachers' challenging assignments, 2001-2002 (N = 475)

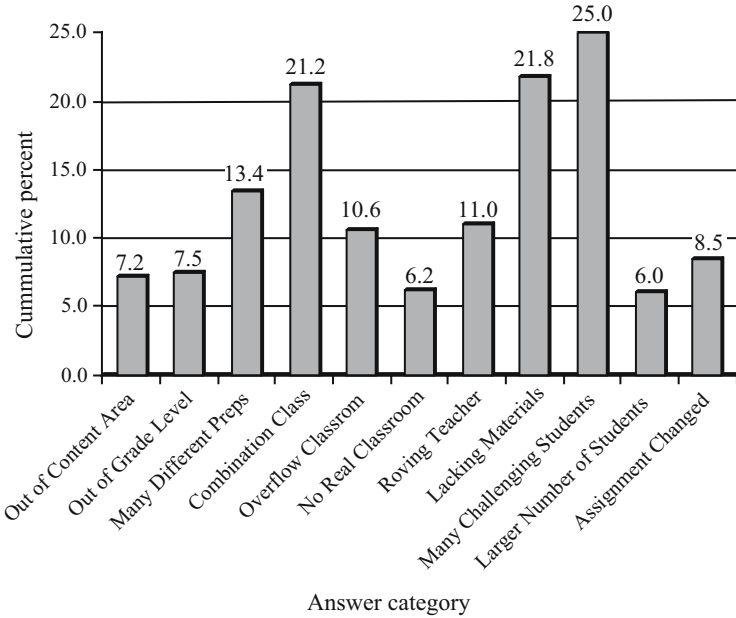


Figure 21.2. Teachers' challenging assignments, 2002-2003 (N = 1025)

own individual district information in the first year. Discussion took place throughout the consortium about the importance of giving more appropriate assignments to new teachers. In the second academic year, the aggregated information for the entire consortium and individual districts was again presented. This in fact has become a continued endeavor.

It is still true, however, even through there has been positive change between two years of working with school districts, beginning teachers are still experiencing more workplace challenges than experienced teachers who may be better equipped to deal with such challenges.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

It becomes clear that even within a comprehensive, well-articulated induction program, beginning teachers still experience more teaching challenges compared to veteran teachers. Forty-five to fifty-nine percent of these new teachers were reported as having at least one challenge that other veteran teachers at the same site were not facing. It is difficult to fathom how a profession can take extreme challenges such as lack of student and teacher texts or lack of actual classrooms and assign those contexts to those newest to the profession. One might wonder how a teacher might not have a classroom, but due to increasing enrollments and low budgets, some teachers find themselves teaching in hallways or even on a stage.

When compared to other professions like the medical profession, America's definition of the easing recruits into responsibilities does not appear to measure up. While medical interns are certainly given grueling schedules, they do not yet have sole responsibility for the decisions and actions they take. And patients with the most difficult to diagnose and treat conditions are typically assigned to specialists rather than new recruits. In America, the newest teacher can be assigned to serve the same number and level of challenging clients as a veteran of thirty years, and in fact, as this study demonstrates, often does to a greater extent. It appears that America's teaching profession is indeed a "flat" profession. One enters with the exact same responsibilities that one has when one retires.

And yet, we in America know that we face a severe teacher shortage. We in America are concerned that we prepare and keep quality teachers. We in America want to do our best to meet the learning needs of our children. It appears that our best effort is to simply acknowledge that we inappropriately assign many challenges to new teachers and attempt to provide additional support to these teachers through induction services.

Yet, there may be some reason for optimism. Our results suggest that there may be means for decreasing such assignments. Our induction program is a consortium serving over fifty school districts. As such, it does not have direct responsibility for teacher placement practices. Still, as an induction program, it is attempting to address the issue of challenging assignments by providing information to the school districts. At the beginning of the year of this study, districts were provided with their own data and program aggregate data regarding the kind and quantity of challenging assignments

that new teachers are experiencing in the consortium. Discussion on current literature on protected assignments also followed for beginning teachers. The results of this study suggest that such information may be helpful in reducing challenging assignments for new teachers. It is hoped that consistent feedback to districts about how their teachers are faring in their teaching contexts will promote more thoughtful attention to their assignments. This information can serve to initiate dialogue about related policies and actions. Both district administrators and teachers must not turn a blind eye to the context of novice teachers.

What are some of the measures or efforts, then, that might improve the situational contexts for new teachers? Weasmer and Woods (1998) suggest that getting the site administrator involved as early as the hiring stage can help facilitate novice teacher success. As the site administrator really gets to know the new teacher, then he/she can balance workload, limit extracurricular assignments, and help new teachers understand the expectations of the school organization.

Darling-Hammond (1999) charges school boards and superintendents to “end the practice of assigning the most inexperienced teachers to teach the most disadvantaged students with the heaviest loads and fewest supports. They should place beginning teachers in professional practice schools with reduced teaching loads.” (pp. 15–22) It is interesting to note that she does not direct this charge to teachers’ unions, although she does say that school district officials should develop induction programs for beginning teachers incorporating internships in professional practice schools and mentoring through peer review and assistance programs.

Chubbuck *et al.* (2001) maintain that for new teachers to “feel safe” and successful in their first years of teaching, support needs to come from the outside (partnerships among educational institutions such as universities) and inside (on-site support and contextually relevant information). Thus, new teachers can benefit from support from multiple agencies.

As researchers, we plan to continue our effort to increase the dialogue regarding placement practices of new teachers. As induction trainers engaging with mentors, we thankfully are finding less open resistance to protected assignments for new teachers as the annual discussion occurs. In fact, some mentors have encouraged us to revisit our survey to enable them to identify challenges that novices face at a higher rate than veterans at *other* school sites. They accurately point out that most districts have certain schools, often disadvantaged in location, resources and by their high percentage of challenging students and that these schools tend to have a higher percentage of new teachers than other schools in the same districts. We are pursuing this agenda and are thankful for teachers who have insight and concern for their new colleagues.

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22. RE-THINKING THE BASIS FOR “HIGH QUALITY” TEACHING: TEACHER PREPARATION IN COMMUNITIES

Teacher education in the United States is in a quandary. Colleges and Schools of Education cannot – or will not – prepare a sufficient number of teachers to meet the enormous demands of large, primarily urban school districts. In the next decade, the nation’s schools will need to hire 2.5 million teachers – about the same as the number now working (Murrell, 2001, p. 11). The National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (NCTAF) has urged lawmakers, politicians, and bureaucrats to examine the issue of teacher shortages. Vartan Gregorian, President of the Carnegie Corporation in New York, recently asked:

How is it possible that the United States, which claims to have three-fourths of the world’s finest universities – and boasts 1,300 schools of education – has, in recent years, not only lacked qualified teachers but also had to venture beyond its own borders to find them?

(Education Week, 2004, p. 36)

Of the students who graduate from 4-year teacher education programs, only 60%-70% enter teaching the year after graduation, and only about 70% of them are still teaching 3 to 5 years later (NCTAF, 1996). Too few teachers are coming in to the profession, and too many are leaving the profession, claims NCTAF Chairman, Jim Hunt (2002).

HIGHLY-QUALIFIED TEACHERS – HIGH QUALITY TEACHING

In light of teacher shortages, the U.S. federal government has intervened to increase the supply of public school teachers. The federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act, known as “No Child Left Behind” (NCLB), has challenged school districts to place a “highly qualified teacher” in every classroom by the year 2006. Defining what that means and how to accomplish that feat remains the purview of state legislatures, which are scrambling to meet federal demands while supporting higher and higher standards for student achievement in local districts. “Highly-qualified” is an adjective used to describe teachers’ preparation that can be quantified, regulated by authorities, and enacted in state statutes. It is a kind of standardized thought that stands as a marker of the bureaucratic inroads made by NCLB. More and more, the job of “highly qualified” teachers is to prepare students for centralized testing, which is another form of standardized thought. Students spend countless hours, not in discussion about ideas or concepts, but rather on mechanical, timed practice testing, to pass a single test that determines not only their future but the future of their teachers and principals.

It makes intuitive sense for us to prepare teachers for *what is*. Pre-service teachers should know how to help their students practice for standardized tests, and they should understand the curriculum mandates of the state. We *do* have an obligation as teacher educators to present these aspects of school practice to our prospective teachers. However, novice teachers need to understand how the natural desire to say, “Just tell me what to do” will not serve them optimally for the challenges they will face (Bransford Derry, Berliner, and Hammerness, with Beckett, 2005, p. 77). Educators complain that they are hemmed in by state regulations and thus have no room to maneuver toward a more integrative curriculum or a greater use of student-led activities. However, what we assume about the reality of *what is* depends on how we observe and analyze classroom and community life. One observer could see a well-organized and productive classroom; another, a rigid environment where students only answer and do not ask. Always, *the what is* can be contested and cannot be assumed.

HIGH-QUALITY TEACHING

The notion of a “high-quality” teacher is vital as a counterweight to the idea of being “highly-qualified.” In an attempt to address the quality of beginning teachers, U.S. schools have focused on the idea of induction. The term, imported from the military world, refers to the process by which teachers and administrators acclimate and support new hires. Quality, from this perspective, frequently has been implicitly measured by the degree to which a candidate has learned to assimilate, adapt, and successfully become inducted into the often-isolated world of schooling.

For us, a definition of “quality” is open to interpretation and is negotiated among colleagues; it cannot sensibly be legislated and should not be linked to simple assimilation. The meaning of “high-quality” depends on the quality of teachers’ prior experiences, the nature of their classroom actions, and their reflective capabilities. In this chapter we will look beyond traditional teacher preparation to see what is possible when teacher educators create high-quality experiences that locate teacher preparation in communities.

Zeichner *et al.* (1996) noted: “Community experiences in teacher education have received only sporadic attention in the literature and in practice” (p. 176). While we agree that much needs to be done in this regard, over the last decade more teacher educators have written about community experiences. Murrell (2001) categorized a “variety of experiences” offered by teacher educators that take place in communities: brief, course-related visits; student teaching in distant communities; and cultural immersion experiences related to education. Many teacher education programs do incorporate tutoring in community sites or some sort of community component in early field experiences. The Harvard Family Research Project recommended that a family focus be introduced to teacher training through community-based field experiences (Bradley, 1997). The University of Houston (Tellez and Cohen, 1996), Knox College (Beyer, 1991), the Teachers for Alaska program (Noordhoff and Kleinfeld, 1993), and the University of Florida (Ross & Bondy, 1996) have incorporated major elements of community learning in their teacher education designs, as have numerous other programs.

Such programs should challenge prospective teachers to consider *what could be*, even in this time of stunted hopes and constricted intentions. Teacher educators must expand the circle of who can teach teachers and where the lessons that inform, support, and sustain teachers are learned. This chapter will describe through storied examples what expanding the circle looks like in two cultural contexts: Chicago and rural Veracruz. Our intention is to promote site-specific experimentation with a community approach to teacher education.

WHO DO FUTURE TEACHERS LEARN FROM? CREATING TRIANGLE PARTNERSHIPS IN CHICAGO

In teacher education, we are often encumbered by traditional systems for preparing future teachers that are enormously difficult to dismantle. It is a reflection of what Ball and Cohen call the *conservatism of practice* (1999), meaning that we teach teachers in the way that we may have been taught, engaging them in an apprenticeship in a single classroom, modeling lessons after a single teacher, and encouraging them to learn as quickly as possible how things are done in order to replicate and repeat that practice when they have their own classrooms of students.

Our examination of teacher education in Chicago began with the acceptance of the connection between schools and communities, which is not commonly considered in schools of education. We also began with a guiding belief and considerable experience in partnerships and a means to develop, implement, and critique teacher education. And we asked ourselves a series of “what if” questions:

- What if prospective teachers worked in pairs throughout their internship experiences?
- What if they established a long-term relationship with a team of teachers?
- What if teacher education students spent a month working with a school counselor and made home visits as a part of that experience?
- What if we re-conceptualized the idea of mentoring, to include a partnership with parents or community leaders as an integral part of a teacher education program?
- What if one of the mentors were an artist, a teen mom, a community organizer, a school board member, a parent volunteer, or someone else outside the academic courtyard?

These questions challenge us to move beyond the *apprenticeship of observation* (Darling-Hammond, 2000) that frequently precedes the student teaching assignment. This largely unstructured apprenticeship is essentially the model for recent alternative certification programs in the United States. In some cases, novice teachers with temporary certification spend *no* time in college classrooms and learn all they need to know, presumably, teaching on their own with minimal mentoring. This trend will not result in the desired outcome in these times of teacher shortages – to retain high quality teachers in diverse school settings. Easier routes to certification may attract more new teachers, but will have less impact on the quality of those teachers because there is no focus on the breadth, depth, and scope of new teachers’ experiences. *Breadth* refers to the variety of activities and settings for learning, *depth* is related to

the length of time or intensity of activity in a setting, and *scope* connotes the range of ideas and inquiries that frames the curriculum.

Breadth, depth, and scope are influenced greatly by who participates in and helps to plan a field experience. Recently, the Arts Education Partnership (AEP) released a report of a National Forum on Partnerships for Improving Teaching of the Arts (2002). While their focus was on arts education, the findings are more widely relevant. They wrote: "Universities have the primary responsibility for pre-service training. While universities work closely with K-12 districts to prepare pre-service teachers, collaboration with other partners is sparse" (p. 14). Jane Remer (1996) continues this theme by describing a form of partnership that involves all constituencies in a teacher education program design. If we were to take that notion seriously, partnerships to teach teachers would become a joint venture, with multiple mentors for teacher candidates.

In our investigation of a community teacher design in Chicago, we assigned teacher candidates to community centers, after school programs, and city youth organizations as a first step in a course we called *Schooling in Communities*. These college sophomores and juniors developed skills in interviewing, observing, and taking field notes in a research format long before they set foot in a classroom to observe traditional teaching and learning. After completing an interview in a non-school field site, one student commented: "I've never been asked to actually talk to someone before since I've been in college. We're usually just asked to read and research online or in the library."

In the course, *Introduction to Schooling in Communities*, we offered the initial framework for joint ventures in which community partners helped to define teaching for our students. These mentors surfaced in guided internships in which our students spent required internship hours working directly with students, teachers, community organizers, parents, and activists outside traditional classrooms. In the course, invited speakers and challenging readings helped to bridge gaps between what the students were seeing in the community, and what they thought they knew about schools, students, and themselves. They explored these connections in on-line site group conversations and "presented" their site to the class at the end of the course. They linked topics of asset-based community development, school reform, partnerships, and views on teaching in communities with their own experiences in their sites. (See the summary in Figure 22.1.)

A visit to Prologue Alternative School in Chicago introduced our university candidates to the notion that high school "push-outs" (the more correct term for many drop-outs, in our city) have strong advice for prospective teachers, tempered by their own experience and by their renewed conviction that education is important, despite what their teachers and their former school lives have indicated. Some of the young people had clear and concise advice for the prospective teachers: "Take your time with students." "It's just like basketball ... if you don't make it fun, kids won't play." "Treat each other like family." "Slow down." These teen-age parents, former gang-bangers, and occasional ex-cons *became our students' teachers and mentors* – if only for a short time.

What is a guided internship?

The internship is a field experience in which students enrolled in the course observe in a community organization or school setting, provide needed services to that organization, and actively participate with staff and students as the sites propose. Students are required to log a minimum of 40 hours at the site, which averages to 4 hours per week for the 10-week quarter. Often, interns return to the site and continue to volunteer there after the quarter is over.

The term “guided” is used to describe the internship because, although the university students are intelligent, motivated, and enthusiastic, we know that they need some coordination and leadership at the site in order to be successful and helpful to the organization. Unlike more traditional tutoring or student volunteer programs, the Schooling in Communities Guided Internship is intended to be a service project and an outreach program that is linked directly to a Northwestern course in which partnerships, community organizations, and school reform are discussed.

What is the Introduction to Schooling in Communities course about?

The goal of this course (open to sophomores and juniors) is to prepare prospective teachers and others interested in community-based education initiatives to interact meaningfully with community organizations that work with young people. Teaching and learning occur throughout adolescents’ lives; often we can learn about effective teaching by looking outside of schools before we investigate pedagogy within classrooms. Guided internship in a site, readings, and guest speakers enrich this course as participants explore community organizations, structures for working with schools and teachers, and teaching in nontraditional settings. The course is consistent with the Illinois Professional Teaching Standards and Northwestern’s Conceptual Framework.

What can interns do during a guided internship?

Each internship and each site is different. But we have found that the following four areas best reflect the typical experiences that students have had or could have with a school/organization:

I. Observation/Building Relationships

- Setting a schedule/meeting the people at the site
- Exchanging contact information
- Taking field notes and observing activities
- Asking questions/conducting an interview with a person on site

II. Planning/Researching

- Attending planning meetings
- Doing curriculum research/lesson planning as requested by site leaders/teachers
- Learning the specific tasks at that site for interns

III. Participating/Implementing

- Working with students – small group, large group, individual
- Co-teaching
- Videotaping
- Supervising youth activities
- Mentoring
- Working on projects with young people
- Playing supervised sports or other activities with young people
- Assisting with limited clerical or technology tasks for the organization
- Assisting with limited tutoring

IV. Documenting/Assessing

- For interns’ own professional portfolios
- For school’s or organization’s future use – curriculum design/project documentation

Figure 22.1. Northwestern University’s School of Education and Social Policy guided internships for *Introduction to Schooling in Communities*

Latina mothers from a neighborhood association also became mentors for our candidates. These mothers, speaking through an interpreter, explained how parents are teachers, a concept that seems clichéd but that offered insight to many students. The moms, working through a neighborhood association, have become a force in the schools that our teacher candidates were visiting and that would some day employ them. These mothers also took on the role of teacher educators as our university interns worked beside them at Logan Square Neighborhood Association. Emily, a student intern, reflected on the importance of these experiences:

Community organizations can offer the services of some of the nation's greatest teachers. Museums, cultural centers, local businesses, and religious institutions are all treasure troves of educational possibilities and skilled individuals who have plenty to share with young people. Community organizations have a human resources advantage over local schools. Rather than utilizing only teachers who have been trained and certified as such, community organizations can tap the resources that it finds within the neighborhood itself and discover the individual talents of community members.

WHERE DO FUTURE TEACHERS LEARN? REDEFINING THE "FIELD" OF EXPERIENCE

Where we place people to learn affects greatly *what* they learn about teaching, students, families, community life, and socio-political influences on education. What sorts of experiences can we create that allow us to venture outside the school doors? Which places where we live and which other communities might be most fruitful for learning? Wherever we ask students to go, the goal is always to offer meaningful experiences that challenge them to confront uncertainties without pushing them so far that they may resist learning. We think of these as "experiences near" and "experiences far," both in terms of the distance from one's home and campus and in terms of the distance from one's cultural and pedagogical expectations. In an example of a curriculum that stressed "experience near," Gordon (2002) wrote:

Lack of knowledge of the larger context of our students' lives as well as minimal and superficial communication between teachers and students from low-income communities have been two of the major stumbling blocks for effective teaching and learning and, hence, the retention of both marginalized students and middle-class teachers ... [I]f future teachers do not connect with students and their families on a personal level prior to becoming professionals and commit to the education of these youth, they never will.

(Gordon, 2002, p. xvii)

Gordon called for pre-service teachers to engage in a critical dialogue that is enriched by ethnographic investigations of the context in which they have lived and worked. In

Gordon's work with college students of color or those from working-class backgrounds, there was often a disconnect between their "schooled identity" (Levinson *et al.*, 1996) and their lives in the home community. During a course on *Minorities in the Schooling Process*, students developed collaborative projects to learn about educational questions that concerned them, and then spoke with people in the community where they grew up. For example, a group of Asian-American students interviewed adults in their home community about the adults' career aspirations in order to learn more about why Asian-Americans may shy away from becoming teachers. As a result of the project, the students made a stronger commitment to teaching and to learning more about the historic trajectory of different Asian-American groups in the U.S. There are many other possibilities for an investigation of educational issues in a community we think we know well, but which may surprise us when we ask more challenging questions.

In addition to engaging pre-service teachers in unusual experiences where they live or go to school, teacher educators can also create experiences in communities far away. For example, students at Moorehead State University student teach in a south Texas community (Cooper, Beare and Thorman, 1990); Clark and Flores (1997) take bilingual preservice teachers to a retreat in Monterrey, Mexico; Suarez (2002) has TESOL students participate in a summer immersion experience in Mérida, Venezuela; Friesen; Kang and McDougall (1995) take Canadian teacher education students for a semester of field experiences in Yaoundé, Cameroon; and Stachowski and Mahon (1998) have created Cultural Immersion Projects that place student teachers on the Navaho Nation and in eight countries around the world.

In a more detailed example, professors at the University of Georgia have led a professional development course that is taught in Xalapa, the capital of Veracruz state in Mexico, since 1999 (McLaughlin *et al.*, 2002). There are two sessions, one in May that is primarily for pre-service teachers and one in June that enrolls practicing educators. In Xalapa, participants live with Mexican families, immerse themselves in the life of the city, and learn about education in Mexico first-hand.

A typical day during the stay begins with morning-long observations in schools and communities, after which the participants talk with Mexican teachers about their practice. In the afternoons the educators learn conversational Spanish and study Mexican culture in classes at the School for Foreign Students. One of the defining events of the experience comes when the group visits one of two *ranchitos* (small towns) in rural areas south of Xalapa. There, they spend a day in a one-room school that has 1 teacher and more than 30 students in 6 grade levels. The visitors observe and converse with students, eat with local families afterward, and exchange gifts of appreciation. These communities are extremely poor; in one of them, a coffee-picking area, the *campesinos* (rural laborers) earn about \$4 daily to support an entire family. During one of the days we visit, the U.S. educators participate in a *faena*, which is a work session led by the teacher and parents to upgrade the facilities at the school. This form of community service reflects a fundamental difference with the U.S. in terms of how parents define involvement. Where there is frequent illiteracy, as in these *ranchitos*, parents rarely help their children with academic homework, but

instead offer their help to build or repair school structures, clean the school and its grounds, and make decisions about how to spend the small amounts of funding generated by the teachers. Parents also emphasize the value of hard work and *ganás*, which is the desire one has to survive and to complete a task.

The pre-service teachers in the May group keep a dialogue journal that is exchanged with other students and with the group leader. In the journal entries, they write about experiences such as the ones just described in the one-room schools. They focus on their own questions about culture, language, and education.

At the end of the experience the pre-service teachers use their journals to write a paper titled "Looking Back and Looking Ahead." In it, they describe in detail what they have learned by living for a time in Mexico, how the experience will influence their thinking about teaching and being a teacher, and how they might share with others what they have learned about working with students from different cultural backgrounds. The writers express a range of emotions and understandings, such as this excerpt from Kristin (a pseudonym):

Looking Back

I loved learning through the visit to [a one-room school] that rural school education is such a collective process, a process focused on the whole, rather than the individual, as in the U.S. ... I was intrigued to learn how the setting of a one-room rural school presents a context for democratic relationships between students, but moreover the vertical democratic relationships between [the teacher] and the parents, whose input she obviously valued so greatly ... If I had to come up with two words to describe what I learned about education, I would use "responsibility" and "collectivity."

Looking Ahead

I know now that I won't just wonder about a student's educational background, but I will ask specific questions so that I can better understand where they are coming from (both literally and figuratively) and know better how to serve them in my classroom ... I will talk to those "beginners" with whom I couldn't really communicate before, so I can understand their literacy in Spanish and learn if they speak an indigenous language. I will be more forgiving of restlessness in the classroom because I know that in Mexico there are windows to see outside and more freedom to move around and interact with peers in groups ... I know that this experience has inspired me to create democratic relationships with all my students and to seek democratic relationships in my work environments.

Kristin's reflections on responsibility and collectivity, which are two necessary components of democratic relationships, exemplify a depth and creativity of thought that we find uncommon in traditional settings at U.S. universities. She considered the images and ideas that she could take from an intense set of experiences, and expanded her thinking about democracy to include relationships in the work environment. On a more personal level, Lynn (another pseudonym) wrote about family

life, social bonds, and her vision of being a teacher:

Looking Back

I've noticed that it doesn't matter in the least where you are as much as who you're with. The bond that exists between immediate family members, as well as the extended family, is remarkable ... [F]amily members remain in close proximity to one another ... despite the extreme poverty.

Looking Ahead

In [U.S.] schools, it's not about how many computers there are in your classroom or how many supplies you have. It's about whether you have a teacher who loves and cares for all the students ... and whether you can come to know the parents.

Lynn was struck by the chasm between poverty and richness, and believed that regardless of the circumstances we should focus on strengthening our bonds with family and students. These life lessons – or, more dramatically, educational epiphanies – are incredibly difficult to learn in an accustomed place. We learn them by living through the dissonance and discovery of what we believe during an “experience far.”

WHAT DID WE LEARN?

We learned three powerful lessons from our work in these two diverse contexts:

1. In the Chicago study, we learned that pre-service educators can utilize the techniques of action research to work on mutual, specific problems with community partners. Developing researchable, field-based inquiry questions, and conducting ethnographic interviews are essential skills for learning about teaching.
2. Coursework at the university must be tailored to incorporate community resources and experiences that have not been acknowledged by the academy. In the city, university students explored community connections in online site group conversations and “presented” their urban school site to the class at the end of the course. They linked topics of asset-based community development, school reform, partnerships, and views on teaching in communities with their own experiences in their sites. In Mexico, excerpts from participants’ “Looking Back” and “Looking Ahead” papers portrayed a range and depth of emotions and understandings expressed by the participants. This sort of experiential thinking brings to bear a community resource – albeit from far away – that enables pre-service teachers to construct a more expansive view of teaching.
3. Mentoring can be more innovative and influential if it includes parents, students, and teachers outside of traditional classrooms, our own communities, and even our country. For example, after a visit to an alternative school in Chicago our privileged university students changed their conceptions of teaching and learning – because they were in a room discussing learning with students who had always been the “other,” but who had something important to teach.

Likewise, going to Mexico to observe a rural school classroom and then talk with the teacher and students led to a serious examination of what we value and believe. In a

fundamental sense, the Mexican teacher and children acted as mentors to our participants.

This sort of learning requires a willingness to step outside, to disregard what is comfortable. The process is not a dis-engagement, a removal from one's work in U.S. schools; it is an essential aspect of learning who we are as teachers.

THE COMMUNITY TEACHER: RETHINKING "QUALITY"

McLaughlin and Blank (2004) wrote about a *community-as-text approach to learning*. The emphasis on experiential, community-based learning echoes the persistent demand for authentic teacher education that connects prospective teachers with the school context and redefines the notion of teacher "quality." As teacher educators, our goal should be to "help practitioners understand how to study core concepts in real-world settings and link standards-based competencies to existing community issues and resources" (McLaughlin and Blank, 2004, p. 34). In terms of teacher preparation, Peter Murrell (2001) challenges us to examine what we do, where we work, and whom we work with. Murrell asks: "Given what we know about the community, how do we define "quality"?" Quality, in this context, refers to teachers who are "culturally connected with the lives, heritages, and cultural forms of the children and families in the community" (p. 58). Building an awareness and a sense of commitment to diverse settings in education suggests that prospective teachers need a map to learn about the communities in which they will take teaching positions – not just a map of the building in which they will teach. Murrell suggests that community teacher candidates should have experience working with youth in communities; they should see themselves as change agents and *community teachers*. Ideally, a community teacher has a background similar to those of the students they will teach (p. 59), and they value local knowledge and community connectedness. For a community teacher, the community is a primary text in their curriculum.

WORKING WITH "UNLIKELY TEACHERS" IN COMMUNITY SETTINGS

The work that teacher preparation students do in their required courses often does not reflect what is happening in communities. We would like to explore more ways to bring schools and teachers into the triangle of partnerships involving higher education, communities, and schools. Partnerships with community members suggest new roles for them, not just as mentors, but also as teacher educators in their own right. Their involvement in teacher education alters the traditional university structures for program delivery. Control shifts from the university professor to the multiple mentors in schools, community centers, and parent groups. Courses may no longer be defined in terms of "seat time" or "clock hours," but rather as time spent with young people, parents, and adult mentors. Such a new view of community as integral to teacher preparation suggests the blurring of identities and a shared responsibility for preparing teachers who are interested in beginning their careers in diverse settings and staying there beyond the first year.

There is much debate in teacher education today about the value of traditional methods courses and student teaching/practicum experiences. The increase in alternative certification programs that have truncated or even eliminated these experiences for candidates forces us to examine the nature of fieldwork and its value for our prospective teachers. We need to redesign internships, field experiences, and study abroad programs to truly integrate off-campus and in-class experiences. In this process, it is vital to focus on the breadth, depth, and scope of the experiences we create.

In the future, we would like to develop better ways to assess what teacher candidates do in classrooms that reflect what they have learned or are learning in community experiences. We want to explore how the pedagogy and experiences that we offer outside school doors can later influence how prospective teachers participate in mentoring relationships, become acclimated to a new school community as first-year teachers, and access the resources they need to assist their students in learning. Emily, a student intern and future community teacher, commented:

Though much of a student's most valuable learning may take place when led by a figure other than a typical classroom teacher, teachers still remain the foundation of a child's education. While out-of-school experiences can never replace the traditional schooling methods, they are valuable to a student's education in that they expose the students to new ideas from unlikely teachers.

Emily's image of “unlikely teachers” is quite powerful. By examining and validating the expertise offered by these unlikely teachers in non-school settings, we will expand rather than narrow our definition of “high-quality teaching.” Learning to teach is not merely a matter of induction and assimilation, but rather accepting the challenge to meet students and families where they live. Together with our colleagues in communities, we can create experiences that help to shape the social and pedagogical perspectives of teachers who will remain in the profession as leaders and innovators.

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23. THE TRANSITION PROCESS: THE EARLY YEARS OF BEING A TEACHER

Becoming a teacher involves a transition from pre-service training into the profession of teaching. This transition brings about a shift in role orientation and an epistemological move from knowing about teaching through formal study to knowing how to teach by confronting the daily challenges of the school and classroom (Feiman-Nemser, 2000). According to Feiman-Nemser, becoming a teacher requires the development of a professional identity and the construction of professional practice. However, for the majority of *beginning teachers*, also referred to as *newly-qualified teachers* (NQTs), this shift is seldom smooth. They experience difficulties beyond their control that affect their professional performance at the workplace, especially during their first year of service. Consequently, beginning teachers often have a hard time determining their success, especially during their first year of teaching. Wolfe and Smith (1996, citing Feiman-Nemser, 1983) and Michael *et al.* (2002) pointed out that the first year is critical in determining whether newly-qualified teachers will stay in the teaching profession and what type of teachers they will become and in shaping their attitudes, beliefs, and practices.

The first year of teaching, especially places many demands on NQTs and has been variously described as:

- critical in beginning teachers' decision to make a commitment to teaching and to remain in the profession (Gold, 1996; Hope, 1999);
- critical in developing novice teachers' confidence in themselves as maturing professionals (Weasmer and Woods, 1998);
- a period during which NQTs shape their attitudes, beliefs, and practices (Michael *et al.*, 2002);
- a ritual bridge that NQTs have to cross to enter the teachers' world (Britzman, 1986; Roy *et al.*, 1998);
- most challenging, exhilarating, and often most traumatic to beginning teachers (Cole *et al.*, 1995; Kottler *et al.*, 1998);
- trickiest on the NQTs' job (Bartell, 2005); and
- a period during which NQTs face unique problems (Huling-Austin *et al.*, 1989).

It is during the early years that teachers are most likely to become disillusioned and leave their initial teaching positions or even the profession (Bartell, 2005). The transition from pre-service training into the classroom has been described as a period of chance, a ritual bridge that beginning teachers have to cross to enter the world of teaching, and the most dramatic transition in beginning teachers' learning to teach (Britzman, 1986; Morine-Dershimer, 1992; Roy *et al.*, 1998). As Martinez (1994) noted, stakeholders such as researchers, policy makers, teachers, teacher educators,

and beginning teachers themselves, generally agree that entry into teachers' work is difficult and, as a result, beginning teachers need special support.

To address the unique challenges beginning teachers experience at the workplace, to improve their practice, to facilitate a sense of collective responsibility for student success, and to reduce the loss of promising teachers, we need to rethink beginning teachers' success during the transition from pre-service education to practice. As Dixon (1989) concluded, "we see assisting beginners as one of the most productive ways to ensure that new members of the [teaching] profession will succeed" (p. vii).

This chapter discusses the challenges experienced by beginning teachers during their transition into the teaching profession and the strategies to facilitate their success. It is organized into the following seven major parts. Part one examines the initial experiences of beginning teachers. Part two discusses the challenges of beginning teachers. Part three looks at the pitfalls in the pre-service training programs of intending teachers. In part four the responses of beginning teachers to frustrations in the workplace are explored. Part five addresses the needs of beginning teachers. Part six explores the strategies to facilitate beginning teacher success. It also highlights the major considerations in the provision of assistance to beginning teachers. The final part concludes that the key to successful transition of beginning teachers into the teaching profession lies in the effectiveness of school-university partnerships and the administrative support at the workplace.

Throughout the chapter, the terms *beginning teachers* and *newly-qualified teachers* (NQTs) will be used interchangeably to refer to those individuals who have not taught before; novices, usually ones who have just completed training to become teachers (Huling-Austin et al., 1989; Moran et al., 1999).

INITIAL EXPERIENCES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

In considering how to facilitate smooth transition of beginning teachers from pre-service training into the teaching profession, it is important to recognize some important aspects of beginning teachers' initial experiences in entering the profession. Initial experiences include perceptions and behaviors regarding teaching, students, the school environment, and their roles as teachers (Gold, 1996). It is generally expected that beginning teachers should enter their first year of teaching already equipped with the following experiences (Reynolds, 1992; Danielson, 1999; Darling-Hammond *et al.*, 1999):

- some understanding about pedagogy appropriate for the content they are expected to teach which they acquired during their pre-service education;
- knowledge of the subject matter they are expected to teach;
- knowledge of strategies, techniques, and tools for creating and sustaining a learning community, and the skills and abilities to employ these strategies;
- the disposition to find out about their students and school, and the ethnographical skills to do so;
- the disposition to reflect on their own actions and students' responses in order to improve their teaching and strategies and tools for doing so; and

- knowledge about learners and learning, human growth and development, motivation and behavior, learning theory, learning differences, and cognitive psychology.

Studies have also shown that beginning teachers enter the teaching profession with numerous experiences. For example, Roy et al., (1998), in a study that explored principals' conceptions of beginning-teacher competence in Central and South-East Queensland schools, reported the following conceptions of beginning teacher competence:

- having a particular type of personality (i.e., self-esteem, 'natural' gifts and talents they bring to the classroom);
- being subject experts;
- being skilled managers;
- having professional approaches to teaching; and
- having the ability to control the class.

According to Mager (1992), in-service preparation programs are expected to help the prospective teachers form a positive image of self-as-teachers, to acquire knowledge, skills, and values appropriate to the work of teaching, and to provide them with experiences in particular contexts through field experiences.

In sum, beginning teachers bring varying backgrounds, motivations, experiences, expectations for themselves and for students, commitments, and preparation levels to their initial teaching. Their view of the teaching profession and overall involvement in it are shaped by their background experiences, motivations, and the school contexts in which they work.

However, assertions have been made by several researchers and writers who believe that pre-service training does not prepare intending teachers adequately for teaching in their classrooms. For example, Huling-Austin (1989) and Klug and Salzman (1991) have argued that, although pre-service training institutions usually act as a starting point for the development of teaching skills and abilities for intending teachers, due to the complexity of the teaching process and the context in which it occurs, beginning teachers may not initially be fully equipped to contend with the various, often difficult challenges which arise. The following section examines the challenges faced by beginning teachers in the workplace.

CHALLENGES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

The literature points out numerous challenges frustrating beginning teachers' transition into the teaching profession. This part presents the challenges faced by newly-qualified teachers in the following ten major themes:

- workload;
- professional support;
- reality shock;
- student discipline;
- personal vs. professional demands;
- classroom management;
- isolation;

- students' and parents' demands;
- role expectations; and
- resources.

Workload

Newly-qualified teachers often start with more difficult and heavy workloads than their veteran colleagues and are expected to perform their duties with the same expertise and commitment as experienced professionals (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996; Davis and Bloom, 1998; Danielson, 1999; Moran *et al.*, 1999; Bartell, 2005). Some schools treat beginning teachers like their experienced colleagues, assigning them the same number of classes, duty periods, extra-curricular responsibilities, and, most often, the most challenging or least favored students or subjects for which they have little or no preparation. According to Cole *et al.* (1995), the diverse assignments – which require multiple lesson preparation – and responsibility to teach many particularly challenging students are a few of the realities with which new teachers are expected to cope. In addition, they argued, newly-qualified teachers are expected to absorb the details of curriculum guides and school procedures, volunteer for extra-curricular duties, and establish themselves in a school community environment that is likely to be totally unfamiliar to them. Sometimes, NQTs are appointed in settings inherently loaded with difficulties which place additional demands on the beginners, such as coordinating extracurricular activities and teaching in more than one subject area (Martinez, 1994).

Overcoming stress that NQTs experience because of heavy workloads and unsympathetic community attitude toward teachers are the usual strains that beginning teachers have to put up with (Holdaway *et al.*, 1994).

Professional support

Oftentimes beginning teachers do not get meaningful and adequate professional support in the workplace from either their veteran colleagues or their principals. As Napper-Owen and Phillips (1995) noted, beginning teachers, especially those in their first year of teaching, are often not provided with appropriate help in assuming their teaching responsibilities. According to Danielson (1999), the lack of support for new teachers may be attributed to the following major reasons:

- the erroneous beliefs that beginning teachers have learned all they need to know during their pre-service education to be successful in their professional assignments in the workplace and that any failure to deliver in the classroom is due to their own fault and
- the failure of some beginning teachers to seek for the necessary assistance they may need from veteran teachers or principals because they are afraid such endeavors might be interpreted as weakness or, worse, incompetence.

According to Feiman-Nemser *et al.* (1999), the isolation of teachers in their classrooms and the prevailing norms of autonomy and non-interference make it difficult for beginning teachers to ask for or receive help.

“Reality shock” (“cultural shock”)

Drawing from the literature on beginning teachers, researchers and writers have learned that as NQTs move from being students of teachers to teachers of students,

they often experience “reality shock” or “cultural shock”, the state of mind they enter when they first deal with the demands and challenges of teaching (Gordon and Maxey, 2000; Moran *et al.*, citing Koetsier and Wubbels, 1995; Veenman, 1984). Their newness to the teaching situation and the complexity of their teaching roles often confront them with daily dilemmas and uncertainties (Cole *et al.*, 1995; San, 1999). Veenman (1984) described new teacher transition into the classroom as involving a “reality shock” and anticipated “loneliness of the workplace” (p. 144). Reality shock may be caused by the NQTs’ realizations about the world of teaching, the lack of preparation for the teaching demands, and the contradictions between their education perspectives and on-the-job school practices. As Huling-Austin *et al.* (1989) noted, teaching is a highly complex series of acts that cannot be learned easily and cannot be done by formula or recipe. Lawson’s (1989) study revealed that NQTs experienced “reality shock” as they realized that what they learned in their pre-service teacher education program was different to the reality of the job. One consequence of reality shock is the “wash-out effect,” in which what teachers learned in their pre-service preparation programs is progressively eroded by school practice (Smyth, 1995, citing Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981).

Student discipline

Student discipline has been a frequent challenge for novice teachers. Many beginning teachers do not know how to handle student discipline problems which may arise from a variety of sources, such as student absenteeism, lack of motivation, students responding with off-task behaviors, talking back to the teacher, student anger, or general negativity toward learning (Wolf and Smith, 1996; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996). Some students are in the habit of challenging NQTs, thus frustrating classroom interactions and creating difficult teaching-learning environments for the novice teachers. As Kogan (1992) noted, “the reality of the classroom rarely conforms to novices’ expectations or images; instead, most novice teachers confront pupils who have little academic motivation and interest and a tendency to misbehave” (p. 145). Such behaviors and attitudes may be totally foreign to the beginners and may convey mixed messages and a great deal of confusion.

Becoming disciplinarians, especially in a hostile teaching-learning situation and in a school culture that does not encourage NQTs to ask for help may be difficult for newly-qualified teachers and, consequently, they are often frustrated by disruptive student behaviors that throw their carefully-prepared lessons off course (Cole *et al.*, 1995). Disillusioned and possessing inadequate classroom procedural knowledge, NQTs may become increasingly authoritarian and custodial and, consequently, they may plan instructions designed not to promote learning but to discourage indiscipline in the classroom.

Personal versus professional demands

Beginning teachers are often challenged to balance their home life and school and teaching demands, including daily schedules, lesson planning, and assessment of student work (Wolf and Smith, 1996). This is a big challenge to the beginners, especially when both types of demands require a substantial time commitment.

Classroom management

Managing the classroom, including making classroom routines, making decisions regarding curriculum and instruction, handling students, and balancing academic and social aspects of the classroom, is a great challenge to beginning teachers (Veenman, 1984; Solomon *et al.*, 1993; Wolf and Smith, 1996; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996).

Isolation

Newly-qualified teachers usually suffer from emotional, social, and professional isolation (Gordon and Mexey, 2000; Moran *et al.*, 1999, citing Dennehy, 1996; Solomon *et al.*, 1993). They typically work in isolation, with minimal opportunities for professional dialogues or collaboration with other teachers in their schools. Bromfield, Diane, and Burnett (2003) and Tickle (1994), in crediting Hargreaves' (1994) work, observed that beginning teaching is often marked by feelings of personal and professional isolation and that many newly-qualified teachers are often left to struggle with the complex and challenging demands of their first job, completely by themselves. A study by Stroot *et al.*, (1993) revealed that NQTs studied experienced the problem of professional isolation as many veteran colleagues did not share their teaching concerns effectively with them.

Beginning teachers also lack frequent opportunities to observe other teachers teach, to share professional practices, and to problem-solve and plan with colleagues. Sometimes they serve in schools characterized by a culture of closed classroom doors and distant and uninvolved teachers (Davis and Bloom, 1998; Wolf and Smith, 1996). Such a culture creates fear in beginning teachers and frustrates their enthusiasm for teaching and their vision of success for students.

Students' and parents' demands

Beginning teachers are often overwhelmed and dismayed by the increasing demands from students, including dealing with students whose learning needs demand special, individual attention, and parents. As Gary (1998) noted, beginning teaching is the first time that novice teachers are expected to face the ever-changing demands of youth and their parents. Whereas many parents are usually supportive and welcoming, some might be concerned about the abilities and competence of newly-qualified teachers and, as a result, they may treat beginners with disrespect, challenge their actions and decisions, and make difficult demands.

Role expectations

Newly-qualified teachers are often faced with the challenges associated with confusing role expectations, routines and customs in their new schools. They are usually unclear about what is expected of them, especially in terms of their involvement in staff and curricular duties and responsibilities and their evaluation process; they are left to "figure things out" for themselves (Davis and Bloom, 1998; Gordon and Maxey, 2000). Further to this, NQTs are often overwhelmed by the job and feel inadequately prepared (Solomon *et al.*, 1993).

Resources

Beginning teachers are often forced to put up with ill-equipped classrooms with inadequate instructional resources and materials. Sometimes they get the worst resources in their schools and have to struggle to locate and to collect quality materials on their own initiative (Cole *et al.*, 1995).

Research findings (e.g., Wolfe and Smith, 1996; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996; Moran *et al.*, 1999; Ganser, 2001) also report consistently that beginning teachers face the following major challenges:

- time management;
- student assessment;
- negative relationships with teachers, principals, community;
- lack of time (to plan, prepare, carry out administrative duties, and mark);
- establishing positive relationships with students;
- confusion about their relationships with students and the need to establish authority;
- difficulties with students' reactions to both the subject content selected and instructional strategy;
- discovering and developing teaching personalities and styles;
- difficulties in aligning instructional techniques to the subject content and students' learning styles;
- perceptions of self; and
- earning the respect of colleague teachers.

Also, Solomon *et al.* (1993) biographical case studies of first-year teachers to determine how individual perceptions of the teaching role impacted their professional development during the first year of teaching, reported three major administrative problems of the novices: class schedules, class size, and equipment.

It seems that, for many newly-qualified teachers, beginning teaching is a sink-or-swim experience (Huling-Austin, 1989). An understanding of the challenges of beginning teachers gives schools and school managers the opportunity to address the difficulties experienced by the beginners during their transition into the teaching profession.

Many of the challenges faced by beginning teachers are due to shortcomings in the pre-service training programs. These are explored in the following section.

THOUGHTS ABOUT SHORTCOMINGS IN PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

Pre-service training institutions, such as colleges and universities, are expected to equip prospective teachers with the teaching strategies, the methods, the knowledge, and the skills they need to become effective and productive teachers in their classrooms. However, in-service training experiences, including practicum teaching, are often limited and, as a result, beginning teachers often have varying strengths and vulnerabilities and their idealistic expectations usually become unrealistic as they are overwhelmed by difficult and pressing challenges in the workplace. Danielson (1999) observed that professional knowledge cannot be acquired during university

course work regardless of the quality of that course and that, even after the completion of pre-service training, beginning teachers do not have adequate experience to manage a full classroom assignment. Similarly, Davis and Bloom (1998) noted that even the best teacher training programs do not fully prepare new teachers for the daunting responsibilities associated with the teaching profession.

Recent writings in teacher education have argued about the apparent shortcomings in teacher preparation programs. The following are among the weaknesses of teacher in-service programs (Goodlad, 1984, 1990; San, 1999):

- brief preparation programs;
- unchallenging curricular and general work;
- shortage of time for preparation and for supervisors to provide sufficient professional help; and
- lack of adequate experienced supervisors.

In many Sub-Saharan countries, the deficiencies in pre-service preparation programs are even more apparent. For example, Wanzare (2002), in synthesizing the works of Makau (1995), Sitima (1995), Republic of Kenya (1999), and Menya (1995), cited the following eight major deficiencies in the pre-service teacher education in Kenya:

- inadequate training period which does not enable the trainees to master the essential academics and pedagogies;
- overloaded curriculum which is too wide for meaningful mastery of the necessary academic knowledge and pedagogical skills;
- adoption of the “unit system” in major teaching subjects in university pre-service education curriculum;
- general low entry requirements for pre-service training, especially at primary teacher education, as a result of regional disparities;
- a majority of students admitted to pre-service teacher training programs do not choose education at all, but take teaching as the last and only available option and, consequently, they have no interest in teaching;
- over-enrolment of students in teacher training institutions, resulting in overstretching of physical facilities, near zero individual attention and poor supervision of teaching;
- the involvement of untrained teacher trainers in teacher education programs, especially at universities; and
- inadequate teaching/learning facilities.

Because of numerous shortcomings in pre-service training programs, many beginning teachers may not have benefited a great deal from the pre-service training education. How do NQTs navigate the storms of beginning teaching? These are explored in the following section.

RESPONSES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS TO FRUSTRATIONS IN THE WORKPLACE

Because of the complexity of the teaching process and the setting in which it occurs, and because NQTs may not initially be fully equipped to contend with the various,

often difficult challenges and frustrations in the workplace, the confidence of many beginning teachers dissipates fairly quickly, especially as they are thrown into the proverbial deep end and challenged to sink or swim (Danielson, 1999). Consequently, many beginning teachers may react to their frustrations in numerous ways, for example by:

- adopting teaching styles which they had formerly disapproved of, leaving them feeling guilty and more frustrated (Ballantyne *et al.*, 1995);
- developing negative, emotional, physical, attitudinal, and behavioral problems, such as I-don't-care attitudes and laziness (Wilson and Cameron, 1994; Dussault *et al.*, 1997; Schmid and Knowles, 1994);
- quitting the teaching profession, leading to the loss of potentially-good teachers (Feiman-Nemser *et al.*, 1999, citing Darling-Hammond, 1997; Gordon and Maxley, 2000; Huling-Austin, 1989, citing Sclechty and Vance, 1983);
- developing survival mentality, a set of restricted teaching methods, and a resistance to curricular and instructional change that may last throughout their teaching careers and which, in the long run, may prevent effective instruction from occurring (Huling-Austin, 1986, 1989; Romatowski *et al.*, 1989);
- diminishing their commitment to continued teaching (Ryan, 1992);
- developing feelings of disappointment, disillusion, and failure – failing their students, school administrators, colleague teachers, students' parents, and, often most painful, themselves (Ryan, 1992; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996); and
- developing feelings of being overwhelmed and uncertain (Feiman-Nemser *et al.*, 1999).

For many NQTs, the reality of teaching, compounded by the many problems they experience, often become too demanding and, consequently they choose an alternative career exit, especially if they do not receive adequate mentoring and supervision early in the profession and if their professional growth endeavors are not recognized and rewarded. Figure 23.1 summarizes the challenges faced by beginning teachers, their responses to the challenges, and the overall results.

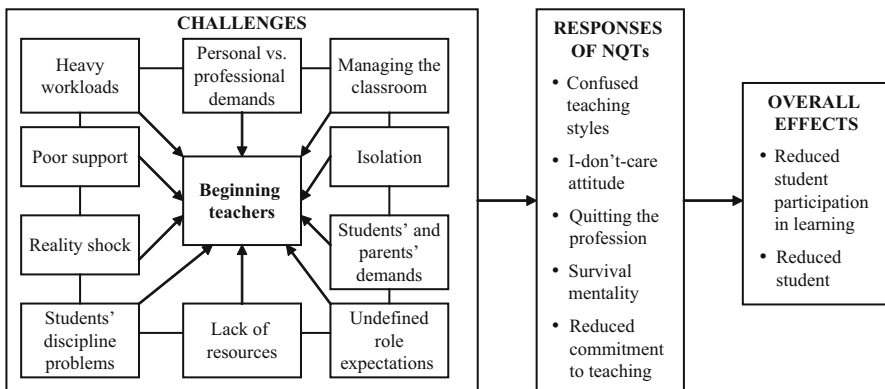


Figure 23.1. Challenges faced by beginning teachers, their responses to the challenges, and the overall results

NEEDS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

To help beginning teachers transfer the benefits of pre-service education into the classroom for the benefit of students and to know what kind of support beginning teachers need, it is necessary to identify the needs of beginning teachers. As a review of the literature will show, NQTs have the following major needs:

- developing classroom management skills (Brock and Grady, 1998);
- learning school routines and procedures (Ganser *et al.*, 1999; Heidkamp and Shapiro, 1999);
- assessing student performance (Gordon, 1991; Kestner, 1994);
- setting up a classroom for the first time (Brewster and Railsback, 2001);
- connecting theories and teaching methods learned in pre-service training to classroom practice (Brock and Grady, 1998);
- designing and pacing lessons that are developmentally sound (Gordon, 1991; Stuart, 2002);
- identifying opportunities for professional development (DePaul, 2000);
- responding effectively to behavior and discipline problems in the classroom (Brewster and Railsback, 2001);
- motivating students and engaging them in class activities (Gordon, 1991; Kestner, 1994);
- developing organizational and time management skills (Brock and Grady, 1998; Kestner, 1994); and
- opportunities for orientation to the school system, school curriculum, and school communities (Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall, 1998).

Furthermore, Rob and Brian (1995), in an exploratory research into the beginning teacher/mentor pairs in Queensland primary schools, reported the following four major mentoring functions are required by beginning teachers:

- personal and emotional support – opportunity to have someone to talk to and need to feel comfortable in asking for advice and assistance;
- task-related assistance and advice – advice, ideas, resources, information and practical help regarding school routines, covering the required content, assessing and reporting student progress and managing multiple demands;
- problem-related assistance and advice – having someone with whom to discuss problems and explore possible solutions, e.g., classroom behavior problems, learner needs; and
- critical reflection and feedback on practice – guided reflection and formal feedback regarding their professional practice.

What kind of strategies are needed to facilitate beginning teachers' transition into the teaching profession? These are explored in the following section.

STRATEGIES FOR SUCCESS: A CASE FOR INDUCTION

In view of the beginning teachers' different professional needs and the characteristics of their early professional development and, as an effective response to the problems

of beginning teachers, induction programs should be made available to meet beginning teachers' needs during the initial years of teaching. As Michael *et al.* (2002) noted, newly-qualified teachers need to be well-prepared before taking on the responsibilities of the classroom and induction should present a bridging experience into full professional teacher status and practitioner capacity. Huling-Austin *et al.* (1989) observed that NQTs need to be nurtured, helped, and assisted so that the goal of improved teaching performance might be attained. A review of the literature regarding teacher education indicates that the kind of support most meaningful and beneficial to beginning teachers takes place within the school setting where immediacy and relevance are taken into account and where, through day-to-day experience, new teachers have most opportunities to learn about what it means to teach and to be a teacher; and that individual schools are expected to assume primary responsibility for induction and renewal of their new teachers (Cole *et al.*, 1995). Support for newly-qualified teachers within schools is likely to come from a variety of people for a variety of needs. In the context of teacher education, the term induction, as explained by Huling-Austin *et al.* (1989), means "a transition period in teacher education between pre-service preparation and continuing professional development, during which assistance may be provided and/assessment be applied to beginning teachers" (p. 3). According to Zewelanjji and Leslie (1999), Talbert *et al.*, (1992, citing Camp, 1988), induction is:

- a way of introducing beginning teachers to the teaching profession;
- a helping mechanism for beginning teachers;
- a formal program of systematic and sustained assistance provided to beginning teachers by professionals specifically assigned that responsibility; and
- a broad process by which novice teachers become professionals.

Moran *et al.* (1999, citing Dennehy, 1996) indicated that induction is a crucial, formative phase in teacher education development during which practices and attitudes are formed and consolidated and that no period is more important for the development of teachers than the initial induction into the teaching profession.

Furthermore, Varah *et al.*, (1986) explained that the major purposes of induction are to help beginning teachers develop security and confidence that will improve their teaching, to encourage them to remain in the profession, and to eliminate the isolation they might experience and that, on a broader scale, the induction experience may be viewed as an effort to improve the teaching profession by retaining the most effective teachers and, ultimately, to improve the quality of education in the schools.

Therefore, induction includes offering professional assistance to newly-qualified teachers during their transition from pre-service training into the teaching profession and includes helping them to form positive attitudes and practices toward the profession, to develop security and confidence in teaching, to understand their duties and responsibilities, and to encourage them to remain in the profession. Above all, the process of induction improves the quality of teaching in schools specifically, by ensuring that they receive the benefits of well-trained and highly-motivated teachers, and the quality of education in general.

Indeed, a number of scholars have recognized the complexity of the induction process as a way of introducing NQTs to the teaching profession. For example,

Covert *et al.* (1991), Talbert *et al.* (1992), and Huling-Austin (1989) asserted that induction is a complex activity with many different possible programs that might be applied; that the programs are as diverse as the agencies that initiate and provide them; that the purposes vary across programs; and that the most prevalent kind of induction program is some form of mentoring in which a more experienced teacher provides support for the beginning teacher in a variety of ways. Talbert *et al.* (1992) and Schaffer *et al.* (1992) explained that the process of induction begins when the teacher signs the work contract and ends sometime in the future when the teacher becomes established in the profession; that the time of induction is a transitional period when the beginning teacher moves from being a student to being a teacher; and that there does not seem to be general agreement on a specific model or models that the majority of school systems should implement. According to Talbert *et al.*, in crediting Huling-Austin's (1990) work, teacher education is often described as a continuum extending from pre-service through induction to on-going in-service.

The following strategies may be employed to facilitate the success of beginning teachers in the workplace as part of their induction programs:

- providing adequate information about school policies, procedures, and expectations (Wilkinson, 1997);
- limiting teaching responsibilities of beginning teachers by providing them with less difficult assignments, assigning them fewer duties than their more experienced colleagues, and assigning them teaching responsibilities preferably in areas in which they have student teaching experience (Davis and Bloom, 1998; Rebore, 1995, citing James *et al.*, 1994; Weasmer and Woods, 1998);
- providing them with curriculum guidance and support, including: (a) instructional materials and equipment; (b) data about academic achievement; (c) information about expected teaching standards, participation in staff and extra-curricular activities, and in every other aspect of the job; (d) information about what kind of support to expect and not to expect; and (e) information about evaluation processes and where they stand in that process (Davis and Bloom, 1998; Weasmer and Woods, 1998);
- providing them with systematic orientation (a) through organized and appropriate orientation programs that cover school curricular, policies, procedures, relevant Ministry of Education or school district matters; (b) through specialized instruction with respect to their integration into the school professional learning community; and (c) by creating opportunities for them to be part of the collegial relationship in the school (Davis and Bloom, 1998);
- assigning them mentors from among their more experienced colleagues to take charge of their welfare, to keep track of their progress, and to provide assistance and ideas (Hargreaves, 1994, cited in Tickle, 1994; Rebore, 1995, citing James, *et al.*, 1994; Weasmer and Woods, 1998; Wilkinson, 1997; Wolf and Smith, 1996);
- helping them to make difficult decisions (Wilkinson, 1997);
- supporting their ongoing professional growth by: (a) helping them to identify the most appropriate and productive staff development opportunities that are responsive to their classroom teaching needs and (b) including them when designing professional development plans (Wilkinson, 1997; Davis and Bloom, 1998);

- providing them with an opportunity to observe other teachers teach and to discuss with them and to communicate with other newly-qualified colleagues to enlarge their professional network (Wolf and Smith, 1996; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996);
- creating an inviting culture within the school for welcoming and supporting beginning teachers (Wolf and Smith, 1996; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996);
- suggesting that new teachers record daily experiences in personal journals (Wolf and Smith, 1996; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996); and
- introducing beginning teachers to the external community to acquaint them with the background concerning the socio-economic situations of the community and other non-school factors contributing to learning (Wolf and Smith, 1996; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1996; Davis and Bloom, 1998).

Overall, as suggested by Gold (1996) and Wilkinson (1997), beginning teachers should be provided with the following two major types of support:

- instructional-related support, which includes assisting them with the knowledge, skills, and teaching-learning strategies for their success in the classroom and
- psychological support or some form of therapeutic guidance aimed at building their sense of self and ability to handle stress.

To sum up, schools must provide NQTs with continuing on-site professional development and must ensure that the beginning teachers have access to help on short notice as and when needed (Moore and Kardos, 2002). The induction experiences offered to newly-qualified teachers should provide them with the following major benefits and, thus, facilitate their smooth transition from pre-service education into the classrooms (Odell, 1986; Loucks, 1993; Ballantyne *et al.*, 1995; Danielson, 1999; Feiman-Nemser *et al.*, 1999; Hope, 1999; Zewelanjji and Leslie, 1999; Brewster and Railsback, 2001; Scott, 2001):

- enable them to have fewer discipline problems;
- enable them to develop a clear sense of expectations for school;
- facilitate their smooth assimilation into the school learning community;
- enable them to become less apprehensive about seeking help from peers;
- facilitate their feeling of acceptance;
- enable them to develop a sense of success;
- enable them to become effective teachers as well as reduce the stress and anxiety associated with multiple new professional demands;
- help them to develop “best” practices, to move quickly from concerns about management and control to concerns about instruction, and to become learners throughout their teaching careers;
- promote their retention in the teaching profession;
- facilitate their quality of teaching; and
- promote their professional skills and confidence.

Furthermore, in a study aimed at providing induction assistance to beginning physical education teachers and investigating the impact of the assistance on teachers in the U. S., Napper-Owen and Phillips (1995) reported that continued induction assistance:

- had a positive impact on first-year teachers;
- offered the opportunity to receive regular feedback and support;

- encouraged accountability to the knowledge attained in the teacher preparation program; and
- made teachers more reflective and analytical about their teaching.

Above all, successful support programs for beginning teachers also “produce happier and more effective teachers, which benefits students and influences the overall workplace and the community it serves” (Gary, 1998, p. 12).

MAJOR CONSIDERATIONS IN THE PROVISION OF ASSISTANCE TO BEGINNING TEACHERS

To provide effective assistance to beginning teachers, several factors must be considered. These are explored in this section in five major themes:

- Context in which teachers work;
- needs of NQTs;
- learning to teach is a continuous process;
- program goal and support personnel; and;
- role of NQTs in their induction.

Context in which teachers work

According to Ishler and Edelfelt (1989), the term *context*, as relates to teacher education, includes all the factors that compose the environment and the circumstances in which teachers work, such as:

- type and number of students;
- teaching assignments;
- size and nature of the teaching staff;
- physical space;
- socio-psychological climate;
- support staff available; and
- quality of school leadership.

Research findings regarding first-year teachers’ perceptions of their workplace have indicated the following factors affecting novices’ teaching:

- the presence or absence of teaching colleagues;
- the scheduling of classes;
- the community environment; and
- the students.

(Smyth, 1995)

These findings indicate that teachers’ workplace contexts are critical in shaping NQTs’ beliefs about assigned duties and responsibilities as well as overall teaching performance.

Needs of NQTs

Teacher induction would be much easier if the needs of beginning teachers are identified and defined. Feiman-Nemser *et al.* (1999), Odell (1989), and Blake and Hill

(1995) asserted that a case must be made for beginning teacher assistance program in terms of the needs of new teachers and that induction is largely dependent on beginning teachers themselves identifying their own needs. Danin and Bacon (1999) and Gordon (1991) suggested that program planners for beginning teacher support ask new teachers to identify areas to cover in orientation and induction program meetings to increase their “buy-in” for the programs and to ensure that program offerings are relevant to the participating teachers. According to Feiman-Nemser *et al.* (1999), beginning teachers need professional development connected to the daily work of students, related to the teaching and learning of subject matter, organized around real problems of practice, and sustained over time by conversation and coaching.

Learning to teach is a continuous process

Learning to teach is a lifelong process that involves new learning as one comes in contact with each new student and shares ideas, problems, and solutions with colleagues (Bartell, 2005). Consequently, beginning teachers, even those with good pre-service preparation, are still learning to teach. Therefore, for beginning teachers to improve the quality of teaching and learning, induction programs must move beyond a general recognition that new teachers need support to more powerful conceptions of induction as part of a broader system of professional development and accountability (Feiman-Nemser *et al.*, 1999).

Program goal and support personnel

It is important to consider establishing the program goal, evaluating the program, and selecting, training, and assigning responsibilities to program support personnel (Odell, 1989).

ROLE OF NQTS IN THEIR INDUCTION

It is important to consider the role played by the beginning teachers themselves in facilitating their smooth transition into the classrooms. The following should be among the major undertakings by beginning teachers toward this end (Kottler *et al.*, 1998; Bromfield *et al.*, 2003; Bartell, 2005):

- learn their ways around (i.e., orient themselves as quickly as possible and as comprehensively as they can);
- make friends with the school secretaries, the people who control access to administration, who are the best connected to all facets of the schools’ operations, and who know the most efficient ways to get things done and the most important gossips;
- learn about school policies, rules and regulations – from Teachers’ Handbooks (if there are any) to find out what is really expected of them;
- get involved in school activities (including extra-curricular activities);
- network with professionals, including counselors, special education experts, nurses, librarians, consultants, and others who keep the schools running;
- invite their principals (or other internal evaluators) to their classrooms at times when they have something special planned that would be of interest;

- form positive relationships with and seek professional help from colleagues, including those from other schools and school systems;
- reflect on their own practice by evaluating its effectiveness and carefully considering what they might do differently, by asking others (e.g., teachers, parents, supervisors, children) to give them feedback, and by being involved in action/teacher research; and
- take time to nurture and to develop their knowledge, skills, and abilities to become expert at what they do.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS: THE WAY FORWARD?

To summarize, the central theme presented in this chapter is that, whereas most teachers in pre-service training begin their education programs with confidence, optimism, and a strong calling to the teaching profession and expect to succeed in the workplace, and whereas many beginning teachers enter the teaching profession with "their students' success and high enthusiasm to become part of the teaching force, newly-qualified teachers' dreams, hopes, aspirations, and optimism often turn to disappointments, discouragement, disillusionment, and frustration as they go through their transition from pre-service into the teaching profession. What they often face are bureaucratic impediments associated with poor relationships with and lack of support from their veteran colleagues and administrators, disrespectful and undisciplined students, and unsympathetic community attitudes toward teachers. They soon discover that the workplace is often not what they had anticipated during their pre-service education.

Chances are that beginning teachers will start to isolate themselves further from their veteran colleagues, to avoid staffroom contacts, to limit their visits to school administrators, and to develop unproductive survival tactics. Some newly-qualified teachers may even abandon the teaching profession in search of calmer, more sheltered, and welcoming professional opportunities elsewhere. It appears prudent to view beginning teaching as a most challenging, exhilarating, and often most traumatic experience for newly-qualified teachers. Consequently, assistance and support during this initial phase of the teaching profession is crucial in bridging the gap between being a student in a professional training institution and being a functional practitioner in the real world of teaching. Effective induction programs can:

- enhance beginning teachers' skills and knowledge;
- provide them with positive professional experiences;
- contribute to their improved standards of teaching; and
- improve their retention rates.

Induction programs for beginning teachers are critically important both in the initial and in long-term teacher effectiveness and professional growth.

The key to smooth transition of newly-qualified teachers from pre-service training into the teaching profession lies in the effectiveness of school-university/college partnerships in which problems of school life form the basis for in-service training. The administrative support, especially from school principals can also help beginning

teachers survive and thrive through this difficult and often lonely period. Above all, newly-qualified teachers themselves must endeavor to meet the challenges of beginning teaching with perseverance, courage, and hard work.

In considering the smooth transition of newly-qualified teachers into the teaching profession, the following two questions need to be addressed. Should induction programs for newly-qualified teachers be mandatory and what kind of school culture would facilitate smooth transition of beginning teachers into the teaching profession and encourage them to seek professional help?

IMPLICATIONS

The proposed strategies for assisting NQTs during their transition into the classroom have several implications for practice and for future research.

Practice

Administrative support. Strong and supportive school leadership and vision must be provided to meet the challenges of newly-qualified teachers. School principals, especially must recognize the need to facilitate school-based beginning teacher support programs. Toward this end, school principals need to be alerted to their own biases and to become aware of alternative ways of conceiving beginning-teacher competence and ways of approaching the assessment of the competence of beginning teachers. As Napper-Owen and Phillips (1995) recommended, school administrators need to take an active role in the induction of NQTs because the administrators will most likely be involved in writing formal appraisal reports on the novices. Furthermore, they argued, frequent classroom visitations may help alleviate feelings of isolation and frustration in the beginners and facilitate effective teacher behavior. According to Napper-Owen and Phillips, NQTs should be provided with continued professional support even after their induction period has ended to reinforce and to perpetuate skills and behaviors learned during the induction years.

Pre-service-induction-in-service connections. There is a need for beginning teacher support programs to be integrated with pre-service education and in-service staff development to form a continuum of training experiences for teachers. As Huling-Austin (1990) noted, teacher education is often described as a continuum extending from pre-service through induction into teaching to ongoing in-service and career-long development. According to Tickle (2000), “a continuum, or bridge, is necessary in the professional development of teachers, linking initial training, entry into full-time teaching, and subsequent long-term learning” (p. 1).

Research

The research agenda regarding beginning teacher assistance should include the following major areas:

Institutional conditions and culture. An investigation is needed into school conditions and culture that would facilitate effective school-based induction programs for beginning teachers and encourage beginning teachers to seek for professional help.

Data could be gleaned from teachers, principals, and senior government education officers.

Induction practices. Observational studies regarding beginning teacher induction practices across schools are also needed. The questions that should be addressed are: What are the characteristics of effective induction practices and are there identifiable induction practices that are suitable for facilitating beginning teacher transfer into the classroom? Such studies may provide a more critical perspective regarding the impact induction has in shaping the novices' teaching performance.

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24. THE KNOWLEDGE BUILDING COMMUNITY
PROGRAM: A PARTNERSHIP FOR PROGRESS IN
TEACHER EDUCATION

BACKGROUND

The preparation of teachers and current teacher education programs according to Tripp (1994) has not stood up well to public scrutiny. He says that many people, particularly teachers, administrators, and governments, believe that teacher education practices are an inadequate preparation for teaching. Teacher education in many tertiary institutions throughout the world is under pressure (Korthagen and Kessels, 1999) and it has evolved to the point where “the professional school’s prevailing conception of professional knowledge may not match well with the actual competencies required of practitioners in the field” (Schön, 1987, p. 10).

This mismatch discussed by Schön (1987) may in reality reflect the ambiguous and complex nature of teaching as it involves the acquisition of a wide range of skills. Teaching requires judgment, appropriate action and the capacity to reflect and revise decisions on the basis of observations and insight. Learning to teach means gaining theoretical and practical knowledge along with the development of interpersonal skills (Furlong and Maynard, 1995). The associated problems of conventional teacher education programs have been identified by Louden (1993) as collisions between university-based theory and school-based practice. He lists hit-and-run supervision by university staff who have no connection with the student’s development as a teacher, and sink-or-swim supervision by cooperating teachers who are unwilling (or unable) to help students bridge the gaps in their knowledge between theory and practice.

The development of teaching skills is complicated by the fact that often the knowledge that may be most critical for an individual beginning teacher is identified during preservice teaching experiences, but is seldom fully developed in subsequent preservice practicums (Barnes, 1989). Fullan (1993) says that there is a widely held misconception that teaching is not all that difficult. As a result of this misconception, it is a common belief that education faculties attract only the students on the lower end of the academic scale (Sarason, 1993).

The challenge, therefore, for teacher educators, is to create programs that will prepare the beginning teacher for the intricacies of life in the classroom. The transformation of students to teachers is a combination of complex events, which needs to take place in both universities and schools. Hannan (1995) argues that the teaching profession requires highly trained teachers at degree standard who have had such a balanced training.

Like most providers of pre-service teacher education in Australia, the Faculty of Education at the University of Wollongong, has been under constant pressure to

ensure that its courses meet the needs of both its students and the teaching profession. Despite this pressure there is both anecdotal and empirical evidence, which, indicates that some Wollongong graduates have not been satisfied with their preparation for teaching (Grant 1994). Other evidence suggests that a significant proportion of them arrive at schools after graduation very much unaware of how school and classroom cultures operate, are unable to see the relationships between what they have studied in the courses they've completed, and how it should be translated into effective classroom practice. (Armour and Booth, 1999).

These trends are not unique to the University of Wollongong. The major employing authority of teachers in NSW the Department of Education and Training (DET), has had a long-standing concern at the number of teacher education graduates in general (not just Wollongong's) who do not know how to solve the kinds of problems which they confront on appointment to schools, and that as the main employing authority, it was looking for ways to reduce the systemic cost, in terms of financial cost of DET sponsored "induction" programs, as well as costs in time and personal stress, of the *'induction period'* that many newly graduated teachers seemed to need (NSW, Department of Education & Training, Training and Development Directorate, 2000).

An increasing number of overseas researchers have found that teacher education courses are at best problematic, at worst counter productive. Fullan (1991) for example claims that many teacher education courses in North America tend to lack an "overall coherence" (Fullan, 1991, p. 291); while others argue that the purposes of many of the courses and subjects that pre-service teachers undertake are complex and hazy (Lanier and Little, 1986; Floden *et al.*, 1989; Kennedy, 1990).

The teaching profession continues to grapple with a codified body of knowledge to base preservice teacher education programs upon (Waghorn and Stevens, 1996). There are problems with the traditional models of teacher education, fragmentation in content, the practicum and the ongoing failure to address the needs of newly graduated beginning teachers. School-based teachers are being constantly faced with broader and more diverse responsibilities; as such their accountability increases (Williams, 1995; McFadden and Hastings, 1997). Smith and Weaver (1998) identified the following factors as being responsible for pressure on the education sector and therefore adding further challenges to conventional teacher education models:

... changes in the structure and governance of schools, changing expectations of education and schooling by various elements of the middle class, the impact of communication technologies and an ageing teacher and teacher education staff facing monumental cultural shifts.

(Smith and Weaver, 1998, p. 32)

The common factor defined is that: preservice teacher education would improve if there were more school-based experiences offered to student teachers. However, the trend at present in Australia in all spheres of the public sector sees policies and practices being driven by economic messages to be more "efficient, effective and economic" (Sachs and Groundwater-Smith, 1999). What this means is that any

reform to teacher education will derive from the teacher education providers and the profession itself, not necessarily the federal government. Despite the rhetoric and concerns about teacher education there appears to be a reluctance to invest more in the education of preservice teachers. This hesitation could stem from the belief that teaching is not difficult (Fullan, 1993).

Paradoxically, teacher education is under the glare of government attention and 1998 saw the release of several final reports looking at teacher education practice. The report of the National Standards and Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Project entitled: "Preparing a Profession", was published. This report stated that a way to work towards common goals, outcomes and standards for initial teacher education was necessary. The second report released in 1998 was The Report of the Review into Higher Education Financing and Policy (the West Report). This second report titled "Learning for Life" looked into the financing of universities. While not specifically referring to teacher education, Sachs and Groundwater-Smith (1999) believe that the tenor of the report stated the need for universities to be more cost efficient and competitive.

The challenge is now to learn to do things differently. Universities will need to review continuously the way in which they go about their business. They will need to be attending more closely than ever before the needs of their various clients, and be more willing and able to respond quickly and flexibly to their diverse and changing needs. (West, 1998, p. 67)

The third report of 1998 was the Senate Inquiry into the Status of the Teaching Profession, entitled "*A Class Act*". This report was supportive of the teaching profession and recognised the need to raise its status. However, particular attention and criticism was levied at initial teacher education programs. The report commented that there were many programs that were of poor quality, which were inappropriate and inadequate in preparing preservice teachers for the profession. In particular it was stated that, "the most trenchant criticism to teacher training related to its practical component" (*A Class Act*, p. 183).

The three reports mentioned above all point to the need for change in teacher education. These reports were then superseded by further reports in 1999 and 2000 thus raising to twenty the total of reports and reviews into teacher education since 1980. In the 1999 report of the Ministerial Advisory Council on the Quality of Teaching (MACQT), "Identifying the Challenges: Initial and Continuing Teacher Education for the 21st Century", many of these reports along with their accompanying recommendations appeared. However, another review, "Quality Matters", prepared by Gregor Ramsey (2000) states that the impact of these reports and the 400 recommendations that accompanied them over the last 20 years was minimal.

Ramsey was appointed to address the following four issues:

- the quality of teachers and teaching;
- the implications of technology for pedagogy;
- behaviour management in schools and classrooms; and
- the practicum and the professional experience of teachers.

These issues were selected because they succinctly covered the main areas of concern in teaching and teacher education in NSW in 1999–2000. The first point deals with

the desire by teachers to have their work better understood and more highly valued by the community. The second issue relates to all the new technologies that are being introduced into the classroom and whether they are being effectively integrated into the curriculum. The third issue addresses parents who want to know that teachers are well prepared to manage the distractions and various behaviours that from time-to-time prevent learning from taking place. However, it is point four that has particular relevance for this review of literature. It would appear that once again the dominant issue of concern in teacher education is the practical component currently offered to preservice teachers.

I am convinced that the quality of professional practice in classrooms, government and non-government schools and other educational settings, will be improved by reconnecting universities and schools in initial and continuing teacher education and by strengthening teacher professionalism. Unless new approaches are developed in a number of important areas, my belief is that like the twenty previous reviews of teacher education over the same number of years, little will happen as a result of this Review and good ideas will languish.

(Ramsey, 2000, p. 3)

Ramsey (2000) stated that if change to teacher education was going to be effective then it must involve a partnership or reconnection between universities and schools. He stated that these reforms could not be achieved in isolation and that cooperation was needed from the entire school community. This community would include Universities, the Department of Education and Training (DET), government and non-government schools.

At present in NSW there are several Faculties of Education at different universities trialing or implementing alternative models for the delivery of teacher education. These models include internships, on-line delivery, and establishing partnerships between universities and schools. Some of these universities include Charles Sturt University, Australian Catholic University, University of Technology Sydney and the University of Wollongong.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE KBC PROGRAM

Inevitably reviews such as those listed above precipitate pressure for programmatic and structural change. Like other pre-service teacher education providers in Australia, over the last decade or so, Wollongong seems to have been engaged in a continual round of such change. For example over the last decade, Wollongong has either experimented with and/or implemented changes to:

- the number of courses in the program,
- the content, timing, and placement of these courses in the program;
- the deployment and mix of academic and non-academic staff across these courses;
- the placement and nature of practicum experiences within the program;
- the size and distribution of the credit point values of different courses; and

- changes in the nature of assessment tasks, (including a number of versions of portfolio assessment).

In the last decade, Wollongong has also experimented with and/or implemented:

- *team teaching*;
- *redesigning the nature and content of tutorials and mass lectures*;
- *costly investment in I.T. and on-line teaching*;
- *the establishment of a university-wide department for the improvement of university teaching*;
- *substantial financial prizes for “excellence in teaching”*;
- *competitive seeding funds for “innovative teaching initiatives”*;
- *formal annual assessment of academic teaching (which is linked to promotion)*;
- *peer-mentoring of academics*; and
- *preparation of hortatory “mission-statements” at “planning days” and “staff retreats”*.

(Cambourne *et al.*, 2002b, p. 2)

These attempts at change have at best been only moderately successful in terms of bringing about any significant positive changes in Wollongong’s graduates’ overall perceptions of their pre-service preparation. Nor has the major employing authority indicated that the need for its expensive induction programs has been reduced.

Given this state of affairs, Wollongong’s Faculty of Education decided to explore, design, trial, and evaluate alternate models of pre-service teacher education. In late 1997, a small group initiated an informal, but searching series of discussions within the Education Faculty at the University of Wollongong. The outcomes of these discussions are summarised thus:

The rapidity, at which socio-political change was impacting on all levels of the education system, meant that as teacher educators, we faced a “double whammy”. Not only was it becoming obvious that schools, more than ever, would need increasing numbers of teachers who were both knowledgeable “thinkers” and highly flexible “doers”, but it would be our responsibility to lay the foundations for their life-long professional growth and development.

Like most pre-service teacher education providers we had both anecdotal and empirical evidence which indicated that many of our graduates arrived at schools after graduation very much unaware of how school and classroom cultures operated, were unable to see the relationships between what they had studied in the courses they’d completed, and how it should be translated into effective classroom practice (Grant, 1994).

We were also aware that the system which employed most of our (& other providers’) graduates (The NSW DET), had a long-standing concern that teacher education graduates in general did not know how to solve the kinds of problems which would confront them on appointment to schools, and that as the main employing authority, they were looking for ways to reduce the cost, both in terms of time and personal stress, of the ‘induction period’ that many newly graduated teachers seemed

to need. (Armour and Booth, 1999). That our program, after several long, drawn-out “restructurings”, was at best an eclectic mix of key features of what Reid and O’Donoghue refer to as the “traditional dominant models”. (Reid and O’Donoghue, 2001) This means it was based on a strong underpinning of basic, “non-negotiable skills and knowledge”, to which we’d added layers of a “teacher-as-skilled artisan” ethos, and wrapped it all in the mantle of (so-called) “standards of professional competency”.

Despite this our graduates didn’t seem to change in ways that were commensurate with the constantly changing needs of the profession and/or the systems that employed them. We therefore needed to explore, design, trial, and evaluate alternate models of pre-service teacher education.

Given this rationale, the faculty supported a proposal to design a research project, which would investigate, as a pilot, an alternative approach to initial teacher education through:

- *implementation and evaluation of an inquiry and problem-solving approach such as that used in medicine and the health sciences; and*
- *greater integration of the practical field-based component of the teacher education program with the theoretical.*

(Ref to ESDF/Challenge Grant proposals submitted 1997)

This project was informed by a wide-ranging review of relevant literature (Kiggins, 1998). As a consequence of this review we concluded that we needed to begin a process of challenging, and subsequently changing, the traditional paradigm of pre-service teacher education to which we’d been wedded for as long as we cared to remember. We decided that given the complexity of effecting such change, given our particular University/Faculty socio-political context, our best chance for starting and maintaining such a shift would be to design a project which would produce at least the following changes:

- a shift in the mode of program delivery from the traditional ‘campus-based-lecture-tutorial’ mode to a ‘problem based-learning-within-a-school-site’ mode;
- a shift from the traditional clinical supervision model of practice teaching to a problem-based- action-research-mentoring model that brought the relationship between the specialised knowledge in education courses and the nature and culture of schools and how they “do business”, closer together; and
- a shift in the traditional roles and responsibilities of the major stake holding groups in teacher development, namely, the professional employing authorities, (e.g. the NSW DET, local non-government school systems), the university, local schools, and the Teacher’s Unions (NSWTF), so that a new form of ‘School-based Learning’ might be developed.

It was argued that if we set these three processes in motion, an important by-product would be the opportunity to identify and explore the logistical, cultural, and political barriers to effecting change in:

the teaching/learning culture of undergraduate teacher education (in our context); and the traditional mindset and culture associated with practice-teaching/the practicum, (in our context).

With the above parameters agreed upon a further 2 years of formal and informal meetings with the major stake-holding groups were held. These groups included senior management within the NSW DET Directorates, local superintendents, principals, whole-school staffs, individual teachers, faculty committees and diverse university power brokers, and teacher unions. In these two years different formal committees, working parties, reference groups, met, negotiated, and discussed, it has been estimated that these meetings totaled between 1200 and 1500 hours.

By the beginning of the 1999 academic year a pilot program had been designed. There were two caveats to this design:

1. It was agreed that we would begin with a small sub-group comprising approximately 10% of the new intake, to a maximum of 24 students.
2. The KBC model would operate only in those sessions when practice teaching was scheduled, (Session 1 in first and second year, Session 2 in third year). This meant that the 10% of students who were admitted to participate in the KBC version of the program would be engaged in this form of pre-service professional training for approximately half their total program. For the other half they would join their mainstream peers and engage in the traditional "lecture+tutorial+formal examination" form of program delivery.

THE KBC DESIGN

The agreed upon model would investigate, as a pilot, an alternative approach to initial teacher education through:

... implementation and evaluation of an inquiry and problem-solving approach such as that used in medicine and the health sciences; and a greater integration of the practical field-based component of the teacher education program with the theoretical.

(Cambourne *et al.*, 2002a, p. 2)

Based on this premise the Faculty of Education at the UOW, in partnership with the NSW Department of Education and Training and the New South Wales Teachers' Federation developed the KBC Project. Its design was to explore a number of issues that are of critical importance to models of teacher education in NSW (Ramsey, 2000, p. 57). The KBC is significant because its design offers students the chance to work and learn in a context-specific environment. Cambourne (2000) states that:

... it is possible to reorganise the knowledge bases of undergraduate teacher education subjects so that they are more integrated with school and classroom culture, and therefore more relevant, more meaningful, better appreciated by student teachers, with less duplication across subject areas.

(Cambourne, in Ramsey, 2000, p. 57)

This approach as identified by Cambourne is consistent with the directions identified throughout the Ramsey Report (2000) as necessary to improve the quality of initial teacher education. The KBC may produce beginning teachers who are confident and have the ability to tackle problem solving and collaboration. The KBC process relies

on group and teamwork skills, qualities that will not go unnoticed in the school environment. With the multiplicity of demands that are being placed on teachers today the ability to be an effective member of a team must surely be seen as an added bonus by an employer.

Although a KBC model had been explored for students in schools it had not yet been explored in teacher education. For the purpose of this project the definition of a KBC proposed by Hewitt *et al.* (1995) was adopted. They proposed:

A Knowledge Building Community is a group of individuals dedicated to sharing and advancing the knowledge of the collective. What is defining about a Knowledge Building Community is a commitment among its members to invest its resources in the collective pursuit of understanding.
(Hewitt *et al.*, 1995, p. 1)

The Knowledge Building Community is a teaching model specifically designed to deal with the issue of contextualising the delivery of instruction. One of its important tenets is that instruction should be linked as closely as possible to the contexts and settings to which it applies in the real world. Furthermore KBC's are based on the creation of learning environments that:

- Support the continuous social construction of knowledge,
THROUGH
- ii) The constant construction, de-construction, and reconstruction and sharing of meanings,
SO THAT
- iii) The community's knowledge needs are advanced and maintained

In the University of Wollongong's KBC these principles were applied through the creation of a setting that provided opportunities to engage in three modes of learning: These three underlying learning principles of the KBC are Community Learning, School-Based Learning and the vehicle which drives these two sources of learning is the facilitation of Problem-Based Learning.

- Community Learning (CL): This is achieved through the sharing of ideas and experiences with other community members, these being the preservice students themselves, the facilitators (university lecturers), and school-based teachers;
- School-based learning (SBL): is achieved through participating in the school context over a regular period of time. An important principle in the pilot has been to shift the approach in the practicum component from supervision to mentoring and;
- Problem-based learning (PBL): this is the notion of a curriculum created around a version of problem-based learning designed for use at the University of Wollongong. The use of PBL will enable students to engage in group discussions and data collection to address real life problem scenarios found in school settings. The use of PBL in teacher education places professional practice at the center of the student's learning, which encompasses the learning of the student teacher and the mentor.

Figure 24.1 is a diagrammatic representation of the relationship between these three principles of learning.

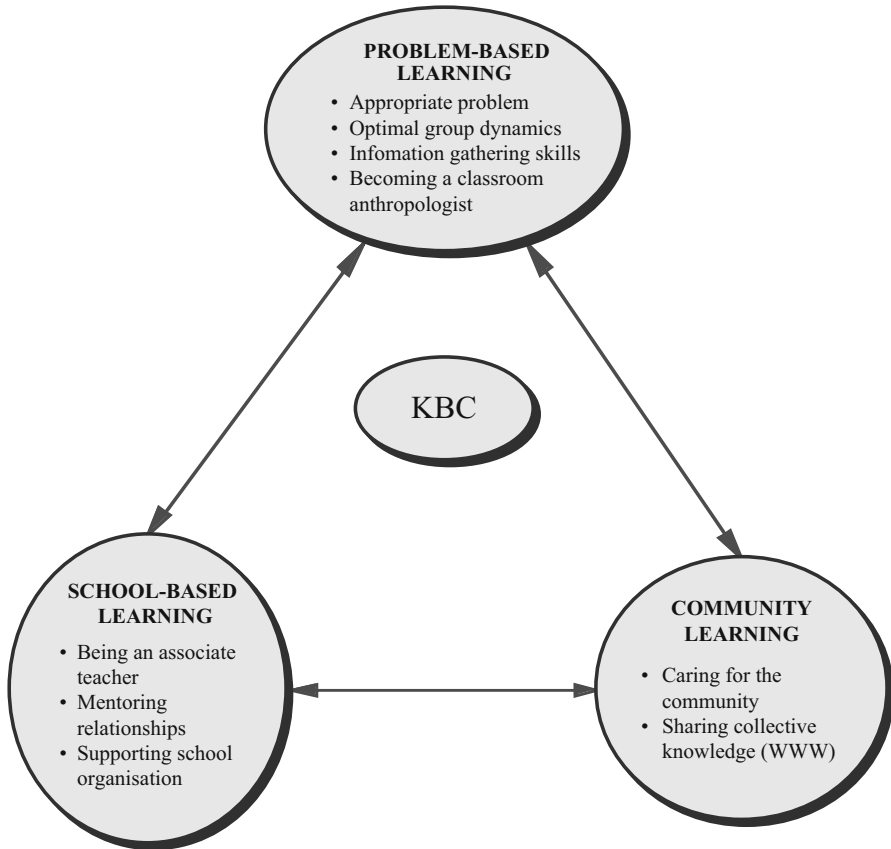


Figure 24.1. The relationship of the three principles of learning in the KBC

The KBC program at the UOW has been evolving for almost 4 years now. Although we've had to abandon some of the original organisational and procedural ideals we started with in 1999, the underlying constructivist rationale and philosophy has remained firmly in place. (Those who are interested in the details of some of these organizational and procedural changes should refer to Kiggins, 2001).

The 2003 KBC model is best described as “negotiated-evaluation-of-a-non-negotiable-curriculum-based-on-a-constructivist-model-of-learning-and-knowledge-building”.

This over-nominalised phrase captures the essence of UOW's KBC program in 2003. While the program is still delivered along the original 1999 guidelines of the KBC ideals (i.e. CL, SBL, and PBL), a significant addition has been the inclusion of what we call, “the four pillars’ of professional wisdom” which now frame and guide the KBC learning process.

Since 2001 the KBC model has given students the responsibility of negotiating their assessment tasks. These assessment tasks must be based on a collaborative analysis of the non-negotiable curriculum i.e. the subject outcomes that mainstream students are expected to acquire. The students then undertake negotiations with the teaching staff of the schools where they are Teacher-Associates to ensure that the tasks they have devised are appropriate and achievable in their particular SBL setting.

These four ‘pillars’ of UOW’s KBC are:

- Taking responsibility for own learning
- Learning through professional collaboration
- Identifying and resolving professional problems
- Becoming a reflective practitioner

When the expectation that all members of the KBC have to acquire skill in using, and demonstrating conceptual understanding of these four ‘pillars’ is made explicit, it sets in train a range of complex interactions within any particular knowledge-building community. These interactions in turn serve to drive and guide the community. One important thing these pillars provide is a set of structures, processes, and a form of discourse, for constructing and completing the assessment tasks. For the four pillars to operate effectively the triadic partnership of the KBC is essential.

THE TRIADIC PARTNERSHIP

The partnership arrangement entered into by the organising bodies i.e. the Faculty of Education at the UOW, the NSW DET and the NSW Teachers’ Federation, once implemented, saw the establishment of a triadic partnership between preservice teachers, school-based mentor teachers and university facilitators. This partnership became known as the ‘community triad’. It is timely to examine the nature of this triadic partnership and the role each stakeholder played. The KBC Project sees the emergence of relationships between the students themselves, and the students with their school-based teacher mentors and KBC facilitators. This “community triad” results in an emergent collaborative relationship between the schools and the university. The importance of the contribution of all stakeholders can be described by using the metaphor of a tripod. Unless all three relationships are well established the process can become unbalanced and, like a tripod with uneven legs, it is unstable. Unstable relationships in the KBC process makes knowledge building difficult. Knowledge building requires students to trust that their colleagues are working towards shared goals. Therefore, trust becomes a required element in the knowledge building process, and if friendship and trust are not present among the student cohort, this process is unlikely to occur.

When students are given the opportunity to create friendship and trust in their school teams they can develop responsibility for their learning and with the support of the community triad (the KBC facilitators, school-based teachers and each other) they can develop ownership of their learning. Importantly, having the KBC facilitators work with the students at university and in the schools helps to keep the triad functioning.

The KBC Project was intended to provide students with quality learning experiences, and what has also emerged, is that the social interaction and support of each other and/or the facilitators and/or the school-based teacher mentors as provided by the KBC structure serves as an important influence on any or all of the students' experiences. In schools the KBC students felt supported by their mentors and were encouraged to take risks. Likewise on campus the unrestricted access to the facilitators allows for the process of co-learning between the students and the facilitators to develop. The homeroom atmosphere and developing friendships ensured that trust among the students was becoming a stable platform for them to build knowledge.

The development and formation of the community triad is an important component of this alternative model of teacher education. This is especially the case in view of the complexity of the knowledge building process. Because knowledge building takes place in two contexts i.e. the school and the university, the community triad has the common factors that support the students in either setting. Knowledge building in these two contexts is difficult and therefore a social structure is vital to underpin the design of the KBC model.

Figure 24.2 is a diagrammatic representation demonstrating the social structure necessary to replicate a community triad for any future KBC cohort. It includes the role of the students, university and school staff. This figure not only shows the component of a social structure but also highlights the importance of them linking together and the presence of a homeroom to promote a sense of belonging. The planning for this needs to be done prior to students entering the KBC project or any of the participating schools. The creation of the community between KBC facilitators and school-based staff needs to be viewed as a partnership. When the partnership is operating efficiently it will keep all members informed or 'in the loop' as to the progress of the students in either setting.

Figure 24.2 also illustrates the social structures that underpin the KBC at the UOW. This figure depicts the partnership that has evolved throughout 1999–2002. The figure outlines the components and relationships that lead to the formation of a KBC.

The learning in a KBC model requires a coherent partnership between learning in school and at university. The roles of members of the triad are crucial to the success of the program. The role of each of these stakeholders as illustrated in Figure 24.2 is discussed below.

University facilitators

The university facilitators are responsible for the coordination of the program, the school liaison and the recruitment of students. In terms of the coordination it is the facilitators' duties to ensure that students meet the outcomes of the subjects in which they are enrolled. This aspect requires meetings with mainstream subject coordinators and lecturers, as well as regular KBC facilitator meetings that discuss and debrief the students' progress. It is important in a project such as this that unity and teamwork is not regarded as only a student expectation. The role of KBC facilitator is a more personal approach and teaching/facilitation takes place not just in the KBC homeroom but also in the school.

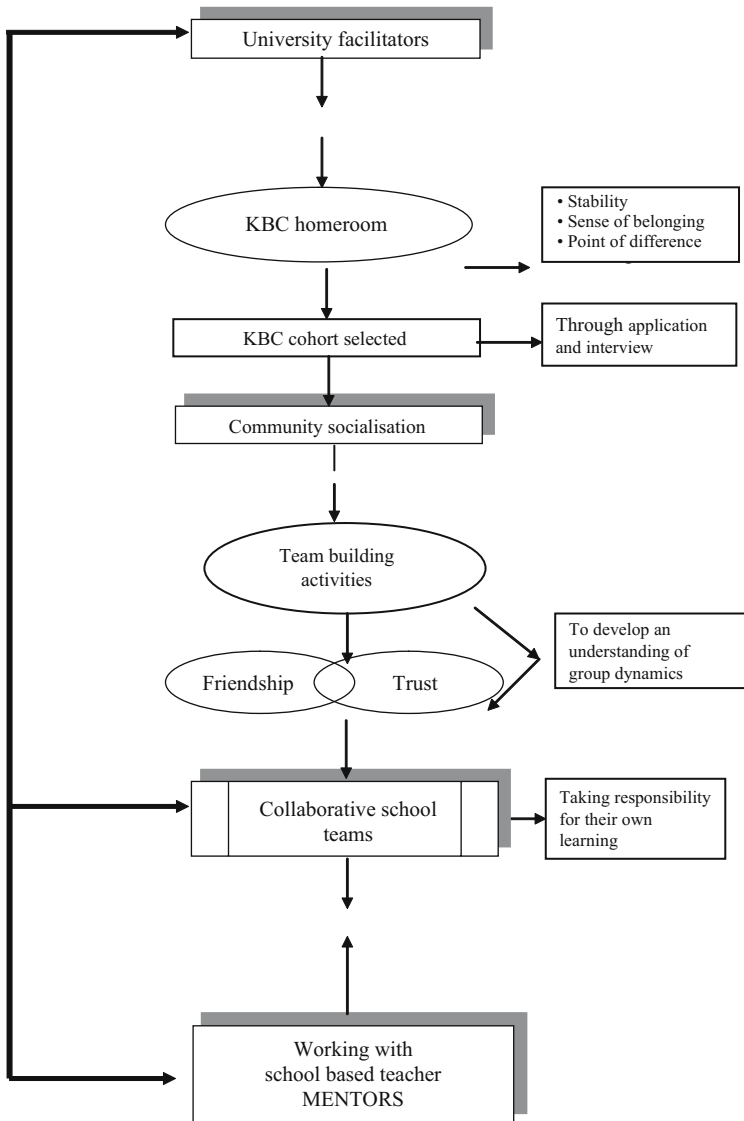


Figure 24.2. Social structures required to underpin a KBC

The KBC homeroom

An important component of the KBC Project is that the KBC facilitation team must arrange a designated homeroom and it must be obtained prior to the students’ arrival on campus. The homeroom must not be a common teaching area; it needs to be for the sole purpose of KBC teaching and learning activities. This physical space plays a vital role in the establishment of the KBC. The homeroom provides stability, a sense

of belonging, and a place to display work products and emphasises a point of difference from the traditional mainstream. It is the location where all workshops are held.

KBC cohort selection process

Another role that the KBC facilitator plays is that of recruitment of KBC students. This step must be included into any 'formula' that attempts to outline the steps required forming a KBC Project.

Community socialisation

When the students have been recruited through an application and interview process the KBC facilitators then undertake the process of community socialisation. Workshops and team building activities that allow students to meet and work with each other and learn about group dynamics can foster a sense of community. As the students spend time together friendships emerge. As the students begin to grasp the principles of group work and get to know one another and how one another works then trust will also begin to play a role.

When students develop friendships and trust they have the basis of a foundation that should enable them to work collaboratively in school teams with their school-based mentors.

Collaborative school teams

To maintain the KBC partnership it is important for all members to be aware of the roles and responsibilities of each other. This includes the KBC students. KBC students are the common link between the university facilitator and the school-based teacher mentor. KBC students need to understand how they fit into the community triad and the role that they are expected to play. This understanding will benefit the students when they move between the two learning settings, i.e. the school and the university.

The KBC student needs to be proactive and want to take responsibility for his or her own learning. They should like open and interactive debate and enjoy the prospect of questioning and investigating in the school setting. The KBC Project is best suited to students who like working in groups and collaborating with each other. In the KBC Project students need to accept that they need to collaborate with each other and not compete against one another.

The social structure that underpins the KBC Project relies on the roles that the school-based teacher mentor and university facilitator plays and these members need to accept that informed students will be questioning and investigating their practice and viewing themselves as co-learners. Therefore collaborative school teams are needed for the triadic partnership to form. These collaborative school teams share the roles of educational anthropologists, problem solvers and mentees.

As educational anthropologists, the students develop structures and processes that help them to understand their mentors' classroom. They also need to be able to identify teacher 'informants', teachers who may wish to offer other insights and information about teaching, learning, children and schools. When the school teams are working *collaboratively* they will begin to share *responsibility for their learning*,

ensuring that they work as an efficient team of learners who collectively find and share knowledge.

Ideally these teams will be able to work outside of their school team, sharing insights with all members of the KBC. The process of knowledge building often takes place when the teams return to the homeroom, is a process that needs facilitation and doesn't happen immediately. Success is reliant on the facilitating team carrying out their role in regards to school liaison and ensuring that all participating schools and mentors know their roles and responsibilities in the KBC Project.

THE SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER MENTORS

The third aspect in the community triad is the role that the teacher mentor plays. This is a subtle but significant change of the culture of the practicum experience for the schools involved. This shift is essentially from a "clinical-supervision-one-classroom-teacher-to-one-student" model to a "mentoring-whole-school-participates" model. This role cannot be underestimated. When the students commence in the schools after approximately five weeks of session one, it will be their teacher mentor that they turn to for advice and support. The partnership that is created between mentor and mentee will be pivotal for the SBL phase. The students have rated their time in schools as beneficial because it was here that they were able to experience the day-to-day operations and come to grips with the multi-faceted role of teachers. Just as the students reported that they were learning from their mentors, the mentor teachers reported that they too were learning from the Teacher Associates.

One unexpected spin-off of this change is the perception of teachers at the KBC schools of their own professional growth as they responded to the many probing questions about the rationale for the many school and classroom practices which KBC students continually asked as they sought data for their research tasks. Marks (2001), reported on this aspect of his school's involvement in UOW's KBC program. He stated that:

Research strongly supports the conclusion that reflection does enhance teaching and learning. In our school experience since 1999, reflective practices amongst the staff have developed:

- *as a result of taking on mentoring roles for the KBC program, and*
- *as a result of collegial management and supervisory styles becoming the philosophical base of our school.*
- *In essence the KBC program operated as the vehicle for the implementation of reflection through the mentoring role.*

(Marks, 2001, p. 9)

CONCLUSION

As the learning in a KBC model requires a relationship between learning in school and at university the role of members of the triad is crucial to the success of the program.

The type of learning proposed by a KBC model necessitates that the students make their own connections between what they see in schools, read about and discuss at university. In particular, they need regular contact between members of the triad.

The general consensus from all of the stakeholders who have been involved from the very beginning, (students, lecturing staff and schools) is that the program has both tangible and intangible benefits that make it a preferable to the traditional mainstream mode of delivery. The tangible benefits include:

- Students who develop the skills, knowledge, and understandings of effective teaching to a much higher degree, in a much shorter time;
- Students who are perceived by experienced teachers to be more committed, enthusiastic, confident professionals, than mainstream students in the same cohort;
- Students who are perceived by other mainstream lecturers to be more skilled at identifying and resolving professional problems, who are more effective and productive team members, who are more autonomous learners and more reflective than most mainstream peers; and
- A much stronger partnership between the university, the local schools, the major employing authority, and the teachers' union.

In order to maintain the working relationship/partnership between the university and the schools the university facilitator must maintain a presence in the schools. When the facilitator, the school-based teacher and the KBC students are all in schools at the same time it cements the triadic partnership that underpins the KBC Project.

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25. NEWLY QUALIFIED TEACHERS IN HONG KONG:
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OR
MEETING ONE'S FATE?

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE

In recent years much attention has been paid to the start up period in teaching influenced at least in part by two main concerns. Firstly, global and local influences such as educational reforms, demographic changes, concern about standards and the professional ladder, teacher supply and retention and pressures for school effectiveness and improvement position 'new' teachers in the van of implementing or bearing the brunt of new educational policies. Secondly there is evidence of a growing understanding that professional formation and professional development are elements of a single continuous process and that this implies the significance of continuity between initial teacher education and subsequent experience in teaching work. Such continuity may be both contractual and professionally developmental: that is, it may relate to both the speed and ease of finding work and the perceived opportunities for development. The evidence suggests that the transition into working as a teacher has important implications for establishing professional standards, and justifying subsequent professional development along the professional ladder (Huberman, 1993, Gold 1996).

An understanding of the importance of the early period in post in any work has been informed by occupational research which highlights both the significance of early success in a post for subsequent commitment and the importance of focussing on staff as a key resource in an organisation (Schein, 1968). Studies of induction into new posts (Nicholson and West, 1988) have shown that good induction is enabling, while inadequate or inaccurate induction is disabling. Their model of induction suggests four stages: preparation, encounter, adjustment and stabilisation. An important emphasis in their model and a period often overlooked in practice is the *preparation* stage prior to taking up a post, when there is the opportunity to familiarise new recruits with key information they will need to ready themselves for the work to be done and orient themselves to the new work setting. Applying the lessons learned from occupational research to teaching we can posit that good induction will include the provision of useful information to staff both before and when they arrive in post, the provision of support for survival in the early stages and feedback on their teaching. Schein's emphasis on early success has particular implications for the timetable and classes which new teachers are given and for the extent to which teachers are clear about what is expected of them and whether and how well they achieve it. Echoing Ball (1994) and Kuzmic (1994), Kelchtermans and Ballet (2002) reinforce the importance of the induction period in acquainting new teachers with the micropolitics of the school as an aid to their survival and progress.

Educational research suggests that starting work as a teacher is a potentially overwhelming experience for new teachers report becoming more aware of the heavy responsibility they carry for learner's education and future opportunities than had been apparent to them as students on placement in other teachers' classes (in the U.K. see Draper *et al.*, 1991: in H.K. see Griffin, 1982, 1983 and Griffins and 1984). Their evidence suggests that professional placement experiences – such as school experience/teaching practice – while offering opportunities to practise the technical skills of teaching are unable to fully familiarise the student teacher with all the demands of the teacher's role. Such 'praxis shock' has been noted by many researchers in spite of considerable efforts to develop appropriate support systems (Rust, 1994, Gold, 1996, Wideen *et al.*, 1998). Bullough *et al.*, (1989) describe new teachers facing the need to build a professional identity and self esteem as they move into work. The notion of a smooth transition into work seems optimistic in the face of all these findings but also suggests that induction is important to ease the passage where possible. Where new teachers are additionally faced with job-insecurity such as is posed by fixed-term contracts, there is additional evidence (Draper *et al.*, 1998) that teachers invest their time in seeking future work rather than on their professional development. In addition, Kelchtermans and Ballet (2002) found that those who did not find work in teaching quickly experienced increased doubt about their professional competence and their self esteem was threatened.

Drawing on evidence of the complexity and difficulty of starting to teach, some systems have developed elaborate mechanisms to support induction – for example in Scotland and England – often with some element of working time free of teaching commitments and an entitlement to support. In such systems the induction period leads to an assessment hurdle which represents a test for full entry to the teaching profession. A controversial dimension of these developments is their assumption that stakeholders are in agreement about teaching-fundamentals (Britzman, 2000).

Currently the debate about what constitutes teaching-fundamentals has raised concerns over the reduction of teacher training to a set of technical skills and mechanistic activities. Attempts to relegate teaching to a set of easily measurable behaviours and outcomes, while typically characteristic of the new managerialist approach to public sector management, are thought to diminish the true nature of both the impact and content of teaching. The extensive literature on teaching as a profession (including that by Eraut, 1994, Kirk *et al.*, 2000, Day, 1999) highlights a number of features which are understood to be characteristic of professional work including autonomy, a commitment to service and a commitment to improvement which go well beyond a technicist conception of teachers' work. The advent of the Lifelong learning approach reinforces the importance of developing positive attitudes to continuing professional development (Day, 1999), through professional commitment.

Other systems not characterised by an extended certification stage assume new teachers are full members of the profession from the point of qualifying. These systems prompt their own particular debate. Characterised by perceptions of being required to train too-much within too little time, teacher-trainers' debate prioritise their focus on either extending trainees existing beliefs (Calderhead and Robson,

1991), encourage trainees to go beyond best current practice (Bramald *et al.*, 1995, Wideen *et al.*, 1998) or recognise the need to change trainees' perspectives (Lieberman, 2000). Choosing between such priorities has been argued to be solely the responsibility of teacher educators (Hargreaves, 1994; Dill, 1998; Wilson, 2000) while others see in such a demarcation a breeding-ground for conformity and compliance (Elby, 1997; Britzman, 2000). Such debate again points to continuing uncertainty about teaching-fundamentals although one dimension of teachers' work which has been generally agreed as key to the success of new teachers is successful class management and control (Veenman, 1984).

In Hong Kong those entering teaching experience a system that equates salary to qualifications. Three different routes are possible and equate to different salary expectations, the highest being a full-time pre-service teacher education, followed by part-time in-service teacher education while teaching as an unqualified teacher and the lowest, teaching without a professional qualification. New teachers seek posts in competition with other teachers and once in post have full teaching commitments. The challenge for teacher-trainers of full-time pre-service teachers under this Hong Kong system is to help these new teachers to cope as full members of the profession from the point of qualifying.

Common to both approaches to the professional formation of teachers has been concern with providing scope for reflection on early professional experience (Schon, 1991; Elby, 1997). Continuing to reflect upon practice is recognised both as an important dimension for professional development and very difficult for those who carry a full timetable from day one. Opportunities to reflect upon what is working and what isn't are limited when work demands are perceived to be very high. The availability of colleagues as mentors to facilitate that reflection is similarly important. If this perception of high workload is shared by both new-teachers and by experienced teachers, it may threaten the provision of effective school-based mentoring (Pang, 2001; Cheng *et al.*, 2002).

Using these ideas of professionalism and induction into post as a framework for the evaluation of teachers work, this chapter will explore the experiences of newly qualified teachers in Hong Kong. It will also seek to evaluate to what extent and in what ways new teachers in Hong Kong have a good professional start to their careers and what predictions might be made about their continuing professional development in teaching.

RESEARCH METHOD

To investigate beginning teachers' experiences of their first year of teaching a mixed quantitative and qualitative approach was adopted. Graduates ($n = 72$:12% of Hong Kong's annual supply of new graduate teachers) from one full-time Post Graduate in Education Programme (PGDE) (offered by the Department of Education Studies, Hong Kong Baptist University PGDE in AY 2001–02) were monitored during one Secondary school year (September to June 2002–03). Two parallel questionnaires were issued to these graduates – the first in September 2002, the second in June

2003. To add qualitative insights to this quantitative data, randomly selected volunteers ($n = 12:17\%$) were interviewed at four times throughout the teaching year (September, December, April and June).

The two parallel questionnaires were derived from an established study of teachers conducted in Scotland and adapted to the Hong Kong context. Comprising twenty-three open-ended questions, the two parallel questionnaires explored respondents' teaching duties, experience of applying for a teaching post; formal induction into teaching; informal induction into teaching; self-perceptions of themselves as teachers; current experiences of being a teacher, reflections on their PGDE programme and personal details (excluding personal identifiers).

The timing of the two parallel questionnaires sought to capture pre and post experiential views of respondents' first year as a full time Secondary school teacher. The first questionnaire was completed within the first month of full-time teaching (September 2002); the second questionnaire was administered within the last month of full-time teaching (June 2003). The return rates for each questionnaire were low (respectively 43% and 28%) and attributed to an overlap with other questionnaires at the beginning of the year and at the end of the year and a combination of unforeseen factors including employment-uncertainty and the pressures of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS). As the questionnaires were anonymous, cross comparison of individual responses was not possible. Although the results of each questionnaire cannot be claimed to be representative they do reveal a number of issues which must be of concern.

Four sets of standardised interviews were made by one interviewer employing a standardised interview protocol comprising prompts and probes that sought to explore respondents' teaching context; views on what is 'good' about teaching; views about what is 'challenging' about teaching; what support they have received, what support they would like to receive and their reflections on the PGDE training programme.

The interview schedule comprised four interviews – the first as the school started (September) followed by interviews that trisected the teaching year (December; April; June). The closure of schools due to Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) in March & April enforced two methodological adjustments. First, the April interviews were completed by telephone: second, the April interview questioned respondents' views *prior* to SARS then duplicated the same questions but with reference to respondents' views *during* SARS.

All interviewees ($n = 12:17\%$) comprised randomly selected volunteers. Where interviews were conducted in Cantonese, verified translations made these responses available in English. Coding and tabulation of recorded responses was verified through standard protocols involving independent parallel analysis. To protect respondents' identities, all quotations are cited free of personal identifiers.

In summation, both the questionnaire and interview data provides evidence of respondents' teaching context, support received, experiences of being a teacher and reflections on the PGDE programme. Drawing on this evidence now provides insights to these newly qualified teachers' experiences and their responses to their first teaching year.

FINDINGS

Two clusters are reported: first, their experiences of finding work, induction and preparation and their responses to teaching, establishing competence and their future professional development.

Finding work

For our sample, finding work had not been easy. They reported making numerous applications (minimum 40, maximum 250, with a mean of 70), resulting in a small number of subsequent interviews. Over half had been offered only one post but 40% had had a choice. For those who were able to choose a post, the nature of the contract (permanent or renewable) had been the most important criterion, followed by location. A third of the respondents held full time permanent contracts. In summary, respondents reported a highly competitive job-market where the majority (66%) of those who found teaching posts were on fixed-term contracts.

The posts which the new teachers held were distributed across the ability bands of Hong Kong pupils. Half taught at least two forms and three quarters taught up to three different forms, and half taught one or two remedial forms. While 12 taught one subject, 9 taught 2 subjects and 7 taught three. The new teachers mostly taught a range of forms at different stages with a spread of ages of at least 3 years. The range of students and subjects was thus substantial. Three quarters (22) reported their teaching load as average, while 5 teachers said their load was heavy. By the second data collection point under a third (6) said their load was average and over half (11) perceived it as heavy. The teachers do not report significant changes in the number of forms or hours they teach and thus it is assumed that this difference of perception has come about because they are now more familiar with their colleagues' workload than they were at the earlier stage. In summary, these new teachers were required to teach across ability bands, across school forms and across subjects – in effect new teachers were not 'eased' into the teaching profession.

Induction and preparation

In our sample of Hong Kong teachers nearly all (93%) knew they had a job at least 2–3 weeks before it began. Information on their teaching timetable took a little longer however with 80% knowing their timetable a week in advance, 10% finding out their timetable the week they began teaching and 10% still unsure at the time of the questionnaire. School policies took a little longer again with three quarters (73%) knowing about them a week before they began work and 20% finding out in week one. Learning about school practices was a mystery to nearly half of the sample until the week they actually began teaching, and 17% remained unsure at the time of the first questionnaire. Finally knowing who to ask for reliable help was unclear to one third during the first week of teaching and this had significant consequences:

Because I didn't know (who to ask) I was crying at home when facing some problems.

In the initial stages of teaching only one third had been allocated a formal mentor and even when there was an identified supporter, support was not guaranteed. While some saw their mentor regularly, for example, every 2 days, about twice a month etc. and some frequently, others had no set pattern of meetings and some had no meetings at all. Some had no fixed time but the mentor was approachable when there was a problem which while offering support placed the beginning teacher into deficit rather than more positive mode. Asked about advice offered by the mentor there were only a few mentions of advice for professional practice, for example on dealing with classroom discipline or preparation of work and no mentions of help in understanding what Ball (1994) terms ‘the micropolitics of the school’. For a fortunate minority advice was available elsewhere:

It is good that there are three new teachers (including me) ... we get great support from each other. I also have friends who entered the profession this year ... we often talk on the phone. I'm also extremely lucky that I also get support from my family ... both my parents are teachers.

Taken together the above findings suggest that a significant proportion of new teachers lacked the basic guidance and information they needed in order to perform effectively in the teaching role.

Given these experiences, how did these new recruits respond? The following now reports their initial responses to teaching, establishing competence and their future professional development.

INITIAL RESPONSES TO TEACHING

Levels of commitment – see Table 25.1 – are similar at the two stages and suggest that experience had not blunted their enthusiasm for teaching. These findings are encouraging as positive indicators of their professional commitment and perhaps of their effective pre-employment training.

Most (70%) saw themselves as still developing their teaching style. Informed by feedback mainly from pupils only a few felt they were performing poorly as teachers though only a quarter said they were doing well.

There was more satisfaction with salary in the earlier but not the later stage perhaps linked to a growing perception of a heavy work-load which, as in many other studies, was a major and continuing issue of concern – Table 25.2. Friendliness of colleagues was valued “*Someone to talk to ... to cope with the stress*” but more so than their professional

TABLE 25.1 Commitment to the job

		Early	Later
1	Very little	0	0
2		16.7	10.5
3		70	73.7
4	Complete	13.3	15.8

TABLE 25.2 Mean satisfaction with aspects of teaching (4 point scale, 1 = very satisfied, 4 = very dissatisfied)

	Early	Later
<i>Increased satisfaction</i>		
Balance between work and personal life	2.73	2.63
Friendliness of colleagues	1.83	1.78
<i>Decreased satisfaction</i>		
Salary	1.77	2.11
Workload	2.53	2.57
Colleagues' views of teaching	1.97	2.37
Society's view of teaching	2.03	2.47
Availability of resources	2.47	2.57

views. Moral support from society and teaching resources were increasingly perceived as unsatisfactory. These cumulative pressures on new teachers are perhaps reflected in concerns over the balance between work and personal life, especially in the earlier stage.

Overall Table 25.2 demonstrates that satisfaction decreased slightly over the period – a summation ironically summarised by one interviewee as: *To survive you have to be 'superwoman'*.

Establishing competence

When do new teachers find out what is important to do well? At the outset 11% remained in the dark and nearly half (48%) reported they did not know if their performance was 'ok'. Of those who claimed they did know over half (53%) reported they had found out for themselves. Only a third reported they had been told either by their Panel Chairs, or by administrative staff. Notably, the main source of information on school policies and practices was the administrative staff.

The dissemination of professional knowledge by non-professional sources is also apparent when new teachers reported how they knew that their performance was 'ok'. Minor sources of this knowledge comprised experienced teachers (10%) or Panel Chairs (3%); major sources were self discovery (21%), pupils (10%) or administrative staff (7%). Such dependency on professional knowledge from non-professional sources does not bode well for this profession.

Their future professional development

Most were intending to stay in teaching (84%) with nearly 70% considering further training, mostly at masters' level. For the minority in stable employment, future concerns focused on their perceived heavy workload. Asked what professional development would assist them, the majority raised pragmatic issues related to alleviating workload stress:

Less work! ... smaller class size ... someone to talk to ...

For the majority – those on fixed-term contracts – their key challenge was that of securing a new post or contract renewal.

DISCUSSION

Several factors have been identified as contributing to the effective induction, professional development and commitment of new teachers – good preparation, support, feedback on teaching, early success – and it seems that against this standard the experiences of at least some new teachers in Hong Kong are less supportive than they might be. While some new entrants are fortunate, and find themselves in supportive school environments others lack basic information about the context in which they are working, what is expected of them and feedback on how well they are doing. In the absence of key information and feedback many fall back on their own self evaluations, uninformed by other professional advice. It is interesting, though not unusual, that a professional group committed to the learning of others does not consistently and consciously apply that understanding of learning to its own members. Yet it is not only the new teachers themselves but the schools in which they work and most importantly their pupils who pay the price of inadequate support. In these circumstances it is difficult to see how their professional development can be progressed as well as it might be. The aim in seeking continuity with initial training is not only to ease the passage into teaching but also simultaneously to locate new teachers on a path of continuing professional development.

The achievement of early success has been identified as particularly important for the consolidation and development of teacher commitment. The evidence offered here suggests that several factors reduce the chance of early success for these new teachers. Fostering commitment to teaching is not only important for those concerned about supply and retention. It has significance for attitudes and motivation to professional development. While some new teachers are clearly offered experiences which support the development of commitment, others' experiences fall far short of this. A key dimension of professional behaviour is commitment to continuing improvement. In the absence of support and feedback one danger is that staff will settle for 'good enough' teaching: getting by rather than getting on, and that in time their approach to their work will be characterised by a restricted professional strategy.

A further dimension highlighted in these findings is the impact of fixed-term contracts. That a considerable proportion are concerned about the possibility of finding a secure post does not bode well for commitment nor professional development. It is expensive to train teachers and, in a fast changing environment characterised in Hong Kong by rapid changes in educational priorities, it is important that they further develop their competence once in post. Both initial training and subsequent professional development are investments in education. Establishing formal support structures or at least ensuring that the experiences of new teachers are monitored for their induction and developmental value would be steps toward protecting these investments and enhancing the education of the pupils these new teachers teach.

Since many of the teachers had little or no choice about the school in which they taught and schools offered very different opportunities to new teachers, it appears that becoming a new teacher in Hong Kong is less a matter of professional development and more a case of meeting one's fate.

CONCLUSION

The evidence indicates that Hong Kong Secondary schools fail to provide adequate – or indeed any – mentoring support to these new teachers. However within the current Hong Kong professional teacher training system there is as yet little support provided to compensate schools that wish to devote valuable staff-time to mentoring.

If, as the evidence suggests, new teachers are left largely unsupported at the beginning of their teaching careers, the question arises about what support can established teachers expect? Where new teachers and experienced teachers are both being tasked by new education reforms and changing educational priorities, adequate provision for school-based staff-support systems may seem an essential investment.

Where schools cannot offer support, the possibility arises of enhancing the role of teacher-training providers. The current teacher-training learning-scaffold may be further developed to address the issues and concerns raised by these findings. Where new teachers' perceptions of their initial year career can more closely conform to its realities, then their transition into professional teaching may be less a matter of meeting one's fate and more closely conform to a professional development.

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26. MEETING THE STANDARD? THE NEW TEACHER EDUCATION INDUCTION SCHEME IN SCOTLAND

THE SCOTTISH CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK

Recent interest in providing teachers in Scotland with a coherent career development path has led to a framework for Continuing Professional Development (CPD) being established. Following Initial Teacher Education (ITE), beginning teachers work towards demonstrating that they have reached the Standard for Full Registration (SFR) (SEED, 2002). This Standard builds on the required outcomes of ITE, but has a greater emphasis on consistency and consolidation/extension of professional practice coupled with some new areas of development. Teachers are expected to reach this level by the end of their first year of teaching, but they do so in extremely supportive circumstances. Later in their careers, teachers can work towards the Chartered Teacher Standard (Kirk *et al.*, 2003; O'Brien and Draper, 2003) and the Standard for Headship (O'Brien *et al.*, 2003).

PREVIOUS WORK ON BEGINNING TEACHERS

There has been much interest in the professional development of teachers in their first year and in characteristics of induction and mentoring (e.g. Bullough, 1989; Gold, 1996; Lang, 2002). In Scotland, work from the late 1980s and early 1990s suggested that the two year probation period for entrants to the profession was experienced more as a time of trial than a time of development (Draper *et al.*, 1991). For many, the emphasis was on proving that they were capable of doing the job but for some it was also an opportunity to build on ITE and to develop their own style and build expectations of professional development as a career long process.

This study also identified good practice, particularly in the area of observation. This included probationers having prior notice of when observation was going to take place, there being a specific focus for observation, and opportunities being created to share feedback after the observation period. Recently the need for a clear and negotiated focus has been highlighted (Bleach, 1999), as has the need for observers to be trained in high-order inter-personal skills (Smith, 1997).

While much was already understood about what might be helpful in probation, it was clear that this did not translate into experience for all beginning teachers. Failings included a high proportion of unanticipated observations and lack of feedback (Draper *et al.*, 1991, 1993). More recent surveys found that the Scottish two-year probationary period was being served in a range of ways. About half of those who began teaching in

Scotland in 1995 worked full time in one school while others worked part time or in several schools. Some had to complete their probation by taking a series of supply jobs, sometimes in many, many schools, with great uncertainty of employment and little, if any, support for their development. The average length of time to complete the two year probationary period was three and a half years, if indeed they persevered in the profession (Draper *et al.*, 1997a; SEED, 2001). The experience of probation 'on supply' in particular led to an emphasis on coping and on securing further employment which detracted from the process of development. (Draper *et al.*, 1997b).

THE NEW TEACHER INDUCTION SCHEME: CHANGING THE EXPERIENCE OF PROBATION

The fragmentary nature of some probationers' employment and the lack of systematic support was described in 2000 by the 'McCrone' Committee of Enquiry into professional conditions of service for teachers as 'little short of scandalous' (SEED, 2000, p. 7). It recommended that probationers be offered more continuous employment and not be used for supply teaching.

The Agreement which followed the 'McCrone' Report, *A Teaching Profession for the 21st century*, made provision for changes to be made to the probationary period and in August 2002 new teachers joined a Teacher Induction Scheme which involved a number of significant differences from the earlier model. Probation was reduced from two years to one. Instead of the range of early experiences, every teacher completing their ITE in Scotland was entitled to a one year training post. Student teachers were asked to rank five Authorities (out of 32) as their first five choices for placement. Places were then allocated through a process designed to match choices to predicted vacancies. In the event there were more probationers than vacancies then some supernumerary posts were created. The uncertainty about finding work in teaching that had dogged those entering teaching was replaced by a guarantee of initial work and supported development.

Instead of teaching full time, new teachers were guaranteed a 70% teaching load, with 30% of the time designated for professional development. Support became an entitlement, with an experienced member of staff designated as a mentor or supporter and freed for 10% of the week. Starting pay for new teachers would be on a new point below teacher scale. In the past, summative assessment determined whether probationers would be permitted to become fully registered with the General Teaching Council Scotland (GTCS) as members of the profession. With the new scheme, probationers have to produce a portfolio of evidence to show that they have met the newly introduced SFR, against a background of structured observation and development opportunities.

THE STANDARD FOR FULL REGISTRATION

The Standard for Full Registration has two purposes. First of all, it serves as a scaffold for the professional development expected of teachers during the course of their

induction and secondly, it provides a benchmark against which beginning teachers can be assessed.

The standard consists of 23 quite general statements augmented by 96 more specific illustrations of professional practice. The statements are presented under the headings Professional Knowledge and Understanding, Professional Skills and Abilities and Professional Values and Personal Commitments, a model which permeates the CPD framework. The subheadings for Professional Knowledge and Understanding are curriculum, educational systems and professional responsibilities and principles and perspectives. Professional Skills and Abilities include teaching and learning, classroom organisation and management, the assessment of pupils and professional reflection and communication.

THE REALITY OF THE FIRST YEAR

This chapter focuses on observation and the Standard for Full Registration, elements of a study of the experiences of secondary probationers and their supporters in the first year of the Scheme. The Project report (Christie *et al.*, 2003) and related publications (Draper *et al.*, 2004; O'Brien and Christie, 2005) provide additional information and commentary on other aspects of the study.

Of course, the reality of the Scheme in its first year may well be different from that of following years as it beds down and all concerned become better acquainted with its requirements. Because it was introduced precipitately, there were muddled arrangements in the early stages. There were for example failures of communication regarding the placement of probationers (one probationer we interviewed had to inform the school himself that he had been appointed there), late arrival in schools of the documentation accompanying the Scheme, and placements that made no allowance for difficult personal circumstances. The perception of the probationers and supporters was that there was a certain arbitrariness in the way concessions were made to people unhappy with their placement. These administrative glitches may well be unique to the first year of the Scheme's operation. Nevertheless, a good understanding of what has and has not worked will, we hope, provide a good resource for all concerned with the Scheme in the future and allow both comparison with studies of the introduction of similar innovations elsewhere (for example in England, Kyriacou and O'Connor (2003), and for Hong Kong in 2003 (ACTEQ)) and the identification of implications for policy implementation.

RESEARCHING THE INDUCTION SCHEME

Data on the Scheme was collected in a number of ways. Case Studies were carried out in 12 Secondary Schools in 12 different Local Authorities. The probationers and those supporting them both departmentally and at a whole school level were interviewed and documents relating to the Scheme were gathered. In addition, a twenty-six item questionnaire, including open and closed questions, was sent to all 32 Education Authorities in Scotland for completion by the person with overall responsibility for

probationers. Twenty-five Authorities responded, representing a 78% response rate. Finally, data were collected from probationers by means of an online questionnaire as the first year of the Scheme was ending. There were 44 responses with just under half from probationers who had taken part in the case studies while the others were from individuals involved in an informal on-line support network for probationers set up by a Higher Education Institution.

In this chapter we are, of course, only able to report on a small proportion of the data gathered. The main focus will be the Scheme as experienced by the probationers themselves and we shall seek to address the issue of the balance experienced in the new scheme between proving competence and development.

EXPERIENCES OF PROBATIONERS

The probationers' experiences were extensive. The Scheme's documentation expects that the probationers will take part in a considerable amount of observation and this happened in most cases. All the respondents to the on-line questionnaire had observed somebody else teaching and all had been formally observed, although not everyone had been observed the expected number of times. Other CPD activities reported including shadowing classes or pupils, being a member of a school committee, attending CPD courses either offered by the Local Authority specifically for probationers or general curriculum related courses, visits to other schools or departments within the school and in a handful of cases, relating research to practice.

In addition, the Scheme suggests support in the form of a weekly meeting and tries to ensure progression and ownership by requiring that targets be negotiated. In the Case Study interviews, probationers were invited to give examples of their current targets. These could be divided broadly into teaching and learning issues, such as differentiation and learning support, behaviour and classroom management, curriculum issues, such as investigating a stage not on their timetable, and ICT, both improving personal skills and using ICT in the classroom. Understanding of other parts of the school's life, such as Guidance and Social Education was also mentioned, as were the New Community School and a visit to a Primary School.

Together these represent major developmental opportunities for these new teachers and significant progress when compared to the varied set of experiences available prior to the new system. They also reflect a wide conception of professional development, with different types of learning opportunity being offered.

OBSERVATION AND THE STANDARD FOR FULL REGISTRATION (SFR)

Our main focus within the confines of this chapter is observation, as this was a significant lack for many in the old dispensation. The expectation is that there will be regular observation sessions. First, we report on the frequency of observation, who the observers were, the perceived usefulness of observation and variations in practice, mainly based on the data from the online questionnaire. Then we examine the comments made during the Case Study interviews on experiences of observation and assessment.

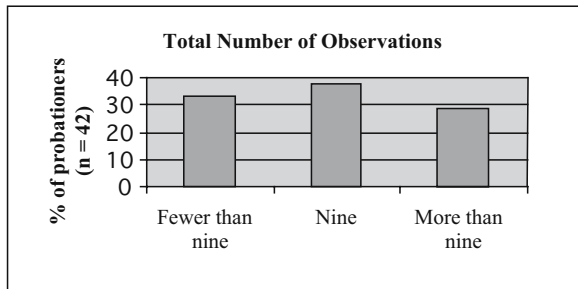


Figure 26.1. Number of times students were observed teaching

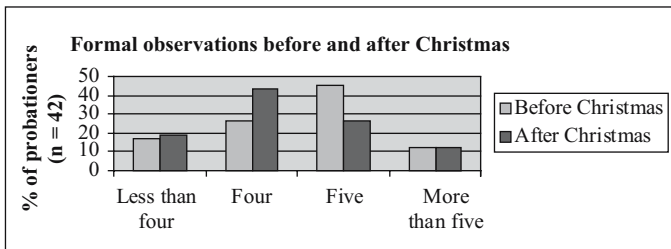


Figure 26.2. When students were observed

We also look at the new Standard for Full Registration and the way that it, and the accompanying paperwork, was used during the first year of the Scheme.

Number of observations

A third of the probationers who responded to the online questionnaire received fewer than nine formal observations, the number recommended in the documentation that accompanied the Scheme (see Figure 26.1). Nearly forty per cent had nine observations and just under 30% had more than nine.

Previous research had shown that the number of observation sessions dropped significantly over the two year period, notably after the first term (Draper *et al.*, 1991). These current data show that there was only a slight drop in the number of observations after Christmas (see Figure 26.2). The full range of number of observations reported was four to fifteen observations. The mean number of observations was 8.95, suggesting that schools had, in general, been conscientious about fulfilling at least the letter of the requirements.

Observers

There was a range of observers. This was partly because of the requirements of the Scheme itself, which recommended that two of the observations be carried out by an independent observer and partly due to the way schools adapted the Scheme to suit their own circumstances. The documentation produced by the General Teaching Council Scotland (GTCS) envisaged that there be a probationer supporter appointed,

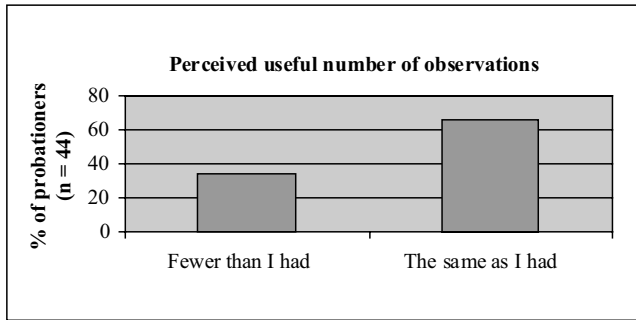


Figure 26.3. Number of observations perceived to be useful by students

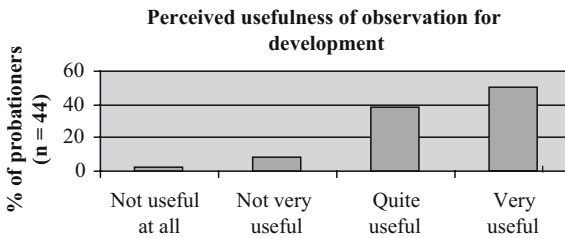


Figure 26.4. Usefulness of observations as perceived by students

with additional management of the Scheme provided by the Head Teacher. In fact, we found in the Case Study Schools that most Head Teachers had devolved responsibility for managing the Scheme to a member of the Senior Management Team and that much of the day-to-day support was being provided by someone in the department. Some schools had another layer of support in the person of a Senior Teacher, each with different levels of involvement. All but one of the teachers had been formally observed by their departmental supporter. Most probationers in our survey had been observed by their whole school co-ordinator, about half of them by their head teacher and by others. These included other probationers (although these are not likely to have been formal observations in terms of the Scheme) and a few by staff from the local authority.

Perceived usefulness of observation

Respondents were asked how many observations they would consider useful looking back on their experience of the year (see Figure 26.3). One third thought that fewer observations would have been useful, but two-thirds felt that the number of observations they had had was useful. Those who would have preferred fewer observations had between six and twelve observations. No probationers believed that more observations would have been useful.

In addition, respondents were asked to comment on the usefulness of the observations for their development (see Figure 26.4). Most, nearly ninety per cent, rated observation as having been useful. Thirty nine per cent said it had been quite useful and 50% had found it very useful. Only 9% suggested it had not been useful, and 2% not useful at all. Those who questioned the usefulness of observation all had nine observations or more.

Variations

There were variations in the numbers of observations. For example, older probationers had more observations: a mean of 9.5 observations for teachers aged 29 and over as opposed to a mean of 8.5 for teachers under 29. There was no difference by gender. The Case Studies provided evidence of differences in observation practices across subjects. Subjects with open plan teaching areas, such as Art, PE and Business Studies, seemed to lend themselves more easily to informal observation, particularly in team teaching situations. Sometimes these more informal arrangements were subsequently designated as a formal observation to satisfy the bureaucratic requirements of the Scheme.

I think in PE because you teach sometimes in half a games hall, we are seen a lot anyway so the observation weren't that big a deal ...

Probationer

I'm lucky in that I can say, 'I've been watching you for the last half hour, that was fine and I'm just going to record that'.

Principal Teacher /Supporter [in an open plan Art department]

A similarly casual approach was found in small departments where the probationer was supernumerary and thus freed up the supporter from their timetable. Because much if not all of the planning and teaching was done co-operatively anyway, the Scheme's demands of planning observations and debriefing thereafter seemed irrelevant.

I have to say ... that a couple of times me and the PT, we just sort of take the classes and we've actually a day later said, oh, will that have been the observed lesson, after I have actually done it The two of us working so much together, there's no point sitting planning ... we'll just have that day last week as your observed lesson then, quite casual.

Probationer

Comparison with ITE observation

Evidence about the nature of the observation experienced emerged from the comments made by probationers and supporters in the Case Study Schools. Some favourably compared their experience of observation during the induction year with their observed lessons, still informally known as 'crits', during their Initial Teacher Education.

... it's far less intimidating than a crit. It's actually very easy to forget that the supporter is in the classroom. Sometimes you actually forget that you are being observed and you just really get on with it so what they get is a picture of what you are really like

Probationer

... I've found it's more like ... team teaching. Like, you do, obviously, the teaching, but when you are walking round and helping a class, they walk

round as well and look at the kids' jotters and ... talk to the kids ... So it's not as unnerving as maybe a crit lesson is ...

Probationer

Some still found the experience stressful:

Q: *How did you find the process of observation?*

A: *Really good, stressful but very ...*

A: *Stressful but not as stressful as a crit.*

A: *Just as stressful as a crit.*

Probationers

The stress of the observed lesson and the consequent artificiality caused some probationers to suggest a more informal approach, in contrast with the probationers of Draper *et al's* 1991 survey who were more concerned with knowing if, when and by whom they would be observed. This difference suggests that the idea of being observed by colleagues as a teacher has come to be regarded more as normal practice than before. As something required by the Scheme, it is less questioned and may perhaps represent something traded for the entitlement to support?

I think it would help if the observed lessons were slightly more informal ... because I know that I teach totally differently ... when somebody's watching me than when I'm in a class on my own and most of the time it's a lot worse because I am much more tense.

Probationer

I would be quite happy for very informal, perhaps if the PT just wanted to pick a lesson and come in and have a look, in a lot of ways I think they would get a better view of how you're performing rather than this false arranged observed lesson ...

Probationer

Link to support and assessment

Comments made by staff supporting probationers and the probationers themselves indicate the close link between, on the one hand, observation and support, and on the other, observation and assessment. For many, observation was a completely positive and developmental experience.

... you don't feel that you are trying to hide anything or prove anything. You are wanting feedback rather than a grade at the end of it all and it's made a huge difference.

Probationer

I have found the feedback very useful, both the positive feedback at the start to let me know that I am on the right track ... it's just a little boost

and also the constructive criticism which just lets me know what I can be doing better and how I can improve on it. That's been excellent.

Probationer

However, for some it was clear that observations were to be seen as opportunities to prove competence, with the accompanying risk of failure. Here, observation was very close to assessment, rather than being a developmental opportunity.

Q: *what was that [the interim report] based on?*

A: *The observations, I think.*

Probationer

Q: *Can I ask about assessment ... who was involved, and how did you find it as an assessment procedure?*

A: *I don't think it really was a procedure, I think it was just taking into account your observed sessions ...*

Probationer

Comments from the staff involved with the probationers also reflect the close relationship between observation and assessment.

Q: *Tell me the process that led up to the interim report.*

A: *I kept my own records of the weekly meetings, I kept a record of each lesson that I observed, and built up an idea of where the probationer's strengths and weaknesses lay.*

Principal Teacher

We have adopted the system that I do one initially of the crits, the supporter will do three and the external observer will do one, so that it's five now. Clearly our aim [is] that having reached a consensus through those five crits we will move on to the second phase which will concentrate very much on those who are deemed to be failing.

Member of Senior Management Team (SMT)

... between October and Christmas they were worried about this interim report, about the observed lessons which they saw as crits. It's difficult to get round that and in some ways that's just what it amounts to.

Member of SMT

What's helpful and unhelpful?

The probationers generally positively evaluated having multiple observers, honest but constructive criticism and an open-door policy.

It's good having lots of different people as well because, you know, you get different perspectives, some people think some things are really good some think they don't, it makes you realise that just because somebody doesn't

agree with something you do it's not necessarily wrong and because somebody agrees with something you do it's not necessarily right either ...

Probationer

It helps especially when you are being observed in the feedback if somebody can be direct and honest because there would be no point having feedback or observations if somebody was just going to say everything was great, there was no problems, because it actually can't be the case in your first year and you really need to have somebody who isn't concerned or isn't going to be bothered about saying, you've got to work on this, or that wasn't very good.

Probationer

It's a very open atmosphere in this school, I've found. ... if I am walking by another member of my department's class and they happen to be teaching something that I feel I could benefit from seeing, I can just knock the door and walk straight in ...

Probationer

Poor management of observation included doing too many in too short a space of time, lack of training leading to unrealistic expectations or inconsistency and observation by the head teacher being announced for a three week period which didn't subsequently take place leaving the sense of having been nervous for nothing.

... the observed lessons weren't spread out, so you basically would have maybe had one a week or some people had more than that ... two a week, so how do you benefit, how do you benefit and how do you reflect and self-evaluate and do better the next time when they are coming so quickly and it was more like a paper exercise ...

Probationer

Training for supporters is important. Because you are a teacher, doesn't necessarily mean that you are a trainer ... These teachers do this off the top of their heads, they're expected to do all these things.

Probationer

You get some feedback, but you have got the head teacher saying you are absolutely wonderful, and another person saying you need to change this. They need to be trained for consistency.

Probationer

As with the online survey, some of the probationers interviewed in the Case Studies felt that nine observations were too many and that there should be a more flexible arrangement.

I think maybe up to January, once every three weeks, ok, fair enough, but then after January I think we should get a bit more lee-way ... there should be ... not a get-out clause ... but effectively maybe once every one

and a half months, just because it is a bit of pressure, no matter what anybody says, when you've got an observed lesson the pressure is on.

Probationer

THE SFR AND THE PROFILES

From the comments made by school staff in our interviews it seems that the SFR had four main uses. First it provided a framework for the observed lessons, as suggested in the documentation. However, there was widespread unhappiness with the observation form provided by the GTCS, which was not much more than a list of the statements. Many authorities and schools had adapted the form to suit their own purposes. Second, the Standard formed an integral part of the Interim Profile and was used as a reference for comments written about the probationers. Some of those who used it to write the interim report conceded that they had not gained any familiarity with its contents. Third, in a minority of cases it served to provide guidance as to what should be provided in the way of CPD opportunities.

I used the Standard as development stuff – pupil support, learning support ...

Whole School Co-ordinator

This was felt to be limiting by one probationer at least:

It's almost like going through the motions for the sake of it, just to satisfy the Standard for Full Registration Criteria ... sometimes it's not relevant to what you are doing and you feel obliged to attend these things.

Probationer

Finally, some managers of induction used the SFR for quality control, to check that the Scheme was being properly administered in their schools and that probationers were getting the opportunities they were entitled to. However, those who used it expressed reservations about it, both about the whole concept of competence-based assessment, and the wording of the document itself.

It makes you feel that you'd have to be an absolute paragon to get all of it and the idea that you have to meet all of this is just ludicrous.

Whole School Co-ordinator

I think getting through the jargon is the thing that is quite time consuming ... There is a place for it, I think, if we can get to the point where it's common English so we can understand it.

Assistant Principal Teacher/
Departmental Supporter

It's a fairly comprehensive list ... some of which are, as always, difficult to pin down.

Departmental Supporter

Some felt that they would have used the Standard more if they had doubts about a probationer's competence:

... if we had probationers who were really struggling and we were not confident that they were meeting the competences required then I think we would have needed much closer references to these.

Whole School Co-ordinator

Finally, some members of staff and probationers admitted that they did not use the Standard at all.

To be perfectly honest I do not have time to sit and go through that blooming document, time and time again, because it has taken us so long to get used to where everything is and what it all means and I don't have time, I really don't.

Probationer

The Standard forms part of the Interim and Final Profiles, which are completed by the probationers in conjunction with their supporter and head teacher. The profiles are eight pages long. The first page provides the probationer's personal details. There are two pages to record meetings with the supporters and observed teaching, followed by two pages to record professional development, consisting of four boxes covering planning and preparation, core professional development activities, individual professional development activities and gaining experience within the school. The Standard is then reproduced with a page opposite it with spaces for comments to be made about the probationer in terms of the Standard. The final page is the Professional Development Action Plan. There was widespread confusion and frustration about completing the profile.

... the filling in of the interim one was very confusing for them because there's box after box, what do you put in it?

Departmental Supporter

It's futile, the boxes to fill in are just ludicrous ... it was time-consuming ...

Probationer

A hoop to jump through that wasn't much fun ... there was fire in the hoop. It was a lot of paperwork and it was a matter of getting boxes filled out ...

Probationer

the GTC said that this [completing the Interim report] can't be a paper-work exercise but that's what it turned out being because everything was written down in the correct lingo, in the correct jargon ...

Probationer

This need to provide written evidence for everything was obviously of great concern to many:

... when you have your little meeting with him [the Whole School Co-ordinator] on your own and he's asking you what you've done, I've found that I've said things and he says 'is that in your book?' ... 'no' ... 'that should be in your book, get it in the book'.

Probationer

However, in small departments with constant interaction, this was seen to be unhelpfully onerous:

... we are always being told ... if you talk about something, note it down, note it down. I said, well if we did that, we'd be here all day, noting things down ...

Departmental Supporter

One probationer found the format of the Interim Profile limiting and couldn't see the purpose of keeping careful records if they were not going to feature in the official assessment:

I had written up notes on all the meetings that we had had and I've got a folder with pages and then we get this form and it's like, 'so why have I been keeping this folder, what's the point? It seems a bit strange.

Probationer

Finally, one probationer questioned whether paperwork actually provided any evidence of learning:

I think at the start you are really worried and you want to ... 'I'd better note this down, I'd better note this down', but now it is like, as long as you're learning things ... there's not much you can show on a bit of paper what you are actually taking in.

Probationer

ISSUES

There are several issues that we suggest emerge from these findings. The first concerns the considerable variability that still exists in the experiences of new teachers. A range of 4–15 observations from our small sample of probationers indicates that there is no consensus yet about the optimum number of observations. Even allowing

for individual differences, this is a wide range. It is also disquieting that even small numbers of probationers feel that observation was not useful for their development. Training for supporters in observation and feedback is an identified need. Good practice in observation, as identified in this study, could inform the training for mentors and supporters provided by Authorities.

There are differences too in the focus of support as shown by the comments on observation and assessment. The 'crit' mentality of proving competence in artificially perfect lessons is still in evidence. Many probationers report constructive, supportive and completely developmental relationships but some still report high levels of anxiety as they prepare to be assessed in an observed lesson. It may be that such nervousness is inevitable, but it also carries implications for the way in which observation operates and this potentially links back to training issues.

The second has to do with the role of the Standard and the accompanying bureaucracy in creating a healthy climate for professional development. There is no doubt that for some the Standard is proving a useful framework for observation, assessment and the planning of CPD. However, there is also evidence that some staff and probationers have not internalised the statements of the Standard nor do they see them as a useful summary of professional competence. The late arrival of documentation and the somewhat elevated tone of the document may have been contributory factors to this state of affairs. The complexity of the documentation and the need for written evidence has led to two potentially unhelpful responses to this approach to teacher development. The first is to make filling in the forms the focus of the activity, leading to real dangers of losing sight of their intended role in supporting effective reflection. In this response, efficiency becomes the successful production of documentation, rather than real engagement with the issues of teaching and learning. The second is to dismiss the requirement to be rigorous in recording one's CPD since writing something down does not prove you have learnt it. Teachers who begin their career with this view may come to regard CPD as little more than a 'box ticking' exercise, rather than as a vital element of their professional experience. Furthermore, the range of developmental experiences recommended, which go well beyond observation, is likely to generate a mix of development. However, within the current scheme, professional development which goes outside or beyond the Standard (and its associated 'boxes') may be in danger of being overlooked. There is thus a danger that acknowledged professional development follows a script rather than an individual trajectory. In a pronounced climate of accountability, a bureaucratized developmental map may be no surprise but it is nonetheless a matter of concern for two reasons. First, it may result in a narrowed conception of what counts as development and second, it offers little scope for individual patterns of development, although it is clear that new teachers are not all at the same stage when they qualify, nor do they progress with equal speed once in post.

Finally we should record that the later part of probation was overshadowed for many by uncertainty about finding work in teaching after the end of the induction year. This may have contributed to the pressure to be seen to be competent in order to increase the chances of future employment and may have distracted attention from

development in a similar way to that which was found earlier for those completing probation through supply work.

FINAL COMMENT

Somewhat similar induction arrangements were introduced in England and Kyriacou and O'Connor (2003) have reported on the experiences of newly qualified primary teachers in their new induction system. They identified five key issues: the timing of the arrangements, the reduced timetable, funding, the support system and the new career entry profiles. They found schools had too little time to prepare for the new induction system, the provision of a reduced timetable was not consistent and some new teachers benefited from this and some did not, funding arrangements were unclear, the support system suffered from lack of training and clarity about the role of mentors and assessors and the career entry profile intended to be central to the transition to teaching was little used in practice. The issues of speed of implementation and lack of time for full preparation for the new arrangements, of variability in the release from classroom responsibilities and of training for supporters and lack of clarity about roles all arose in the Scottish study as a whole and should give food for thought to those who set implementation timetables. There is a danger that inadequate preparation may damage the reception and reputation of worthy and welcome innovations!

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

While many probationers reported that opportunities for development had been provided during their probationary year, for at least some their capacity to make the most of these opportunities had been undermined by the complex administrative requirements of the Scheme. Many probationers felt that there was a considerable emphasis on proving that they were meeting the requirements of the Scheme even though the tenor of the majority of the probationers' responses is positive in terms of developmental outcomes from their year of induction. One of the concerns which does, however, arise from the findings we have reported relates to the models and expectations that teachers are developing about their own professional development. The question is whether or not professional development is seen to be merely fitting in with externally set criteria or whether the development of an individual style is feasible. While the Standard may provide a useful scaffold for professional development, it could potentially become a strait jacket, restricting the professional development opportunities open to teachers. While the Scheme may ensure a base line of support, there is a danger that the framework, with its associated paperwork, becomes a script for development and ultimately restrictive, rather than constructive.

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SECTION FIVE

CONTINUOUS DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS: THE
CHALLENGE TO CHANGE

27. TEACHER PROFESSIONAL LEARNING,
TEACHING PRACTICE AND STUDENT LEARNING
OUTCOMES: IMPORTANT ISSUES

What is the impact of teacher professional development on student learning outcomes? This is a critical question asked increasingly often by policy makers, school leadership teams, teacher professional associations, and many others with a stake in providing high quality teaching for all students.

Recent work in the Teaching and Learning Research Group at the Australian Council for Educational Research has explored this critical question in a number of evaluation studies of teacher professional development (Ingvarson et al., 2005).

There is a logic behind the question, captured very clearly by Supovitz:

The implicit logic of focusing on professional development as a means for improving student achievement is that high quality professional development will produce superior teaching in classrooms, which will, in turn, translate into higher levels of student achievement.

(Supovitz, 2001, p. 81)

This logic underpins many professional development programs, both large scale system initiatives, and ongoing school level programs.

The critical impact of teaching on student achievement is highlighted when we look at what research tells us about the major sources of variance in students' achievement. Hattie, for example, reports that it is teachers who account for about 30% of the variance. "It is what teachers know, do, and care about which is very powerful in this learning equation" (Hattie, 2003, p. 2). This provides a powerful argument for focusing on ways of strengthening teachers' expertise throughout their careers. The quality of teaching is intrinsically linked to teachers' content knowledge, their knowledge of how students learn that content, and the effectiveness of classroom teaching practices.

However, despite the logical connection, there is agreement that:

... despite the size of the body of literature, however, relatively little systematic research has been conducted on the effects of professional development on improvements in teaching or on student outcomes.

(Garet et al., 2001, p. 917)

Not only has there been little systematic research, but direct evidence of a link between professional development and improved learning outcomes remains elusive:

It has been relatively unusual for researchers to investigate the relationships between teachers' and students' learning, and when they did so it

has been even more unusual to find evidence that teachers' learning influenced students' learning.

(Cohen and Hill, 2000, p. 329)

There are a number of reasons for the difficulty in finding evidence of the impact of professional development on student outcomes:

First, there are often incompatibilities between standards-based reform practices and the assessment instruments used to measure their impact. Second, there is often poor alignment between the content of what is taught and what is tested. Third, our impatience for results leads us to look for impacts too soon, rather than allowing effects to accumulate. Fourth, our models relating teaching practice to student achievement may not include crucial environmental specifications. Finally, reformers' specifications of professional development may not be precise enough to powerfully impact student achievement

(Supovitz, 2001, p. 95).

Supovitz has highlighted a set of key practical difficulties. One difficulty lies in the assessment instruments used to collect evidence of improvements in students' learning. Common valid measures often focus on a particular set of knowledge and skills, whereas many professional development initiatives are concerned with broad changes in curriculum and in teaching practices. Teachers are able to make judgments about changes in their students' learning outcomes, and to report these judgments, but it is not easy to measure the improvements they report. A second, related difficulty concerns the alignment between what is taught and what is tested. It may be that a broader range of assessment evidence, ranging from the results of standardised tests to observations and teacher judgments, is required.

Change in teaching practices, and the expansion of teachers' repertoires of practice, takes place over time, and, as Supovitz points out, it is cumulative, and often connected to a range of influences on teachers. This has implications for the timing of occasions when evidence of improved learning is collected, and for what improvements may be attributed to a particular professional development initiative. The wide range of contextual variations between classrooms add other complicating factors, as does the design of professional development programs.

Thompson (2003) drew attention to the paucity of research studies in this field:

... remarkably little [writing about professional development] based on real evidence about the actual impact of professional development on classroom practice and student performance ... a handful of recent research studies ... provide some persuasive evidence ... converge on several major points ...

(Thompson, 2003, p. 1)

Thompson identified some convergence in the research on the characteristics of effective professional development:

- *Focus on subject matter learning*
- *Link PD to curricular materials and assessment*
- *Promote 'coherence' and 'active learning'*
- *... more active learning ..., and collective participation*

(Thompson, 2003, pp. 1–2)

The convergence in the research evidence about the features of professional development that are linked to changes in classroom practice, and to improved student learning, clearly has implications for the evaluation of professional development.

EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In evaluation studies that investigate the impact of professional development on teachers' knowledge and practice, and on student achievement, it is necessary to address the difficulties identified by the research described above. Gusky reminded us of the different levels at which professional development can be evaluated, ranging from immediate satisfaction to the impact on student outcomes:

Using five critical levels of evaluation, you can improve your school's professional development program. But be sure to start with the desired result – improved student outcomes.

(Guskey, 2002, p. 45)

Opportunities to survey teachers who have participated in professional development activities some time after the completion of the professional development open up possibilities for gathering evidence about the impact of the professional development initiative on changes in teachers' professional knowledge, changes in teaching practices and improvements in student achievement. Data can be gathered from participants in professional development at the conclusion of the activity about a number of aspects: ratings of the program, the facilitators, the venue, and the content of the program. At this stage they can also be asked about the extent of new knowledge they have gained, and the extent to which they anticipate they will review and modify their current teaching practices. But the actual implementation of changes in classroom practice takes considerable time, and will develop from reflection on what has been learnt from the professional development program. So delaying the gathering of responses for some months makes it possible to tap into information about the longer-term impact of professional development.

Written questionnaires, in print or electronic form, provide useful tools for surveys of the long-term effects of the professional development. A range of questions can be asked about the impact of teachers' involvement in a professional development

program. Responses to such questions, gathered from a large proportion of the participants, can be collated to help to build a picture of the effectiveness of the professional development in improving the quality of teaching and opportunities for student learning.

Following the chain of logic linking changes in professional knowledge to changes in practices and finally to changes in student learning outcomes, it is appropriate to ask questions about professional knowledge. These may be framed as general questions about knowledge of content or teaching strategies, asking respondents to indicate the extent to which, as a result of their participation in the professional development activities, they now have:

- increased knowledge of the content that they teach
- increased knowledge of teaching and learning strategies appropriate to the content that they teach.

Questions about new professional knowledge can be more specific, reflecting the particular subject context and purposes of the professional development program. If the purpose of the professional development program was to enable teachers to integrate knowledge and skills about information communication technology into their teaching practice, a relevant question would be about the extent to which respondents knew more about:

- integrating information communication technology knowledge and skills into teaching practice

If the focus of the program was on new ways of identifying the mathematical strategies that students use, the questions would be about the extent to which the respondent knew more about:

- identifying the mathematical strategies that students use.

In relation to a professional development program about more explicit teaching of literacy in all subject areas in Years 7–10, teachers could be asked about the extent to which the program provided them with new knowledge about literacy learning in their subject area, and how to take account of the literacy demands of the subject area in planning teaching and learning activities.

Such questions prompt reflection on the professional learning opportunities experienced in the workshops and activities during the program, and further reflection, after a reasonable period of time, about the respondents' own professional learning.

The second link in the logic chain concerns the impact of the professional development program on teaching practice. Sometimes this impact involves new ways of doing things, but often the intended impact is related to expanding teachers' repertoires of practice so that they are better able to meet the needs of the diverse range of students they teach.

These questions can be framed in generic terms, asking about the extent of change in how respondents:

- use teaching and learning strategies that are more challenging and engaging
- make clearer links between teaching goals and classroom activities.

They can also be specifically linked to the intended purpose of the professional development program, and ask respondents to reflect on the extent to which, as a

result of their participation in that professional development program, they

- use more hands on activities in teaching numeracy; or
- access the internet for research purposes; or
- use more effective methods to assess students' literacy development

Guskey's emphatic reminder that evaluations should look at the impact of professional development programs on student outcomes requires attention to ways in which evidence of such change can be collected. Testing can provide some evidence, but as already discussed, the alignment, scope and timing of testing are complex issues. Teachers' own judgments about their students' learning constitute another valid source of evidence. If sufficient time has elapsed between the completion of the professional development program to allow participants to reflect on and implement the content and strategies promoted by the program, it is then reasonable to ask them to make judgments about the impact on their students' learning of aspects of their teaching that have been strengthened or changed.

Questions about these judgments can be generic, asking about the extent to which respondents judge that their students:

- are more actively engaged in learning activities; or
- make better use of the feedback/assessment that they are given; or
- have fewer difficulties in understanding the content that they are learning.

Where possible, more precise evidence can be collected by asking teachers about their observations of improved learning of knowledge and skills that were the focus of the professional development program. Specific questions can be asked about the extent to which they have observed that their students:

- access email to communicate with other students; or
- are more confident in independently accessing and processing information; or
- are more engaged in mathematical investigations; or
- use more effective mental computation strategies.

Anecdotal evidence of teachers' perceptions of improved student learning can be gathered from interviews with teachers who have participated in professional development programs. Such interviews provide opportunities for teachers to reflect on what they have observed, and to respond in more detail than is possible through a written questionnaire.

Interviews can yield insights about changes in students' approaches to mathematics. One teacher described how she and her colleagues had introduced much more discussion and explanation into their mathematics classrooms. She commented about how the students "get a deeper understanding from all the talking and explaining we do. They don't just say the answer any more".

A teacher who had participated in a professional development program that provided teachers with many strategies to expand students' reading skills, especially in key learning areas other than English reported that she could confidently say that her class had ...

... progressed from being basically very good technical readers to very capable text users and integrate their reading skills into other learning areas by being text users. This is evident by the progress noticeable in

their workbooks and their ability to use their reading skills to prepare presentations on given topics, writing reports ...

CONCLUSIONS

More is now understood about what constitutes effective professional development, and about the links between such professional development, changes in teachers' knowledge and practice, and improved learning outcomes. This has implications for evaluations of teacher professional development programs. It also has implications for the timing of evaluation questionnaires, and for the nature of information collected in those evaluations.

Testing can sometimes provide information about changes in student learning outcomes attributable to a professional development program. Other sources of information also provide significant insights. Evaluation questionnaires can be designed to elicit teachers' reflections on their own practice over a period of time following their participation in a professional development program, and their judgments about improved student learning. Interviews with teachers can also prompt reflection on practice and student outcomes.

When teachers are asked questions about the impact of a professional development program on their own professional knowledge and practice, and about their students' learning, over time, important evaluative data is generated. The impact of professional development could be enhanced by encouraging teachers to document their practice, and their observations and judgments about student learning over time. The reflection involved in a process of documentation can contribute to career-long professional learning.

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28. DEFINING THE MEANING OF TEACHER SUCCESS IN HONG KONG

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a complex and demanding professional task. The success of teachers in their work has direct implications for the quality of learning of their students. Nevertheless, given this complexity, achieving success in teaching cannot be guaranteed in all cases. Consequently, it is important to identify the factors which either facilitate or hinder teacher success with a view to organizing supporting contexts which would be conducive to teacher success, as well as to developing appropriate policies.

Based on their research interest and their backgrounds in the professional development of teachers, the authors of this study have sought to investigate teacher success in Hong Kong. Specifically, the study aims to achieve the following objectives:

- to acquire an initial understanding of how Hong Kong teachers conceptualize teacher success;
- to identify the factors hindering teacher success;
- to study the relationship between professional development and teacher success.

DEFINING TEACHER SUCCESS

When compared with other outcomes such as job adjustment and job satisfaction, the concept of “Teacher Success” has been relatively less studied and reported on in the literature. Teacher success can be described as the sense of achievement which teachers obtain from their work and few studies directly studying this concept can be identified. Some research (e.g. Peterson, 1979; Burden, 1990) has reported on “changes” that occur during a teacher’s career. These can include job events such as promotion, or being assigned additional professional responsibilities. In the course of their career, teachers will also acquire skills, knowledge and new patterns of behaviour, for example concerning teaching methods and relationships with students. In addition, their attitudes, expectations and concerns (such as commitment to teaching, job satisfaction and teacher concerns), if channelled in a positive direction, can be used as possible indicators of teacher success. In Hong Kong, Cheung’s (2001) local study of the “best year of teaching” in various teachers’ careers also revealed that a good relationship with the students, the students’ academic success and good learning attitudes, the teachers’ own performances and the recognition they received are key elements related to teacher success. In 1998, Dr. K.C. Pang, chaired a group of experienced principals in a Quality Education Fund (QEF) Task Group. This Task Group was set up to develop criteria for the selection of teachers for the QEF’s Outstanding Teachers

Award (Quality Education Fund Steering Committee, 1998). It developed a framework of criteria for the selection of outstanding teachers, after extensive consultation with the profession in Hong Kong, and these could also provide some indication of the aspects which should be taken into account when addressing teacher success. Five criteria are included in this framework, namely:

- professionalism,
- teaching,
- student development,
- school development, and
- contribution to the education sector/community.

A total of 19 criteria were identified for the selection of outstanding teachers in Hong Kong.

Another focus of the study is to identify those factors which either facilitate or hinder the development of teacher success. Some researchers have attempted to identify the factors that influence a teacher's feeling of success. The findings of many other studies concerning the professional development and leadership of teachers may also be relevant for this study. Earlier work investigating the experience of new teachers in Hong Kong (Pang, 1990) has identified some factors which influenced their perception of success. These included personal factors (such as their training, personality and teacher competence), environmental factors (such as the nature of the classes taught, the pupils' discipline, pupils' quality and motivation, and the school administration and support), as well as interaction factors (such as the pupils' results in assignments and examinations, and the relationship with pupils) (Pang, 1990). Nias (1989) also signalled the importance of the out-of-school groups (family, friends and ex-tutors) for reinforcing the individual's self-image as a teacher or a competent professional. Though literature dealing specifically with the factors affecting teacher success is scarce, studies on factors affecting related aspects are plentiful and can provide useful reference material. For example, studies on the degree of satisfaction felt by teachers revealed that the key factors were related to the students (quality, relationship and recognition), to promotion, to relationships with colleagues, to recognition from peers and from the Principal, and to a sense of being effective and competent (Cheung, 2001). Earlier, Churchill *et al.* (1995) had also identified gender and changing educational management as factors which affected teacher satisfaction. Based on a three-stage case study of teacher leadership (Zinn, 1997), internal factors (including intellectual and psycho-social factors) and external factors (including significant sources of support such as a network of colleagues, administrative support, and support from family and friends) are identified. These factors are found to influence in turn the time and commitment that teachers will dedicate to their professional development. In an attempt to identify the support that teachers need in order to play their roles successfully, O'Connor and Boles (1992) suggested that teachers needed to have a more complete understanding of the politics of schools. They also needed to acquire increased power and authority, develop better interpersonal relationships, and develop good communication skills in group dynamics, as well as presentation skills and organizational skills.

Though their influence is indirect, the factors which affect a teacher's professional development and the development of professionalism can also provide some insight into other possible factors which affect teacher success and can serve as useful background reference for this part of the study. Ashburn's (1987) study established that the professional development of teachers is dependent on a number of circumstances: the length of time they have spent in teaching, their conception of the teacher's role, and the context within which they are teaching, including the characteristics of each individual school. Calderhead and Shorrock (1997), in their study on the professional development of beginning teachers, also pointed out the importance of "teachers' experience from the past" on which they draw when making judgments and drawing inferences about the nature of teaching and teaching practices. Cheung (2001), in a local study on teachers' careers, identified a number of influences that contribute to the evolution of a teacher's career. These include: family background, pre-professional life experiences, the perceived workload, the students, colleagues and principal in each school, changes in job responsibilities, professional development, recognition received, as well as educational changes and policies in the macro-environment. In addition, in studying the attributes for teaching professionalism, Goodson and Hargreaves (1996) have identified the importance of the following:

- Increased opportunity and responsibility for exercising discretionary judgment over issues of teaching, the curriculum and the care that affects one's students;
- Opportunities and expectations to engage with the moral and social purposes and value of what teachers teach, along with major curriculum and assessment matters in which these purposes are embedded;
- Commitment to working with colleagues in a collaborative environment which provides help and support as a way of sharing expertise to solve ongoing problems of professional practice, rather than having to engage in joint work as a motivational device to implement external mandates imposed by others;
- A self-directed search and struggle for continuous learning corresponding to one's own expertise and standards of practice, rather than having to comply with the enervating obligations of endless change demanded by others.

Apart from describing how the teacher's attitude may influence that teacher's professionalism, these findings also reflect the significance of the provision of adequate professional development opportunities for enhancing teacher professionalism. The third point draws attention to the particular importance of providing opportunities for teachers to be involved in collaborative work.

In sum, these studies on teacher satisfaction, professional development and leadership have identified a variety of factors related to the teachers themselves. These arise from their personal background, their school, their colleagues, their students and their work, as well as the professional development opportunities available to them which could have an influence on their success. Altogether they constitute a useful source of reference for this study in identifying factors affecting teacher success.

METHOD

The study was undertaken in two phases, in which the question was approached from the qualitative and the quantitative point of view. Phase one involved a qualitative study according to the objectives of the research by means of interviews with nine primary and nine secondary teachers in Hong Kong in order to acquire some in-depth understanding of the topic under study. These were all teachers who had received the Outstanding Teachers' Award in the years 1998 to 2002. The teachers chosen had different backgrounds, with respect to their type of school, age, and category of experience. The data were analysed using qualitative analysis methods such as the constant comparative. This phase provided an initial picture of the concept of success as perceived by the teachers, and the factors facilitating or hindering them, as well as the effects of professional development on teacher success. The following questions were used during the interviews in the first phase of the study.

- What is a successful teacher?
- How successful are you? (The teachers were invited to provide their own rating of their performance in different aspects of their work which they considered important, e.g. professional knowledge, skills, attitudes, commitment, relationship with students, administrative competence, contributions to the school and the profession etc.)
- What has facilitated your success as a teacher?
- What has hindered your success as a teacher?
- Has your previous professional development experience influenced your degree of success? If so, how?

In phase two, a quantitative approach was adopted with the aim of providing a clearer picture of the concept of success, the factors influencing success, and the relationship between success and professional development, on the basis of a wider group of participants. In this phase, the findings from the previous phase were tested on a wider sample, consisting of about 500 primary and secondary teachers drawn from 50 schools, to further explore the concepts and factors which are commonly perceived by teachers, as well as the relationship of success to professional development. For this purpose, a questionnaire was constructed based on the findings from phase one. To facilitate the analysis, data was collected concerning the relevant background variables, including the teacher's gender, teaching experience (years in teaching and out of teaching), qualifications, subjects taught, position in school, other work experience, and pre-service and in-service education.

Data collected by means of the questionnaire were analysed using the SPSS software, involving the use of frequency counts, sorting, means, and correlation analyses as appropriate.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter reports mainly on the findings from the second phase of the study. From the original sample of 50 schools, 334 teachers from 40 schools completed the questionnaire, a response rate of 67.8%. Of these responses, 190 were from primary

school teachers and 144 from secondary school teachers, and 60 of them were teaching in government schools, 211 in aided schools, 16 in direct subsidy scheme schools and 50 in private schools (Table 28.1). Most of them (330) had received teacher education and 172 of them held a Bachelor's degree. Sixty-six teachers were in their first five years of teaching, 106 teachers were in their fifth to tenth years of teaching and 67 teachers had between 11 and 15 years of teaching experience. This distribution of respondents is a fair reflection of the Hong Kong context in which the teacher population is largely female, there are more primary than secondary schools, the majority of schools belong to the aided category in terms of funding support, and a high percentage of teachers have received teacher education or hold a Bachelor's degree. However, the distribution by the number of years of teaching experience shows a relatively larger number of respondents who have between 5 and 10 years of teaching experience.

This paper describes the analysis of the data relating to the first three research objectives, namely to describe how the teachers conceptualize teacher success, and to identify the factors facilitating teacher success and the factors hindering teacher success.

TABLE 28.1 Demographic information on the respondents

	Number of respondents
<i>Gender</i>	
Male	111
Female	229
<i>School taught</i>	
Primary school	190
Secondary school	144
<i>Type of schools teaching</i>	
Government	60
Aided	211
Direct subsidy scheme	16
Private	50
<i>Respondents who had received teacher training</i>	
Yes	330
No	6
<i>Teaching experience (as at August 2003)</i>	
Less than 5 years	66
5–10 years	106
11–15 years	67
16–20 years	35
21 years or above	63
<i>Academic qualifications</i>	
Certificate of Education	52
Bachelor degree	172
Master degree	43
Doctoral degree	1
Other	1

THE CONCEPTUALIZATION OF TEACHER SUCCESS

The questionnaire covered three types of factors that constitute teachers' perceptions of teacher success, namely personal factors, professional factors and environmental factors. The items in the questionnaire were developed on the basis of the interview findings in phase one of the study as well as from the literature review. Respondents were invited to rate the importance of the items listed using a scale of 1 to 5, in which 5 represented, the most important and 1 represented the least important.

In general, the teachers agreed that all the nine items included under personal factors in the questionnaire were important for their perception of teacher success (Table 28.2). The mean values of the items were quite high, ranging from 4.5 to 4.79. Taking all the responses together, responsible (4.79), caring for students (4.73) and self-reflection (4.63), were the three items that received the highest mean value. If the responses from the primary and the secondary teachers are compared using a one-way ANOVA test, the results suggest that the primary teachers rated three items significantly higher than did the secondary teachers. These items were: mission-minded, attach importance to moral education, and not giving up easily when facing adversities.

The 17 items included under professional factors were also perceived to be important by the teachers (Table 28.3). The overall mean value of the items ranged from 4.12 to 4.69. The three items that received the highest mean value were: thoroughly understand the teaching subject (4.69), being a role model for students (4.68) and enthusiasm for teaching (4.62). If the responses from the primary and the secondary teachers are compared, the pattern for the three items that received the highest mean value differs. In the responses from the primary teachers, being a role model for students (4.74), enthusiasm for teaching (4.71), and thoroughly understand the teaching subject (4.68) received the highest mean values. In the responses from the secondary

TABLE 28.2 Personal factors

Personal factors	Overall Mean N = 343	Primary teachers N = 190		Secondary teachers N = 144		T-value
		Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
Responsible	4.79	4.81	0.55	4.77	0.59	0.55
Caring for students	4.73	4.76	0.58	4.68	0.64	1.15
Self-reflection	4.63	4.68	0.61	4.56	0.71	1.67
Mission-minded	4.58	4.65	0.65	4.49	0.69	2.19*
Respectfulness	4.58	4.59	0.62	4.55	0.63	0.64
Attach importance to moral education	4.57	4.65	0.61	4.46	0.64	2.73**
Patience	4.55	4.58	0.62	4.50	0.67	1.12
Being fair	4.54	4.59	0.64	4.47	0.69	1.53
Not giving up easily when facing adversities	4.50	4.61	0.63	4.34	0.70	3.65***

*p ≤ 0.05 **p ≤ 0.01 ***p ≤ 0.001.

TABLE 28.3 Professional factors

Professional factors	Overall Mean N = 343	Primary teachers N = 190		Secondary teachers N = 144		T-value
		Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
Thoroughly understanding the teaching subject	4.69	4.68	0.58	4.70	0.56	-0.27
Being a role model for students	4.68	4.74	0.57	4.58	0.70	2.21*
Enthusiasm for teaching	4.62	4.71	0.62	4.51	0.69	2.75**
Teaching students both subject knowledge and interpersonal attitudes	4.55	4.64	0.63	4.40	0.66	3.34***
Clear and in-depth delivery of lessons	4.55	4.56	0.68	4.53	0.63	0.50
Effectively managing the classroom	4.49	4.56	0.63	4.39	0.69	2.29*
Never ceasing to improve ways of teaching and classroom management	4.48	4.52	0.66	4.42	0.65	1.40
Making use of various teaching skills to arouse students' learning interest	4.44	4.48	0.69	4.37	0.68	1.47
Teaching in a lively and interesting way to enhance students' understanding	4.43	4.49	0.71	4.35	0.66	1.94
Basing teaching on students' abilities	4.43	4.45	0.69	4.40	0.66	0.69
Holding individual teaching belief	4.40	4.45	0.69	4.33	0.67	1.60
Lifelong learning, never ceasing to improve	4.36	4.46	0.70	4.23	0.67	3.09***
Thinking critically	4.31	4.38	0.73	4.20	0.66	2.29*
Understanding and fitting in the needs of colleagues	4.29	4.39	0.68	4.15	0.60	3.39***
Willing to face new challenges	4.22	4.28	0.74	4.11	0.69	2.15*
Grasping opportunities and making good use of resources	4.18	4.23	0.71	4.09	0.71	1.82
Having close contact with parents	4.12	4.27	0.66	3.91	0.72	4.75***

* $p \leq 0.05$ ** $p \leq 0.01$ *** $p \leq 0.001$.

teachers, thoroughly understand the teaching subject (4.70), being a role model (4.58), and clear in-depth delivery of the lesson (4.53) received the highest mean values. This difference suggests that the secondary teachers put more emphasis on teaching the subject matter while the primary teachers regarded being a role model and having enthusiasm in teaching to be more important than teaching the subject matter. If the responses from the primary and the secondary teachers are compared using a one-way ANOVA test, the results suggest that the primary teachers rated nine items to be significantly more important than did the secondary teachers. These items were: understanding and fitting in the needs of colleagues, making close contact with parents, being a role model for students, teaching students both subject knowledge and interpersonal attitudes, lifelong learning, never ceasing to improve, thinking critically, willing to face new challenges, and effectively managing the classroom.

Five of the 6 items under environmental factors were also perceived to be important by the teachers (Table 28.4). These 5 items had a mean value ranging from 4.23 to 4.52. The item "Influence of former teachers" received a lower rating at 3.43 meaning that teachers perceived this as being comparatively less important in influencing teacher success. The three items that received the highest mean values were principal's support (4.52), colleagues' collaboration and encouragement (4.44), and students' positive feedback about teaching methods (4.38). If the responses from the primary and the secondary teachers are compared using a one-way ANOVA test, the results suggest that the primary teachers rated four items to be significantly more important

TABLE 28.4 Environmental factors

Environmental factors	Mean N = 341	Primary teachers N = 188		Secondary teachers N = 144		T-value
		Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
Principal's support (including the provision of resources and opportunities)	4.52	4.61	0.68	4.40	0.72	2.79**
Colleagues' collaboration and encouragement (e.g. sharing teaching experience)	4.44	4.51	0.70	4.33	0.68	2.32*
Students' positive feedback about teaching methods	4.38	4.46	0.68	4.27	0.70	2.51**
Parents' support	4.24	4.46	0.72	3.94	0.80	6.30***
Good working environment	4.23	4.28	0.74	4.16	0.65	1.52
Influence of former teachers	3.43	3.45	1.00	3.38	0.84	0.78

* $p \leq 0.05$ ** $p \leq 0.01$ *** $p \leq 0.001$.

than did the secondary teachers. These items were: principal's support (including the provision of resources and opportunities), colleagues' collaboration and encouragement (e.g. sharing teaching experience), parents' support and students' positive feedback about teaching methods.

The first phase of the study identified three groups of factors (personal, professional and environmental) to describe teacher success in the Hong Kong context. The items included in the questionnaire received high ratings from the respondents, thus indicating the teachers' recognition and support of the list of factors for describing teacher success. Figure 28.1 summarizes the three groups of factors, namely, personal, professional and environmental. The findings from the questionnaire have shown the three most important factors in each category. In the group of personal factors, the findings suggest that being responsible, having a caring attitude and self-reflection are the three most important factors. The description of successful teachers as responsible teachers is in line with findings in the literature. Stroot *et al.* (1998) suggested that effective and successful teachers need to demonstrate commitment to teaching by accepting responsibility for pupil learning and behaviour. Moreover, Ilmer Snyder, Erbaugh, and *et al.* (1997), and LeBlanc and Skelton (1997) identified positive motivation as an intrinsic characteristic for successful teachers and teacher leadership. Positive motivation (Ilmer *et al.*, 1997) was defined as being open-minded, concerned about their attitudes and being in a position to impart positive and constructive

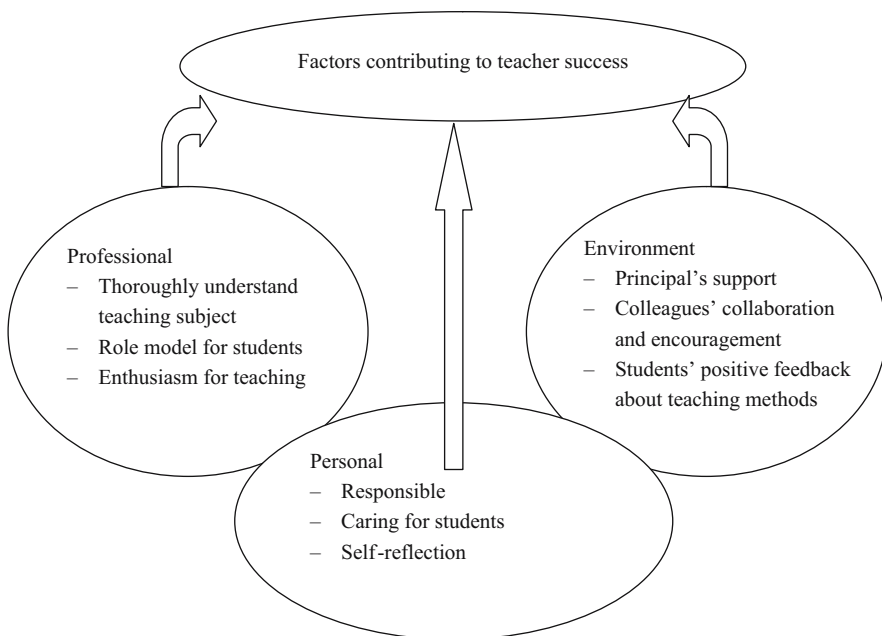


Figure 28.1. The conceptualization of teacher success

attitudes to the students. The argument that having a caring attitude is important as a personal attribute for successful teachers is consistent with other research findings. Tamblyn (2000) found that teachers who displayed qualities such as caring, warmth and enthusiasm to all staff and students were likely to be successful teachers. The importance of self-reflection was also supported by the findings in other literature on teacher education (Stroot *et al.*, 1998; Loving & Graham, 1997). These studies showed that effective and successful teachers need to be able to evaluate their own instructional effectiveness, with the aim of further improving their teaching over time.

In the group of professional factors, having a thorough understanding of the subject matter, being a role model for students and having an enthusiasm for teaching were found to be the three most important factors. The importance of having a thorough understanding of the subject matter is echoed by other studies on teacher education (Ilmer *et al.*, 1997; Stroot *et al.*, 1998). Ilmer *et al.* (1997) further suggest that the teachers' competence in the subject matter enables them to focus on other aspects influencing student learning, such as culture, the students' needs, and classroom dynamics. Stroot *et al.* (1998) extended the definition of subject matter preparation for successful teachers to include a vast repertoire of instructional strategies and techniques related to the teaching of the subject. Functioning as a role model as a factor for teacher success is specific to the Hong Kong context and it is not identified as such in studies in other countries.

The three most important factors in the environmental domain include the principal's support, collaboration with colleagues and positive feedback from students about teaching methods. The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing and California Department of Education (1992) highlighted the importance of support from Principals and experienced teachers. This may take the form of emotional support and the provision of professional advice and assistance to facilitate teacher success. In Hong Kong in recent years there has arisen an increasing need for teachers to collaborate in schools. Since the Hong Kong education reform was launched in 2001, it has become more necessary for teachers to collaborate so as to strengthen the efforts to launch innovations in teaching. The responses reported here reflect the expectations as well as the common understanding among the teachers about the importance of collaboration for achieving teacher success. The third factor, positive feedback from students about the teaching methods adopted, is consistent with the literature on teacher concerns. Parsons and Fuller (1974) found that teachers are concerned about self as a teacher, teaching methods and their impact on students. Murray (1985) revealed a shift in concerns in the course of the teacher education programme. The result of the survey shows that the concerns of the teachers shifted from being self-focused to being task-oriented and then to considering the impact they had on the students, and that this evolution reflected the growth in the professional maturity of teachers. Consistent with this trend, the findings in this study suggest that teachers consider that the standard of their teaching and its impact on the students can be used as indicators of teacher success.

FACTORS THAT MAY HINDER TEACHER SUCCESS

The second part of the questionnaire invited the teachers to rate the importance of 12 factors that may hinder teacher success. The three factors that received the highest mean value ratings were: heavy workload (4.63), ineffective school management policy and system (4.19), and insufficient school resources (4.02) (Table 28.5). The ranking of these three items was the same among both the primary and the secondary school teachers. Of the 12 factors, 3 received a rating of higher than 4, namely: heavy

TABLE 28.5 Factors hindering teacher success

Factors	Overall mean N = 342	Primary teachers N = 189		Secondary teachers N = 144		T-value
		Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
Heavy workload (having to handle non-teaching duties such as organizing extra-curricular activities and counselling besides teaching)	4.63	4.69	0.66	4.56	0.75	1.75
Ineffective school management policy and system	4.19	4.24	0.78	4.13	0.74	1.27
Insufficient school resources (funding and facilities)	4.02	4.08	0.81	3.95	0.74	1.54
Insufficient channels for discussing problems faced among colleagues	3.96	4.04	0.78	3.84	0.73	2.35*
Not being open to colleagues' ideas	3.96	4.03	0.69	3.87	0.72	2.10*
Conservative school culture	3.93	3.97	0.76	3.88	0.84	1.03
Declining social status of teachers	3.91	4.01	0.93	3.81	0.87	1.98*
Not being open to something new	3.90	3.97	0.67	3.82	0.73	1.92
Insufficient teaching experience	3.82	3.93	0.89	3.68	0.84	2.61**
Lacking in-service professional training	3.76	3.86	0.88	3.63	0.89	2.43*
Lacking pre-service professional training 4.28***	3.74	3.93	0.90	3.50	0.92	
Incompetence in information technology skills	3.33	3.39	0.83	3.26	0.82	1.39

* $p \leq 0.05$ ** $p \leq 0.01$ *** $p \leq 0.001$.

workload, an ineffective school management policy and system, and insufficient school resources (Table 28.5). If the responses from the primary and the secondary teachers are compared using a one-way ANOVA test, the results suggest that the primary teachers rated six items as being significantly more important than did the secondary teachers. These items were: insufficient channels for discussing with colleagues the problems faced, not being open to colleagues' ideas, the declining social status of teachers, insufficient teaching experience and the lack of pre-service professional training, and the lack of in-service professional training.

Of the factors that may hinder teacher success, the teachers placed the heavy workload at the top of the list. Glatthorn and Fox (1996) suggested some reasons why a heavy workload may hinder teacher success. In identifying factors that are likely to result in a higher level of motivation to teach, Glatthorn and Fox (1996) suggested that quality time should be provided for teachers to plan, produce materials, carry out active research and interact with each other. Moreover, both in this study and in the review conducted by Glatthorn and Fox (1996) the need for the provision of quality resources is essential. Having reviewed the literature on teacher leadership, Harris and Muijs (2002) compiled a list of factors contributing to successful teacher leadership, which included support given by the Principal. Support given by the Principal can be seen as being closely related to the factor of effective school management policy and system. Therefore, both the support given by the Principal and an effective school management policy are important factors influencing teacher leadership or success.

THE IMPORTANCE OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

In part three of the questionnaire, the teachers were asked to rate the importance of different types of teacher development programmes for facilitating teacher success. The three items that received the highest mean value were: subject knowledge (4.46), educational psychology (4.10), and increasing self-confidence (4.09) (Table 28.6). The primary teachers rated increasing self-confidence (4.22) higher than educational psychology (4.17), which is different from the order of ranking given by the secondary teachers. Taking all the responses together, among the ten suggested types of programmes, three received a rating higher than 4. These were: subject knowledge, educational psychology and increasing self-confidence (Table 28.6). If the responses from the primary and the secondary teachers are compared using a one-way ANOVA test, the results suggest that the primary teachers rated seven items to be significantly more important than did the secondary teachers. These items were: widening the range of personal experience and stimulating thinking, educational administration, educational psychology, mentoring, increasing self-confidence, school-based curriculum development, and action research.

The need for continuous professional development and effective teacher education that provides access to new skills and knowledge are also confirmed by Harris and Muijs (2002) and Glatthorn and Fox (1996). The findings in this part reflected teachers' specific needs in different areas of professional development which were specific to the local context and the current situation in education.

TABLE 28.6 The importance of different types of teacher professional development programmes

Teacher professional development programmes	Mean N = 343	Primary teachers N = 190		Secondary teachers N = 144		T-value
		Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	
Subject knowledge	4.46	4.46	0.70	4.47	0.68	-0.19
Educational psychology	4.10	4.17	0.74	3.99	0.75	2.19*
Increasing self-confidence (e.g. EQ training)	4.09	4.22	0.82	3.92	0.74	3.40***
Widening the range of personal experience and stimulating thinking (e.g. general management course and courses of teaching thinking)	3.99	4.13	0.75	3.80	0.83	3.83***
Knowledge of teaching theory, pedagogy and classroom management	3.96	4.01	0.78	3.86	0.83	1.68
Mentoring	3.87	3.99	0.74	3.72	0.76	3.29***
School-based curriculum development	3.73	3.88	0.89	3.53	0.78	3.69***
Educational administration	3.44	3.55	0.84	3.29	0.74	2.96***
Action research	3.38	3.48	0.92	3.24	0.80	2.56**
Information technology in education	3.33	3.39	0.86	3.24	0.83	1.62

* $p \leq 0.05$ ** $p \leq 0.01$ *** $p \leq 0.001$.

COMPARING THE RESPONSES FROM THE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS

Taking the three parts of the questionnaire together, the results of the one-way ANOVA t-tests suggest that there were significant differences in the mean values between the primary and the secondary teachers. The ratings from the primary teachers were higher for all the items when significant differences were identified. These factors are summarised in Figure 28.2. To illustrate this difference, some of the factors have been grouped into two categories, one group arising from the local primary school context is represented in bold and the other related to the professional status of the primary teachers in Hong Kong is represented in italics.

The first group of factors include: attaching importance to moral education, making close contact with parents, teaching students both subject knowledge and interpersonal attitudes, effectively managing the classroom and parent support. These reflect the emphasis at the local primary level. The other group of factors include (represented in italics in Figure 28.2): not giving up easily when facing adversities, the declining social status of teachers, the lack of pre-service professional training, and the lack of

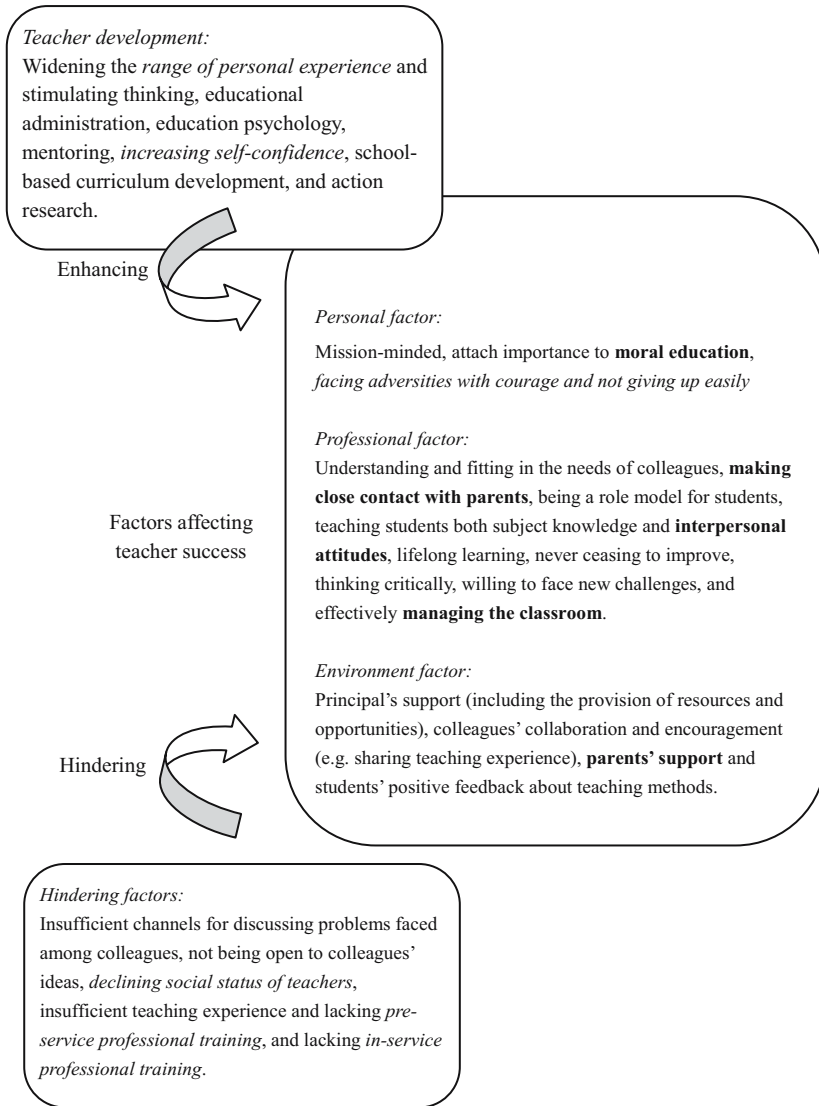


Figure 28.2. Factors contributing to enhancing, and hindering teacher success

in-service professional training. Two factors in this group reflect the teachers' preference for specific areas of professional development, namely: widening the range of personal experience and increasing self-confidence. These factors indicate that primary teachers are more heavily influenced than secondary teachers by the declining social status of teachers, and the lack of pre-service and in-service training. They recognized the ability to face adversities positively as a characteristic of teacher success more than did the secondary teachers. Their perceived need for professional development in the shape of

widening personal experience and increasing self-confidence is also stronger. These results may be interpreted to mean that there is a lack of self-confidence among the primary teachers and that they are facing greater difficulty in their work.

CONCLUSION

This study set out to investigate three main aspects concerning teacher success as follows:

- to acquire an initial understanding of how Hong Kong teachers conceptualize teacher success;
- to identify the factors hindering teacher success;
- to study the relationship between professional development and teacher success.

Based on this framework, the results in the quantitative part of the study identify the relative importance of the items within the three groups of factors (personal, professional and environmental) that contribute to teacher success. The second part of the study provides information about how teachers ranked the importance of factors hindering teacher success. The third part of the study identifies the areas of professional development which would be preferred by teachers. Further study needs to be undertaken in order to draw conclusions concerning the relationship between professional development and teacher success.

A number of the factors identified as contributing to teacher success are in line with the discussion in the literature on teacher leadership and successful teachers. These factors are: being responsible, caring for students, self-reflection, thorough understanding of the teaching subject, enthusiasm for teaching, the Principal's support, collaboration with and encouragement from colleagues, and positive feedback from students on the teaching methods. The factor stating that teachers need to be role models for students seems to be peculiar to the local context. Among the factors that may hinder teacher success, the survey results show that a heavy workload, an ineffective school management policy and system and insufficient school resources are the most detrimental to teacher success. In the literature, a heavy workload is shown to be directly related to the fact that teachers lack quality time for preparation, while the school management policy and system is linked to the factor of support from the school principal. The study identified the needs of the local teachers for professional development, and that programmes on subject knowledge, educational psychology and increasing self-confidence came top of the list of such needs. A comparison between the findings from the primary and the secondary teachers reflects a stronger feeling among the primary teachers on the importance of those factors where significant differences are found. The primary teachers seem to be under greater pressure in their work and declared a stronger need for pre-service and in-service professional development.

It is obvious from the literature that the qualities or criteria used to define what is the standard for accomplished or good teachers are usually established by policy-makers and are used mainly for certification or assessment purposes. The present research, on the other hand, seeks the views of the practitioners themselves, and provides

useful findings from the professional perspective, thus making a contribution to knowledge in this area. This study should help policy makers to gain a better understanding of the teachers' subjective world. Having this information available concerning the factors that hinder teacher success in Hong Kong, administrators or policy makers, and teacher educators need to take steps to eliminate these factors or reduce their effects. Moreover, the provision of adequate preparation time, teacher education opportunities and programmes that address the needs of the teachers may favour teacher development. Further study may be needed to identify any discrepancies between the perceptions of teacher success on the part of teachers and policy makers. The findings of such a study may provide insights for policy makers, which in turn should help them to make appropriate decisions when formulating relevant educational policies for the assessment of teachers' performance.

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29. NETWORKED LEARNING COMMUNITIES: JOINED UP WORKING?

NETWORK LEARNING COMMUNITIES (NLCS)

Network Learning Communities, which had their origin in America, are collaborative networks of at least six schools and one or more of the following partners: Local Education Authorities, Higher or Further Education Institutions and community groups. The English NLC programme started in September 2002 with Networks receiving up to £50,000 in matched funding (in cash or in kind) a year for 3 years. In the fourth year and beyond they are expected to be self-supporting.

The National College for School Leadership (NCSL) co-ordinates the NLC programme and also acts as its principal advocate. It makes a number of grand but as yet empirically unsubstantiated claims for the effectiveness of NLCs which, it is argued, are:

- changing the way we think about learning at every level of the education system (NCSL, 2002, p. 1);
- transforming schools into dynamic learning communities where the latent potential within pupils, teacher and leaders is unlocked (NCSL, 2002a, p. 2);
- ensuring schools and teachers create and exchange knowledge collaboratively, continuously and systematically (NCSL, 2002a, p. 7);
- ensuring that adults learn, that schools learn, and that schools learn from one another, helping all children to become powerful learners (NCSL, 2002a, p. 7).

Such claims form part of a discourse which the NCSL is developing and disseminating. It contains its own terms, neologisms and concepts such as networked learning, learning links, learning exchange, network consultancy and inside out change processes.

At the root of the concept of NLCs is the belief that the two types of knowledge, what we know and what is known (see figure 29.1) through collaborative work or discourse produce new knowledge that is valuable to teachers, their pupils and schools. The NCSL literature (Richert *et al.*, 2001; NCSL, 2002) refers to constructivist learning theory (O’Laughlin, 1992; Prawat, 1992; Airasian and Walsh, 1997). It is of interest that all these quoted sources are American and that NLCs are a cultural import. There can, of course, be no doubt that knowledge is socially constructed and defined. What is open to speculation is whether the setting up of groups of schools/teachers under a NLC umbrella does, in itself, produce learning and/or knowledge of professional utility. The NCSL strap line for NLC publicity is ‘learning from each other/learning with each other/ learning on behalf of each other’.

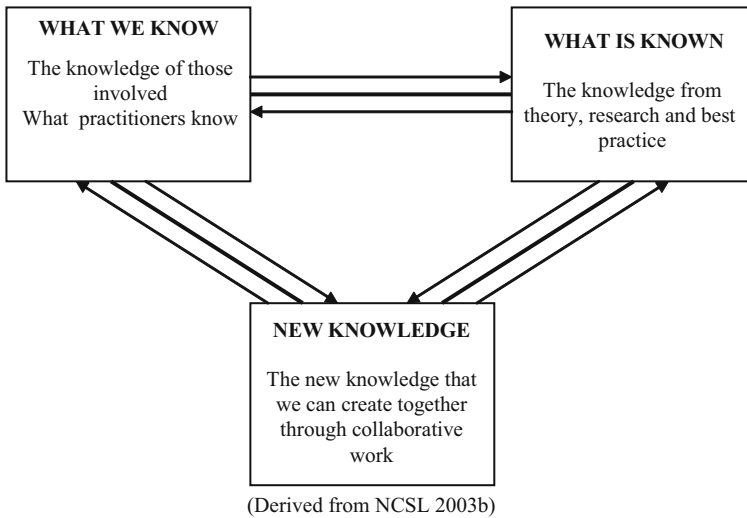


Figure 29.1. A model for networked learning

There are three non-negotiable principles of Networked Learning Communities:

- Moral purpose commitment to success for all children (social justice – ‘raising the bar’ and ‘closing the gap’)
- Models of shared leadership for example co-leadership
- Enquiry evidence and data based learning

(NCSL, 2003b, p. 9)

The NLC concept is perhaps encapsulated in the words of Sophie, a year 8 Bradford school child:

Schools should work together because it's hard working on your own, but if you work in a team then you get a lot more done and more ideas are put in.

(NCSL, 2002b, p. 4)

The NCSL discourse is based on a number of interconnected themes:

- **collaboration:** this is argued to be inherently more positive and motivating than competition. Consequently, collaborative networks are the best vehicle for encouraging the professional development of teachers and disseminating best practice. Moreover, collaboration is not simply utilitarian, it is moral, in that NLC participation is held to be dependent on moral commitment to developing learning communities;
- **networks:** seen as a new organisational form which exploit the benefits of collaboration. They avoid the problems of generating school reform from either a top down or bottom up approach or individualistic approaches to professional development;
- **six levels of knowledge:** are produced through collaboration (see Table 29.1);

TABLE 29.1 The six levels of learning

Level	Process
Pupil learning	Raising pupil achievement through developing specific classroom learning focus
Staff learning and professional development	NLCs provide spaces for experimentation, innovation and developing practice and policy. Unlike traditional CPD activities NLCs value practitioner enquiry and collaboration
Leadership for learning and leadership development	Tapping into leadership potential of teachers and providing leadership opportunities e.g. leadership of NLCs
School-wide learning	Schools in NLCs will become learning organizations which set their own agenda for change and develop capacity for constant innovation
School to school learning	Through the process of collaboratively creating and sharing knowledge
Network- to-network learning	NCSL will spread learning between networks

(Derived from 06, NCSL, 2002)

- **enquiry based practice:** NLCs are enquiry and data informed learning environments. They provide a space in which the knowledge that professionals have, the publicly available knowledge of theory and research and the knowledge constructed in the process of collaboration can all be fused to create a continuous process of reflection, problem solving and knowledge creation; (Derived from NCSL, 2003, p. 10)
- **teachers as leaders:** NLCs open up spaces in which teachers can lead the development of educational knowledge and practice and thus steer the process of educational restructuring rather than have this process dictated by central government.

NLCs, teaching and the network market

Whatever the novelty of the discourse, NLCs are only one of a range of partnership based initiatives introduced by the UK New Labour Government. These initiatives are designed to restructure education, teaching and learning to meet the needs of the UK’s post-industrial knowledge economies. As we have argued in more detail elsewhere (see Chapter 6 of this volume and Reid *et al.*, 2004, Reid and Brain 2003) in pursuing this restructuring the Government has created a network market in education. This rests on the retention of the competitive market reforms of previous Conservative governments and strong central direction over the form and content of education with new policies aimed at:

- encouraging collaboration between clusters of schools, in order to promote the development and dissemination of best practice, encourage the sharing of resources and develop common solutions to educational problems;
- creating new forms of partnerships between schools and other stakeholders in the private, public and voluntary sectors that will open up schools to sources of

innovation and result in the creation of dense networks of support, on which schools can draw to provide support structures for disadvantaged or disaffected pupils and their families;

- situating the school as a community resource that is at the centre of a learning community providing the social capital – networks, support structures, contacts and relationships – that parents, teachers and pupils can draw on in the pursuit of educational excellence for all.

The developing discourse around NLCs focuses on the network and collaborative dimensions of the network market with little acknowledgement of how the market dimensions impact on the nature, form and effectiveness of NLCs or how the aims of government policy, in creating the network market, impact on NLCs. Rather, NLCs are seen as opening up a space for the reassertion of teachers' professional autonomy and for school rather than state control over the educational reform process. However, in schools, teaching and learning are being restructured in the network market in contradictory directions. One of the more obvious examples of this being the tension between different models of teacher professionalism built into educational reforms. (Reid *et al.*, 2004). The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) argues that government policy has moved from an era of prescription for teachers to earned autonomy; but the form, content and objectives of teaching are still heavily prescribed by the government. Consequently,

Teachers are urged to innovate, share best practice and develop a sound evidence base to inform practice by taking responsibility for their own learning so that they can 'lead the way in removing barriers to learning and finding solutions to learning challenges' (DfES, 2003c). At the same time, however, the objectives, goals and purposes of education are set for the profession by central government, together with the definition of good teaching.

(Reid *et al.*, 2004, p. 263)

It is this context in which NLCs have to operate and this context that will condition the forms of NLCs schools set up, the kinds of work they engage in and their impact on pupils, teachers and schools.

A NETWORKED LEARNING COMMUNITY IN ACTION

The NLC that is the subject of this paper was part of the initial cohort and was set up in 2002, since when the authors have been involved both in its activities and its evaluation. This NLC is situated in Bradford, a sizable city in the North of England that played a most significant part in the Industrial Revolution and the establishment of the British Labour Party. Its school standards are below the national average and following inspection in 2001 the delivery of schooling was taken out of the control of the Local Education Authority and placed in the hands of a private international company SERCO, trading under the name Education Bradford. The North East Bradford Networked Learning Community (NEBNLC) can be viewed as an exemplar in that it

is one of a few NLCs that has a very active partnership with Higher Education (the University of Bradford). Apart from the evaluation – that included attending a number of the regular day-long core meeting and events – the University has provided a number of inputs to this NLC, including:

- a Master’s level module specifically designed to enable staff to conduct small-scale research on a problem or issue identified by and in their own school (from the Unit for Educational Research and Evaluation);
- information technology demonstration and facilitation of the Blackboard programme (from the School of Lifelong Learning and Development);
- conflict resolution (from the Department of Peace Studies).

The NEBNLC consists of 12 schools:

- three large comprehensive (pupils 11–19 years old) secondary schools, one of which is a Church of England establishment;
- a Muslim [girls only] secondary (pupils 11–18 years old) school;
- a special needs (pupils 2–11 years old) school;
- seven primary (pupils 5–11 years old) schools.

The NEBNLC has been very successful in:

- forming a core group with an established identity;
- setting up working groups;
- generating a range of training opportunities for group members and curriculum enrichment activities for pupils.

Table 29.2 illustrates these achievements in some more detail.

TABLE 29.2 Network learning group activities

Working groups established	Core group (exists for life of NLC) ICT group (two terms) Expressive Arts Group (two terms)
Core group	Established Associate Teaching Fellowships in conjunction with University of Bradford, 5 research projects on parental involvement and 1 on boys achievement completed Links developed with Gifted and Talented Initiatives, additional funding (£4,000) secured and a Puzzle Day run for selected pupils Student Voice Conference organised and run successfully for 2 years Conflict Resolution Training Day run for NLC schools by University Virtual Learning Environment set up for network by University Accelerated Learning and group development sessions run for core group Special Needs Provision training Science Day organised and run
ICT group	Produced a CD rom detailing a day in the life of pupils for citizenship curriculum Identified a weakness in year 6 curriculum in teaching control technology and arranged for lesson plans to be shared amongst group Organised a Technology Day
Expressive arts	Several arts project running in schools. Projects will form the centrepiece of an Expressive Arts Day

Table 29.3 identifies the main activities the NEBNLC have engaged in and their impact on the six levels of learning, as reported by core group members. Interviews and evaluation forms completed by core group members and sub group participants demonstrated that the NEBNLC has been particularly important in:

- creating space for teachers to develop and broaden curriculum activities;
- developing collaborative working practices and overcoming the isolation many teachers feel;
- providing a forum in which teachers can discuss and share ideas on teaching and learning and develop new teaching and learning strategies;
- providing a space in which teachers can mutually support each other.

Typical comments were:

I learnt plenty of new ways to encourage children to work as a team ... and to recognise different forms of intelligence and to address this by varying my teaching style.

I have shared details of the (conflict resolution) day with colleagues and the ideas have been adapted and used in Personal, Social, Health Citizenship Education (PSHCE) lessons.

As a newcomer to the group I was struck by the range of projects ... research, student conferences, the production of CD roms and subject activity days ... perhaps most useful however, are the contacts, links and partnerships across schools ... colleagues now have a forum in which to share ideas, information and expertise.

The sub groups are a real benefit because you can get other staff involved rather than just us going to meetings and reporting back.

It is clear that the NEBNLC has provided a space in which teachers can engage in developing a range of activities that would not have existed without the group's existence. However, the group has also experienced a range of difficulties in the following areas:

- securing commitment and equal levels of engagement from all participating schools. Some schools may need to drop out of the NEBNLC in the coming year because of lack of commitment from Heads or the need to meet other school priorities;
- cascading NEBNLC activities into schools. Core group members perceive a real lack of awareness of NEBNLC activities in partner schools other than among those teachers who have participated in the groups or events;
- demonstrating impact on schools and pupils. The NEBNLC has generated a considerable amount of activity, but the core group is concerned about how they can demonstrate links to pupil attainment or widespread change in teaching and learning methods within partner schools. This is becoming an urgent problem because schools' participation and future NEBNLC funding may depend on demonstrating impact.

TABLE 29.3 Network learning group key activities and impact

Level	Process
Pupil learning	<p>Enriched curriculum opportunities through the activities organised by the NLC and development of additional teaching and learning resources;</p> <p>Pupil visits to other schools;</p> <p>Teachers report various impacts depending on project e.g.increased self esteem (Expressive Arts and Student Voice): enhanced learning skills - puzzle day, accelerated learning and development of team working, raised expectations – school visits, better behaviour through conflict resolution day.</p>
Staff learning and professional development	<p>Participation in groups: sharing of best practice, development of new teaching and learning strategies, creation of new teaching resources;</p> <p>Specific training events to develop new skills: conflict resolution, special needs provision, whiteboards, accelerated learning;</p> <p>HEI links: Associate Teaching Research Fellowships, e-learning environment and training to support teacher use, collaboration in NLC meetings to discuss and share ideas on teaching and learning.</p>
Leadership for learning and leadership development	<p>Each core member acts as leader for NLC in schools and takes a lead in organising events;</p> <p>One member took on a role as a regional co-ordinator; Members have led staff meetings in school;</p> <p>NLC raises the school profile of participating teachers and provides opportunities for other members of school staff to take the lead participation in NLC events.</p>
School-wide learning	<p>Resources banks: puzzle day, student voice, CD-rom, conflict day materials, science packs, literacy and numeracy resources. Dissemination of NLC activities and research of Associate Fellows at staff meetings, pupil assemblies, newsletter; Changes in practice and policy: one school changed year 2 curriculum through introduction of group development strategies, one school changed behaviour policy through introduction of conflict resolution techniques, three schools introduced learning cycle model, one school developed research tool for identifying learning styles and five core group members reported the development of co-operative working amongst teachers.</p>
School-to-school learning	<p>Participation in groups led to: inter school visits, common arts and ICT projects, dissemination of ideas around teaching and learning, sharing of resources and spin offs, such as: ICT group sharing, information on best ICT systems to buy leading to financial savings;</p> <p>NLC resource banks developed e.g. ICT CD-rom on pupil transitions, puzzle day activities;</p> <p>Links developed between schools on Gifted and Talented provision;</p> <p>NLC newsletter promoting activities and fostering development of common identity.</p>
Network-to-network learning	<p>Attendance at National Conferences;</p> <p>NLC co-ordinator taken on role as regional co-ordinator and can disseminate best practice.</p>

These difficulties are illustrated by the following teachers' comments:

The National College have underestimated what a slow process it is developing major attitudinal change and overcoming Heads with their own school priorities ... there is no fast track. Primary schools especially, being small and teachers having multiple roles, have difficulty finding time for collaboration.

Lack of commitment from certain schools has been the biggest disappointment; some people have used it as a day out of school.

We have not been able to sustain the ICT group despite enthusiasm because only 7 of the original 13 actually did anything.

Primaries who got most out of our network are where Heads and Deputy Heads have been involved ... in a school like mine this doesn't happen so nobody else in the school gets involved.

It has impacted on my practice but there was no way it could impact on the rest of the whole school without senior backing ... it was bound to be small steps. Our biggest problem is that individual teachers may know about group work but there is no real profile.

I don't think we will be in the group next year because it is not a priority for our Head.

Autonomous, reflective or prescribed practitioners?

At its outset the NEBNLC appeared to be very much about setting its own agenda. It was established on a bid that rested on two major factors: the development of a seamless 5 to 16 Citizenship curriculum (then a new element in the British National Curriculum) and teacher research. However, at an early meeting of the core group where the specially written research module was presented by a professor it became clear that the group was keen to protect what it viewed as *its* agenda. This initial apparent resentment to the possibility of 'dancing to someone else's tune' was overcome by the Unit acting positively to support the group's aims. However, during the second year a series of reviews by the NCSL clearly indicated a *growth* in the central control of activities, which calls into question the degree of autonomy that NLCs are allowed to have.

The space in which the NLC can develop its own educational agenda is being increasingly narrowed. The most recent meeting of the core group (May 2004) was given over entirely to reviewing the extent to which the work of the group could be justified in terms of impact on pupil attainment and school teaching and learning methods. Under direction from the NCSL, the group has to complete an audit of activities, produce a portfolio of evidence demonstrating impact and attend a national conference to disseminate their activities in June 2004. Failure to comply could result in loss of funding, as could failure to demonstrate impact. This would lead to the termination of the group. As a Regional Group Co-ordinator argued:

The NCSL and DfES are worried about the operational activity gap ... they have given out millions of pounds and they want to see that

it has worked ... it is not enough to say that NLCs are about learning but why didn't they let us know what outcomes they wanted from the beginning?

In effect, the NCSL is acting as a disciplinary mechanism to ensure that NLCs follow the objectives of government policy and promote the government's model of teaching and learning. The danger here is that NLCs themselves become an arm of this disciplinary mechanism through which government steers the restructuring of education and teaching. If so, rather than producing a space for the reassertion of teacher professional autonomy and reflective practice, NLCs will further promote the trend towards reducing teachers to technicians who deliver predetermined educational products to meet predetermined objectives. In the Foucauldian sense, teachers in NLCs might be reduced to docile bodies.

Of course, teachers can and do resist this process as the activities generated by the NEBNLC show. Real benefits can and do develop from the process of collaboration although not necessarily ones that can be directly measured or that directly produce rises in pupil attainment. However, the space is not just being narrowed from above, via NCSL and DfES, but also from below, via the individual schools comprising the network. Again the pressure is one to justify impact. School heads in particular are likely to be more interested in NLCs in so far as they help the school meet school objectives, rather than the extent to which they provide spaces for teachers to be innovative, share ideas or develop activities which, while interesting, cannot be directly related to pupil outcomes in performance.

NLCs have provided space during the working week for some teachers' professional development. In its first year NEBNLC provided for a day a week release for a teacher from each of the community's schools. Such opportunities have been rare in Britain since the 1980s when some teachers gained full or part-time secondment to undertake higher education delivered courses. These were effectively ended as the funding for such purposes was moved from Local Education Authority to individual school budgets.

While CPD as delivered by higher education institutions always operated in a market it was a more closed one than that created by the transfer of funding and the growth of private commercial providers. For a range of reasons teachers shunned many HE provided courses – frequently seen as academic (often inaccurately) in favour of shorter non-award bearing courses of direct classroom relevance. NLCs can be viewed as a further step in enabling teacher autonomy in respect to CPD, since they are provided with the space and resources to 'purchase' what they see as necessary. This step is neatly illustrated in the following statement by a member of the NEBNLC's core group.

I feel now empowered to choose what professional learning I will do. For example accelerated learning and then this leads into my work with the pupils. I also have the confidence to reject professional learning that I do not need.

However, the pressures that the NEBNLC faces from above and below threaten to close this space. Already one school has left the group, two others are considering

leaving and the remainder are locked in a debate about how they can 'cascade' NEBNLC activities into partner schools, demonstrate impact and persuade Head Teachers in member schools to actively support the group. Further, when the additional funding the NEBNLC receives comes to an end in July 2005 there are serious doubts as to whether or not the group will be able to sustain itself.

For both government and individual schools there is a premium in establishing and participating in initiatives which can demonstrate impact on attainment. If the NEBNLC cannot demonstrate that it has impacted on teaching and learning in the prescribed ways set by central government, then its member schools are unlikely to support it, as is the government. The end product of this may well be to close it off as a space for the enhancement of reflective practice or professional autonomy.

Where next?

The difficulties faced by teachers in the NEBNLC of maintaining a space where they have control of the educational agenda and the development of their own professional practice while at the same time meet prescribed pupil attainment goals reflect the contradictions and tensions of the network market where:

- increasingly differentiated autonomous schools compete against each other in national league tables;
- the nature, form, content and goals of education are determined by central government;
- conflicting models of teaching operate: one in which the teacher is positioned as a deliverer of preset curricula to meet preset objectives, the other in which teachers are positioned as leaders of learning who innovate, develop new ideas and develop their own enquiry based teaching approaches;
- conflicting models of learning operate: the dominant model being one in which learning is reduced to a set of measurable attainments in a limited curriculum, the other model being an emphasis on the development of creativity, social skills and a broad curriculum.

The space created for teachers to engage in collaboration, innovation, sharing of ideas and development of best practice is perhaps inevitably squeezed by the:

- increasing diversification of schools which can undermine the development of common interest or approaches;
- individual autonomy of schools which means that without senior management commitment initiatives like NLCs quickly become marginalised;
- competitive pressures schools face to secure high league table positions;
- centrally determined priority for schools to raise educational standards as measured on a narrow band of attainment criteria.

At the time of writing and despite the fact that the first NLCs face the end of their government funding, it is still too early to draw an evaluative conclusion as to their success and achievements. Doubtless as is illustrated in our case study NLCs have provided a number of teachers with the time, space and opportunity to regain or develop their professionalism. Some schools and their pupils may well have benefited in the process. Doubtless some of these teachers will attempt to sustain this professional

gain and level of autonomy in the face of what appears to be increasing prescription from governmental bodies. Whether or not NLCs can become self-financing and sustaining is likely to depend on local factors, a significant one being the value of the NLC as perceived by the schools within it. However, a mould has been broken, not only for some teachers, but also for some schools. The closer relationships and joint activities between some geographically proximate schools and between primary and secondary schools may well be sustained at the local level, irrespective of the future of NLCs and despite the constraints of the network market, the DfES and the NCSL.

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30. LESSON STUDY: AN OPPORTUNITY FOR
TEACHER LED PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Student achievement in the United States continues to be a source of concern as evidenced by the number of politicians, members of the press, and the public who regularly discuss “failing schools.” Recent international comparisons in the areas of mathematics and science, for example, suggest little to no growth. Children in the United States continue to fall behind most industrialized nations (Stigler and Hiebert, 1997, 1999). In response to the situation, the federal government focused on the creation of a high stakes accountability program, the No Child Left Behind Act. As a result, every state that agrees to accept federal funds must hold schools accountable for making “adequate yearly progress.” Instead of creating initiatives that focus on improving the practice of teaching and learning, these reform efforts focus on designing classrooms with *teacher proof* curriculum (e.g., Nelson, 1998). Districts and schools across the country are currently devoting significant numbers of planning hours on strategies for aligning grade level curriculum to yearly high stakes tests. While these meetings may provide an opportunity for better curriculum alignment, they do not get at the core of student failure, ineffective instructional practices.

Instructional practices can only be changed through examination of teaching practice and its impact on student learning. In order for this to occur, schools need to create a process for teachers to systematically study teaching strategies and lessons that will increase student achievement (e.g., Fisher *et al.*, 2005). Unfortunately, most teachers do not have a systematic way to collaborate and validate or update their instructional practices. Change is left to individual teachers or school sites. Teachers and administrators are left to stumble upon “effective” teaching strategies and lessons, or worse yet rely upon the pendulum swing of latest educational reform efforts. All too often experienced teachers “wait out” these new reform movements. Teachers continue to implement methods they have utilized since the start of their teaching career. The teaching status quo continues not because teachers are lazy or desire to utilize ineffective teaching strategies, but rather that no alternative is provided. Professional development programs for teachers have remained the focus of educational change since the 1990’s. This interest, however, has continued to produce inadequate gains in student achievement. Professional development programs need to “provide teachers with an opportunity to learn about teaching” (Stigler and Heibert, 1999, pp. 12–13).

Many excellent new teaching practices are never fully implemented in the teaching profession because the culture of teaching prohibits a critical mass from ever forming. Research suggests that teachers rely on their first 2 years in the profession as a guidepost for teaching techniques (e.g., Burk and Fry, 1997; Bondy and McKenzie, 1999). These teaching practices often remain in place their entire teaching careers.

Teaching strategies they stumbled upon in these first 2 years set the foundation for the classroom learning for generations of students. Additionally, teachers often rely on the ineffective strategies modeled to them as children in their K-12 classrooms.

Lesson study provides one way in which teachers can systematically improve instruction and decrease teacher isolation, if it can be sustained over time. Lesson study provides a process for teachers to collaborate and design lessons while examining successful teaching strategies to increase student learning. In the process of lesson study, teachers work together to plan, teach and observe a cooperatively developed lesson. While one teacher implements the lesson in the classroom, others observe and take notes on student questions and understanding. The development of an “ideal lesson” is not the critical component in the lesson study process (Lewis, 2000). Focus on student learning and professional collaboration is what drives the group process.

This chapter provides attempts to answer three questions related to the use of lesson study as a professional development model, including:

- What is lesson study and what does it look like?
- What are the theories behind the use of lesson study as a professional development model?
- Is there evidence that this model of professional development impacts student achievement?

WHAT IS LESSON STUDY AND WHAT DOES IT LOOK LIKE?

Catherine Lewis describes the process of lesson study as the cycle in which

teachers collaborate to formulate goals for student learning and development, plan instruction designed to formulate goals for student learning and development, plan instruction designed to foster these goals, and observe and discuss selected research lessons.

(Lewis, 2002, p. 5).

Lesson study or “*jugyokenkyu*” is imbedded in the core activities of teachers in Japan. Yoshida describes lesson study as a process where, “teachers form several Lesson Study Groups (usually divided by grade level). Each of these groups develops a lesson and implements it in a regular classroom, after which the teachers observe and discuss the lesson. The cycle of meetings and lessons is usually conducted several times a year under the school’s main *Jugyokenkyu* study theme” (1999, p. 110).

Lesson study consists of a number of steps that are commonly used as teachers engage in this process. First, lesson study team members use multiple data sources to identify learning goals for students. Then, the team members collaboratively design a “Research Lesson.” This lesson provides the team members with a common focus and agreed upon achievement benchmarks for achievement. This research lesson can occur at the beginning of the teaching unit, be used as a springboard for subsequent lessons, or be implemented at later point in the lesson series sequence. Regardless, the research lesson provides guiding conversations for the team as they work toward increasing achievement for all students. The goal of the collaboratively designed

research lesson is not to create a “perfect” lesson but rather to provide an opportunity for time and professional development on the use of student data to plan instructional experiences for students.

The third step in the lesson study cycle is the research lesson presentation. One of the team members presents the collaboratively designed lesson to his or her students, while the other members take the role of researchers. As the teacher presents the lesson, fellow group members are both observing the level of student engagement and actively questioning students to understand their thinking throughout the lesson. Student questions are established by the lesson study group in previous planning sessions. Each team member is also responsible for a group of students. The use of this focused questioning strategy ensures a more complete picture of the learning needs of all students.

After the lesson has been presented, the group convenes for a formal debrief session. At this meeting, teachers analyze the data collected and examine students’ progress toward the learning goals. Teachers use these meetings to identify areas of improvement for future lessons, consider instructional strategies that may be used by the group to help increase student understanding and ascertain what the next steps will be in their continued collaborative work together.

WHAT ARE THE THEORIES BEHIND THE USE OF LESSON STUDY AS A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT MODEL?

Theory 1: Teachers can not be isolated

Isolation is inherent in the culture of teaching. In order to make substantive gains in student achievement, classrooms must become open for professional collaboration. Teachers have historically existed in a “one room schoolhouse” world. Wilms and Zell argue (2002) that, “Most schools still operate like old mass production facilities. Bells ring, students move through a fragmented curriculum, and hours fly by. Quality of student learning is measured by narrow tests, and increasingly, teachers’ salaries and school resources are being tied to test scores” (p. 6). While some school districts across the country are moving toward opening classroom doors and making classroom instruction public and accessible to all teachers and administrators, most still operate under this dated industrial model.

Extreme levels of professional isolation are inherent in the culture of teaching and needs to be examined in order to make substantive gains in student achievement. While beginning teacher support programs are aimed at ensuring that novice teachers are provided with support systems to help alleviate this sense of isolation, experienced teachers are left to recede into the industrial model of educational isolation that began in the early 1900s (Olebe *et al.*, 1999; Wilms, 2002). It is because of this disconnect to meaningful learning experiences for both students and teachers that our educational reform efforts continue to be at risk.

Teachers must be provided with opportunities, with the help of colleagues and coaches, sustained over the course of their careers if they are to continually improve student achievement. Many teachers in the United States today are provided with

extremely limited opportunities and focused time to collaborate and dialogue about instructional delivery. A teacher's capacity in his or her subject area has the most significant impact on student success in the area of mathematics. We must continue to examine new ways to help break down this isolation and create collegial opportunities for teachers.

There are currently no programs that exist to systematically bring together experienced teachers to study effective teaching practices and examine student achievement. As a profession, we do not systematically provide this high level of examination for pre-service teachers. Prospective teachers take a sequence of coursework at a university, which examines current teaching pedagogy and educational theory. As these teachers in training progress through the university preparation program, they put into practice these new skills in guided instructional settings with practicum classroom students (e.g., Farnan *et al.*, 2003).

Upon completing their teaching credential, teachers in 38 states including California are required to participate in a 2-year induction program. These beginning teacher support programs are aimed at decreasing teacher attrition due to the demanding life of a classroom teacher. The mentorship and limited collegiality provided during this induction program helps enable teachers to survive the daily challenges and instructional demands. While these programs have continued to show dramatic increases in teacher retention and decreased levels of perceived isolation (Olebe *et al.*, 1999), state funding is discontinued for these new teachers after their first 2 years. Teachers are then relegated to a state of isolation, which continues to capture many of their experienced colleagues.

How can we create a process that provides the same level of professional learning and engagement for our experienced teachers? Why is it acceptable for our teaching professionals to disengage after their college years? As teachers begin to face the difficulties of the daily rigors of teaching, they often retreat into the confines of their classroom. This creates a sense of isolation from their academic community and colleagues, which causes frustration levels to rise. Wilms (2002) argues that, "Teachers have little time or incentive to work together as professionals in the service of children's learning. Most teachers cope by simply walling themselves off inside their own classrooms and teaching the best they know how" (p. 608). It is crucial to provide opportunities for these teachers to engage in professional discourse with fellow teachers and to create an environment where they are supported in areas of difficulty.

*Theory 2: All teachers require professional
development*

Professional development programs remain the backbone of U.S educational reform efforts. In order for our students to have high quality educational experiences, we need to support teacher training which increases the knowledge level for teachers. In 1983, *A Nation at Risk* noted that, "nearly half of the newly employed mathematics, science, and English teachers are not qualified to teach these subjects" (p. 3). Today, over two decades later, these statistics are virtually unchanged. Far too many students, especially students in urban schools, are trapped in under performing learning

environments, are held to low expectations, and are taught by untrained or under-prepared teachers.

Joyce and Showers (2002) point our attention to four conditions that must be present if staff development is to significantly affect student learning. In their words, quality professional development is:

- *A community of professionals comes together who study together, put into practice what they are learning, and share the results.*
- *The content of staff development around curricular and instructional strategies selected because they have a high probability of affecting student learning-and, as important, student ability to learn.*
- *The magnitude of change generated is sufficient that the students' gain in knowledge and skills is palpable. What is taught, how it is taught, and the social climate of the school have top change to the degree that the increase in student ability to learn is manifest.*
- *The process of staff development enables educators to develop the skill to implement what they are learning.*

(Joyce and Showers, 2002, p. 4)

This set of criteria provides a backbone for staff development programs. By creating staff development programs that help create a process for focused inquiry around student learning, we provide teachers and opportunity to collaborate and to develop ideas that increase student achievement. Teachers need to be in the process of continuously examining student work and data from daily informal assessments to monitor the progress and understanding. Joyce and Showers (2002) suggest, "... student learning must be studied continuously and diagnostically. For example, teachers who study weekly samples of their students' writing with an eye to modulating instruction based on student ability create more energy in the teaching/learning environment" (p. 6).

*Theory 3: Professional development should be
based on student performance data*

Decisions regarding the focus for staff development should come as a result of an assessment of both the data and needs of the students. Administrators and teacher leadership teams need to examine which are the most critical needs of its student and how the shift in student instruction can result in long term gains in student understanding. Joyce and Showers (2002) examine this relationship, "content selection is dedicated by the need for change that a faculty perceives ... faculties use a combination of perceptions ('what do we feel are our most pressing needs?') and data ('What do our test scores tell us?') to select targets for improvement. If the process results in a list of needs in which all items have equal weight, the list may grow to 15 or 20 item ..." (p. 61).

While there are certainly a great number of activities that should be examined in the school improvement process, a focused course of curriculum development will result in greater student achievement. They further contend, "A faculty is much better

positioned to change something if it can focus on a top priority in a way that simultaneously acknowledges both the presence and importance of everything on the list ...” (Joyce and Showers, 2002, p. 61).

The ability of teachers to work together to examine curriculum and student data can't be understated. Banks and Mayes (2001, p. 320) discuss the literature surrounding teacher-teacher staff development:

... teachers learn much from each other. They cite fellow teachers as the most valuable source of professional development. In recent years, teacher development approaches which built on collegial and collaborative work among teachers have become prominent in the discourse on school improvement and educational change. Peer coaching, advising teachers, cooperative professional development and mentoring are all examples of this mode of teacher development

By creating professional development programs that create collaborative environments for teachers to engage in a focused examination of curriculum and student learning development, lesson study can help facilitate increased student achievement and decrease the culture of teacher isolation. Creating collaborative professional development programs will also assist in facilitating an environment where new teachers no longer struggle in a state of isolation.

IS THERE EVIDENCE THAT THIS MODEL OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IMPACTS STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT?

An obvious question to ask is, does this work? Evidence from Linn *et al.* (2000), Fernandez, (2002), Fernandez and Chokshi (2002), Fernandez *et al.* (2003), Kelly (2002), and Lewis and Tsuchida (1998) all suggest that lesson study will improve student achievement. In an effort to extend the research database on lesson study, specifically in the area of urban education, we conducted a lesson study research project in San Diego, CA. We will discuss the research project and the outcomes and then summarize our thinking on the usefulness of lesson study as a professional development model.

Context

The school chosen for this study, Rosa Parks Elementary, is located in the City Heights community of San Diego and is part of an Educational Collaborative with San Diego Unified School District and San Diego State University. Three schools comprise the City Heights Educational Collaborative: Rosa Parks Elementary, Monroe Clark Middle School and Hoover High School. They are also Professional Development Schools (PDS) for San Diego State University. It is one of the most economically challenged communities in San Diego County and is often referred to

as the “Ellis Island of San Diego”. With a total of 5% of the city’s population, City Heights suffers a disproportionately high incidence of serious crimes. In 2003, violent crimes, including murder, rape, robbery, and assault, occurred at more than twice the citywide average. Juvenile crime is also a serious problem. Fifteen youth gangs are documented in this area. Their membership runs in the thousands.

As part of this study, teachers were observed, interviewed and surveyed as they engaged in a process of Lesson Study. Teachers were also observed in both lesson study groups and classroom instruction. These observations were video taped and reviewed as participants continue to engage in conversations about improving instructional practices. Lesson study participants and the researcher used the data gathered from these observations to guide focused conversations about better meeting the students’ instructional needs. Teacher and researcher utilized the Plan-Do-Check-Act model as a way to continually monitor and refine the Lesson Study process.

Focus groups were also conducted as lesson study groups continue to develop to help monitor progress and guide future changes. All interviews and focus group data was recorded, transcribed and analyzed. These focus groups created another format for study participants’ to collect and analyze data to help guide and refine the process.

Teachers and school site administrators were surveyed using Likert-scale questionnaires, used to assess staff perceptions regarding this model of teacher led professional development. Administrators at the case study school also participated in structured interviews to examine the impact of leadership style as related to the findings. Survey data from the participating teachers and site administrators will continue to be analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), to make programmatic changes data and provide teachers with a continual feedback loop.

Findings

This project introduced lesson study to a group of 30 teachers. Teachers involved in this study group learned through the lesson study process, facilitated by the researchers, to refine and reflect their teaching strategies and develop lessons that increased student understanding. Teachers participating in this study group engaged in weekly lesson study forums to help them design and implement math lessons. These lessons were created as a group and delivered by one group member. Lessons were then analyzed and refined by the group to increase both students’ understanding and engagement. This process continued with a series of subsequent group designed lessons throughout the year-long lesson study process, following a Plan-Do-Check-Act cycle. Kelly, a first grade teacher, reflected:

To have time to create a unit that we actually got to use, implement, see the whole process through, I thought was fabulous. To actually be able to watch someone else teach it and then just be able to focus on the kids, I thought was really incredible. I mean, the whole thing, I thought was just amazing to do.

PERCEIVED STRENGTHS OF LESSON STUDY

First, participants identified a number of strengths of lesson study as a process. Some of the benefits of Lesson Study that they identified are its:

- emphasis on planning meaningful lessons that meet student needs,
- inquiries about student assessment, and
- impetus for formulating short and long term curriculum goals.

Monica contrasted traditional professional development with lesson study:

Most professional development is a waste of time. To take a group of teachers at the end of the day, stick them in a room, make them sit for an hour after they've been teaching all day, it's just – it's not effective. We don't do that with the children because we know that they won't be able to pay attention. I think lesson study is a much more effective way of doing professional development because you're getting people that are interested in particular topics, everyone's involved, everyone has a part. Even if you're just observing, you're taking notes, you're doing something, you have a part and you're not stuck there until God knows how long, until the State says you have to be there until 4:30 in the afternoon or whatever it is.

She reflected further:

One thing that lesson study allowed me to do was to see what was going on in other classes where in teaching there's so little time to go and really talk with your colleagues about what they're doing and – unless you're specifically planning with them. It's given me an opportunity to see what other people did and just also to hone my own teaching. For example, I did one of the lessons that we all came up with and it was just a real positive environment and I was a little nervous doing a lesson in front of my colleagues because who wants to be criticized.

Second, the participants at Rosa Parks identified strengths of Lesson Study as a process for teacher led professional development. They were:

- increased levels of reflection on teaching practices,
- the Lesson Study learning community as the basis of the professional development program,
- the relationship of the Lesson Study teams,
- the structure of Lesson Study as a model for teacher led professional development,
- its emphasis on lesson planning, and
- its excellent preparation for the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS).

Jasmine articulated the usefulness of lesson study as an effective form of professional development:

And I think we as teachers have so much to offer one another that coming in together and collaborating and sharing ideas, and watching each other is just so important. I think we have more to offer one another than

an administrator has to offer us. I think they're a little disconnected. Their responsibilities aren't the same as ours currently. They were in the past, but they're not any more. So, and we are so busy in our six- to eight-hour day with the children that we never really have that opportunity. I think it would be great to have more opportunities like this.

Eighty-three percent (83%) of informants named reflection as the most significant influence of the Lesson Study model. Lesson Study participants reported that reflection occurred through group planning sessions and observational debrief conversations. It occurred as a solitary activity as well a collaborative one between Lesson Study group participants. Denise characterizes her opportunity to reflect on the learning process with students and colleagues:

It gave me more time to be able to interview a child, to watch the lesson and watch what went well and what didn't go so well. It came with our planning and to see it come from a kid's perspective because I don't see lessons really anymore from a kid's perspective. I could actually ask them 'Hey, so what did you think?' And we're both looking at this together from an outside perspective, what do you think about it, why did you do this, why did you do it this way. Kids are pretty articulate even at 5 years old. So it really neat to kind of hang out down on their level, fun, cool.

Sixty seven percent (67%) of Lesson Study informants reported that the initial training sessions of the Lesson Study groups were a major strength. Ninety-six percent (96%) of survey respondents perceived the relationship of the Lesson Study group as being equally important. Lastly, seventy-six percent (76%) of informants reported that Lesson Study helped teachers formulate more effective short and long-term goals and plans for their students and themselves.

PERCEIVED WEAKNESSES OF LESSON STUDY

According to the Lesson Study participants, the most serious weakness of the teacher led professional development program was the planning time required outside of the school setting. All (100%) of the participants identified planning time as the most important area for improvement for this profession development system.

A second weakness of Lesson Study, identified by fifty-three percent (53%) of survey participant respondents, was the time required to plan for the "Research Lesson." Teacher informants in the study reported that the amount of time that the Research Lesson required prior to its implementation was excessive. Although teachers were involved with their first lesson study learning community and process of lesson study, they reflected on how it would continue to empower teachers as the culture of professional development began to shift. Tim characterized it:

Honestly, you just have to get teachers that are willing to participate. I think if you explain what it is and there would be short demo lessons like

those videos that we saw from Japan, I think you would get teachers that were very interested in doing it and honestly I think it'll become its own entity after a while. People get used to okay, this is what we're doing.

It's a way to plan together and what teacher doesn't want to plan and hear what other people are doing in the classroom and then get – and then plan together and then learn from it.

Clearly teachers believed that lesson study was an important activity that impacted their practice and was a superior form of professional development. Table 30.1 provides a glimpse at the student achievement changes that resulted in a sustained focus on lesson study in the area of mathematics education at Rosa Parks.

DISCUSSION

This study suggests that teachers who used Lesson Study as a form of teacher led professional development had more positive perceptions of the process. The development and implementation of reflective teaching practices was seen both by observers and study participants as the most prevalent positive aspect of this professional development system. This is consistent with the goals of teacher professional development (e.g., Joyce and Showers, 2002).

While lesson study has been implemented in Japan for over 50 years with excellent results (Lewis and Tsuchida, 1998), it is just beginning to be examined as an educational strategy in the United States. Furthermore, little research has been done in the area of lesson study as an ongoing form of professional development with k-12 teachers. This research project examined this new area. It underscores the need to help facilitate opportunities that empower teachers to become collaborative action researchers in their own classrooms. Katherine summarizes the increase in student awareness that the lesson study process provided:

... to actually model a lesson and have people observe it or to be one of the people modeling it, you get to see the real hands-on that happens, the dynamics of the children.

It is through this level of active engagement that teachers will be better able to view themselves as teacher researchers and agents of educational change.

TABLE 30.1 Changes in math achievement

Grade	1999	2005
	% Proficient/advanced	% Proficient/advanced
2	21	64
3	12	58
4	15	55
5	19	47

CONCLUSION

Lesson study as a professional development process can build capacity of all teachers. It is through collegial conversations and lesson study groups that teachers can begin to develop a critical examination of their instructional practices. Through lesson study, the culture of schooling can change. Teachers will be, and feel, less isolated. Student performance data will be used for discussions, reflections, and planning. And, most importantly, student achievement will be directly impacted in ways that are unattainable at this point in our educational history.

It is critical, that at this time in the history of public education that we begin to create an atmosphere where all teachers are empowered to be researchers in their own classroom, finding ways collaboratively to plan for and meet the needs of all students. As teachers begin to engage in developing a shared vision around student learning, the ability to critically examine data becomes more opportune. It is now more critical than ever that change in education allows more time for teacher to collaborate around effective teaching practices and student learning. Richard Elmore argues, "... most educators in the schools ... believe that they are engaged in enlightened reform. They have grade level-teams and common preparation periods, use some form of external guidance or standards to make curriculum decisions, and adopt models designed to increase their knowledge of good practice. But these measures have had little or no effect on the schools ability to do the important work of student learning" (2002, p. 3). Educational leaders and researchers must continue to help create an atmosphere where collaboration and the study of effective teaching practices become a continuing part of the work we do for children.

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31. AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH TO CPD:
AN EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT ON INDIVIDUAL
AND INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF
AN ACTION LEARNING PROGRAMME RUN IN
PARTNERSHIP BY AN HE INSTITUTION (HEI)
AND A SIXTH FORM COLLEGE (SFC)

INTRODUCTION

The concerns of this chapter are threefold: to consider the effectiveness of Action Learning as a tool for individual continuing professional development and organizational impact; to explore a collaborative approach to CPD between an English sixth form college and a Higher Education Institution; and to explore the role of the College Principal in linking individual and organizational learning.

Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for teachers has never had such a high profile in the United Kingdom (Cordingly *et al.*, 2003). In the compulsory or school sector staff have been involved in numerous professional development activities many of which have been linked directly to Government led policy initiatives such as the National Literacy and Numeracy strategies and the National Primary Strategy (2004). In the post-compulsory sector CPD has recently developed an unprecedented profile, often linked to policy initiatives but also specifically to internal and external quality initiatives (Knight and Trowler 2001). Such developments are part of a landscape of significant change both in the nature of the CPD offered and in the funding mechanisms supporting it (EPPI, 2004). Intrinsic tensions between individual needs, wants and organisational requirements have been a continual feature of CPD (Day, 1999): the insistence on evaluating direct impact on practice is a relatively new but potentially significant addition to the CPD process.

A key strand of The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) current (2004) CPD strategy is to help teachers “select the development activities that are likely to have the greatest impact on their teaching” (DfEE, 2001). Such an aim is laudable but the search for direct impact can lead to quick fix approaches via training rather than continuing professional development. A potentially important balance has been provided by the recent growth of the concept of teacher as researcher. A number of important collaborative approaches to teachers’ researching their professional practice have been developed. Examples for the school sector include the recent Best Practice Research Scheme (BPRS) and Research of the Month led by the General Teaching Council England (GTCE, 2004). In the Further Education sector a similar process is evident, led by the Learning Skills Council (LSC) and Learning Skills Development

Agency (LSDA). There is a perceptible and increasing expectation that teachers and post-compulsory education professionals will carry out practice-based research as part of their ongoing professional practice. It is still uncertain whether this will be supported and recognised as part of the professional role and the legitimacy of making such a demand is beyond the scope of this chapter. However, the following case study describes an innovative approach to CPD for staff within an English sixth form college that explicitly attempts to marry practitioner research, learning and organisational impact.

The chapter traces the development of a collaborative project between Liverpool John Moores University (LJMU) Centre for CPD and Winstanley Sixth Form College, Wigan, England. The English Sixth Form College is notoriously under researched (Simkins and Lumby, 2001) and this in itself makes the research interesting. However, what is potentially more significant is the collaborative design, delivery and outcomes of the programme. The college principal wanted to design a programme with a higher education organisation as a partner in a genuine collaborative venture. The principal would be intimately involved in all aspects of the programme, design, delivery, assessment and development. Middle management teaching staff such as heads of department would be enrolled initially in a Postgraduate Certificate in Educational Management that they could choose to develop into a Diploma or, ultimately, an MA Educational over a three year part-time programme. The longitudinal research possibilities provided by this timeframe were seen as potentially vital to a realistic analysis of impact. There was a clear intention to move from action research to action learning as the main learning tool and to use the programme as a catalyst for the formal development of the college as a learning organisation. For the higher education institution this relationship provided a fascinating research opportunity, for the college principal a chance to formalise and build on a particular approach to leadership, and for staff to continue their professional development through critical engagement with practice, theory and research.

Underpinning programme design was the view that individual action research leading to action learning sets provided a model for the development and implementation of an organisational learning culture (Senge, 1990) and that to achieve this a particular, “intelligent”, leadership style was essential. Also implicit was the assumption that a learning culture of this kind would spawn concrete as well as ‘fringe’ benefits:

Central to this realisation of this objective was the fostering, via CPD, of a body of critical, confident professionals in the middle management group able to drive and respond to change through explicit learning – a group of professionals who, in the view of Kleine-Kracht (1993) are about the business of learning and of doing so in non hierarchical structures or roles.

The programme was designed to provide participants with formal inputs from both the higher education organisation and the principal and then to embed reflection and action through initial action research projects in year one, leading into action learning sets in year two. Through this process an engagement with current research and theory would take place alongside a critical examination of college culture, systems and practices provided by the principal. Learners would gain from external, informed

collaboration – seen as a fundamental strength of effective CPD for teachers (Cordingley *et al.*, 2003) – as well as from focused organisational input. Participants would have taught sessions on organisational cultures, models of leadership and management and change. They would complete traditional assignments as an initial step designed to encourage reflection on their practice linked to current and seminal thinking on leadership and management. This would then be moved into an action research phase where staff would work with colleagues relatively unknown to them to complete action research projects. The final reports would be presented to the college governing body for action. The principal as chief executive would guarantee either direct action based on recommendations or a detailed rationale for no action.

A number of issues emerge from this design. The role of the principal as teacher, assessor and chief executive raises concerns about control, academic freedom and internal politics impacting on the learning process and openness of debate. This was a constant theme and an area that the programme team consistently explored with the participants. However, it was felt that this approach was legitimate as there was an open and appropriately dispersed leadership style in place (Gregory, 1996). Rather than hindering learning the position of the principal at the heart of the learning process was more likely to bring about learning and change. It is the behaviour of the leader which will have the greatest impact, and its importance is based on the fact that only by spending time and energy in meeting people and explaining the message will the genuine concerns of people be addressed. This is a central point referred to in the later action learning evaluation.

The second year of the project witnessed a deliberate shift from a postgraduate certificate based on action research and formal input to a postgraduate diploma based on an action learning model led by the principal with some support from the HEI staff. It was believed that action learning can provide a vehicle for individual learning while establishing a route for the development of a learning organisation (Harrison, 1996). Participants were thus encouraged to research potentially controversial or contentious areas of the institution's operation, striving for debate rather than consensus on the premise that "A learning organisation consciously permits *contradictions* and *paradoxes*. In a learning organisation conflicts are not seen as threats to be avoided but as challenges to be met, with the goal of stimulating ongoing debate on rules, insights and principles." (Swieringa and Wierdsma)

Action learning has its origins in management development in non-educational settings (Revans, 1982), although since the early 1990s it has been used to varying degrees of success in management development for educational professionals. It is interesting to note that action learning is appearing within current initiatives such as the national primary strategy (2004). In its simplest sense, action learning is designed to provide a process of mutual learning within a small group or set of managers through questioning (Q) and reflection using theory and research where appropriate (P). To use Revans' much quoted formula $L = P + Q$: learning equals knowledge plus questioning insight. For action learning to be effective it should produce action in the workplace and genuine and often significant personal learning for the individual (Morris, 1991) whilst acknowledging some of the possible limitations of the

approach (Harrison, 1996). Fundamental to our assessment of the likely success of action learning was the contention that the creation of a learning organization could be achieved through embedding policies of effective learning from the classroom into the management processes of the College. It is this particular view which attracted the principal of Winstanley College to the notion of developing the learning organization and using the CPD programme and action learning as part of the process.

RATIONALE FOR THE ACTION LEARNING PROGRAMME

Over the past six years Winstanley – a sixth form college specialising in advanced level courses for its 1650+ full time 16–19 year old students – has recovered from a period of financial instability and compulsory staff redundancies. It is currently in sound financial health, is over-subscribed, has a reputation for academic excellence and, since May 2001, has enjoyed Beacon status following an outstanding inspection report. Since 1998 the college has undergone major shifts in organisational structure, particularly at senior level. Authority has been dispersed in an effort to move away from a ‘headmaster’s study’ model of management to one in which individuals throughout the organisation are expected to take full responsibility for the quality of their particular function.

A less hierarchical structure has emerged with more people than previously involved in decision-making and management responsibility spread more widely. Central to this shift is the belief that the needs of students, parents and other stakeholders are likely to be best served when the concept of continuous improvement is vested in many hands. Having already undertaken training with a newly constituted senior management team, the Principal was keen to develop further those characteristically Winstanley ways of working and to ensure that core values were shared and subscribed to at all levels of the institution. To that end, in May 2002 an in-house middle-management programme was devised in conjunction with LJMU and rooted in the principles of action learning and action research.

It was strongly felt that the benefits of such training would manifest themselves in middle-ranking staff increasingly able to take decisions, lead others and rise to the managerial challenges facing them. Without wishing to promote a crude ‘managerialism’, Winstanley would swell its store of managerial talent and create a cluster of ‘change agents’ likely to influence organisational practice.

The last college inspection (March 2000) asserted that Winstanley College management had “no significant weaknesses”. The preoccupation of the Principalship was seen to be the core business of teaching and learning; senior management roles were well defined and channels of communication clear. A fundamental aim of the middle-management training was to build on these strengths and extend the best features of the senior layer to the heart of the organisation – its middle managers. It was felt that this objective would be best served by a theoretical overview supplemented by reflection on personal practice and, for the most advanced learners, evaluative research into aspects of institutional operation. Individual professional development

would thus complement and inform institutional self-assessment. The presence of the Principal as lead teacher and organisational head would be crucial in cementing the link.

Desired outcomes

The principal aims of the training were to:

- Help equip actual and aspiring middle managers with the skills required of the successful leader-manager.
- Empower middle managers to assert their own visions and leadership styles (in a manner recognisably in step with the vision and direction of the wider college).
- Erode any perceived divisions between senior and middle managers and between teaching and support staff.
- Foster open debate about issues of concern to Winstanley staff and students.

Axiomatic to the spirit of the course were the convictions that:

- All organisations benefit from open dialogue and two-way communication and any true 'learning organisation' should embody in its operation the values it champions.
- Whilst task orientation, administrative efficiency, financial acumen and the like all have their place in the arsenal of the successful manager, the capacity to lead, motivate and inspire others is ultimately paramount.
- The involvement of the college principal in the course would demonstrate the conviction that the head of an organisation should regard the training of staff as a major priority and signify a willingness to practise the managerial gospel being preached.
- The features of effective teaching are very similar to those of the effective managing and development of staff – good classroom practice and good management should be mutually supportive so improved management should lead to improvements in teaching and learning.

The emphasis would be on 'people skills' and the cultivation of productive working relations. College management would become even more participative and involving by extending the decision making process to include middle-managers who would in turn consult with their own team members. Changes would be measured in terms of the whole staff's perception of the organisational culture of the college. A heightened sense of value and self worth would, hopefully, foster a more productive working environment for staff and students alike.

The concept of the learning organisation, as promoted by a number of writers Agyris and Schon, 1997, Nevis et al., 1995, Senge, 1990 was a source of inspiration to this thinking. Particularly seductive were the definitions of Pedlar *et al.* (1991) and Senge's vision (1999) of organizations continually expanding their capacity through a culture of continuous learning.

The programme in action

During the academic year 2002–03, 22 Winstanley staff undertook the management programme. All completed the assignments – reflecting on their own roles and

investigating broader aspects of the college's operation – and gained a Postgraduate Certificate in Educational Management. During a specially convened mini-conference the course participants presented their research findings to senior managers and governors of the college. At least four have subsequently found their way into whole college staff development events and the recommendations of several have come to influence institutional practice. The programme was repeated in 2003–04 with 15 participants. Whilst only half have opted to gain the 'official' qualification there has been another successful engagement with issues of common concern and the same presentation event with assignment conclusions again being summarised for the benefit of those in control of Winstanley's strategic direction.

Perhaps most significantly, seven of the class of 2002–03 have continued with their studies over the past year and will complete MA dissertations. To our knowledge no other further education or sixth form college has cultivated such a body of teacher-researchers who are at once a product of, and major contributors to, 'the learning organisation'. Their work during 2003–04 has been facilitated by a series of action learning sets, chaired by the principal and supplementary tutorials with Kevin Watson and/or Mike Aiello. It is hoped that at least some of the work produced will be published.

Most Winstanley College staff likely to derive immediate benefit from the management programme will have completed the certificate stage by the end of this academic year. Some of them, as noted, will continue to work towards an MA in the action learning set model pioneered this year. New for 2004–05, and aimed at a different audience to the management course whilst maintaining the momentum of the teacher-as-researcher principle, is the Postgraduate Certificate in Professional Practice. Devised, again, in association with LJMU the focus here will be on teacher effectiveness and classroom practice and can be pursued to MA level.

Evaluation

Direct participant feedback from both the Certificate and Diploma/MA level participants has been extremely positive. Some of the following comments are informed by this.

The nature and level of staff discourse on issues related to the leadership, management and the strategic direction of the college have been enhanced and are apparent in, for example, staff meetings, departmental self-assessment reports, appraisal review and internal training events. The majority of staff are conscious of being part of an aspiring learning organisation and all that entails; many have been given not only a voice in its development but a new language in which to express it.

College decisions and policy-making have been informed by the research findings of members of that body. Governors and senior members have been able to make use of the expertise of a range of stakeholders and thereby to embed teaching, learning and research in the management process.

The position of the principal as head teacher-learner has been made absolutely explicit. The development of staff is at the heart and not the periphery of the college's purpose, the head of the institution has demonstrated an active commitment to the core business of teaching and learning and thereby helped shorten the gap between

the rhetoric and reality of much educational leadership. In the words of one participant, “You have put your money where your mouth is” and there is a complete resolve to carry on so doing.

The institutional relationship between Winstanley College and LJMU has proved to be strong and mutually beneficial. The university has gained a useful laboratory in which to observe the effects of some new ideas and approaches to professional training and development; the college has acquired a critical friend well placed to make objective assessments as to the success or otherwise of its leadership and management. The original desire to combine elements of theory and practice, of the academic and the practical, of formal university-style teaching and original college-based research has remained a guiding principle and could well become a model for comparable institutional collaboration in the the future.

Teachers (and principals) should be encouraged to be learners. Lifelong learning in the context of professional development should be far more than periodic skills up-dating but, imaginatively interpreted, a force for individual and institutional re-generation.

Equally dramatic as exciting as the galvanising effect on the institution, has been the personal impact on those taking part. More so than any other training undertaken, the effect of being encouraged to investigate complex and potentially controversial areas of the college’s life has been liberating and empowering. Despite the pressures on time and workload, for at least four of those second year students en-route to an MA, the experience has been truly life-changing as the following comments indicate:

Participant 1: “The most important professional development opportunity I’ve ever had ... Invaluable experience for me”

Participant 2: “I certainly rediscovered my love of learning ... I have really valued and appreciated the opportunity I have been given – it was a real turning point for me”

Participant 3: “The programme has provided me with a platform to move forward with my career ... Frank, open discussion and guidance have allowed me to think more creatively and form judgements from a more informed basis”

Participant 4: “I would not normally have opted for any type of professional development which demanded so much written work but I have really enjoyed doing it and it has taught me that I can be successful in an area outside Science ... The course has made me feel valued and respected as an employee and I think the money invested has been recouped in terms of the changes in me as a leader”

Many references to the specific ways in which the research process has helped an individual to understand and perform a given role are equally positive. The cadre of change agents would seem to be well and truly formed.

In sum, it is the contention of this chapter that the Winstanley College-LJMU collaboration has done much to inspire significant professional development, to nurture

the emergence of a core of potential change-agents or 'culture-stimulators' and thereby to raise and deepen the quality of dialogue and debate over policy and strategy throughout the institution as a whole. The involvement of the principal in the learning process and the academic credibility provided by the university were both important ingredients. Perhaps uniquely in the further education sector, internal development at Winstanley College is being influenced, and in some cases driven, by a research/action learning focus by which members of the organisation are informing the whole nature and future direction of the institution. It is not an over-statement to claim that an imaginative and focused approach to CPD has played a major part in the nurturing of a self-sustaining learning organisation.

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32. BUILDING LEADERSHIP CAPABILITY THROUGH PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A NEW ZEALAND CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

Maori (the indigenous peoples of Aotearoa/New Zealand) students in the compulsory schooling sector have historically performed less well than their non-Maori counterparts. This trend continues in Aotearoa/New Zealand in the twenty first century. Research (Alton-Lee, 2002) reveals that teachers in mainstream schooling contexts have lower expectations of Maori students, fail to effectively identify or reflect on how their practice impacts on the educational experiences of these students, and have limited support to address these particular issues. There is an urgent need to provide innovative and effective teacher professional development that is both supportive and enabling, to reverse the historical trends of Maori student underachievement. This chapter provides an analysis of a New Zealand Ministry of Education professional development initiative, the Te Kauhua Maori Mainstream Pilot project. Te Kauhua means the supports on a *waka* (ocean going canoe) and is used as a metaphor in this instance, for participants supporting each other on the same journey. Commissioned by the New Zealand Ministry of Education, this was an exploratory project aimed at growing teacher capabilities and cultural competencies through professional development initiatives.

Initiated in 2001, the pilot provided a number of schools the opportunity to explore, trial and develop innovative models of professional development that support teacher effectiveness in addressing the underachievement of Maori learners in mainstream education. In 2004, a second phase of Te Kauhua was commissioned. Six schools – two primary, two intermediate and two secondary – were selected to participate in the project. The hypothesis underpinning both phases of the project was that Maori student social and academic achievement outcomes will improve when they see themselves reflected in a curriculum, and when teachers are supported to become agents of change (Shortland-Nuku, 2000).

The Te Kauhua project was facilitated, managed and evaluated in authentic school sites, for and by teachers, using action research models that contributed to the collation of each school's case study data. The professional development activities were contextualised within individual teacher's practice settings, and they provided an opportunity for schools to work toward developing their own strategies to address Maori student under achievement, rather than imposing a 'one size fits all' approach. This approach was critical, to expedite teacher's receptivity to modification and development of their practice.

Findings from the Te Kauhua pilot suggest that contextualising professional development within practice settings is a critical success factor in determining teachers'

receptivity to modification and development of their practice. It is also a key to ensuring the establishment of inclusive learning communities, and strong participatory leadership of professional development.

As we begin to grow teacher capability in terms of enhanced attitudes, expectations, skills and professional practice, we will go a long way toward building professional learning communities that foster a reduction in the disparities between Maori and non-Maori student achievement. The findings of this study are significant for educators who are interested in building leadership capability through professional development activities, particularly in bi and/or multi cultural contexts. Clearly there is ample scope for further research into professional development initiatives and their role in enhancing leadership efficacy.

This chapter will first discuss the theoretical context of the research. The methodology used in the study will then be presented, detailing the research design, data collection and data analysis methods and the general context of the study. Selected findings will be presented and lessons for ongoing practice highlighted. Some critical success factors arising from the study are identified, and barriers to potential success noted.

WHAT DOES THE LITERATURE TELL US?

Quality teaching, underpinned by a commitment to caring, collaborative, consultative relationships (Bishop and Glynn, 1999; Gorinski and Abernethy, 2003), is identified as a key lever for high quality outcomes in terms of retention and success for diverse student groups. Research based evidence reveals that in New Zealand, between 40 and 55% of variance in student performance in the compulsory sector is attributable to differences between teachers and classes, while only 6 to 19% is attributable to specific school variables (Hargreaves *et al.*, 1998; Cuttance, 2001). There is clear evidence then, that teachers' utilisation of pedagogical practices that are underpinned by research (Calhoun, 2002), and which facilitate diverse students' access to information and engagement in learning activities, is a key to quality teaching.

Growing teacher understanding and capability in the use of such pedagogical approaches, necessitates the implementation of efficacious professional development initiatives. Further, Higgins (2001) suggests that "school policies and structures, student backgrounds ... teacher's pedagogical styles and associated classroom dynamics and the teachers' knowledge of learners ..." (p. 52) are features of relevant and dynamic professional development activities. Teachers in bi- and multi-cultural classrooms face additional challenges in providing a quality learning and teaching environment that is inclusive of the different cultural capital (Bishop and Glynn, 1999) that minority students bring. In order for teachers to be effective with the diverse student groups they face, it is critical that they are supported to develop appropriate and effective attitudes, knowledges, practices and competencies, through professional development.

Alton-Lee (2002) identified twelve characteristics of quality teaching derived from a synthesis of New Zealand and international research findings of evidence linked to student outcomes in the compulsory sector. The twelve characteristics

outlined in the following are generic, in that they are not curriculum or age-bound. For a fuller discussion of these qualities, refer to Alton-Lee (2002). Quality teaching that facilitates enhanced student achievement involves:

- focussing on student academic and social achievement, and facilitating expectations of high student outcomes across diverse learner groups
- the implementation of appropriate pedagogical practices that foster caring, inclusive, and cohesive learning environments (Lieberman and Miller, 1999)
- the establishment of caring relationships between school and other cultural contexts (Bishop and Glynn, 1999)
- responsiveness to the student learning process
- sufficiency and appropriateness of learning opportunities
- the development of learning tasks that are appropriate to a student's developmental stage
- alignment of curriculum goals, resources, task design and teaching
- pedagogical approaches that scaffold, and provide appropriate feedback to facilitate the learning process
- pedagogical approaches that promote learning, student independence, metacognitive strategies and student engagement in critical discourse
- teacher and student engagement in constructive, goal-oriented assessment
- effective home-school partnerships that are focused on student learning (Timperley and Robinson, 2002)
- whole school alignment on the goal of enhanced student learning and achievement (Hopkins, 2001)

Clearly then, ongoing, informed, and evolving dialogue amongst policy makers, educators and researchers is necessary, in order to optimise achievement outcomes for students. Central to this dialogue is an urgent need for the development of evidence based, research-informed, professional development programmes that facilitate these characteristics of quality teaching (Phillips *et al.*, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

This pilot project was guided by an action research, multiple case study approach (Holly and Whitehead, 1986; McNiff, 1993; Stringer, 1996). The goal of action research is to improve practice. In this instance, the practice that needed to be addressed was the underachievement of Maori students in *mainstream* (a generic term used in New Zealand to encapsulate the 'traditional' school system versus alternative schools such as *kura kaupapa* – full Maori language immersion schools) classes nationwide. Action research involves a step by step process of improvement, that is monitored over varying lengths of time and by a variety of data gathering mechanisms (McNiff, 1993, 1996). The ensuing feedback may then be translated into adaptations, modifications, directional changes and redefinitions as necessary, in order to bring about long term change and benefit to a school community (Cohen and Manion, 1997).

The Ministry of Education selected this methodology because of its appropriateness to the focus of the study: to explore the variety of professional development

approaches across 10 school clusters, with a focus on raising teacher capacity and subsequently, enhanced outcomes for Maori students. Kemmis and McTaggart (1982) define action research as:

A family of activities in curriculum development, professional development, school improvement programmes and systems planning and policy development. These activities have in common the identification of strategies of planned action which are implemented and then systematically submitted to observation, reflection and change. Participants in the action being considered are integrally involved in these activities.

Action research has four key characteristics (McNiff, 1988; Stringer, 1996). First, it is situational – it involves diagnosing a problem or issue in a specific context and endeavouring to solve or address it in that context. Second, action research is collaborative. It is also participatory, as team members take part directly in implementing change. Finally, action research is self-evaluative; that is, ongoing reflection leads to modification of practices that are continuously evaluated within the context of cyclical improvement.

This action research based, multiple case study approach adopted by the Te Kauhua pilot, provided an opportunity for all participants involved in the project to monitor the effectiveness of their professional development activities. The focus was upon continuous improvement through trialling, evaluating, reflecting modifying, and implementing new pedagogical and interactional methodologies. In sum, this case study focused on teacher and student experiences, and offers an example of an effective and inclusive pedagogical approach to professional development that has enhanced Maori student achievement.

DATA COLLECTION

A number of data collection methods were utilised across participating schools. The primary data sources were interviews, questionnaires, surveys, journals and other sources of document analyses, standardised tests, focus group discussions, school statistical data, personal development plans, student attendance and retention data, school entry data and examination results (Patton, 1990; Weber, 1990; Hakim, 1992; Fowler, 1993; Krueger, 1994; Anderson, 1998). These multiple sources of data collection provided varied perspectives on the impact of the multi-various professional development programmes implemented across participating schools.

DATA ANALYSIS

This model of professional development provided opportunities for teachers to integrate theory and practice as they reflected on their classroom practices and student achievement data, and generated creative responses to identified concerns. Data analysis and interpretation in this context then, was a guided procedure that involved reflecting, drawing inferences and evaluating the project in stages.

The analysis and interpretation of data, sought to describe and explain the links between teachers' practice and students' social and academic achievement outcomes

within a set of conceptually specified analytic categories (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975; Huberman and Miles, 1994). The analytic categories were developed from an examination of the student data, teacher data and document analyses. Much activity of an incidental nature occurred as discussion amongst teachers. The interpretation of data should then be treated as a reflection of a situation specific approach, which warrants ongoing investigation and monitoring.

SCHOOLS INVOLVED

Seventeen schools, constituting ten 'clusters' of both urban and rural schools from a selected geographical zone encompassing Auckland in the north and Christchurch in the south, were involved in the Te Kauhua pilot. Seven schools were secondary and ten were primary/intermediate. There was a range of co-educational and single-sex schools involved, and all were state schools excepting one integrated Catholic primary school. The decile rating of participating schools ranged from decile one to decile six. All schools in New Zealand are assigned a decile rating. *Decile* ratings range from 1 (lowest) to 10 and are reflective of a school's socio-economic rating. The lower the decile, the higher the government funding available. Figure 32.1 identifies the school clusters, regions and decile ratings:

RESPONDENTS

All primary schools involved all teaching staff in the pilot initiative. Secondary schools however, tended to work with target groups of teachers either at year group level, or in specified curriculum areas.

School/Cluster	Region	Decile
Waitakere College	Auckland	4
Rotorua Lakes High	Rotorua	6
Mokoia Intermediate		5
Rotorua Boys High	Rotorua	4
Tauranga Boys College	Tauranga	5
Te Akau ki Papamoa Primary	Tauranga	3
Greerton Village Primary		3
Taumarunui High	Taumarunui	2
Wanganui City College	Wanganui	2
Waitara Central Primary	Waitara	1
St Josephs Primary		1
Bishopdale Primary	Christchurch	2
Northcote Primary		2
Gilberthorpe Primary		2
Greymouth High	Greymouth	4
Runanga Primary		2

Figure 32.1. School clusters, regions and decile ratings of schools in the study

Each cluster school appointed a project facilitator/s for the two and a half years of the pilot. Facilitator employment ranged from pro-rated to full time positions. Ten facilitators were Maori and three were non-Maori. The facilitator's role was to co-ordinate and facilitate in-school professional development initiatives that would build teacher capability, thereby contributing towards improved academic and social outcomes for Maori students in their respective schools. A number of schools also utilised educational consultants and other professionals, for example, resource teachers of learning and behaviour (RTLb) or resource teachers of Maori (RTM), to support their programmes. Principals of all schools were involved in the project, and a number of schools had active Maori parent/*whanau* (family) groups contributing to the initiative.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The data collection processes implemented throughout this inquiry have been aligned to those adopted by the American Anthropological Association. Consistent with most qualitative investigation in the field of education, this research was overt in nature. Principals and/or facilitators in each school, discussed the project both verbally and in writing with staff, governance and parents/*whanau* of Maori students.

At the data-gathering phase, a major element in overt research is 'informed consent' (Keats, 1988; Glesne and Peshkin, 1992). Through informed consent, potential informants were made aware that their participation was voluntary, confidential and that their anonymity would be maintained (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Burns, 1994). This information was conveyed in a letter that was sent to parents, staff and students, seeking their cooperation in the data collection process. All participants completed informed consent documentation.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The data suggest that Maori students will achieve when teachers modify their practice in response to professional development activities that generate critical reflection. Across the participating cluster schools, there was evidence of enhanced teacher expectation, attitudes, skills and practice, and a fostering of the development of professional learning communities. Further, the data collected indicate improved social and academic outcomes for Maori students. There was also a high degree of consistency in the way teachers involved in the pilot felt about their collective professional development experiences and ongoing needs, in terms of building leadership capability.

Key outcomes of the Te Kauhua initiative revealed in the data across school clusters, centred upon four key factors including:

- school learning community development,
- enhanced teacher efficacy,
- improved social and academic outcomes for Maori students and
- enhanced family/*whanau* – school relationships.

SCHOOL LEARNING COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

As a result of initiatives implemented in the context of Te Kauhua, there was evidence of the development of professional learning communities within schools. These communities focussed upon relationship building, teaching and learning, and a staff responsibility for data collection. Relationship building was evident in enhanced teacher collegiality and collaboration (Bishop and Glynn, 1999; Lieberman and Miller, 1999; Poskitt, 2001). This was reflected in, for example, the adoption of co-operative teaching approaches, peer observations and feedback, and professional reading circles. As well as enhanced staff relationships, the pilot facilitated improved relationships between teachers and students and students and students.

The embedding of the underpinning principles and philosophies of Te Kauhua into some schools' policies and procedures, to facilitate sustainability of the successes, further fostered the growth of some school learning communities. This approach appeared to unite staff as they shared a common concern for Māori student achievement.

Finally, a heightened awareness of the need for regular, co-ordinated data collection and analysis to both inform the professional development process, and to evidence shifts in Maori student academic and social achievement, contributed to the realisation of learning communities across participating schools. Staff were motivated by an evidence-based approach to professional development that sought to address specific student learning needs, and this appeared to support the realisation of professional learning communities.

ENHANCED TEACHER EFFICACY

A critical component in raising Maori student achievement is enhanced pedagogical practice. Across school clusters, there was evidence of teachers trialling a range of different teaching strategies. These included for example, the development of culturally located practice, including student involvement in curriculum co-construction (Bishop and Glynn, 1999) and the integration of *te reo Maori* (Maori language) and *tikanga Maori* (Maori protocols and ways of doing and knowing) into teaching and learning programmes. Further, the data indicate a heightened awareness amongst teachers of the importance of discursive pedagogical approaches such as peer coaching, co-operative learning activities, feedback and feed forward techniques. The sharing of lesson objectives with students, was also identified as a key tool in addressing Maori student underachievement.

IMPROVED SOCIAL AND ACADEMIC OUTCOMES
FOR MAORI STUDENTS

The study clearly evidenced the crucial role of professional development in helping teachers to understand not only the importance of relationships, but also how to form and nurture them effectively. Teachers demonstrated that they cared about Maori student success and achievement in a variety of ways, including: communicating

clear expectations about achievement and success; engaging students in the learning process; challenging Maori students to persist with their learning; and taking time to learn about Maori students' needs, interests and backgrounds, in order to overcome potential or actual barriers to Maori student learning. Where teachers exhibited such behaviours and attitudes in their communication, there was evidence across school clusters of enhanced literacy and/or numeracy outcomes for Maori students, as well as increased Maori student attendance, participation and engagement in classroom related activities.

ENHANCED FAMILY/WHANAU – SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

In addition to the significance of enhanced staff interactions, the findings highlight the importance of forming relationships with various stakeholders in the school community, including parents/caregivers, students and *kaumatua* and *kuia* (Maori elders, highly respected amongst Maori). The fostering of these relationships was critical to Maori students' success, and to the creation of optimal learning conditions for all participants in the pilot. Further, concomitant with enhanced school-whanau/community collaboration and consultation, was an increase in whanau involvement in school community activities.

Professional development plays a pivotal role in assisting teachers to understand not only the importance of relationships, but also how to build and nurture such relationships. This is consistent with the school improvement literature (Fullan, 2001; Stoll, *et al.*, 2002; Timperley and Robinson, 2002) that emphasises the strong correlation between successful stakeholder relationships and enhanced student achievement outcomes.

LESSONS FOR ONGOING PRACTICE

There are six clear implications for teachers and school communities from this initial pilot study in Aotearoa/New Zealand. These are outlined in the following discussion.

Improved efficacy in teacher professional development

First, one of the keys to effecting enhanced social and academic achievement outcomes for Maori students in mainstream settings, is improved efficacy in teacher professional development. Professional development must focus first and foremost on building and developing positive interactional approaches (Bishop and Glynn, 1999; Gorinski and Abernethy, 2003; Gorinski, 2005). The single factor common to all participating schools, was the development of caring, collaborative, consultative relationships between teachers and students; students and students; teachers and teachers; teachers and whanau, and school communities and whanau. The findings clearly indicate that without a primary focus on relationship building amongst all groups comprising the school community, the effectiveness of any endeavours to enhance Maori student achievement will be severely compromised.

Relationship building

Second, schools embarking on a journey such as Te Kauhua, would benefit from building professional development activities upon the application of tikanga Maori principles. *Whakawhanaunatanga* – relationship building; *tautoko* – genuine support and endorsement; *tino rangatiratanga* – active recognition of the *mana* (prestige and integrity) of the *tangata whenua* (local people); and *manaakitanga* – meeting the physical and emotional needs of all people (Timperley and Robinson, 2002; Sinclair, 2003), are key factors to the success of such projects.

Culturally responsive professional development (McAllister and Irvine, 2000) that focuses upon raising teachers' pedagogical knowledge, cultural competencies, and understanding of Maori students, so that the different cultural capital (Bishop and Glynn, 1999) they bring to the school context is understood, valued, and scaffolded, is an urgent priority. Whilst such an approach takes time, the Te Kauhua journey clearly evidences the benefits of these endeavours in terms of enhanced outcomes for Maori students.

Involvement of leadership

Third, principal, senior management team, and governance support, involvement, and on-going commitment and participation are critical success factors, and key components to the sustainability of such projects. Principals, who foster a culture of continuous improvement through collaborative practices, (Fullan, 2001) and the active engagement in, and encouragement of action research to refine the teaching knowledge base, are pivotal to successful professional development initiatives. Such principals will ensure that the goals of any professional development initiative are embedded in school policies and procedures to ensure sustainability.

This pilot study clearly evidenced the benefits of a collaborative, inclusive leadership approach. Schools in this study that initiated professional development activities without the active leadership of the principal experienced greater resistance amongst staff, miscommunication, and more systemic difficulties in terms of prioritising professional development initiatives, than schools with strong, active leadership.

Facilitator knowledge and skill

Fourth, the appointment of facilitators who have the requisite knowledge, skills and abilities to support and guide professional development activities, is critical. In the absence of strong facilitation skills, initiatives were more inclined to focus on superficial professional development activities as opposed to in-depth, reflective based activity. Further, the clear articulation of project goals, to a range of stakeholders, is a foundation for success. This necessitates sound facilitator communication skills. Support for the facilitator/s from the principal and senior management team is a pre-requisite to ensuring on-going capacity building in school communities.

Refined research methodology

Fifth, the development of a refined research methodology as opposed to randomly located, disjointed activity, is a key to meaningful data collection and analysis, and

the ultimate credibility of such a project (Calhoun, 2002). Attention to the identification of appropriate data gathering mechanisms and evaluation tools at the outset of any professional development initiative, will provide a foundation for ensuring measurable student achievement outcomes. The Te Kauhua pilot highlighted the need for the collection of baseline data and ongoing systematic formative and summative data gathering, to evidence shifts in Maori student achievement. It also emphasised the importance of facilitator and/or teacher training in the areas of data gathering and analysis.

Action research has the potential to change the professional climate in a school so that continual formal learning is both expected and supported (McNiff, 1996). Such research asks educators to examine their practice and its context, explore the research base for ideas to adopt in their classroom, compare what they find to their current practice, participate in training to support identified changes and study the effects of such initiatives on themselves, their students, and their colleagues (Calhoun, 2002).

Irrespective of whether action research is used as a school improvement mechanism, or as an individual professional development tool, it affords teachers the opportunity to utilise current research, add to their own knowledge and practice base, and in doing so, fosters more intentional and effective classroom learning conditions. The Te Kauhua pilot highlighted the benefits of such an approach for on going professional development in teacher education contexts.

Building leadership capability takes time

Finally, it takes time and commitment to develop professional learning communities (Guskey and Huberman, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1996) with a shared language and understanding of pedagogical knowledge, skills and practices that are enabling of Maori student success. All schools involved in the Te Kauhua project experienced the frustration of 'slow beginnings'. Community liaison was frequently time consuming, and working towards stakeholder buy-in took varying amounts of time amongst participating schools. Such 'growing pains' however, are part of any exploratory journey and provide a way forward in terms of shifting a school culture and maximising academic and social outcomes for Maori students.

Upon reflection of the Te Kauhua pilot, participating schools identified a number of factors that can inform ongoing work in determining a framework and infrastructure for building leadership capability through professional development. These can be broadly categorised as critical success factors and barriers to success for school communities embarking upon similar professional development journeys.

CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

The following highlight some of the factors identified by participants in the pilot, as critical ingredients to the success of this project:

- the unqualified support, participation, commitment and leadership of the principal, senior management team and governance

- the commitment of leadership to embed change into school wide policies and procedures to ensure sustainability
- effective community/whanau/stakeholder consultation from project conception
- effective relationship building amongst staff
- full staff involvement and a receptivity to change; a degree of flexibility, and motivation to participate
- a recognition that change takes time
- financial support for teacher release for professional development, resource preparation and the monitoring of project direction and achievements
- recognition of staff as professionals and the provision of quality professional development when using 'out-of-hours' time to deliver professional development activities
- regular, meaningful, and detailed evaluation and measurement of change to inform the cycle of continuous improvement
- reflection of Maori culture within the school community, for example Maori staff, participation in *marae wananga* (learning in traditional Maori settings) and attendance at *kapa haka* (performing arts) competitions
- facilitator experience, knowledge, skills, and the ability to communicate effectively
- professional development for facilitators and project co-ordinators

BARRIERS TO POTENTIAL SUCCESS

Respondents also articulated a number of factors considered to be obstructive to successful professional development initiatives:

- high staff turnover – principals and teachers
- lack of adoption of the initiative by the whole school community
- lack of support, participation and leadership by the principal, management team and/or governance
- failure to position the initiative as a priority
- systemic organisational deficiencies, for example meeting clashes
- poor communication amongst stakeholders including the principal, teachers, facilitators, parents, whanau and the wider community
- pre-existing beliefs and attitudes, and a resistance to change amongst stakeholders
- student lack of attendance and/or student transience
- inappropriate data collection tools and/or a lack of teacher/facilitator expertise in data gathering and analysis techniques
- inadequate or irregular assessment and reporting systems that preclude the effective monitoring of change strategies on student achievement

CONCLUSION

Researchers, educationalists and policy makers share a common view that enhanced student achievement is dependent upon responsive teachers, who are active participants

in on-going, high quality professional development activities (Guskey and Huberman, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1996; Robertson and Allan, 1999; Fullan, 2001; Guskey, 2002). Such professional development is viewed as an essential mechanism for teachers to improve their knowledge and expertise, thereby raising their capability to contribute *generally* to enhanced student learning and achievement. Further, if we are to address in *particular*, the issue of enhanced Maori student achievement, professional development activities that focus on reciprocal, power-sharing relationships in the teaching and learning context are fundamental (Bishop and Glynn, 1999; Gorinski and Abernethy, 2003; Gorinski, 2005).

It is critical then, that teachers engage in ongoing activity to update and expand their professional knowledge bases, in addition to improving or reviewing their practices to ensure they are best meeting the learning needs of an increasingly diverse student base. The Te Kauhua pilot was a Ministry of Education response to the recognition of the importance of teacher professional development in reducing disparity, leading to the enhancement of Maori student achievement in mainstream schools.

The continuing challenge for school communities lies in identifying strategies that sustain and increase the new knowledge bases and practices that support enhanced teacher capability, in order to effectively continue facilitating improved Maori student achievement outcomes. The Te Kauhua pilot findings clearly evidence that sustainability is facilitated in school learning communities that embed within their policies and practices, principles and mechanisms that support an ongoing cycle of continuous improvement through professional development (Higgins, 2001).

In sum, Camburn (1997) reminds us that while teacher professional development is imperative, “our public school system is ultimately in the business of educating students not teachers” (p. 60). The creation of environments that are conducive to teacher learning must therefore, be tested against the standard of improved Maori student achievement, if we are to see real outcomes. The Te Kauhua Maori Mainstream Pilot has enabled rich exploration of a variety of professional development approaches that evidence a growing body of knowledge of effective leadership interactions and strategies that are resulting in improved outcomes for Maori students.

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33. A CASE STUDY: THE DILEMMAS OF BICULTURALISM
IN EDUCATION POLICY AND VISUAL ARTS EDUCATION
PRACTICE IN AOTEAROA-NEW ZEALAND.

TE KOHUHUTANGA KI TE RANGAHAU – INTRODUCTION
TO THE RESEARCH

The motivation for the research arose from my role as a Pākehā (European New Zealand) teacher educator with responsibility for preparing secondary school art teachers to implement national curriculum policy in visual arts education. Embodied in New Zealand statutes, including educational policy, are the principles of Te Tiriti o Waitangi-Treaty of Waitangi (1840). For example, in its overarching policy statement for schools, *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework* (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 1), the Ministry declares that “it acknowledges the value of the Treaty of Waitangi and of New Zealand’s bicultural identity ...” The curriculum statement pertinent to my teacher education programme, *The Arts in the New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2000, p. 9), states that “... toi Māori, the arts of the Māori, are integral to our sense of a distinctive, evolving national identity”. Further, in respect of the visual arts discipline in the arts curriculum, “all students should have opportunities to learn about traditional and contemporary Māori art forms” (ibid, p. 71). A resource for teachers (Ministry of Education, 2004, p. 2), published subsequent to my research, uses a new nomenclature – ‘Maori visual culture’. Here the Ministry declares that “Māori visual culture is a living and significant dimension of New Zealand society and should be taught in all our schools with knowledge and respect”.

In Aotearoa-New Zealand teachers as agents of the Crown share responsibility with the indigenous Māori for bicultural development within educational settings. Thus, bicultural educational policy requires that I prepare my pre-service teachers in respect of teaching Māori art/visual culture. In the 1980s when I entered teacher education I saw the task of teaching Māori art as relatively straightforward. In the intervening years I have become increasingly conscious of a number of dilemmas which complicate the issue of bicultural policy in education. These issues, confirmed by a survey conducted in 1996 in my geographical location, Auckland-Tamaki Makaurau (Smith, 1996), and by a recently completed research project (Smith, 2005), are of concern to visual arts teacher educators throughout the country. First is the dilemma of a largely non-Māori secondary school teaching force required to fulfil bicultural obligations. Second, there are comparatively few Māori holding the (Western) qualifications requisite for entry to tertiary institutions and colleges of education and subsequent employment in secondary schools. A third dilemma is the very small number of heads of art departments who are Māori, thereby limiting the possibilities of equitable leadership. The fourth dilemma, the most problematic in

view of the demographic composition of teachers and students, is the limited and often superficial knowledge and experience that the majority of my predominantly non-Māori students have of Māoritanga (traditions, practices and beliefs), tikanga Māori (respect for cultural values), and of traditional and contemporary Māori art forms when they enter the visual arts teacher education programme.

These dilemmas motivated me to investigate the realities of schooling under bicultural policies. Underpinning my research were two key questions: What is the history and political and social agenda which lies behind New Zealand's bicultural education policy? What are the perceptions, behaviours and performances of the participants in relation to the bicultural curriculum imperative?

NGA HUA A NGA TUHITUHINGA – WHAT I FOUND IN THE LITERATURE

Attitudes towards Te Tiriti o Waitangi-Treaty of Waitangi

I took as my starting point Te Tiriti o Waitangi – Treaty of Waitangi signed in 1840 by over 500 Māori chiefs and by William Hobson representing the British Crown. My intention was not to research the treaty itself although the topic required an intensive search of the literature related to it, and subsequent events. Although the treaty established the signatories as equal partners holding equal rights and privileges the interpretation of this declaration of equality and its legal status have been argued ever since (Orange, 1987). There is evidence that while the treaty was obedient to the prevailing colonial policy of protection of the rights of the indigenous, scholars such as Orange (1987), Kawharu (1989), Renwick (1991) and Brownlie (1992) claimed it was an expedient, if reluctant, solution adopted by the Crown to control unruly factions, Pākehā and Māori. Pākehā historian, Orange (1987), wrote of differences in interpretation by Māori and the British colonists, not just in wordings in English and Māori, but in understandings of the concept of tino rangatiratanga (sovereignty). She noted successive provincial governments' subversion of the original intentions of the treaty which culminated in a judicial ruling in 1877 that the treaty was a 'nullity'. This declaration held sway until the 1970s rendering the treaty, and the protections Māori expected from it, completely without force.

It was clear from the literature that despite the treaty partnership Pākehā power and authority has prevailed. Although there was some evidence of often paternalistic, humanist attitudes, assimilation has been overtly and covertly the prevailing policy. Orange (1987, p. 2) maintained that "Europeans, in particular, have shifted their position on the treaty to suit their purposes". Māori scholar and activist, Walker (1973, p. 111), is adamant that "the assimilationist policies which contradicted the intention of the treaty inflicted on subsequent generations of Māori children an identity conflict that persists to the present day". Further, he claimed that the destruction of their culture has developed both a defeatist and an aggressive response from Māori who seek an identity outside the Pākehā conventions.

Evident also in the literature was substantial disaffection with such assimilationist policy amongst Māori and some Pākehā (Jones *et al.*, 1990; Pearson, 1991;

Openshaw and McKenzie, 1997). It was within such disaffection, and in a climate of liberal humanism fostered by the economic prosperity of the 1970s, that the seeds of 'biculturalism' were planted. An educated Māori middle class with a foothold in the professions could employ European/Pākehā stratagems. A Labour government, itself an outcome of working class rejection of the hierarchical power of the British ruling classes and prompted by its own sense of 'Pākehā guilt' was responsive to growing Māori protest and affirmation of rights (Rata, 2000). In 1974 the Labour government enacted statutes establishing bicultural policy.

The literature expounding attitudes towards Te Tiriti o Waitangi-Treaty of Waitangi, beliefs about European/Pākehā dominance, questions of equality, and the impact of the treaty on education informed the research methodology.

Interpretations of 'biculturalism'

Evident in the literature pertaining to biculturalism was substantial controversy over the often-conflicting interpretations of 'bicultural identity' and 'biculturalism' referred to in *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework* (Ministry of Education, 1993) and *The Arts in the New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2000). A review of other curriculum documents, for example the *Social Studies in the New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 1997, p. 56), found that biculturalism was defined as "describing the interactions, relationships, and sharing of understandings, practices, and beliefs between two cultures: in New Zealand, these cultures are Māori and Pākehā". Simplistic definitions which focused on notions of two distinct cultures in one country, or having or combining two cultures, were considered by Clark (2002, p. 96) to be the minimalist concept of biculturalism embraced by most New Zealanders. He claimed that there was unlikely to be "an equivalent measure of support for biculturalism in the sense of equality".

Varying Pākehā viewpoints were found in the literature. Christie (1999), for example, resented what he saw as the privileged treatment of Māori, arguing that within a democracy individual human rights must prevail over ethnic affiliations. Christie claimed that Māori are given unfair advantages in terms of compensations negotiated under the Waitangi tribunal and provoke dissent by claims for independence and sovereignty. In one of his commentaries, 'Brainwashing in Schools', Christie (1999, p. 71) stated:

The situation is created in New Zealand where children with even a slight trace of Māori ethnicity, or none at all ... are coerced into displaying 'Māori culture', into believing notions of kotahitanga, kingitanga, and rangitiratanga, and to assume a partisan ethnic stance ... All such thinking, though based on bunkum, is taught in schools by government directive and enforcement, with the support of academia from where it is piped throughout.

(1999, p. 71)

Pākehā scholar, Rata (2000), an advocate in the 1970s and 1980s of biculturalism as serving purposes of political justice and social inclusion, wrote of the white humanist middle class sensing defeat and retreating in the face of increasing ethnification and

indigenisation by Māori who reject the paternalism of biculturalism and multiculturalism. Rata (2003, pp. 9–10) has since ‘re-thought’ biculturalism. She claims that “despite the democratic ideals of the early Māori and non-Māori biculturalists” a misleading identification of culture with ethnicity has given rise to “an anti-democratic biculturalism”.

Māori groups, notably within a tribal definition, expressed clear views on biculturalism. They rejected what they saw as the oppressive policies of a post-colonial government, seeing their future as lying within an ethnic interpretation of culture, in which race marks both point of entry and disbarment. As example, Māori artist and scholar, Jahnke (1995, pp. 9–10), claimed that biculturalism is a deliberate Western construct, a means by which the power-holding sector can ameliorate discontent and salve conscience without surrendering supremacy. He declared:

For biculturalism to be more than a pathetic fallacy requires empathetic negotiation across the boundaries of cultural reality. To presuppose a priority of vision defined solely by Western perception merely perpetuates the cultural capital of the élite as the sole criterion of cultural legitimacy.

My research was informed by the marked difference of opinion evident in the literature about what constitutes biculturalism. Although bicultural models of education promulgated by the Department of Education (1976) and the Director General of Education (Renwick, 1984) emphasised Māori-Pākehā interaction there remain many issues for Māori. Foremost is an education system geared to a mono-cultural Pākehā frame of reference (Walker, 1973; Bishop and Glynn, 1999; Hall and Bishop, 2001). Claims by Māori that educational policies and practices were, and continue to be, developed in a framework of colonisation were a critical part of the research. However, as an educator in a state institution I felt bound to accept the particular concept of biculturalism that is written into education statutes, one that appears to rest on an ethnic determination of culture.

Problems of defining ‘Māori art’

The requirement for all students, and not just Māori, to receive a bicultural interpretation of visual arts education posed a significant question for the research – what is Māori art?

It was clear from the literature that Māori art was considered as complex and differentiated as art of the Western world. Evident as much in Māori scholarship as in Pākehā interpretation, a significant variety of opinions were expressed. For Māori, as for many indigenous peoples, art and culture were seen as inseparable. Included are forms that have been made for personal and community use, and which have pervaded the whole way of Māori life. For Māori these are much more than objects of beauty; they are the embodiment of spiritual and ancestral power (Hakiwai, 1996). Māori scholars themselves offered significantly differing definitions. At one end of the spectrum Māori kaumātua (revered elder), Mead (1984, p. 75), considered that “Māori art is made by Māori artists working within Māori stylistic traditions of the iwi for the iwi”. Hakiwai (1996, p. 54), supporting Mead’s view, explained that what the Western world has called Māori art, Māori call taonga:

Taonga or treasures embody all those things that represent our culture ... Our treasures are much more than objets d'art for they are living in every sense of the word and carry the love and pride of those who fashioned them, handled and caressed them, and passed them on for future generations.

Taonga, thus, has the mana or status of cultural property to be protected in treaty terms by the state which must take responsibility for it and ensure education about its meanings, origins and mana.

In contrast, contemporary Māori artists, curators, and commentators such as Panaho (1988) argued that Māori art has always been innovative and responsive to change and may quite properly employ Western materials and techniques in interpreting Māori ideology. Hotere (cited in Davis, 1976, p. 29) took issue with being labelled a 'Māori artist'. In Hotere's oft-quoted statement, "I am Māori by birth and upbringing. As far as my work is concerned this is coincidental", he denied that ethnicity had relevance in his art making. Conversely, Walsh (cited in Poland, 1999, p. 2), defined Māori art by ethnicity of the maker, claiming that "Māori art is simply work by artists of Māori descent, regardless of how it looks". Yet another position, one which did not specify making or ownership, was taken by Māori cultural commentator Parekowhai (cited in Poland, 1999, p. 2). "Māori art", she said, "is art where Māori can see themselves in the picture, either through visual motifs, reference to history, or subject matter. If it speaks to Māori, of Māori, then it is Māori".

The perspectives presented by a range of scholars, artists, curators and commentators provided the framework for investigating research participants' understandings of Māori art, its forms, and its significance.

The place of Māori art in visual arts education

The statutory requirement for schools to teach Māori art as part of visual arts education demanded a close examination of national education policy and curriculum. Analysis of the documents indicated that prior to the 1950s Māori art had been systematically rejected from art education in New Zealand schools. This rejection was grounded in policies of a dominant Pākehā society which, even in its Native Schools, adhered rigorously to a British model of curriculum. From the 1950s the then Department of Education provided some resources in Māori art to primary schools, but it was not until 1975 that a new *School Certificate Art* prescription (Department of Education, 1975), innovative in its time, required secondary school students to study the forms and significance of some examples of Māori art. A requirement of the current curriculum, *The Arts in the New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2000) is, likewise, to provide opportunities for students to learn about traditional and contemporary Māori art forms. For the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA), implemented in 2002, year 11 visual arts students (mostly 15 year olds) are assessed on their ability to "research art and artworks from Māori and European traditions and their context" (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2000).

Tracing curriculum changes in the literature was an important part of the research. It provided an incentive to investigate the view of expatriate New Zealander, Graeme Chalmers (1999, p. 176), that art education in colonial New Zealand was (and still is) “a major agent of colonisation and cultural imperialism”.

The varied viewpoints on Te Tiriti o Waitangi -Treaty of Waitangi, biculturalism, Māori art, and the place of Māori art in visual arts education presented in the literature heighten the dilemma for visual arts teachers. They raised questions of how curriculum demands are to be met when art teachers are confronted with contradictory definitions of Māori art, who may and can teach it, and who will fulfil this state curriculum requirement in a system that has a pitifully small number of Māori art teachers. These questions have impacted upon my role as a Pākehā teacher educator. Despite a hardening of attitude towards the protection of Māori traditions and knowledge and towards limiting access to those traditions and knowledge by non-Māori (Whitecliffe, 1999) I have received much support and since the 1980s have developed strategies to support non-Māori (and Māori) art teachers to learn about and teach Māori art education (Smith, 1996, 2001, 2003a, b).

Whatever the stance I take, however, I am still faced with the dilemma – *May I teach Māori art?* It is, I believe, a national dilemma and was the *raison d'être* of this research (Smith, 2001). It is a question I continue to pose to art educators nationwide (Smith, 2003a).

NGA TIKANGA A NGA RANGAHAU – HOW I CONDUCTED THE RESEARCH

My research did not seek to resolve the dilemma. Instead, I sought to evaluate what was happening in a sample of schools in response to the bicultural curriculum requirement. Using qualitative research methodology I conducted an interpretative case study to raise issues and inform dialogue about this particular institutional policy. It provided an opportunity, in Eisner's (1991, p. 169) terms, to “confer my own signature upon my work”.

The settings for the case study, those in which art teaching represented my specialist territory of secondary art education, had national policy and curricula in common. They comprised nga kura tuarua (three secondary schools), each differing in physical and environmental contexts. To protect their identity I named them *Te Kura Hine* (the girls' school), *Te Kura Tama* (the boys' school), and *Te Kura Hine-Tama* (the co-educational school). The selection, based on Patton's (1990) criterion sampling, included low to high decile classification (based on socio-economic status), geographical location and ethnic composition. In one school there was up to 50% Māori and/or Pacific Islands students. In another there was a wide range of student ethnicities, and in the third school the population was predominantly 'white' mono-cultural. Twenty-seven participants, nine in each school, and myself as the key instrument (Eisner, 1991), were involved in the research.

Consistent with case study research, participant perspectives were gained through qualitative methods which did not privilege one method over another (Wolcott, 1994;

Stake, 2000). Critical document analysis, as the catalyst, was followed by observations, then interviews. Referred to by Wolcott (1994) as examining, enquiring and experiencing, these methods were selected to gain multiple perspectives of the issues underlying the research, and the implications of these for my pre-service teacher education programme.

The data provided by the inquiry formed the substance of narrative vignettes (Erickson, 1986) in which I described events as vividly as possible to give the reader a sense of 'being there'. To add credence to my research I adopted Eisner's (1991) structural corroboration, multi-method techniques and analyst triangulation. I used the coding and categorising processes recommended by Bogdan and Biklen (1992) and Tolich and Davidson (1999) in order to focus on the interpretations which the principals, art teachers and students gave to their own actions.

An interpretivist case study methodology requires scrupulous documentation, cross-referencing, referral of field notes back to those interviewed, and a great deal of what Wolcott calls "healthy scepticism" (Wolcott, 1994, p. 21). The issues of biculturalism raised ethical concerns. Not only was I required to satisfy institutional ethical protocols but had a self-imposed ethic to respond to. As a Pākehā teacher educator I am sensitive to Māori attitudes towards Pākehā intrusion into Māori cultural territory. Throughout the research I scrutinised my own involvement with both Māori and Pākehā participants, aware of Stake's (2000) reminder that researchers are guests in the private world of participants. I valued also Tolich and Davidson's (1999) advice about the ethical principle that must override every piece of social research in Aotearoa-New Zealand – to think of it as a small town in order to protect the people in the study.

NGA HUA A NGA PUKAPUKA – WHAT I READ IN THE DOCUMENTS

'Examining' involved the analysis of national curriculum documents and schools' charters, mission statements and art department schemes. As example, the Thomas Report on *The Post-primary School Curriculum* (Department of Education, 1943) contained only one reference to Māori, not in respect of art education but social studies. From 1945 Department of Education and Ministry of Education documents showed a growing awareness of bicultural responsibility and a move from 'should' to 'must'. From the 1970s all art curriculum documents included requirements to offer Māori art in programmes, culminating in *The Arts in the New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2000). I noted in successive documents the increasing use of te reo Māori (the Māori language), albeit with English translations.

Analysis of the three schools' charters and mission statements showed a strong link between the documents and the nature of the schools and communities in which they were socially and economically located. Two sets of documents indicated strong emphasis from Boards of Trustees and principals upon bicultural policy, while the third made no reference to biculturalism. The following comments from the three principals illustrate their attitudes towards acknowledging Te Tiriti o Waitangi-Treaty

of Waitangi in school policy:

Principal, Te Kura Hine-Tama: The eighth goal in our school charter is “increased participation and success by Māori through the advancement of Māori education initiatives, including education in te reo Māori, consistent with the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi”

(Smith, 2001, p. 70)

Principal, Te Kura Hine: The Treaty of Waitangi has had a substantial influence. The school’s policy is called Tiriti o Waitangi ... and it talks about te reo me nga tikanga

(ibid, p. 83)

Principal, Te Kura Tama: There is no monitoring of inclusion of bicultural imperatives ... Heads of departments are not required to report on whether the Treaty of Waitangi is referenced in schemes, a task I would not agree to personally

(ibid, p. 83)

Analysis of art department schemes similarly illustrated differing attitudes. At *Te Kura Hine-Tama*, where both teacher participants were Māori, the art department scheme was in the form of an Art Department Accountability Statement. This contained a written undertaking between the Board of Trustees and staff that they would support school policy in terms of biculturalism and the treaty. Te reo Māori was expected to be pronounced correctly (this was indeed confirmed in the interviews with both Māori and Pākehā students); study units related to Māori art and cultural heritage were to be incorporated in courses at all levels; the teaching style was to accommodate Māori preference for learning styles; and tikanga Māori was to be supported. The scheme at the girls’ school, *Te Kura Hine*, although designed for a dominantly Pākehā body of students and art department staff, demonstrated a particular concern to honour treaty obligations and illustrated the overall ethos of the school. By contrast, in *Te Kura Tama*’s scheme neither Te Tiriti o Waitangi-Treaty of Waitangi nor the word ‘Māori’ were mentioned except in excerpts from national curriculum documents. There was no use of te reo, even in a year 11 Māori art unit.

Thus, it was clear that the ways in which Ministry and school documents were interpreted and acted upon by principals and art department staff varied substantially and revealed much about school policy making. The findings from the analysis of government and schools’ documents were used to inform the subsequent interviews and observations.

NGA WHAKAUTŪTU – WHAT I HEARD AT THE INTERVIEWS

‘Enquiring’ involved interviews with principals, art teachers, and students at years 10, 11, and 13 (mostly 14, 15 and 17 year olds). Interviews and their documentation

and analysis represented a major dimension of the research. The following comments from principals and heads of art departments (HODs) at nga kura tuarua illustrate their attitudes towards Te Tiriti Waitangi-Treaty of Waitangi and bicultural education:

Principal, Te Kura Tama: I actually don't give a toss about the partnership

(ibid, p. 108)

HOD art, Te Kura Tama: A lot of boys from this school come from backgrounds where that prejudice is part of their culture at home ... it's a very hard thing to fight against. I've had a letter from a parent saying I do not want my son to be taught Māori art and I want him to be taken out of the class when anything to do with that happens

(ibid, p. 93)

Principal, Te Kura Hine-Tama: The school schemes would say the right things but what I am interested in is not what they're saying but what they are doing ... putting subjects into a meaningful context. If you talk to Māori teachers they feel like they're carrying this huge burden ...

(ibid, p. 82)

HOD art, Te Kura Hine-Tama: I feel confident with the Māori students ... but I would feel very inadequate if asked to present my findings on teaching Māori art to Māori educators ... Māori are hard on Māori ... they would eat me alive

(ibid, p. 93)

Principal, Te Kura Hine: ... what actually has to happen is a change ... that is both intellectual and emotional ... so first you have to know your history and ... the sociology of indigenous peoples ... and about the impact on a culture of a dominant culture

(ibid, p. 84)

HOD art, Te Kura Hine: I would like to think we are very explicit about the significance of Māori art. It's not just about looking and drawing but the idea of knowing and understanding ... we have made great effort to ensure that it isn't tokenism

(ibid, p. 88)

Overall, there was a strong correlation between the views of principals and their staff. As example, the HOD at *Te Kura Hine* maintained that the positive attitude of the principal permeated the school and, consequently, the art department. Conversely, the negative response of the principal at *Te Kura Tama* towards bicultural inclusion appeared to filter down to staff and students.

An aim of the interviews with the nine Māori and nine Pākehā students was to discover their knowledge of Te Tiriti o Waitangi-Treaty of Waitangi and awareness of biculturalism in their art programmes. With the exception of one year 10 Māori boy (who had been brought up in a traditional way, spoke te reo Māori, and had studied the treaty since he was a small child) and one year 11 Pākehā girl (who had gained a comprehensive knowledge of the treaty in social studies) the majority showed little understanding. The comments of two students illustrate the superficial understanding held by the majority:

Yeah, we studied the treaty but I can't remember. I remember a beach somewhere. The Māori don't know how to sign so they did little signs or something

(ibid, p. 102)

We learnt about the flag. Hone Heke took it down

(ibid, p. 105)

In contrast, all students were aware of Māori art. Their comments about the kind of study they made of Māori art appeared, however, to reflect the nature and policies of their schools and the attitudes towards it:

Year 10 Pākehā girl, Te Kura Hine-Tama: We look at the work at the marae. Our teacher takes us there, we look at the panels and she tells us some things about the meaning ... We do a lot of cultures. We're doing African ...

(ibid, p. 101)

Year 10 Māori boy, Te Kura Hine-Tama: We're lucky, people get to study whatever kind of art they like, their kind of art ... I just love to take up more Māori than anything else

(ibid, p. 101)

Year 10 Pākehā boy, Te Kura Tama: Our course doesn't really include Māori art. For the last exam we had to sketch a (Pacific Island) tapa cloth

(ibid, p. 102)

Year 13 Māori boy, Te Kura Tama: I don't know anything about my Māori background ... I'm happy using European models

(ibid, p. 107)

Year 11 Pākehā girl, Te Kura Hine: In the work we've just done we had to incorporate both Māori things and European aspects ... incorporated

together, an equal amount of Māori things. Our course is bicultural, incorporating half European and half Māori – bicultural as in two cultures. I feel as if the Treaty of Waitangi sort of comes across in my work

(ibid, pp. 104–105)

Analysis of the student interviews suggested that the school's circumstances affected the confidence and responsiveness of students. Where the art programme was focused within a bicultural context, this was transmitted to students whatever their ethnic identity. Where tikanga Māori and Māori art had an insignificant place in a school's programme, in school policy, and in the school community, this was similarly reflected in students' responses.

NGA KITENGA I NGA KURA – WHAT I SAW IN THE SCHOOLS

'Experiencing' was achieved through school and art room observations. There was evidence from the art classes observed (which included the majority of the 18 students interviewed) of a strong correlation between the data collected through analysis of school charters and art department schemes, through interviews, and from observations. This correlation helped support the validity of the triangulation of data collecting techniques used in the research.

My observations did reveal, however, information not apparent in the document analysis and the interviews. I concluded, for example, that the quality of students' art performance in biculturally-oriented programmes depended as much upon economic circumstance, teacher knowledge and understanding of Māori art, the degree of teacher direction, and the resources available to students, as it did upon school policy.

Student ethnicity was not a major factor affecting attitude or performance. Some Māori students appeared disaffected in respect of Māori art. Others saw their art programme as an opportunity to find and reclaim their cultural heritage. Some Pākehā students showed considerable empathy with and knowledge of Māori art and its significance. Others were singularly lacking in knowledge or interest in any aspect. I detected too that the artistic merit of students' work did not necessarily correlate with cultural understanding. So-called 'good' art work influenced by Māori art could be executed in ignorance of its cultural relevance. Correlation or connection, when it existed, arose from teaching approaches which incorporated knowledge of the cultural base.

My observations revealed that the mandatory inclusion by the Ministry of Education of a bicultural dimension in the art curriculum in no way guarantees that all students gain some understanding of "the unique position of Māori in New Zealand society" or are brought to "acknowledge the importance to all New Zealanders of both Māori and Pākehā traditions, histories, and values" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 7).

NGA KITENGA A TE RANGAHAU – WHAT I
CONCLUDED FROM THE RESEARCH

The search for answers to my questions, What is the political and social agenda which lies behind Aotearoa-New Zealand's bicultural education policy and what are the perceptions, behaviours and performances of the participants in relation to the bicultural curriculum imperative?, confirmed that my task was complicated by many factors – historical, sociological, anthropological, economic, racial, political and educational. I arrived at several conclusions:

- Te Tiriti o Waitangi-Treaty of Waitangi, though not itself binding in law, has influenced the shape of Aotearoa-New Zealand society and its policies for education. Subsequent legislation has not protected Māori from policies of colonial imperialism and assimilation that contradict the intent of the treaty. Their low status in economic, social and cultural terms denotes cultural inequality with Pākehā;
- Liberal humanist doctrines of the 1970s have led to government policies which endorse a species of biculturalism rather than multiculturalism. It is policy deriving from a specific political and ideological stance not shared by all New Zealanders;
- Māori belief that their 'arts' are the central vehicle of their culture makes visual arts education a significant dimension of curriculum if true bicultural policy is to be sustained. What might constitute appropriate practice in terms of bicultural art education is not well-defined and results in variable practice from tokenism to informed comprehension about Māoritanga (traditions, practices, beliefs) and tikanga Māori (respect for Māori cultural values);
- The imposition of current bicultural requirements may place unrealistic burdens upon teachers. The mandatory inclusion of a bicultural dimension in the visual arts curriculum does not ensure that all students gain some understanding of "the unique position of Māori in New Zealand society" or are brought to "acknowledge the importance to all New Zealanders of both Māori and Pākehā traditions, histories, and values" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 7).

As a consequence of this research I am left with the sobering knowledge that what to begin with I thought of as an enlightened government policy in a liberal climate towards the indigenous people of Aotearoa-New Zealand may not be more than yet another piece of paternalism. Such paternalism within a government's education system is intolerable in terms of Giroux's (1992, p. 15) claim that "educators have a public responsibility that by its very nature involves them in the struggle for democracy. This makes the teaching profession a unique and powerful public resource". Giroux typifies teaching as a profession, which in the best interpretation means that teachers are not merely the providers of instruction, but accept a responsibility to examine the circumstances or conditions with which they are faced, explore the best possible solutions based upon sound and evaluated information and research, implement with skill the programmes they devise, and accept responsibility to face and deal with outcomes, positive or negative. It is a role which requires teachers to evaluate the philosophies, objectives and directives of the state and its education system, a large demand perhaps but one essential if professionalism is to prevail over instructional obedience.

In Aotearoa-New Zealand, historically, teachers colleges or colleges of education have been stand-alone institutions under the direct control of the Ministry of Education in terms of establishment, resourcing and curriculum. In this circumstance it would appear difficult, if not subversive, for colleges of education to offer pre-entry training which was not obedient to Ministry guidelines. What became evident from my research, however, is the need for teacher educators (and their students) to be able and willing to question the Ministry's position on such issues as national curriculum. Subsequent to my research there has been much critical debate about *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework* (Ministry of Education, 1993). As example, Clark (2004, p. 35) regards the curriculum framework as "philosophically problematic and politically conservative". O'Neill *et al.* (2004, p. 43), similarly, see the document as one which "does not embrace an educational or pedagogically informed approach to teaching and learning". One of the centrally mandated requirements for teacher registration and employment is, however, that pre-service teachers are familiar with and competent to offer programmes consistent with the curriculum framework. Clark (2004, p. 35) claims that "this means little more than simply getting students to accept as a given the Ministry approved position". Such criticisms must be taken seriously by visual arts teacher educators, a position I have advocated in arguing for the displacement of a monocultural view of curriculum in favour of cultural equity (Smith, 2004). Passive acceptance of the Ministry's acknowledgement of the value of Te Tiriti o Waitangi-The Treaty of Waitangi and of New Zealand's bicultural identity is not enough in itself.

I have come to the conclusion as a result of my research that the ideological bases of our bicultural policy require scrutiny, not least by those involved in teacher education and school reform. It may be that existing bicultural policy rests on a faulty premise regarding ethnicity and culture. It is imperative in my view that the teaching profession itself takes the lead in examining and researching the validity of existing bicultural policy, but it is less likely to do so when teacher education is required to be obedient to state dictates. What is required is that teacher education takes upon itself the responsibility to act as the conscience of society and have the courage and determination to withstand the shifting ideological and politically motivated impositions of government.

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34. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH
TRANSFORMATION: LINKING TWO ASSESSMENT
MODELS OF TEACHERS' REFLECTIVE THINKING
AND PRACTICE

TEACHERS' REFLECTIVE THINKING AND PRACTICE
AND ITS IMPACT ON THEIR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The ability to reflect is widely known as a factor affecting the effectiveness of teacher development. Terminology such as reflection, reflective thinking, reflective practice, reflective judgment and reflective learning appears a lot in journals and literature about education, training and professional development. Research literature consistently stresses the importance of reflection in the training of teachers and professionals (Kolb, 1984; Kirby, 1988; Morine-Dershimer, 1989; Mezirow, 1991; Colton and Sparks-Langer, 1993; Copeland *et al.*, 1993). In order to facilitate effective teaching, teachers need to be aware of their own practice and their practice environment, which includes their pupils and other people in their own work situation. They must have insights or initiatives to plan and act for their duties and to react to their own practice environment. During their own perception and (re)action processes, teachers can learn from their own experience through reflection. Their reflection of experience is linked to the formulation and the development of their pedagogy, which has an impact on the teachers' daily practice.

From a methodological point of view, there is a need to provide empirical justification for the measures of "reflective thinking". On the basis of this rationale, this chapter will report some statistical work on clarifying the factor structure of Reflective Thinking and Practice (RTP), an instrument that is used to measure teachers' reflective thinking and practice on the basis of Mezirow's transformative learning theory, as well as its potential links with some measures in Kolb's LSI-1985. The LSI-1985 is a well-established and tested instrument measuring learning styles, and one of the dimensions of the measures in the instrument is an assessment of the use of the "reflective observation" learning orientation. The outcomes of analysis (e.g. confirmatory factor analysis) provide a sound empirical basis on the feasibility to assess reflection from the perspective of transformative learning theory. To move forward, educators and researchers would like to ask "Is there a link between teachers' reflective thinking and practice based on Kolb's experiential learning theory and on Mezirow's transformative learning theory?"

Theoretically speaking, the investigation will indicate the feasibility of unifying the two theories and it would further increase educational researchers' and theorists' understanding of the relationships between reflection and teacher professional development. Such an understanding would help policy makers to plan and to make decisions about teacher education. It would in turn benefit the practitioners in education (e.g., teachers) in promoting their learning and self-development as well as

refining their teaching strategies from time to time based on the concept of reflection.

REFLECTIVE THINKING AND PRACTICE IN KOLB'S EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY

Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory is one of the prominent models about learning by experience based on research in psychology, philosophy and physiology. It has adopted Piaget's ideas (see Figure 34.1) about learning and development from the perspective of human inquiry. Although Kolb has used a different set of terminology in his theory, the four learning orientations that he suggested originate from the four learning orientations suggested by Piaget.

According to Kolb, there are two structural dimensions underlying the process of experiential learning, the "prehension" dimension and the "transformation" dimension. The former is represented by the vertical axis on Figure 34.1 and the latter is represented by the horizontal axis. As a major process of adaptation to the environment, Kolb believes that knowledge results from the combination of grasping experience and transforming it. To grasp the reality, there are two dialectically opposed forms of "prehension", namely, direct apprehension and comprehension. The knowledge

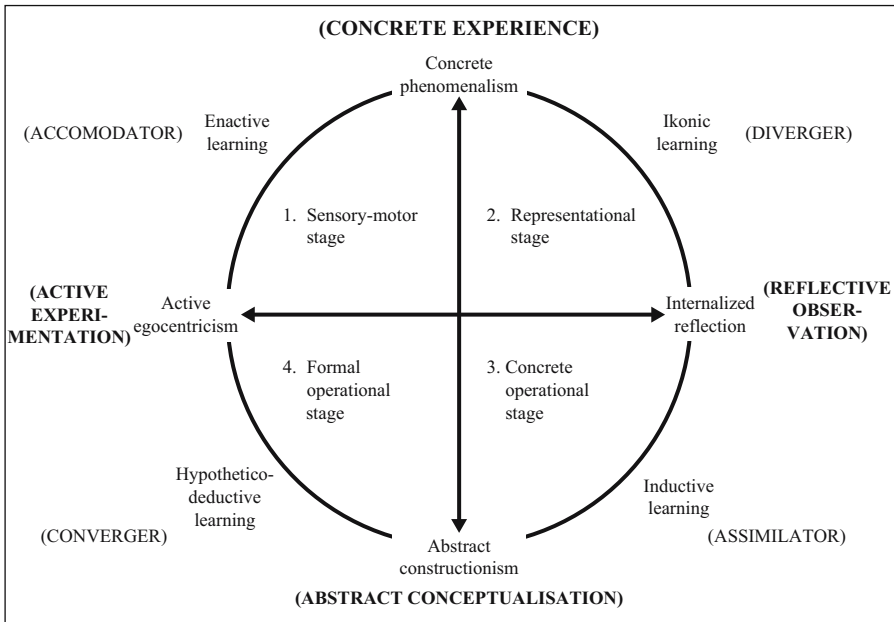


Figure 34.1. Piaget's model of learning and development with Kolb's learning orientations and learning styles (Adapted from: Kolb, 1984, p. 25 and p. 42)

Note: Kolb's learning orientations and learning styles are highlighted in upper case. Other descriptors are about Piaget's work.

through the former process is represented in the form of concrete experience, while the knowledge obtained through the latter process is represented in the form of abstract concepts. These two dialectically opposed orientations of adaptation in the prehension dimension are called “concrete experience” orientation and “abstract conceptualization” orientation. Concrete experience emphasizes personal involvement with people in everyday situations. People with this learning orientation would tend to rely on their own feelings. They prefer to be involved in real situations than to adapt to the theoretical or scientific approach to problems and situations. Instead of relying on their feelings, they tend to understand problems and situations through thinking and to learn by using logics and analyzing ideas.

In order to make knowledge meaningful to an individual, the figurative representation of knowledge needs to be transformed into experience. There are two dialectically opposed ways of “transformation”, namely, intention (that is internal reflection) and extension (that is active external manipulation of the world). The two dialectically opposed orientations of transformation dimension are called “reflective observation” and “active experimentation”. In reflective observation, people understand ideas and situations from different points of views. They rely on patience, objectivity and careful consideration before forming opinions or making judgments. Active experimentation means learning by doing. People with this learning orientation have a practical approach to problems, value getting things done and seeing the results of their influence and ingenuity.

Kolb’s theory regards reflection as one of the two contrasting orientations of learning along the transformative dimension of adaptation. He believes that reflection involves the analysis of data collected from observations to serve as a form of feedback to the pre-set goal and for the development of future action goals. Kolb also considers reflection as the basis for knowledge internalisation mechanism during which accommodation and assimilation processes operate. Reflection is an important process for the construction and reconstruction of cognitive structure within an individual. This orientation of learning is the determinant of the integration of conceptions about the world, while the active experimentation orientation of learning is the major determinant of the differentiation of conceptions about the world.

Based on the four learning orientations described above, people may discover that no single orientation is able to describe one’s learning style entirely. This is because each person’s learning style is a combination of these four basic learning modes. For this reason, Kolb has tried to classify learners who consistently employ different orientations into four learning styles. They are converger, diverger, assimilator and accommodator.

“Converger” describes a learner who highly depends on the “abstract conceptualisation” and “active experimentation” learning orientations. They are best at applying ideas to solve technical problems and to make decisions through hypothetical-deductive reasoning. “Diverger” describes a learner who highly depends on the “concrete experience” and “reflective observation” learning orientations. People with this orientation have strong imaginative ability. They are best at viewing concrete situations from different points of view and identifying meanings and values. They often perform well

in situations that require alternative ideas, such as activities that require “brainstorming” ideas. The label “assimilator” is used to describe a learner who highly depends on the “abstract conceptualisation” and “reflective observation” learning orientations. People with this orientation are best at understanding a wide range of information and putting it into concise and logical form. They have the ability to integrate disparate information to form as a coherent system or a theoretical model of their own. “Accommodator” describes a learner who highly depends on the “concrete experience” and “active experimentation” learning orientations. They have the ability to learn primarily from “hands-on” experience. They enjoy involving oneself in new and challenging experiences and learning in an intuitive trial-and-error approach, given that they don’t mind changing or giving up their plans, system or theory when appropriate.

REFLECTIVE THINKING AND PRACTICE IN MEZIROW’S TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING THEORY

Mezirow is a prominent figure working on the transformative dimension of learning. He has proposed that learning “may be understood as the process of using a prior interpretation to construe a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one’s experience in order to guide future action” (Mezirow, 1998). The thinking process is actually a learning process in which one’s experience is gained, extended or/and transformed through deliberate effort. The thinking processes can take place during or after the action taken by the practitioner. In Schon’s terms (Schon, 1983 and 1987), if the thinking process takes place simultaneously when a practitioner performs the action, it is called “reflection-in-action”. If the thinking process takes place some time after the action, it is called “reflection-on-action”. Mezirow’s theory makes practical contributions to the education and training of professionals by explaining the roles of critical thinking, learning and development, reflection, problem-posing and problem-solving.

In the book he wrote in 1991, Mezirow has tried to distinguish “non-reflective” actions from “reflective” actions. Habitual actions are classified as non-reflective because reflective thinking is not necessary when the action is performed. For example, riding a bicycle is often a habitual and spontaneous action during which the rider does not have to make a deliberate effort about the operational procedure of controlling the bicycle. The bicycle rider can focus attention on other things or events while the vehicle is still under good control. This is quite different from an engineer who met a difficult technical problem and he eventually managed to get it solved after making a deliberate effort to think about the knowledge he learnt from the training institutes and some experience that he gained from his previous workplaces. Thinking and practice in the second example can be classified as reflective because the action is performed in a thoughtful mode. Introspection was not included because it was regarded as an activity within the affective domain (see Kember *et al.*, 1999 and Mezirow, 1991).

In his later work in 1998, Mezirow has another attempt to distinguish thinking and practice without critical reflection from those with critical reflection. The former include habitual action, introspection and thoughtful action. The latter include

content reflection, process reflection, content and process reflection, and premise reflection.

Mezirow (1991, 1998) thinks that critical reflection can be sub-divided into “content reflection”, “process reflection” and “premise reflection”. The first one is reflection on what is perceived, thought, felt or acted upon (Mezirow, 1991, p. 107) and the second one involves the examination of how one performs the functions of perceiving, thinking, feeling, or acting and an assessment of efficacy in performing them. The objects of various sub-types of critical reflection are different, too. The former focuses on the content of the problem and the latter focuses on the process of problem solving. Items in this level refer to these two sub-types of critical reflection, and the mixture of both, which can be called “content and process reflection”.

The major criterion to differentiate thinking and practice “without critical reflection” and those “with critical reflection” is whether the process of appraisal or review of the content, process, or premise(s) of the effort paid to interpret and give meaning to an experience. Only actions that have gone through the meta-cognitive evaluation process can be classified as critical reflection. For example, if the teacher’s problem is to find out whether the boy in her class is telling the truth about his age, the focus of her content reflection may be on his physical outlook, such as the color of his hair, the facial appearance, or the year he has entered the school. To address the problem, the teacher pays deliberate attention to identify relevant information that helps her to make a judgment.

Process reflection may take place with or without content reflection. After making judgments about the problem, for example, the teacher may reflect on process, such as evaluating how her judgment is made and how to address similar problems in the future. She may review the adequacy and appropriateness of the clues that she had and the way made use of the clues to make judgments. The teacher’s premise reflection might be illustrated by a question that she asks herself, “Why do, or should, I care how old the student is?” It often involves evaluation of the value or the validity of knowledge and experience.

The transformative learning theory has the special feature of defining reflection from a critical perspective. For premise reflection, the reflective practitioner may need a “time out” process during which the practitioner removes himself or herself from the action for a critique of a premise or presupposition. The actual duration of the time out process may or may not be long, and it varies between individuals. For example, a lawyer’s reflection might take less than a second without withdrawing from the action being taken. On the contrary, a trainee teacher or an inexperienced professional might find reflection-in-action too difficult, but keep reviewing his or her classroom action after the teaching practice took place. Mezirow (1998) proposes that the critique of a premise or presupposition on which the practitioner has defined a problem is a special mode of critical reflection, through which personal meaning perspective is transformed or the problem is re-defined. As distinct from problem solving, the focus of attention is on problem posing. The term “premise self-reflection” or “critical self-reflection of an assumption” is used to describe this special type of critical reflection.

I like to learn by:							
<u>4</u>	feeling	<u>1</u>	watching	<u>2</u>	thinking	<u>3</u>	doing
(Adapted from: Kolb, 1985)							

Figure 34.2. An example of items in the Kolb's Learning Style Inventory 1985

ASSESSMENT MODEL BASED ON KOLB'S WORK

Tse (2004) has reported an assessment of teachers' reflective thinking and practice based on Kolb's experiential learning theory. The measures in his study were obtained through the administration of Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI-1985). The inventory describes the way people learn and how people deal with ideas and day-to-day situations in their life. Four measures were derived from the inventory, namely, concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Participants were asked to complete a set of sentences and rank the endings for each sentence according to how well they thought each one fits their experience of learning something. The inventory consists of 12 sentences. Teacher participants were told to recall some recent situations where they had to learn something new. They were asked to rank a "4" for the most suitable sentence to describe the way they learn, down to a "1" for the least suitable sentence to describe the way they learn. An example of the instrument can be found in Figure 34.2.

ASSESSMENT MODEL BASED ON MEZIROW'S WORK

Tse (2004) has also reported the assessment of teachers' reflective thinking and practice based on Mezirow's transformative learning theory. RTP, the instrument that he used to assess it, consists of 14 statements. Teacher respondents were asked to indicate the extent of validity of statements about their reflective thinking in relation to their teaching, using the scale "never true of me", "occasionally true of me", "sometimes true of me", "often true of me" or "always true of me". When not possible or unsure about the answer, respondents were allowed to choose the option "N.A." on the scale.

In the instrument, the 14 statements are categorized into 4 latent factor groups. They are habitual action, reflection, critical reflection, and premise reflection. Habitual actions represent a group of actions that take place outside focal awareness. Professionals may equip themselves with automatic responses to familiar tasks or problems through repetitive habitual practice. The statement "I repeat some classroom duties so many times that I tend to do them without conscious thought" is one of the items in this category. Reflection represents the process in which professionals

make reference to their learnt knowledge and experience without reviewing the validity of the information. Activities in this level are conscious and intentional. The statement “I use the educational knowledge that I have learned to interpret what is happening in the classroom” is one of the items in this category. Critical reflection represents a spectrum of activities, including mental exploration of experience, creation and clarification of personal meaning, internal examination of an issue of concern, the change in understandings, appreciations, and even personal perspectives. The statement “To tackle a teaching problem, I ask myself about the features that I noticed when I recognised it as a problem” is one of the items in this category. Premise self-reflection occurs when the object of critical reflection is an assumption or pre-supposition on which one’s own interpretation or definition of a problem is made, and it functions as a special form of critical self-reflection that leads to a re-interpretation or re-definition of the problem. The statement “I come up with a solution to a teaching problem after I have found the fault(s) in my interpretation of the problem” is one of the items in this category.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE TWO ASSESSMENT MODELS

The survey questionnaire about reflective teaching based on Mezirow’s theory was sent to 197 practising primary teachers. These are all the teachers who indicated that they were willing to be contacted for future research in a survey carried out by a large-scale national project 15 months prior to the administration of the survey questionnaire in this chapter. That survey was carried out in England and it was targeted at primary school teachers that were classified as ‘effective’ or ‘highly effective’. With the expectation that highly effective teachers tend to be more reflective, the sample was regarded as suitable for the investigative studies on the assessment of reflective thinking and practice.

The return rate was 59%. A total of 117 teachers made responses to this section, but 4 cases were dropped due to consistent omission in answering part of the questionnaire. For the formulation of structural equation models (SEM), the number of teachers who participated in this study is relatively small. Schumacker (1996) mentions that 100 to 150 subjects seem to be the minimum satisfactory sample size and Hoyle (1995) suggests that 250 seem to be the minimum sample size for stable results. The requirement of having 10 to 20 subjects per variable seems to be the rule of thumb in many statistical analyses (Schumacker, 1996, p. 20). As the sample size is small, special attention has been paid to the estimation of missing data so as to make the best of the available sample. For this reason the AMOS statistical package was used. The collected data was coded according to the numerical scale from 0 to 4. And responses for not possible or unsure about the answer were dropped from the analysis. Of these 117 respondents, 74 of them have also filled in the Learning Style Inventory (LSI-1985) in order to assess their learning styles and reflective teaching based on Kolb’s theory.

Findings about the feasibility to assess teachers' reflective thinking and practice

The data collected from 117 teachers was first analysed by the EQS statistical computer software (Byrne, 1994) and finally by the AMOS software (Arbuckle, 1996b). The main reason for using EQS is that this application is particularly good at the estimation of parameter changes during the model re-specification stage as well as providing descriptive information about the model. And AMOS can make a unique contribution to the study by its feature of "full information estimation" of missing data. Arbuckle (1996a) demonstrated that the maximum likelihood estimation methods, as used in AMOS, could produce more accurate estimations than some other traditional missing data estimation methods, such as "listwise", "pairwise" and "imputation". This estimation method is also recommended by Schumacker (1996). On average, the percentage of missing data was around 3%, with a variance between 1.8% to 5.3%. Although the percentage of missing data seems to be acceptably low, the relatively small sample size in this study requires a maximum use of the information from the collected data through careful estimation of missing values.

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis show that it is appropriate to group the items into four levels, namely: habitual action, knowledge application, critical reflection and premise reflection. Each factor is composed of three to four items, as literature suggests that at least three observed variables are needed for each latent variable (e.g. Schumacker, 1996). As there were missing data, the overall fit of the model was assessed by the difference between the function of log likelihood of the proposed model and that of the saturated model, as suggested by Arbuckle (1996b). The difference between the two represents a chi-equivalent index, which represents the statistical significance of the model. In this model, the chi-square statistic was found to be 73.78 with 67 degree of freedom. It means there is no indication that the model is inaccurate and the model should be confidently accepted at the 5% level of statistical significance. And the four-factor structure model seems to be statistically accurate. In addition to this, the four-factor structure has been checked against the results of a scree plot, which suggests that it would not be appropriate to describe the model with less than four factors. The results give support to the proposed four-factor structure. When working together, the four factors can explain 61% of the total item variance. The alpha statistic of the habitual action measure is 0.6 and those of the other three measures are roughly equal to 0.7, respectively. The results indicate that the 3 reflection assessment measures based on Mezirow's theory are reasonably reliable in terms of their internal consistency between items in each of the measures, while the habitual action measure is fairly reliable.

The data collected from 74 teachers were analysed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software application (Norusis, 2000). On average, the alpha statistics of the 4 learning orientations in LSI-1985 is 0.85, with a variance between 0.78 and 0.89. The results show that the instrument has four learning orientation measures with good internal consistency, namely: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. The results mean

that the learning orientation measures based on Kolb’s theory are very reliable. They also provide a sound empirical background for us to move forward to the investigation into the possible links between the two theories.

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE LINKS BETWEEN THE TWO ASSESSMENT MODELS

Kolb and Mezirow are similar in some ways because both of them emphasize the importance of “transformation” in learning. On the other hand, their conceptions of reflection are reasonably different from each other. Therefore, Tse (2004) has carried out a quantitative investigation into the relationships between the two major strands of reflection with data obtained from the administration of the two measuring instruments. A series of correlation tests was carried out between each of the measures of LSI-1985 and each of the four measures in the CFA. The results are obtained from 74 teachers and they are reported in Table 34.1 below. None of the correlation statistics were found to be statistically significant.

Conceptions of reflection and transformation

It is obvious that both experiential learning theory and transformative learning theory are concerned with knowledge transformation. This is the common theoretical ground for bridging the two theories. However, the results of correlation tests reported that none of the expected patterns of relationships was found to be statistically significant. So the attempt to link the two theories together based on their theoretical background does not seem to be successful.

If the failure is not due to measurement error, the results indicate that the scope and definitions of reflection and transformation were interpreted differently. In the experiential learning theory, reflective observation is a form of learning orientation. Being dialectically opposed to the active experimentation, it is another approach that

TABLE 34.1 The results of correlation statistics (two-tailed) concerning measures of learning style and measures of reflective thinking and practice

	Habitual action	Thoughtful application	Critical reflection	Premise self-reflection
Concrete	-0.22	-0.07	-0.03	-0.02
Experience (CE)	0.06	0.54	0.77	0.86
Reflective	0.05	0.01	-0.11	-0.16
Observation (RO)	0.70	0.94	0.36	0.18
Abstract	0.19	0.11	0.15	0.10
Conceptualization (AC)	0.10	0.36	0.21	0.40
Active	-0.05	-0.06	-0.01	0.06
Experimentation (AE)	0.68	0.62	0.91	0.59

Note: In each cell, the first statistic refers to correlation and the second one refers to statistical significance.

a person consistently employs to process the information that he or she has perceived. The outcome of transforming perceived information is the acquisition of experience and it helps the learner to adapt to the environment. In transformative learning theory, reflection is a revisit of experience and critical reflection is an internal examination of the content of the problem, the process of problem solving or the premise of the problem. Transformation in perspective only happens when faults, invalidity or misinterpretation of assumption(s) are found (Mezirow, 1991). So, the two theories have different interpretations of the two concepts; although both of them think that internal reflective mental processing make contributions to the transformative dimension of learning.

SUMMING UP

This chapter reviews the conception of reflection in relation to two learning theories, Kolb's experiential learning theory and Mezirow's transformative learning theory. The former regards reflection as a part of the experiential learning cycle while the later suggests it to be an essential process leading to transformative learning. Despite the apparent difference in the role of reflection, the author attempts to investigate the appropriateness to link the two theories together.

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on an instrument in assessing reflective practice on the basis of transformative learning theory. The statistical results suggest that the four-factor structure model is confirmed and the four factors (i.e. habitual action, reflection, critical reflection and premise reflection) are able to explain 60% of the total item variance. This was followed by investigating the internal consistency of each of the measures in the two instruments constructed on the basis of the two learning theories. The results suggest that the measures are generally reliable.

A correlational analysis was carried out to investigate the potential link between the four factors mentioned above and the four measures within the learning style inventory. However, results suggest that none of the expected patterns of relationships is found to be statistically significant. The attempt to link the two theories together may not be appropriate at this time. As the investigation seems to be the first empirical study focusing on the links between the two theories, the author thinks that further investigations are necessary for researchers and theorists to clarify whether there is a link between the two theories. In relation to the two theories, the results also imply that practitioners in teacher education (e.g. curriculum planner, policy maker) need to consider the value of reflective teaching in two alternative ways, namely, reflection for the acquisition of experience and reflection for innovations.

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35. ACTION RESEARCH AND TACIT KNOWLEDGE:
A CASE OF THE PROJECT APPROACH

INTRODUCTION

Since 1999 Hong Kong has been experiencing education reform. The Education Commission (EC) and the Curriculum Development Council (CDC) of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) have published a series of reform documents, which set the education blueprint for the 21st century (EC, 1999, 2000; CDC, 2000). The key to the current reform is to build an education system conducive to lifelong and life-wide learning as well as all-round development (EC, 2000, p. 3). This advocacy rests in the belief that the world is ever changing and Hong Kong is facing tremendous challenges. In order to meet these challenges, CDC proposed a curriculum reform in a document entitled *Learning to Learn*. It reveals the determination to develop students' *ethics, intellect, physique, social skills and aesthetics* and emphasizes students' learning experiences (ibid., p. 4). A framework made up of three components: *Key Learning Areas (KLA)*, *Generic Skills (GS)* and *Values and Attitudes (V&A)*, is developed to provide the learning experiences. The GSs are essential in *learning to learn* which cut across all subjects within the eight KLAs. Values and attitudes are expected to permeate the curricula and help formulate principles for conduct and decision. Table 35.1 shows this framework (CDC, 2000, pp. 34–37, 113).

In an attempt to advocate school-based curriculum in the long-run, CDC encourages schools to build on their existing strengths to adapt the present curriculum. It recommended four key tasks to promote learning in the short-term (2000–05). They are (i) project learning, (ii) moral and civic education, (iii) use of information technology and (iv) development of a culture of reading (CDC, 2000, p. 26).

This chapter discusses how a school responds to the call for reform and adopts the project learning approach to develop new facets of the teaching and learning culture. The mode adopted is thematic and multidisciplinary. It requires teacher collaboration and use of information technology. There are elements of civic education and life-wide education. This study enables me to appreciate the impact of teacher action processes on student learning and professional development.

STRENGTHS, LIMITATIONS AND TENSIONS OF ADOPTING
THE PROJECT APPROACH IN HONG KONG SCHOOLS

The Project Approach is recognized as an existing strength of Hong Kong schools to facilitate life-long learning and to infuse generic skills into the teaching and learning processes (ibid.). It is promoted as a useful method to allow students to construct

TABLE 35.1 Framework of the proposed curriculum for Hong Kong schools (CDC, 2000)

8 Key learning areas	9 generic skills	Values & attitudes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chinese language education • English language education • Mathematics education • Personal, social, humanities education • Science education • Technology education • Arts education • Physical education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration skills • Communication skills • Creativity • Critical thinking skills • Information technology skills • Numeracy skills • Problem solving skills • Self-management Skills • Study skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal core values • e.g. sanctity of life, truth, honesty, dignity, creativity, • Personal sustaining values • e.g. self-esteem, self-reflection, self-discipline, • Social core values • e.g. equality, kindness, benevolence, love, freedom, • Social sustaining values • e.g. plurality, democracy, equal opportunities, sense of belonging • Attitudes • e.g. optimism, participatory, critical, creative, empathetic, caring & concern, positive

meaning of what they have been learning instead of being passive receivers of the knowledge transmitted. Hong Kong has adopted Project Learning for decades. Since the introduction of the Activity Approach in primary schools in 1972, *projects* have been widely used. Project Learning has been treated as a vehicle to self-initiated learning which involves active participation in carefully designed activities (CDC, 1993). This conception is in line with that of the early advocates of Project Learning (Kilpatrick, 1918 and Stevenson, 1921). Furthermore, *project* is being promoted as a means to introduce a wider range of learning opportunities into the classroom. An advocate of this is Chard (1998), who quotes research and developments in education to argue that there is a need to transform the classroom into an environment responsive to the varying learning needs and interests of individual students. She also emphasizes the importance of both memorable and memorized learning and the ability to work cooperatively on complex and open-ended tasks as well as follow instructions in step by step learning.

Nevertheless not all student projects can yield the aforesaid benefits. Morris (1996) observes that when schools place priorities on targets like completion of subject syllabi and preparation for examinations, teachers are reluctant to trim down subject content to give way for project work lest they would be blamed for examination failure. He also argues that inadequate provision of relevant library support jeopardizes student self-initiated learning which is a key to effective project learning (Morris, 1996, p. 113).

Unaware of the limitations mentioned above, many schools accept the project approach uncritically and unconditionally. They show good will by exploring new learning opportunities for students and are convinced by the favourable effects of experiential learning. Thus teachers are encouraged to let students do projects. They often treat

it as an additional assignment. There is very little class time on guided development of study skills or information search skills. Students have a task without support. Tension is frequently observed in schools in which teachers hold diverse views on the operation and functions of the project approach. There are struggles for class time, level of subject integration, nature of activities, mode of assessment, grouping of students and so on. In the case of group projects, parents are often involved in the process because students have to work collaboratively at home and share their resources. Should a teacher have not briefed these parents well and ensured that the objectives for self-initiated and cooperative learning are heard and understood, parents, whose prime concern is their children's academic achievement, may find difficulty coping with the new mode of learning and suffer from a conflict of interests between parents and teachers. Worst of all is that a great zeal for project learning causes unreasonable workload on students. The good intentions of project learning are destroyed by careless design, unclear or misunderstood project objectives, lack of resource and expertise support, conflict of interest among group members and uncoordinated workloads for students.

The following section will focus on a study of how a school moved from an undesirable mode to an innovative attempt. Evidence will be provided to illustrate the lessons learned.

THE STUDY: ACTION PROCESSES OF ADOPTING THE PROJECT APPROACH IN A HONG KONG SECONDARY SCHOOL

The context of the study

Informed by the common flaws in adopting the project approach in Hong Kong, there is an interest in exploring how schools tackle the problems and how teachers learn to improve practice. The context of the study is a secondary school in the urban district of Hong Kong with a history of 40 years (called the School). A majority of the students are academically challenged. Generally speaking their language abilities are relatively low and so are their study skills. Student project work at this School has gained the attention of educators since 2003 when it held the first exhibition of project outcomes. Spectators were impressed by the unexpected desirable performance by the students. Not only were they presentable and confident, they also exhibited a spirit of cooperation and an air of affection for their school and learning outcomes. The latter was atypically found among this group of students. My interest to study this School grew in 2004 when it held another exhibition and adopted a new mode of arrangement with all student project reports displayed and student presentations. Instead of a few large groups of many forms, there were almost 40 groups of 5 members each comprising only S.2 (aged 13) students. Shortly after the exhibition, the School was invited by the Education and Manpower Bureau (EMB) to deliver a seminar to share their experience with other teachers and educators. This recognizes publicly the commendable efforts of the School in promoting Project Learning.

Action research

Observation reveals how the School has learned from previous experiences to improve practice. The continuous revival of year on year operation resembles the cyclical process of action research. The changes are noticeable. The School did go through “a self-reflective spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting.” (Kemmis, 1988, p. 178). The happenings were similar to the scenario described by Newman (1998) that there was no clear cut research question and the inquiry began with the “muddle of daily work”.

Informed by the literature on action research (Corey, 1953; Kemmis, 1988; Elliot, 1991; Calhoun, 1993; Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1993; Kember, 2000) the study started with an inquiry of how the School began adopting the project method, how and why did it proposed changes, what problems were identified, what actions were taken to intervene and what commendable practices were learned. Data was collected through observation during the school exhibitions and student presentations as well as from the EMB seminar; interviews with the Project Approach Core Team members, teachers in charge of student groups and students; the project curriculum documents, student learning logbooks, school web page information and the school project interim evaluation survey report. The study divides the processes into three phases: (i) before 2000, (ii) July 2001–June 2003 and (iii) July 2003–June 2004. Data are categorized into:

- commendable new practices,
- problems that needed intervention and actions taken with respect to student learning and teacher development, and
- administrative technical arrangements.

Attention is directed toward “(the) self-reflective spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting” (Kemmis, 1988, p. 178). The study followed Kemmis’ (1988, p. 183) idea of an action research and began to trace how teachers in their social (educational) situation try to improve the rationality and justice of:

- their own social (educational) practices,
- their understanding of these practices, and
- the context.

This is in line with Corey’s (1953) emphasis on teachers’ ability to make better decisions in the classroom, Stenhouse’s (1976) stress on the importance of teachers’ capacities for reflection in curriculum change, as well as Elliot and Ebutt’s (1986) talk about the improvements in teaching for understanding,

PHASE 1: BEFORE 2001

Observation, reflection and problem identification

Before the education reform, the School had already asked students to do projects which were normally given as an assignment for a particular subject before long holidays. Since the release of the reform documents in September 2000, the school found a chance to bring about changes to teaching and learning. Knowing that project learning is

identified as one of the four key tasks shown to be helpful to learning, leaders of the School encouraged teachers to use it. Teachers responded immediately. Students were required to do many subject-based projects. There were neither class time for work nor regular teacher support. There was no central policy coordinating teacher and student workload as well as resource allocation. As a result, students were overloaded with project assignments of all kinds. The division of labor among group members was uneven, making individual efforts difficult to be identified, recorded and recognized. The following quotations from teacher interviews capture the scene:

Many students in S.4 were required to do 7 projects a year. Very often they had to submit 2 to 3 projects after a 9-day vacation.

We did not directly supervise the students as the projects were completed during school holidays. Due to this reason, we were unable to support student learning and assign a fair grade to them. Therefore some projects were marked without a score. This reduced students' motivation to submit high quality work.

PHASE 2: BEFORE JULY 2001–JUNE 2003

Observation, reflection and problems to tackle

Reviewing the practice in the year before, leaders of the School were cautious of the heavy student workload and difficulties in assessing and awarding contribution in projects. They considered the need for central coordination. In order to equip every teacher with the knowledge and skills to lead project learning, a half-day Staff Development Programme on the Project Approach was organized. The benefits and features of project learning, the thematic approach to conduct projects, the development of a mind map and some useful technical arrangements were introduced.

Plan for intervention and action

Following this programme, a core team of three members was formed, among them a project coordinator. As the year 2003 marked the 40th anniversary of the School, the core team determined to celebrate the event. The theme was then selected for convenience and memorable purposes. Teachers were divided into groups and assigned to supervise a particular class level. The sub-themes for individual classes were given. Teachers took up the task as a duty for the 40th anniversary. They seemed to ignore the learning aspect. Though the core team attempted to focus on student learning, not all students were involved in the projects. Usually those more capable in language, information technology and more reliable were chosen to be teachers' 'helpers'. These 'helpers' had the liberty to select a sub-theme within a predetermined area. At the end of the project, there was an exhibition with educators, parents and past students as invited guests.

Reflective comments regarding the time frame

Data collection for the school project lasted for almost 18 months from September 2001 to February 2003. It crossed over two academic years, but there was little

change in student-teacher grouping for maintenance of job stability. This led to the following comments:

... even the S.5 & 7 students who were busily preparing for the high stake public examination would have to help the mounting up of exhibits. This is undesirable.

... during the summer holiday, it was difficult to keep close contact with the students. Extra effort was put to call the students together again in September. I (the teacher) could only get hold of a few reliable ones. Thus participation of the rest was brought to the minimal. Individual assessment was almost impossible. I could only give an impression grade.

The exhibition and reflective comments

The last episode was full of surprises to both students and teachers. The semi-open exhibition of students' work was a new attempt. Spirits were high towards the due day. Having focused on a sub-theme for 18 months, the participants gained a comprehensive view of how significant each part contributed to the entire project. The exhibition put all pieces of a jigsaw together. School members learned more about the school and developed mutual appreciation of one another's accomplishment. It was not only the project exhibits that contributed to the occasion; the uniform groups, student-ushers and the various function groups worked closely in concerted efforts to ensure the smooth running of the event. The participants recalled:

I was impressed by the performance of my students. They were adorable that day, behaving as appropriate as could be. I'd never thought they could be so trustworthy.

(teacher)

The uniform teams were self disciplined and organized. The 15 year old leaders excelled leadership. They were reliable and able to command respect and cooperation."

(spectator)

"The students were proud of their exhibition. I'm glad to have provided an opportunity for acknowledging their efforts in public.

(teacher)

I like our exhibits. At first we were at a loss where to locate the relevant information. I'm glad that we found the old school magazines. Now we know more about the history of our school.

(student)

Our models are in good proportion. It's worth spending so many hours in measuring the actual length and working out the scale. Comparing the

previous and the current campus, we like the present one with extended playground.

(student)

There were also reflective comments on the project arrangements.

If I knew well we had to lead project learning, I would have been more committed in the Staff Development Programme. Though there was the introduction of mind mapping and project assessment, I did not get much from it. I treated it as just another talk ... I think we need another programme.

(teacher)

I was not aware that it's project learning. I took it as a duty to prepare for the 40th anniversary of the School. I did not know that we had to assess the students ...

(teacher)

When I was asked about the learning process, I was mute. I didn't think of it. I told myself silently that I must learn more about the process of project learning ...

(teacher)

PHASE 3: JULY 2003–JUNE 2004

Observation, reflection and identification of problems and commendation

The positive appraisal of the 2003 exhibition encouraged the School to carry on with the project approach. It brought a sense of achievement of students' work and a sense of belonging to the School. Evaluating the previous attempt, the School identified the following problems:

- The 40th anniversary project was top-down and teacher-led. Attention should be given to the learning process and fair student assessment.
- The assignment of the theme and sub-themes to the group hindered creativity and restricted the development of project ownership
- Teachers were not ready to lead project learning. Further staff development was required.
- The groups were too large to allow teacher-student or student-student interaction.
- Tension of struggling for class time should be minimized.
- The duration should not spread over 2 years.

The School also confirmed the following gains:

- The exhibition shed light on the entire process. There were enhanced senses of belonging, achievement, self efficacy, establishment of student bond and

teacher-student rapport. It also gains parent support and external recognition. It was image building and should be continued.

- The thematic approach provided a chance for staff collaboration. It facilitated changes in teaching and learning. The approach helped extending learning activities beyond school bounds.
- Staff development in July was helpful.

Plan for intervention and action

Bearing all these issues in mind, the core team sought advice from experienced academics and school practitioners. Meanwhile individual members began to search literature. In order to seek internal consensus, staff meetings were held to solicit teachers' concerns. With a vision to promote student learning and support the reform, a clear message was conveyed to teachers that:

- All teaching staff would be involved in project learning,
- Student projects would be thematic and multidisciplinary in nature.
- Life-wide education would be an essential element and preferably the theme would support civic education,
- The project would focus on the development of generic skills suggested in the reform documents (see Table 35.1),
- Themes and sub-themes would be selected by teachers and participating students respectively,
- The project would involve S.1 & 2 students only. They would work in a small group of 5 under the guidance of a teacher who would closely observe their performance and assess them both formatively and authentically. A summative grade would appear on the Student Report Card,
- The Librarian would join the Core Team to provide support to both teachers and students.
- Timetable sessions would be arranged to facilitate life-wide activities and interaction among teachers and students,
- A web page would be established to disseminate curriculum materials and centralized operational plans,
- A Staff Development Programme would be organized before confirmation of project planning.

These items were put into practice in September 2003. An innovative attempt was made in the School calendar to allow time for life-wide learning. Nearly all teachers were mobilized to lead project groups. Details of the project activities were centrally prepared and announced via the school intranet. Prior to the first meeting of project learning, the School let teachers select the themes for S.2 (Hong Kong Culture) and S.1 (Our Neighbouring District). With the help of brainstorming and mind mapping, sub-themes were confirmed in the first session. Small group projects started. Meanwhile the library began to systematically reorganize the materials according to the project themes so as to facilitate information search. Table 35.2 outlines the group activities and assessment tasks.

TABLE 35.2 Activities and assessment tasks (Adapted from School Project web page)

Session	Learning activities	Assessment tasks	Assessor
1	Confirmation of sub-theme via drawing of a mind map	Generic skills assessment form Reflective log Mind map & sub-theme selection	Group teacher
2	Plan for the project: preparing a project proposal with details of job distribution, location & details of life-wide activity and questionnaire design	Generic skills assessment form Reflective log Project proposal	Group teacher Chinese teacher
3	Plan for life-wide activity: Budget, record of available resources, preparation of questionnaire, route map, worksheet	Generic skills assessment form Reflective log Questionnaire design	Group teacher Chinese teacher
4	Life-wide activity	Authentic performance	Group teacher
5	Post life-wide activity meeting: Data organization, analysis, drawing a statistical chart, making inferences	Generic skills assessment form Reflective log	
6	Preparation for presentation: Written report, development of oral presentation skills, rehearsal of oral presentation, peer and self appraisals	Generic skills assessment form Reflective log Oral presentation Peer & self appraisals	Group teacher Chinese teacher Students
7	Oral presentation competition	Authentic performance	Chinese teacher
Final	Exhibition: Poster & project written report presentation	Authentic performance	NA

The exhibition and reflections

The highlight of S.2 Project Learning was the semi-open exhibition and student presentation. The winning groups for oral presentation were invited to present again in front of an audience of invited educators, parents, past students, the teachers and all S.2 students. There were also open classroom presentations and poster presentations. Similar to the year before, it was a special occasion dedicated to the celebration of student performance. Once again I was impressed by the enthusiasm of the student-ushers, the masters of ceremony, student presenters and the overall team spirit of all staff. A collaborative spirit filled the air. Below are listed some reflections from staff and students:

I'm so proud of the students today ... It was quite stressful to settle them down to work and prepare the exhibits. I thought they didn't care. But to

my surprise, they were self demanding. Their presentation was fascinating. They showed skills acquired from friends and other sources ...

(teacher)

He did it. I worried yesterday because he could not remember his lines and appeared to be quite shy. Today he seemed to be another person. He spoke with confidence, facing the audience with a broad smile and speaking loudly with appropriate diction.

(teacher)

I've determined to make it a good show. I knew my weaknesses ... my honest friends gave me hints to improve ... so I remembered with all my heart their advice. They said my performance was okay ... he he ...

(student)

It's not easy to interview those passers-by successfully. Many rejected us. If not for this project, I'll give up. Luckily, I've my teachers and fellow students to encourage me. Look ... these questionnaire results were collected with courage and efforts ...

(student)

Observation and reflection-in-action

Six-month project work progressed and kept every stakeholder as busy and engaged as could be. The Core Team observed the process closely and got ready to support all groups. In order to learn more about the difficulties encountered, a survey was conducted. The results were tabled with necessary clarifications and encouragement. During my interview with the core team members and teachers, I made reference to the survey results and invited teachers to talk about their impression of difficulties and authentic learning observed. The following responses were collected:

On Mind Mapping:

- majority of students were able to draw the mind map with teachers as the facilitators;
- examples are helpful to stimulate student thinking;
- warming up activities were necessary,
- students were capable of extending the map, but they had difficulty refining details.

On Information Search:

- most students had not mastered search skills,
- observation reflected that some teachers had difficulties with the sub-theme and were reluctant to seek assistance from colleagues.

On student abilities:

- weak language skills of students adversely affected design of interview questionnaire;
- students' analytical skills were inadequate to complete the complicated task;

- best observable student performance found in street interview and project display day.

On Life-wide Activity:

- both students and teachers responded favourably.

On time frame:

- time schedule was too tight for so many tasks (meetings, worksheets, proposals, written report drafts, reflective logs ...);
- group meeting sessions inadequate for supervision, especially after the collection of data. Students needed guidance in data processing, analysis and production of the report.

On assessment:

- the appointment of Chinese teachers as assessors for the oral presentation competition caused unnecessary conflicts among groups.
- some teachers suffered from role conflict as they might be group tutors and Chinese teachers.

Plan for intervention in S.1 project learning and action

According to the original plan, the activities would repeat in S.1, except the open exhibition. Reviewing the problems raised in the staff survey, the core team was aware that some personal factors had no immediate resolution, others suggested changes in the second phase of project operation. The following measures were taken:

- Students would be asked to collect data and conduct the street interview, but they were not required to do the analysis.
- Oral presentation would be assessed by all the group tutors involved in a class. In order to avoid conflict of interest, the tutor would not give any grade to his/her own group.
- Mixed ability groups would be formed so as to relax the tension of uneven distribution of talents among groups.
- Student assistants would be identified from S.2 to help teachers in S.1 project learning.
- A Life Education session was transferred to Project Learning so that skills such as mind mapping or IT would be introduced before project activities
- A session was added for group meeting, making the total 6 instead of 5.
- A special meeting would be taken up by class teachers and the project coordinator so as to reduce group tutors' workload. This session would be for the development of oral presentation skills through reviewing the video recordings of previous presentation. This would provide a chance for peer evaluation.
- A semi-open presentation would be organized for S.1 students with parents as spectators.

OBSERVATION AND REFLECTION

The S.1 Project Learning was brought to a close in the semi-open presentation. The following shows what teachers learned:

- *The theme on Our Neighbouring District is easier than Hong Kong Culture. Students drew the mind map with less difficulty.*

- *The Life Education session on mind mapping skills seemed to work.*
- *Group tutor assessment is commendable.*
- *It is more reasonable not to require students to analyze the data. They have enough to learn through this project, say, mind mapping, data exploration and collection, working with peers, interviewing techniques, power point presentation*
- *Younger students seem to be more cooperative. There is not much trouble meeting them on time. They are more punctual in submission of plans and worksheets.*
- *Parent attendance was encouraging. Their support and on-the-spot feedback contributed positively on student learning.*

DISCUSSION

The School took 4 years to develop the current mode of Project Learning and is determined to on build this as a directed mode of learning in lower forms. In view of the crowded curriculum in the upper forms and the pressure of the high stakes public examination, adoption of this approach will be encouraged, but it will be at the discretion of the subject teachers. Having reported the study in detail, it is possible to summarize the experience of the School and make the following recommendations:

- Project learning activities should be recognized on the timetable and the school calendar instead of merely an assignment.
- Project assessment results should be reported to parents either in the form of a grade with a set of descriptors or written qualitative evaluation. The assessment items should include not only the written report and student presentation, but also student participation and performance during the learning process.
- Besides a written report, oral or performance presentation helps students internalize the newly acquired knowledge.
- Lower form students learn best in small groups and should be guided / supported by a tutor.
- Students generate motivation and ownership of their own learning when they can make decisions of their project theme, information search activities and presentation formats.
- Mind map is helpful in organizing themes and content items.
- Staff development programmes are necessary for teachers to acquire particular skills. Prior notice of possible future duties in connection with the skills would focus teachers' attention and energy on relevant aspects of the programme.
- Projects help the development of Generic Skills (see Table 35.1). Table 35.3 gives an example of what the School has done.

CONCLUSION

Action research has gained much attention in Hong Kong since the introduction of the curriculum reform in 2000. The reform document advocates a continuous

TABLE 35.3 Examples of project activities and assessment items for developing generic skills

9 Generic skills	Learning tasks	Assessment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration skills • Communication skills • Creativity • Critical thinking skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Small group project • Street interview, group discussion, oral presentation, poster presentation, written report 	<p><i>Project outcomes</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflective learning logbook • Mind map
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information technology skills • Numeracy skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making critical comments during the project learning process • Information search on the internet, word processing skills and power point presentation skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questionnaire design • Interview records • Data collection and management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem solving skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drawing graphic representations • Oral presentation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Project written
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-management • Skills report • Study skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Solving problems in association with the project work • Self monitoring of work progress & sessional self reflection • All the above 	

improvement process while simultaneously acknowledges the strengths of the education sector and announces that long standing practices would be maintained. These strengths and long standing practices fall into an understanding of tacit knowledge. Teachers are encouraged to change the culture of teaching and learning as well as reflect on daily practice (CDC of HKSAR, 2000, pp. 16, 28 & 131). These emphases pave the way for a form of inquiry that focuses on reflection and improvement of practice. This study has been presented in a form similar to an action research because it observed how practitioners enthusiastically reviewed and revised the curriculum through reflection both in-action and on-action. The former refers to conscious thinking and modification while on the job (Schon, 1983, 1987). The implementation processes depict elements of a cyclical process where decision makers 'plan-act-observe-reflect' on their daily professional experience and developed practical knowledge that are useful to every day practice (Kemmis, 1988; Elliot, 1991; Grundy, 1997; Newman, 1998; Zeichner, 2000).

In the absence of formally conducted action research and a systematic method of data collection, the project team has made good use of their tacit knowledge to tackle problems and make suggestions for improvement. Relevant examples permeate my description of the project processes. This study exemplifies how the School learned at difference phases of implementing the project approach. The driving force is the deliberation of the School to reform the habitual pattern of teaching and learning facing the inevitable implementation problems, such as the struggle between manpower constraints and small group tutoring, the fight among subjects for more class time, the

benefits of and the arguments against the adoption of a multidisciplinary approach to curriculum making, and the resentment of some teachers to extend their teaching repertoire. Some teachers indicated:

I prefer teaching (lecturing) my class directly to taking them around interviewing passers-by. That's something we're not familiar with. I need more time to finish the syllabus.

The students don't know how to analyze the data. It's more efficient to introduce the analytical results to them.

Subject-based projects are more manageable because I know where the references are.

The School introduced the project approach in the “muddle of daily work” (Newman, 1998). It started with an inquiry about the aspirations and practices of teaching with projects (Phase One and Two refers). When teachers viewed the approach as a politically correct hyperbole instead of a vehicle to promote student learning, it was extremely difficult to problematise and reconstruct habitual practices. Should there be findings of locally conducted action research confirming the positive effects of project learning, it will facilitate the development of a “professional learning community” in the School. According to DuFour (2004) this “community” is aware of the gap between their commitment to ensure learning for all students and the lack of a coordinated strategy to respond when some fail to learn. Members of this community will fill up the gap with carefully designed strategies in terms of systematic, timely and directive intervention programme to help the struggling students. An essential aspect to make it happen is collaborative work where teachers could establish shared knowledge and understanding. The School of my study is steering towards this direction. The multidisciplinary nature of student project work requires staff working together. The small group setting of Phase Three (2003–04) encouraged collaboration not only at the level of teachers, but also the students. Reflections recognizing desirable student performance during the exhibitions and presentations provide valid evidences. The following views also demonstrate acceptance of the new approach:

The multidisciplinary approach is commended, especially when we let students select the topics they express an interest. There's ownership. Also there's no ready made information to copy as commonly found in subject-based projects. I've observed that our students are proud of the originality of their inquiry topic and the results of the study.

As a Math. teacher, I don't have much experience in project learning and know quite little about social science. I worried when I was asked to be one of the group tutors. Thanks to the help of my colleague, I managed to guide the kids complete their report. I've learned some techniques. The procedural guide and assessment forms designed by the project coordinators are helpful to people like me.

The following excerpts of interviews represent the strategies of teachers to enable students to learn in a caring and non-threatening mode. Teachers' experience is of prime importance here in analyzing the situations and finding a feasible solution.

I divide the day spared for the life-wide activity into the morning session and afternoon session and label them as A and B. A is for the afternoon and B for the morning. Isn't it funny? Should it be the other way round? Don't you know why? This is one way to make them learn English and remember. B is for 'before noon' and A for 'afternoon' ...

At first they were very shy and timid. Students need encouragement to develop perseverance to complete the task.

My student refused to attend project meetings. Everyone was annoyed. I know there should be some hidden reason. He wouldn't tell me. So I made a few guesses and let him choose. Eventually he admitted his worries about arriving home late and a concern about a TV programme. I phoned his parents in his presence, explained the need to work after school hours and successfully convinced his mother to record the TV programme for him. Both the student and his mother were happy for my call. The mother got a chance to talk to me and learn more about her son. My student was happy because he got his problems solved. He felt my care and respect because I phoned in front of him.

When my students had difficulty finding the focus, I let them visit the relevant place first and took pictures. It was from the photographs that they learned the technique of categorizing information and further develop the mind map.

These reflections reveal the ways that teachers use their understanding of students' capabilities and limitations to capture every opportunity to help them learn. Let us share Katz and Chard's (2000) quotation that projects cultivate 'the life of the young child's mind' (p.5-6). On top of knowledge and skills, the social, emotional, moral, aesthetic and spiritual sensibilities are developed. Benefits of adopting the project approach are multifaceted in Hong Kong schools today. If properly planned and implemented, not only do students learn more actively and independently, teachers would extend their teaching repertoire and schools would have a better chance to develop a professional learning community. To reiterate the recognition in the reform documents of teachers' strengths and long standing practices, and to acknowledge development of practical knowledge in the course of action, I sincerely call for the attention of university academics and experienced researchers to help teachers publicize their tacit knowledge being generated in the course of practice. The knowledge base for teaching and learning will expand.

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36. THE IMPACT OF A COLLABORATIVE MODEL FOR
CURRICULUM RESTRUCTURING ON TEACHERS'
PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes aspects of teachers' professional growth during a 2-year professional development programme in Guangdong, China. The project was a part of national curriculum reform in Mainland China. One component of this curriculum reform is to integrate values education across the curriculum while simultaneously helping teachers to adopt current theories of learning and teaching about the curriculum area itself, and it is this aspect that was the focus of the trial in Guangdong Province.

The approach to professional development that was used for this part of the project was a combination of seminars and action research to investigate solutions to a series of problems that arose as the participating teachers explored the reform. This kind of approach was chosen because of research that has clearly identified lack of appropriate professional development as being one of the most serious obstacles to fully integrating new teaching approaches into the curriculum, and one-time-only workshops as ineffective in making teachers comfortable with new approaches or integrating them into their programmes (NCREL, 2003). This project aimed to incorporate all the elements of professional development that have been found to be important: a connection to student learning, hands-on practice, a variety of learning experiences, curriculum-specific applications, new roles for teachers, collegial learning, active participation of teachers, ongoing processes, sufficient time, assistance and support, administrative support, adequate resources, continuous funding and built-in evaluation (NCREL, 2003).

An essential pre-requisite to teacher change is motivating them to want to know about the change and explore how it can affect their practice (Hord *et al.*, 1987). Action research can be a successful way to provide this motivation to persevere with the adoption of teaching reforms, not only to convince teachers of the value of the reform, but also that problems and obstacles can be overcome if they persevere with adapting the new ideas to fit within the constraints of their particular situations.

Teacher growth is facilitated by doing, exploring, trying, failing, changing and adapting strategies, overcoming obstacles after many trials, and sharing failures, successes and techniques that work (McKenzie, 2002). However, it is the process of failing and facing obstacles that often causes teachers to give up. Research on teacher growth has identified a number of such obstacles. Some come about because of insufficient attention being given at the beginning of the initiative to issues such as

teachers' inclination, philosophy, readiness and support (McKenzie, 2002). Foremost amongst the obstacles that have been documented are financial constraints, resistance to changing roles and communication problems (Bullough and Kauchak, 1997). Another can be a lack of sufficient emotional support, from peers or others, at the difficult times (Cole, 1992). A further obstacle to sustained teacher growth is that the initiative can often fall apart when the main instigator or supporter leaves (Mullen and Sullivan, 2002). In order to overcome these obstacles, teachers need the support of different people, including school leaders, outside experts and their own peer networks (Bullough and Kauchak, 1997) at different times, and there needs to be considerable involvement and sharing of responsibility by all partners (Hough, 1975). Hence, for the project reported here, it was considered essential to have a team of partners who were all able to contribute in different ways at different phases of the teachers' growth, according to the obstacles they were facing at those times.

While we wanted to encourage the teachers to learn about current theories of learning and teaching, and to actually consider *using* these in their own classrooms, we knew all too well that there were obstacles which would probably prevent this from happening. In Chinese primary schools, these obstacles include large class sizes, time constraints, pressure to cover the syllabus and achieve high examination results, and the fact that each subject specialist teacher is responsible for several classes. We were confident that the teachers *understood* what we were teaching them and that most of them probably had a genuine *belief* in the value of the teaching approaches we were discussing, but we knew that when it came time to implement the ideas in their own classes, many of them would simply revert to the traditional methods of teaching they were used to and by which they had, themselves, been taught.

The curriculum reform was still very new at the time of this project and, even though moral and civics education have traditionally been taught as separate subjects, the teachers had only ever experienced the idea of a teacher-led, examination-driven and text-book oriented approach to teaching in their subject areas. In other words, these teachers were being asked to adopt some changes that were vastly different from their existing conceptions of teaching.

Owston (2004) has proposed a model for sustainability of classroom innovation that identifies essential and contributing factors. This model has been utilised in the design of the project described here because it gives useful insights into the ways in which different partners can make different contributions. Figure 36.1 shows the essential aspects of this model, and the corresponding partners in the present study who were able to contribute to each of these aspects. For this project, there were five key partners. From the educational perspective, the partners were the local district Education Department, the curriculum reform expert who is a professor in a university in Mainland China and two teacher educators from Hong Kong with expertise in the curriculum areas of Mathematics and Chinese Language combined with expertise in the integration of values education into these subjects (hereafter referred to as the subject experts). In addition, a Hong Kong-based charitable organisation provided funding for the project, including for administrative support. Financial incentive to participate was given

Conditions of Owston's sustainability model	Essential or contributing condition	Partner in this study most able to contribute
Perceived value of innovation	Essential	Education department officials curriculum reform expert colleagues
Teacher professional development	Essential	Subject experts curriculum reform expert
Administrative support	Essential	Education department principals sponsoring body
Innovative champions	Contributing	Subject experts curriculum reform expert teachers' peer group
Supportive plans and policies	Contributing	Curriculum reform expert education department
Funding	Contributing	Sponsoring body
Support within school	Contributing	Teachers' peer group
Support from outside school	Contributing	Education department sponsoring body curriculum reform and subject experts

Figure 36.1. Partners able to contribute to various aspects of sustainability of initiative

by the sponsoring body and the Education Department gave further incentive by acknowledging the teachers' participation for purposes such as promotion. Finally the teachers themselves were considered to be key members of the partnership. A sixth group, the school principals, are considered to be important but to date their involvement has been to provide tacit support rather than an active involvement. However, the support of school leadership is acknowledged as extremely important and the plan for the next phase is to showcase to the principals what their teachers have been doing and to invite them to suggest how they can expand this work in their schools in future.

PROJECT BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

This professional development programme was implemented over a 20-month period from July 2002 to March 2004, with twenty primary school teachers. It was a joint project supported by the South China Normal University Department of Curriculum and Instruction, the local District Education Department, and the Institute of Sathya Sai Education of Hong Kong. As mentioned earlier, the project was connected to the introduction of curriculum reforms in China that aimed to incorporate values education into subject curricula along with a shift from teacher-centred to student-centred learning. Specifically it aimed to:

- guide a group of teachers to develop, implement and evaluate a values education curriculum embedded within their subject teaching, consistent with the current curriculum reforms in China, and

- monitor and evaluate the phases in teachers’ developmental growth in the implementation of teaching reform in values education.

In this chapter we will describe the major obstacles that the participating teachers encountered at different stages of their journey. In particular we will examine how the combined input of the five partner groups helped them to overcome these obstacles and eventually reach a stage where they could contribute ideas and leadership in the curriculum restructuring.

PARTICIPANTS

The participants were twenty teachers, nominated in pairs (one Chinese Language and one Mathematics specialist) from ten selected primary schools in the Qujiang district of Guangdong Province. They were selected by the District Education Office because they were regarded as leading teachers in their schools. They were experienced teachers and had all taught for at least five years. The teachers met with the programme facilitators for 2–4 days four times during the project and carried out some small-scale action research investigations in their schools during the interim periods.

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE PROJECT

The theoretical framework for the project was based on the model of effective strategies for the stages of learning/adoption used by Sherry and Gibson (2002). This model is summarised in Figure 36.2, which also describes the strategies that were utilised for this project.

Figure 36.2. Effective strategies for the stages of learning/adoption (Adapted from Sherry and Gibson, 2002)

Developmental state	Effective strategies	Corresponding action in this project
<p>Stage 1 Teacher as Learner In this information-gathering stage, teachers learn the knowledge and skills necessary for performing instructional tasks using [the new innovation]</p>	<p>Training: demonstrations of promising practices, ongoing professional development by peers rather than one-shot workshops by outside experts; inservice sessions that stress the alignment of the initiative with curriculum and standards</p>	<p>Teachers were paired, i.e. 2 teachers from each school to enable peer discussion and support First seminar: • Introduction to terms and concepts of values education • Specific examples of integration into subject area • Demonstration lesson/s by expert mentors Setting of first school-based problem task • Explore ways of altering aspects of existing curriculum</p>

Continued

Figure 36.2. Continued

Developmental stage	Effective strategies	Corresponding action in this project
<p>Stage 2 Teacher as Adopter In this stage, teachers progress through stages of personal and task management concern as the experiment with the innovation, begin to try it out in their classrooms, and share their experiences with their peers.</p>	<p>Resources, access to help and support; teachers who can mentor newcomers and provide them with care and comfort as well as information.</p>	<p>materials to reflect values education Post First Seminar: • School visits by project team: classroom observation and individual interviews (formative evaluation) Second seminar • Talk by expert teacher who shared his experiences. Further clarification of concepts by project team • Demonstration lessons • Time made available for discussions between colleagues in cognate groups • Ongoing provision by workshop leaders of resources and materials Second school-based problem task • Prepare best three sample lesson plans and reflections on strategies such as use of silent sitting • Identify problems/issues for potential action research investigation</p>
<p>Stage 3 Teacher as Co-Learner In this stage, teachers focus on developing a clear relationship between the innovation and the curriculum, rather than concentrating on task management aspects.</p>	<p>Workshops and resources with strategies for enhancing instruction and integrating the new approach into the curriculum; collegial sharing of integration and assessment ideas</p>	<p>Seminar 3 • Some revision of key concepts and philosophies of session 1 and more in-depth study of these, particularly to address issues raised previously by teachers (visiting expert and peer) • Demonstration lessons with time for teachers to give feedback and discuss • Teachers asked to bring with them a reflection on issues that have arisen – time allowed for discussion Third school-based problem task • Commence classroom-based action research on issues of own concern Seminar 4</p>

Continued

Figure 36.2. Continued

Developmental stage	Effective strategies	Corresponding action in this project
<p>Stage 4 Teacher as Reaffirmer or Rejecter In this stage, teachers develop a greater awareness of intermediate learning outcomes. They begin to create new ways to observe and assess impact on student products and performances</p>	<p>Administrative support: an incentive system that is valued by adopting teachers. Raise awareness of intermediate learning outcomes such as increased time on task, lower absenteeism, greater student engagement; evidence of impact on student performances</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Further resources provided in response to issues raised by teachers (e.g. assessment and discipline) – time for discussion and personal reflection on these • Further demonstration lessons with time for reflection and discussion <p>Seminar 4</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflection and discussion with mentors and between peers about action research outcomes • Criterion-based reward system: All teachers who achieve a certain set of criteria will receive the same level of reward <p>Fourth problem task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group problem-based learning task to explore issues of assessment and discipline • 2 or 3 outstanding teachers identified as mentor teachers to share their experiences with beginners • release of 1–2 teachers in each cognate area to prepare suitable materials – find stories, re-write textbook problems etc.
<p>Stage 5 Teacher as Leader* In this stage, experienced teachers expand their roles to become active researchers who carefully observe their practice, collect data, share the improvements in practice with peers and teach new members. Their skills become portable.</p>	<p>Incentives for co-teaching onsite workshops; release time and other semi-permanent role changes to allow peer coaching and outside consulting. Support from an outside network of teacher-leaders; structured time for leading in-house discussions and workshops. Transfer of skills if teacher goes to another school</p>	

*Planned as an ongoing process over the next 1–3 years.

VALUES EDUCATION FRAMEWORK

The values education framework adopted for this project was the *Sathya Sai Education in Human Values* (SSEHV) model. This model is supported by national education department policies in several countries. It is a secular model that is concerned with putting back character development and values into education and developing all domains of the student's personality: cognitive, physical, mental, emotional and spiritual. It is based on five human values that are universal and inter-dependent, Truth, Right Conduct, Peace, Love and Non-violence, and is concerned with eliciting these values that are already inherent in all of us. The fundamental principle of SSEHV is

that all teaching is based on love and that the teacher's example in living the values is the most critical component of values education. Its goals are:

- to bring out human excellence at all levels: character, academic, and “being”;
- the all-round development of the child (the heart as well as the head and the hands);
- to help children to know who they are;
- to help children to realise their full potential; and
- to develop attitudes of selfless service.

DATA COLLECTION

The data reported in this chapter were collected from notes taken by the researchers during teachers' discussions about problems in the workshops, observation of demonstration lessons and reflective notes in which the teachers were asked to record their experiences, particularly their ability to adapt the new ideas to classroom situations. Since all discussions and written records were in Chinese, the transcripts have been paraphrased from the translations into English for reporting in this chapter.

The obstacles teachers encountered at different stages

This section will consider the most common obstacles that teachers experienced at different phases of their journey, and which of the partners were best able to help them at each stage.

Stage 1 Teachers as learners. The first obstacle that the teachers encountered at this stage was understanding the concept of values education. In their reflections about this stage of their growth, typical comments were:

What's different about education in human values and moral education class – at first I didn't think there were any differences – now I realise it is a different style of teaching different values to develop character.

Lack of understanding of values education was a great obstacle. But with the help of the professors [curriculum and subject experts] and teachers [fellow participants in the project], I could solve the uncertainty.

In the early stages I found it hard to understand the difference between general studies and values education. The professors and the teachers helped me a lot. The professors gave me a lot of information in order to help me understand the values education in more detail. I could learn a lot from the real working process and the teachers' discussions.

Here, the subject experts were the dominant partners. In particular, they had to give very specific examples of the opportunities to talk about the five values during Mathematics and Chinese lessons. When the teachers gave demonstration lessons, it was necessary for the subject experts to be very direct in giving examples of opportunities for talking about values that arose during the lessons. Some examples of this kind of feedback are shown in Figure 36.3, with the vocabulary describing the values highlighted in bold.

Figure 36.3. Examples of facilitator feedback given to help overcome first obstacle (understanding the concept underlying the reform)

Aspect of lesson	Comment about Mathematics teaching	Comment about education in human values/suggested key vocabulary to use with children
Introduction of a problem about China's wild animals as a fraction of the world's wild animals	Sets a real-world context for the problem	Non-violence: Creates awareness of the environment. You can talk about the dangers for some animals of becoming extinct and what each of us, as individuals, can do to help to protect them (e.g. using plant-based rather than animal-based medicines)
Concept of 'one' or 'whole'	Very important to establish the idea of a fraction as a part of the whole	Peace: What do we need to do to become whole people? Can we feel whole and complete if we have a lot of material possessions? (Lead them to the idea that we can only really feel whole and complete if we have inner peace .)
Asking students to find different ways to get the same answer	This is a good practice to encourage, to get them to think mathematically.	Love: There are many different ways of arriving at the correct answer. The same applies to life. People have different ways of doing things but we cannot judge them if their ways are different from ours.
Group discussion to help students who still did not understand	Often children can understand something explained by their peers better than an explanation by an adult.	Love: teamwork. If one group member is unable to understand, it is the group's responsibility to help him/her.
'Mirror' problem	Good use of estimation and problem-solving skills	Right Action: This could be a good chance to talk a little bit more about mirrors (perhaps in a silent sitting at the end) – tell them that other people are mirrors of our behaviour and that when we see something we don't like in another person it often means we have to look at ourselves to see if it is really something in our own behaviour we have to change.
Story about flood and story about Shao Hua and Shao Li donating money for children who cannot afford to go to school	This relates to a real-life event, which helps children to see that Mathematics is a tool for describing real-life.	Love: Developing a sense of compassion towards those who have been unfortunate to suffer in a flood; helping these people by giving seeds to them. (Could this lesson be followed up by asking the children to sacrifice something that they like – eg buying candy or going to the game parlour – and using the money they save to donate to the flood victims? In SSEHV we call this " Ceiling on Desires ".)

Continued

Figure 36.3. Continued

Aspect of lesson	Comment about Mathematics teaching	Comment about education in human values/suggested key vocabulary to use with children
Percentage Comparin statistics of China and other countries comparing with another class the students who are good in study, sports etc.	Again, this use of real-world examples encourages children to think more widely about Mathematics and how it is a tool that helps us to understand our world.	Love: This is a very important aspect of helping children to develop self-acceptance and self-esteem as well as tolerance of others. We need to emphasise repeatedly that everyone has his/her special gifts/talents and help them to think how they can use these for the good of society. We also need to encourage them to be tolerant of others and to look for the good things that others can do, not at what they cannot do.

Figure 36.4. Example of a text-book problem re-worded to reflect values

Change
Shao Hui bought 40kg of rice. He ate 5/8. How much was left?
 to
Shao Hui bought 40kg of rice. He kept 5/8 of it for his own family to eat, and gave the rest to a poor family who lived near his house. How much did he give away?

This process was probably more difficult for the Mathematics group than for the Chinese group because the latter were dealing with curriculum material that already focused to some extent on the values inherent in the traditional Chinese culture, whereas the Mathematics teachers did not have even suitable examples in their curriculum material to draw on. They were also inhibited by the fact that they had never previously been permitted to change even the wording in the examples in the textbook. When the facilitator suggested that they could begin by changing the wording of text-book problems to reflect values like sharing and helping others (see Figure 36.4 for an example) they were incredulous and actually asked, “Can we do that?”

In this case they were not prepared to believe the subject experts that they could in fact make even such a minor kind of change. It was not until the curriculum reform expert said it was acceptable that they were prepared to even entertain the idea.

Stage 2 Teachers as adopters. In their first attempts to incorporate these new ideas into their teaching the major obstacles the teachers experienced were time and curriculum constraints. The subject experts had the major role here, giving them direct materials, direct demonstrations and direct feedback in class.

There were further perceived obstacles arising from a sense of mismatch between implementing the innovation and their existing responsibilities to cover the curriculum and have their students achieve good marks:

In the early stages there was inconsistency between the implementation of values education and my duties with the (curriculum) programme.

They also started to express concerns that the project was compromising the amount of curriculum content they could cover:

We are finding that the characters of the children in the experimental class are improving but we are worried that their scores are going down because we are spending less time on the lesson

Here it was only the Education Department officials who could give them the reassurance they were seeking, since they were not prepared at this stage to believe the subject experts that the overall results would improve in the long term (which they eventually began to do in many of the experimental classes towards the end of the project).

In this case the teachers needed support from a combination of partners; the subject experts to give them the ideas for incorporating the maximum of values education while making the minimum change to the content of the lesson, the curriculum reform expert to show them that this practice was in fact in keeping with the big picture of the national reform and the local education department officials who were able to reassure them that their credibility as teachers would not be compromised by trying the new ideas.

Several of the teachers also expressed concern about the lack of support from their other colleagues who were not involved in the project:

In addition to the examination pressure the leader is only concerned with the results of my class rather than the difficulties I have.

Since this has fairly serious implications not only for the teachers' confidence to continue with the initiative but also for future sustainability, it is essential to provide the appropriate support for this problem. At this stage of the project the main support came from the Education Department officials, who gave reassurance that they were doing the right thing and placed it in the context of the future plans for education reform in the region. However, the teachers themselves pointed out the need for support from their own school leadership. As mentioned earlier, the school principals' support was solicited by the Education Department at the beginning of the project but prior to this stage had been mostly in terms of allowing the teachers to try out the ideas in experimental classes. In the last formal session of the project we invited more active participation by the principals by inviting them to attend a showcase of what the teachers in the project had been doing and then to participate in a forum to discuss how they can develop the ideas further across their schools. Here, again, is an important role for the sponsoring organisation, since it will be necessary to assist with financial support and resources to implement the actions suggested by the principals.

Another obstacle for the teachers as adopters, once they had accepted and understood the basic concept of the reform, was lack of ideas. As the following comment indicates, the subject and curriculum reform experts were the most able to give support in this regard:

In the early stages I did not have any ideas for implementing values education in my classes. After being advised by the [curriculum reform and subject experts] my process became smoother.

It was at this stage that another important aspect of the partnership emerged. This was the role of the teachers themselves. Through observing their peers conducting demonstration lessons and through engaging in reflective discussions about these lessons and their attempts in general, the teachers were able to provide a great source of support and inspiration to each other:

In the early stages I did not have any ideas for implementing values education in my classes, for example deciding on the content. Now I still have difficulty but the guidelines give me great support. The [curriculum and subject experts] and my colleagues give me encouragement and support.

In the early stages I found there were some conflicts between the experiment and the teaching in my school. The professors and my colleague helped me a lot.

In this latter comment, 'colleague' refers to the teacher's partner in the programme from the same school.

In the early stages of 'teachers as adopters' the subject experts asked the teachers to experiment with the use of silent sitting (a technique fundamental to SSEHV, in which students sit silently for a few minutes and tap into their own inner strengths and resources to calm the extraneous chatter in their minds and often to solve problems), since this was something that could be added on as an 'extra' at the beginning of the class without taking up too much time and hence give them some confidence that they were moving forward with the initiative. This was one of the first breakthroughs for many of the teachers because they were able to have some successful results with their students (particularly better concentration and better behaviour):

Silent sitting is a way of thinking, gives people a sense of quiet, they are very free to think about anything and escape temporarily from reality – therefore it decreases the pressure of work. I use it personally to have a break mentally or physically.

The silent sitting is very good to nurture their study habits. It encourages the students to think, try new things and change their attitudes towards their studies. They are now beginning to see that they are studying for themselves, not for their parents.

Stage 3 Teachers as co-learners. As the teachers moved into the phase of co-learners, the subject and curriculum reform experts and the education department officials discovered that we were able to take a big step back. As the teachers themselves began to exercise their growing confidence and ability to verbalise about the new paradigm in order to deepen their understanding of the concept and how to apply it (Barr and Tagg, 1995) they turned more to their own peers for support.

The teachers who gave demonstration lessons at this stage showed evidence of a considerable increase in their incidental modelling of values that had not been there previously. For example in one Mathematics lesson, on the topic of percentage, the teacher went to a lot of trouble to find up-to-date statistics about social and

environmental problems in China and to set problems that incorporated values education. Apart from this understanding of how to adjust the lesson content, there was an emerging sense of the integration of values education with both the content and the hidden curriculum of the lesson that can be characterised by the combination of a number of features such as:

- encouraging children to think for themselves and discuss (Right Action)
- encouraging children to help and support each other (Right Action, Love)
- accepting their answers, not making them feel bad if they made a mistake (Love)
- creating a 'safe' environment, with children feeling safe to try ideas and learn from mistakes (Peace, Love)
- showing they valued what children were saying – teacher listening to children and children listening to each other (Love)
- using homework to ask children to research other areas related to both percentage and values.

The teachers were still concerned that they were faced with the obstacle of having to fit in with all the time and curriculum constraints as previously and also expressed their concern about the lack of time to prepare the new values-related materials – but the teachers themselves became the dominant players in the partnership and learned a lot from observing each other and discussing

Stage 4 Teachers as reaffirmers or rejecters. As the teachers began to raise more complex questions and issues, it indicated that they were now moving to the phase of being concerned primarily about the impacts of the innovations on their students. For example, they were ready to explore deeper and enhance the quality of their teaching further.

What can we do now to deepen our personal understanding of the values and to deepen the experiment?

How can we improve the quality of our classroom teaching [in relation to eliciting values while offering rich pedagogical experiences]?

Furthermore, they were showing signs that they were becoming concerned about a holistic integration of values education, including how it impacted upon discipline in and out of the classroom:

I try to use love to move my students – if every teacher treats them with love then sometimes there is no punishment at all, so sometimes I have a very good relationship with the students, sometimes they are disrespectful.

I have one doubt – if we just teach students in a positive way, if we avoid them seeing bad things, how can they learn to discriminate? If they don't see the ugly, how can they appreciate the beauty? Is it good to just show the positive things? How about the negative things? For example, I have taught my children that when they go to another person's room they don't touch things and make a mess, but then others come to our room and do this, so the children wonder why others can do this and they can't.

Another interesting question that reflected a deeper level of thinking was concerned with the effects of the values education strategy on children who are at different stages of their character development:

About the power of love: If there are two seeds and one is very strong but the other is not so good – if I give love to the not-so-good it still won't grow as strong as the good one, so is it better to concentrate the love on the strong one?

They were also starting to think, at this stage, about the interactive effects between school and home:

A colleague told me "5 plus 2 = 0". I didn't understand. She told me that 5 means the 5 days in school, 2 means the 2 days outside school, maybe equals 0 because the effects of the two days at home can undo the effects of the five days at school – the effects may be negated by outside things. How can we connect family and community education with school education?

Sometimes I feel there is some difference in the students' behaviour – they are good in front of their teachers but different at home. I have been surprised to hear they do bad things at home, even to their own grandmothers they have been rude, therefore we must keep in close contact with their families so we can know the two sides of the children.

Another issue raised at this stage, for the first time, was that of evaluation:

How can we evaluate the moral education? We do the experiments but we don't know how to see the effects.

In all of the above, it can be seen that, although the questions they were asking were more complex than those they were asking in the earlier stages of the project, the teachers reverted to their former dependence on the facilitators to provide answers rather than attempting to suggest solutions themselves. Therefore, the facilitators structured problem-solving tasks for the fourth face-to-face session (see Figure 36.1) in such a way as to provide some useful information but to put the responsibility for thinking about the solutions onto the teachers themselves.

The teachers also began to ask questions about how to move beyond their own classrooms and integrate values education as a whole-school approach. They seemed to be no longer thinking of it as a fragmented thing applicable only to their experimental classes but as a total school programme, in and out of class.

It was interesting to note that at this stage they were turning more to the Education Department officers for support with policy-related matters than to the curriculum experts for support with pedagogical ideas. It was clearly important to them to have official support of the ideas that the curriculum experts were portraying and that they were beginning to come up with for themselves. However, with the pedagogical ideas they seemed to have developed a greater independence to think of their own strategies and to give feedback to each other. Examples of the feedback given by the Education

Department officers at this stage include:

[In response to the teacher comment: 'I really love my students, am seldom angry with them. For example if they drop rubbish, the first time I tell them not to do it, the second time I take them to see how dirty it is. If they still do it a third time, those who throw rubbish have to clean the school for a week – then they stop. Sometimes this is not advocated now, so I could get into trouble.'] *We must distinguish this kind of penalty from those that will hurt the students psychologically. This type won't hurt them psychologically.*

The above reinforced the teacher's need for official endorsement that what she was doing was acceptable with regard to policy, irrespective of whether or not it was good pedagogical practice.

[In response to teachers' questions about discipline policy, competition and community expectations] *Teacher practice is important – whatever you ask students, you should also do first. Teachers must love the students – this is the foundation of EHV. This doesn't mean love without any kind of punishment – if students form bad habits, if you don't use 'punishment' you can't get good effects – but first there must be clear understanding about the whole situation and make the right kind of punishment. Silent sitting is a main characteristic of EHV – what can we do to make silent sitting better? EHV must exist everywhere, so don't think that just the content is EHV, everything we do is the process of doing EHV. Competition: In relation to EHV, I don't think EHV must avoid competition. EHV is not evaluated by academic knowledge – the purpose of these experiments is not only to improve academic achievement, but to develop character; therefore you must send this message to your headmasters. One problem in Chinese education is that the family, community and school education are separated – this must be changed so the school and parents have a close relationship. The evaluation by academic achievement alone is a shortcoming of the education system so don't worry – this will change. Try to fill in the gap between school education and family education – keep in close contact with parents by phone calls and visiting family.*

Again what the teachers required here was official reassurance that they were on the right track from a policy, as opposed to a pedagogical, point of view.

Stage 5 Teachers as Leaders. At this stage of the project there is only a small number of teachers emerging as leaders. One, for example, has written an article for a professional journal in the district describing some practical applications of education in human values in the curriculum based on his experiences. Another has set up a whole-school integration programme in Mathematics and Chinese Language with future plans to expand to other subject areas. It appears that as the teachers move more into the role of leaders in their own schools they will become concerned mainly

with policy-related support, hence the dominant partners will be the Education Department and the school principals. It is also envisaged that the sponsoring body and the Education Department will have active contributions to make at this stage in terms of financial and incentive support to sustain the initiatives and expand them to a school-wide level.

DISCUSSION

In this chapter we have described the roles of various partners in contributing to teacher professional growth in developing a curriculum reform over a 20-month period. Five main partners played key roles at different stages of the teachers' growth. The subject experts were critical in helping the teachers to understand the concepts and philosophies underlying the reform and to give specific examples, resources and feedback, especially in the early stages of the programme. The curriculum reform experts were important to reinforce what the subject experts were saying in the overall context of the reform. The Education Department officials' participation was necessary to provide professional incentives for the teachers to sustain their participation and to provide support and reassurance about policy-related matters, and their role became stronger as the teachers' knowledge and understanding of the reform became stronger and they started to think of wider issues. Financial incentive to participate was given by the sponsoring body and was another critical component of the sustainability, particularly at the times when the participants could have been tempted to give up. The participating teachers themselves became critical partners, particularly once they had grasped the basic ideas, as they became a source of support and inspiration for each other. A sixth group, the school leaders, have been tacit supporters of the project to this stage, but are anticipated to have a more active role in the partnership as we move into the next phase of encouraging the teacher to take on leadership roles in extending the programme to become school based. It appears from the examples presented in this chapter that the combined effects of the various partners were effective in helping teachers to overcome the different kinds of obstacles that they encountered at different stages of their growth.

One particularly interesting outcome was the way in which the teachers themselves emerged as significant contributing partners within a fairly short time. In this study we invited two teachers from each school in order to ensure some peer support within schools as well as between schools. However, given the importance of teachers as partners that emerged from this study, it is recommended that in future programmes we will invite four teachers from each school in order to strengthen further the potential for peer support.

Another interesting question that has arisen from our experience is the best time at which to involve the school principals. At the beginning they were willing to allow their teachers to participate but were not really interested and, for example, did not accept the invitation to attend the opening ceremony or any of the face-to-face sessions. However, in the longer-term their active support is needed if the innovation is to be sustained or expanded school-wide. Therefore we decided to try training the teachers

first, then inviting the principals to a showcasing of what the teachers have achieved, after which we consulted them about how to move to a school-wide basis.

One further implication that has emerged from our experiences is the need to make provisions for helping teachers to find suitable resources and adapt teaching materials, since the time required to do this task was one of the biggest obstacles they described throughout the programme. Hence, a recommendation for the future sustainability is to make provision for the sponsoring body to support the employment of an administrative person to assist with this kind of material development.

Overall, the experiences of this programme have indicated clearly that the partnership between various stakeholder groups was critical to the teachers' sustained participation and growth within the project. In fact, it is clear that no one partner could have assisted them effectively to overcome the full range of the problems that they encountered. It is suggested that the experiences and insights encountered during this project are not unique to the Mainland China context and that they have implications for teacher professional development universally.

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37. TEACHER EDUCATORS' COLLABORATIVE
INQUIRY IN A CONTEXT OF
EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION
IN CHINA – A CASE STUDY OF
RICH AS A LEARNING
COMMUNITY

NEW CHALLENGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS

In the last two decades, the promotion of life-long learning has become a major theme in global educational reform. As Knowles (1988, in Boud 1988) points out, the traditional emphasis in education in producing knowledgeable persons tends to give way to a new vision about nurturing autonomous life-long learners. In order to actualize this vision, higher education must focus on “the process of learning, with the acquisition of content (rather than the transmission of content) being a natural (but not pre-programmed) result” (ibid., in Boud 1988, p. 5). Kwakman (2003, p. 149) indicates that such a ‘reform’ trend requires teachers to create stimulating learning environments and act as facilitators in students’ learning processes. As the 21st century carries complex demands on teaching and learning, there emerges a global discourse on how teachers can be supported to become professional learners, and be prepared for the new roles as facilitators and co-learners (Kwo, 2002; Cochran-Smith, 2003; Kwakman, 2003). In order to meet the complex demands of preparing teachers for the 21st century, teacher educators are facing new challenges and should become a central focus in the contexts of educational innovation. However, as Cochran-Smith (2003) points out, little attention has been paid to educating and supporting them. Just as most teachers feel isolated in their own struggles to face new demands (Intrator, 2002; Huffman and Kalnin, 2003), teacher educators also have similar problems.

In fact, traditional approaches for professional development, such as institution-based training courses, academic conferences, individual study of academic journals and books, are often inadequate in leading to effective outcomes and limited in provision of sufficient places for the teachers in need. An alternative track for many teachers is to engage in meaningful professional development where they can work with one another collaboratively as a community (Little, 2002; Bullough and Kridel, 2003; Burbank and Kauchak, 2003; Cochran-Smith, 2003; Huffman and Kalnin, 2003). Kwakman (2003) explained the reasons for the call for collaboration as:

... feedback, new information or ideas do not only spring from individual learning, but to a large extent also from dialogue and interaction with

other people. Moreover, collaboration is assumed to create a learning culture and helps to build a community in which further learning is supported and stimulated.

(Kwakman, 2003, p. 152)

She continues to summarize ways of professional learning into four categories: reading, doing or experimenting, reflection, and collaboration (ibid.). If teachers are to be prepared to respond to such a call for collaboration, it is instructive how teacher educators can become ready for facilitating such professional learning.

BEING IN RICH, THE COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

As a teacher educator of eight-year experience at a university in China, I have witnessed the isolation, the challenges of innovation, and the experience in the community of practice since the very first day. I had to prepare students to be qualified teachers while I myself was struggling to be a qualified teacher educator. Sometimes I was desperate to share my problems, struggles and good ideas with someone else. However, it seemed that collaboration was not the mainstream culture in my college. In the 1990s, the government in China intended to promote quality-oriented education, which also gave a big stir in the field of English language teaching. Criticisms of English teaching, such as producing 'silent English' (i.e. the phenomenon that students have been studying English for many years but are not able to communicate with others fluently and effectively), overemphasis on the result instead of the process, were widely and quickly spreading all over the country. Changes to English textbooks in middle schools that were based on communicative theories took place in the early 1990s to respond to the criticism and call for teaching innovation. However most teachers in middle schools ended up feeling challenged and stressed because they were not professionally and conceptually ready for the new textbooks. Such challenges and stresses also affected me because of the need to rethink how we could educate teachers who would grow up with the new textbooks and be able to teach them. There were no simple answers but many questions, and I was not the only teacher who had these questions.

Following the shared interest, some of my colleagues and I initiated a bottom-up curriculum innovation in 1997 in response to the national call for curriculum innovation and quality-oriented education. We put away the textbooks that had been used for many years and launched a task-based learning (TBL) project in the course of Comprehensive Reading. The innovation was named RICH in 1998, an acronym for Research-based learning, Integrated curriculum, Cooperative learning, and Humanistic outcomes. The aim of RICH was to help students to become autonomous life-long learners with critical thinking, open-mindedness, creativity, and sense of responsibility. For the teacher educators involved in this innovation, changes in practice extended to content, methodology, evaluation, as grounded in conceptual development of teaching and learning.

However, the journey of the curriculum innovation has brought us more challenges, stresses and struggles than expected, for example, the change of teachers' roles in and

outside the classroom, the unavailability of the resources, and the conflicts with the mainstreams of learning and teaching in the college. Allwright (2002) suggests that classroom language teaching and learning is essentially an interpersonal social matter and therefore both teachers and learners need 'social expertise' to help them to achieve a 'quality of life' in the classroom, which can be best pursued by working to understand that life, not by treating it as a series of 'technical' problems to be solved one at a time by purely technical pedagogic solutions (e.g. better teaching material). RICH, therefore, enables its participants to bring up their own motivation, reflection, and develop social expertise, generate local knowledge, theorize their practice, interpret and interrogate the theory and obtain their understandings towards the innovation, learning and teaching, and their own professional development.

As a key member who got involved in RICH at the very beginning, I benefited a lot from 'being-in-RICH', such as expanding my vision and changing conceptions of teaching and learning, becoming more confident, supporting and being supported mutually, and developing teacher knowledge. The term of 'being-in-RICH' is borrowed from Heidegger's 'being-in-the-world' indicating 'a sense of involvement rather than mere physical presence' (Donnelly, 1999, p. 935) and used to reflect the interdependence of teacher educators and the community of RICH in which they exist. However, the understandings of RICH as a learning community for teacher educators still remain unexplored, for example, the development and functions of RICH that sustain and / or constrain teacher educators' learning, the relationship between teacher educators' learning and the community of RICH. Although such understandings may be of local relevance only and so directly of use only to the people who can 'live' their understandings (Allwright, 2002, p. 2), it is still worth trying to obtain the understandings of RICH due to the fact that we may get better at 'expressing (if only partially) the ultimately inexpressible' as Allwright (2002, p. 2) suggests that we may not be able to put all our understandings into words. Therefore, it is meaningful to explore how RICH can help teacher educators to break the isolation and facilitate their professional learning to develop their knowledge for / in / of practice (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999), and how teacher educators' 'being-in-RICH' help them to achieve their understandings. Freeman (1996, p. 89) suggests that we have to know the story in order to tell the story. To be able to tell the stories of RICH, I intend to explore RICH as a learning community for teacher educators in the light of the relevant theoretical framework.

KNOWLEDGE BUILDING IN A COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

Perspectives of a community of practice

Wenger et al. (2002, p. 4) define a community of practice as a group of people 'who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis' and suggest that it should be a practical way to manage knowledge as an asset. Though there are different interpretations of the nature of knowledge, Wells (1999) suggests that the

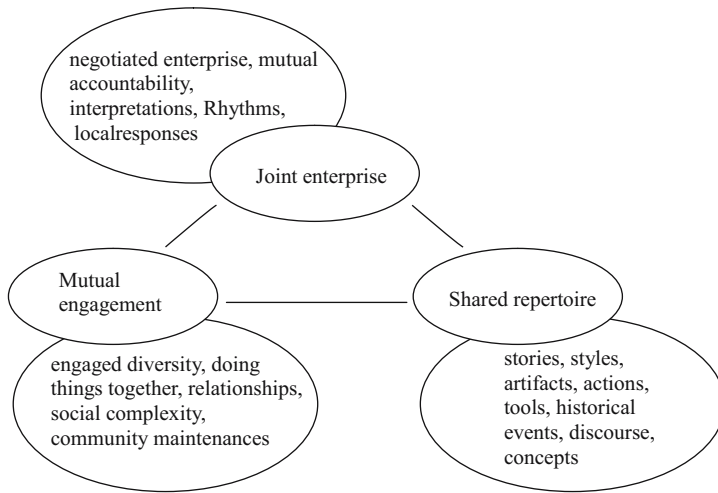


Figure 37.1. Dimensions of practice as the property of a community (Wenger, 1998: 73)

main concern should be with ‘knowing’ and ‘coming to know’ rather than knowledge. He expands Vygotsky’s social constructivist theory and proposes a model of the spiral of knowing as a way of thinking about the relationship between experience, information, and understanding, in which collaborative knowledge building plays a central role through dialogic inquiry in a collaborative community (ibid.). Wenger (1998, p. 72) describes three dimensions of a community of practice as mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire (see Figure 37.1).

She (ibid., p. 85) further describes the community of practice as ‘a locus of engagement in action, interpersonal relations, shared knowledge, and negotiation of enterprises’, which holds the key to real transformation effecting on people’s lives. She (ibid., p. 214) points out that a community of practice will become a learning community when it is a privileged locus both for the acquisition of knowledge (i.e. to give newcomers access to competence and also invite a personal experience of engagement) and the creation of knowledge (i.e. to explore radically new insights). Thus, teacher educators’ knowledge for/in/of practice will be connected and catalyzed in such a locus as Lave and Wenger (1991, p. 100) declare that ‘the place of knowledge is within a community of practice’.

Collaborative inquiry as way of knowing

It is necessary to note that a community of practice is not intrinsically beneficial or harmful (Wenger, 1998, p. 85). To facilitate professional teacher learning in the community of practice, Kwo (2002, p. 2) argues that teachers should ‘re-equip themselves for inquiry in a collaborative culture’. Cochran-Smith (2003, p. 7) also suggests

... the education of teacher educators in different contexts and at different entry points over the course of the professional career is substantially enriched when inquiry is regarded as a stance on the overall enterprise

of teacher education and when teacher educators inquire collaboratively about assumptions and values, professional knowledge and practice, the contexts of schools as well as higher education, and their own as well as their students' learning.

(Cochran-Smith 2003, p. 7)

The term 'inquiry as stance' is used to describe 'the positions teachers and others who work together in inquiry communities take toward knowledge and its relationships to practice' (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999, p. 289). Therefore, to take an inquiry stance is for teachers to work in an inquiry community to generate local knowledge, envision and theorize their practice, and interpret and interrogate the theory and research of others (ibid.). They continued to argue that such inquiry is both social and political since it involves 'making problematic the current arrangements of schooling; the ways knowledge is constructed, evaluated, and used; and teachers' individual and collective roles in bringing about change' (ibid.). The professional literature and conferences reveal various forms of practitioner inquiry including 'teacher research', 'action research', 'autobiographical inquiry', 'self study', 'reflexive inquiry' (summarized in Cochran-Smith, 2003, p. 8). These researches indicate the emergence of new terminology and contexts and reconceptualization of the role of teacher educator and a valuable way to think about the ongoing education of teacher educators (ibid., p. 9). Such collaborative efforts of inquiry have been proved to be powerful tools and strongly support teachers in 'building contextualized knowledge of their students and community' (Huffman and Kalnin, 2003, p. 570), and promote learning and teaching for understanding (Hargreaves and Fink, 2000 and McLaughlin, 1997).

Narrative inquiry as way of understanding

Wenger (1998, p.134) argues that a community of practice is about knowing, but also 'about being together, living meaningfully, developing a satisfying identity, and altogether being human', which has granted the role of narrative inquiry in it. Connelly et al. (1997) believe that teacher knowledge is not something objective and independent to be learned and transmitted but is the sum total of the teacher's experiences and thus we all live inside stories. Teacher educators' knowledge in RICH are also being and living in stories. Stories of RICH, i.e. the stories that teachers are expected to live and tell about RICH, and RICH stories, i.e. the stories teachers personally tell about RICH, are vital, which interplay dynamically on teachers' professional knowledge landscapes (Connelly *et al.*, 1997, p. 674). Craig (2003, p.817) claims that the narrative authority of teacher knowledge explains "how teachers develop their knowledge transactionally" and provides "justification for teachers telling and writing stories of their reform experiences, the narrative view of teacher knowledge". The narrative-based collaborative inquiry in the culture of community will then enable teachers to develop and express the narrative authority of their personal practical knowledge in the company of other knowers through negotiating the meaning of their experiences and making their personal meaning public and shared (ibid.). Johnson

and Golombek (2002, in Johnson, 2003, p. 790) further explain the significance of narrative inquiry:

We believe narrative inquiry, conducted by teachers individually or collaboratively, tells the stories of teachers' professional development within their own professional worlds. Such inquiry is driven by teachers' inner desire to understand that experience, to reconcile what is known with that which is hidden, to confirm and affirm, and to construct and reconstruct understanding of themselves as teachers and of their own teaching.

(Johnson and Golombek, 2002, in Johnson, 2003, p. 790)

In this sense, narrative inquiry is both the subject and approach for being, knowing and understanding in RICH.

AN EPISODE IN A RICH SEMINAR

On January 17, a seminar called "Retelling the stories of RICH" was organized. When I put up the poster in the notice area in the college two days before the seminar, I was sure it would not draw a big crowd, although the seminars organized by RICH were open to teachers and even students in our college who had an interest in the topics. January 17 was the last day of the term and only two weeks from Spring Festival. But I was also sure that the key members of RICH (i.e. Huang, Zheng, Hu, Ying, Wu) would be there. Wu had just returned from England after 3 years of doctoral study. Not only did we learn a lot of new terms and ideas from Dr Wu, such as reflection, identity, and narrative inquiry, we were also invited to work with him to teach his new course, called Curriculum and Language Teacher Development, in the following semester. We took this as a chance to learn from him and to challenge ourselves. Some seminars had been held to design that course, for example, on January 2nd, a seminar was held to discuss 'what is teacher development' and another one dealt with proposals for curriculum design on January 11th. In addition, many discussions occurred informally concerning the course and RICH.

Discussion about Hu's proposal

At 1pm in the afternoon, Zheng hadn't arrived yet. Hu didn't discuss her proposal in the previous seminar on January 11th. She printed her proposal and gave copies to those present this time. In addition to four RICH members, three other teachers came, i.e. Yumei, Jiang and He. Huang as the head of RICH initiated the actual start of the seminar:

It's sunny today. We're in the RICH office. We're going to retell stories of RICH. Let's begin. Have a look at Hu's proposal.

However, the conversation was interrupted by digression about the mobile phones given by the college as an extra bonus at the end of this term and a visitor to the office. I was sitting beside Hu and had a discussion with her about her proposal.

Wu joined in by asking how to translate the word 'reflection' into Chinese. Others contributed to the discussion from different perspectives.

More than half an hour later, Wu asked Zheng to tell a story, about 5 or 10 minutes in length, saying that any story would be OK. In effect, Wu's invitation to Zheng to tell a story not only brought the interaction back to the theme of the seminar but also opened up the opportunity for professional learning for everyone present.

Zheng's told story

In response to Wu's invitation, Zheng told the following story:

I used to teach Extensive Reading. In 1997, I saw RICH was conducted in many classes. I then decided to observe some classes. At that time, one class left a deep impression on me. In Class 963, Yan made a presentation on the topic of 'Unemployment'. She found a lot of the latest statistical information and introduced it in class. I was listening. My feeling was like, wow I could learn about so much information while observation. In addition, it was presented in English. Suddenly, I felt that this was the right way to learn language. This was the most natural studying method. It seemed that I suddenly saw the light. This method was great! I changed my opinions. Later I decided to teach Intensive Reading. Extensive Reading is too limiting. They were using this method in Intensive Reading, if I did the same thing, there would be too much of a burden on students. I should change my teaching subject. Since then I had this idea. It was so impressive that I could still remember it now. This was one story. There was another ...

It seemed as if Zheng was inspired after telling one story and had more to tell. But Wu interrupted and asked her if it was possible to write down this story. He asked if Zheng could try to recall it with as many details as possible, such as the students' small movements, a sound, a sound of footsteps, anything that once impressed her, the kinds of details which were crucial to help her change suddenly.

Hu's lived story

At that moment, Hu stood up and took out her own recorder and started to record seminar. Wu noted this and made a comment:

Why are there three recorders here suddenly? Three! Oh?

He then asked Hu:

Now I ask you, why did you suddenly want to take out the recorder?

Wu continued to ask questions and make comments as well to explore why Hu started to record after Zheng's story and what happened at that moment. Hu responded with various points. Thus, reflection-on-action naturally occurred. Hu's action of recording and the following interaction became a lived story of reflection and a sample of narrative inquiry, which the participants had just heard about.

Closing down

While Wu was questioning Hu about why she started to record at that moment, other participants got involved in the whole process of inquiry. Zheng tried to close down the discussion, but she actually brought in her relevant story:

I found that on many occasions when I was talking with others, for example, after our meeting that day, May went to my home and we kept talking all the time. Then, I suddenly realized that we should record the conversation. I found my recorder immediately and recorded the rest of our conversation. That evening, we also continued our conversation on phone. I found many times I had the awareness of recording the conversation.

Inspired by Zheng's story, Huang also told her story:

Oh, yeah, recording. After meeting that day, we three people walked together on our way back home. Wow! The conversation that we had was great. I was so regretful. How wonderful if I had recorded it! ...

After discussing reflection, engaging in some story telling and discussing the writing of narratives, Wu asked others present to tell stories. Thus, this episode ended.

FEATURES OF COLLABORATIVE INQUIRY
IN THE RICH COMMUNITY

Narratives as a way of constructing knowledge

It was no surprise that the January 17 seminar was full of stories since the topic was to tell stories about RICH. The surprise was the power of the stories and how it could help teachers to deepen their understanding.

At the beginning of the episode, although everyone tried their best to understand what reflection was and how to put it in the course, the result was not effective enough to make Hu take out her recorder. However, after Zheng told a story, she stood up, took out the recorder and started to record even though three recorders were already on. Olson and Craig (2001, p. 668) believe that "teachers authentically share their stories of practice in safe places, i.e. knowledge communities, in order to make their personal practical knowledge explicit to themselves and to others". Zheng was trying to make her personal practical knowledge explicit to herself through telling a story, and at the same time she made it explicit to Hu as well, or Hu would not have taken out the recorder. In this case, Zheng's story was told while Hu's story (i.e. suddenly starting to record) was lived. Both stories, told or lived, express their personal practical knowledge of their experiences to themselves and to others.

The power of Zheng's story could not occur without the inquiry concerning it. Following her told story, Wu inquired about how to write the story down, and after Hu's lived story, the participants were all involved in this collaborative inquiry. We found 5 out of 8 participants made contributions. Although the other three did not say anything, they were also thinking about this story according to my observations.

Inspired by the discussion about why Hu started to record at that moment, Zheng told another story concerned with recording dialogues. Then Huang told a similar story. However, Wu continued to inquire about what a story should be by comparing Hu's lived story with Zheng's and Huang's told stories. It seems that inquiry played a crucial role in making sense of the narratives. While teachers expressed their personal practical knowledge through told and lived stories, they both shape their own knowledge and are shaped by the knowledge of others (Olson and Craig, 2001, p. 670).

Collaborative Reflection as way of understanding

Although reflection could be done individually and collaboratively, the episode has revealed the significance and power of collaborative reflection mainly in two ways. First, collaborative reflection brought forth engaged a significant diversity of perspectives in a short time, which seems not to be easily achieved by reflecting individually. In this episode, when Hu's proposal was discussed, different participants engaged in the collaborative inquiry with various perspectives for the first half an hour of the seminar (See Figure 37.2). In addition, they only got the proposal at the beginning of the seminar. Participants brought in different issues, negotiated, responded and interpreted, which created many opportunities for their professional learning.

Second, collaborative reflection led to more profound understandings. In the episode, the half-hour inquiry on Hu's proposal not only engaged in a diversity of

People	Content
Wu	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Translation of 'reflection' 2) Film Dead Poet Society 3) Schon' book 4) Reading for this topic 5) Data/story 6) Research on this topic home and abroad 7) Language & thinking 8) Experience of teaching Chinese in UK
Ying	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Subjects and research method in Hu's proposal 2) Schon's paper 3) Awareness of reflection 4) Translation of 'narrative inquiry'
Huang	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Teachers' experience 2) Change of teachers' roles 3) Story of dining with students so as to reflect with them
Hu	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Theory of reflection 2) Teaching plan 3) Reflective teacher & teaching 4) Language teaching & language education

Figure 37.2. Different content involved in Hu's proposal discussion

perspectives, but also made the occurrence of Hu's lived story possible. At the end of that discussion, Wu suggested:

If, in your proposal, if you could show something, not in terms of theories, maybe a paragraph, a transcription, a diary, which is very authentic, you think about it, and then discuss it. It could be better. ... It is very difficult to express clearly what reflection is, because it is in action. How could you use language to express clearly something in action? But language obviously could help you move towards it, and the same with theories. The importance is that you should know which direction you are moving towards. If you don't know that, how could you let others know it? All that you can do is only to talk about the theories. So I think stories and other forms are very important because these forms could catch the key points, not necessarily in terms of theories. Maybe a story could help you understand what is reflection, but theories may not be able to express it clearly.

Hu responded:

You mean that when you are discussing a story or looking at it, what you know is reflection itself. It is not necessary for others to explain what reflection is.

Hu started to realize the importance of stories and achieved a better understanding of reflection and her teaching proposal. When Zheng told her story, the understanding gained here made her take out the recorder. Thus, the lived story happened.

When Hu suddenly took out her recorder, Wu kept asking her why she did so again and again. From Turn 6 to Turn 40, Wu took 18 turns, among which he asked questions 12 times with 10 of them being pretty similar: why did Hu take out her recorder after Zheng told her story? Hu's responses to Wu's similar questions varied from time to time and became more and more profound (see Figure 37.3). From Turn 6 to Turn 13, Hu's reflection was very superficial. When Wu asked a similar question for the fourth time, she mentioned the usefulness of Zheng's story. While the process of collaborative inquiry was moving on, her reflection became much more profound when she

Turns	Response
6–11	Lazy Inconvenient to borrow tapes from Huang
14–22	Thought Zheng's story might be useful in class next term
23–28	Doubted the efficiency of the meeting Not in the right mood
29–32	Unfinished assignments Family commitment Struggling with time

Figure 37.3. Hu's responses to Wu's questions marked with turns

told a 'sacred story' and a 'cover story' (Crites, 1971, 1979, cited in Olson and Craig 2001, p. 669) in her responses (see Figure 37.3).

Turn

- 6 Wu: *Now I ask you, why did you suddenly want to take out the recorder?*
 7 Hu: *Hei hei hei, because I am lazy.*
 8 Wu: *There already are so many. Three recorders are on.*
 9 Hu: *Because I thought it would be inconvenient to borrow the tapes from Huang to copy. I thought it'd be better for me to do it myself. Maybe she'd use them herself. Then it is also difficult to find her.*
 10 Wu: *But why not think of this at the beginning?*
 11 Hu: *First, I thought I could borrow the tapes from Huang.*

(From the tape transcription)

From Turn 6 to 11, Hu reflected on her action of recording due to her laziness and inconvenience of borrowing the tape.

- 14 Wu: *Why did you take it out after Zheng finished talking?*
 15 Hu: *Because I thought I might use her story. So I'd better record it myself.*
 16 Wu: *Do you now know how to reflect?*
 17 Hu: *Eh, I have a kind of sense, but I can't name it.*
 18 Wu: *Do you know now? What she said is much more useful than what we have discussed for such a long time. [Hu laughs.]*
 19 Wu: *Can you see the power of a story? Ah? Ah? We talked so much at the beginning, why didn't you record it? I am inspiring you. She said so little and there wasn't much to it, but you wanted to record it. I ask you, why record?*
 20 Hu: *This is reflection.*
 21 Wu: *What touched you? I am right now teaching on the spot.*
 22 Hu: *The reason is mainly because I thought I might use Zheng's story in class next term.*

(From the tape transcription)

From Turn 14 to 22, Hu thought that Zheng's story might be useful next term. Then she further reflected that she doubted the efficiency of the meeting and was not in the right mood.

- 23 Wu: *We agreed to tell stories today, so why didn't you start recording from the very beginning? You didn't start the machine.*
 24 Hu: *I doubted the efficiency of the meeting at the beginning. I thought it would be like the meetings before, some material. I was not in the right mood.*
 25 Wu: *Then why suddenly record?*
 26 Hu: *Because it is useful.*
 27 Wu: *This is the same as what Zheng said. What she saw that day, in Yu's class. Her feeling of it is the same as your feeling now, though at different levels, aspects and angles. Here, something profound is added, i.e. reflective action is*

happening now. What is happened here? I just want to know why you suddenly decided to record? Three recorders are on, and yet, you still want to take out another one. [Zheng laughs.]

28 Hu: *Because it just dawned on me that it would be inconvenient to find them and borrow tapes.*

(From the tape transcription)

She finally revealed her struggles as follows:

29 Wu: *Inconvenient, but you should set it up at the very beginning. Did it when you came in. Now what I want to know is why only after Zheng told her story, you suddenly ...*

30 Hu: *Because, at first I didn't really intended to tell stories today. Because I didn't have enough time to finish my stuff. I didn't want to come, so I hadn't thought about recording at all. I was in such mood just now. I didn't want to come, because I didn't have enough time to do those things. I haven't handed in my assignments. Then I have to prepare for returning home to meet my child. I have to arrive at home on the 21st, because we have things to do on the 22nd. Like this. Eh, shall I go to the seminar? I'd forget about it. Than after I arrived here, it seems that I haven't been in the mood. Then, when Zheng told her story, I suddenly realized that I might use it and it would be inconvenient to find Huang to copy the tapes, difficult to meet, then ...*

31 Wu: *Since it is useful, why didn't you even want to come at the beginning? How did you suddenly realize you would use it?*

32 Hu: *Because I want to finish my tasks first. My tasks haven't been finished, so I didn't want to come today. There's convention.*

(From the tape transcription)

The above collaborative inquiry process could be summarized in the Figure 37.3.

This process of collaborative inquiry into Hu's lived story in the seminar not only made the practice in the community transparent and participants' personal practical knowledge explicit in the presence of others' (Olson and Craig, 2001, p. 671), it also revealed the tensions involved in the social transactions taking place on Hu's professional knowledge landscape.

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE INQUIRY PROCESS IN RICH

Wenger's (1998, p. 72) dimensions of a community of practice, i.e. mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire (see Figure 37.1) provide guidance to understand the factors that influence the inquiry process. To be specific, factors are presented in Figure 37.4.

Common interests of the participants motivated them to attend the seminar even on the last day of the term. Working together for more than 7 years, trusting relationships were built to provide a safe environment, which enabled participants to tell their stories authentically and make their personal practical knowledge explicit in the presence

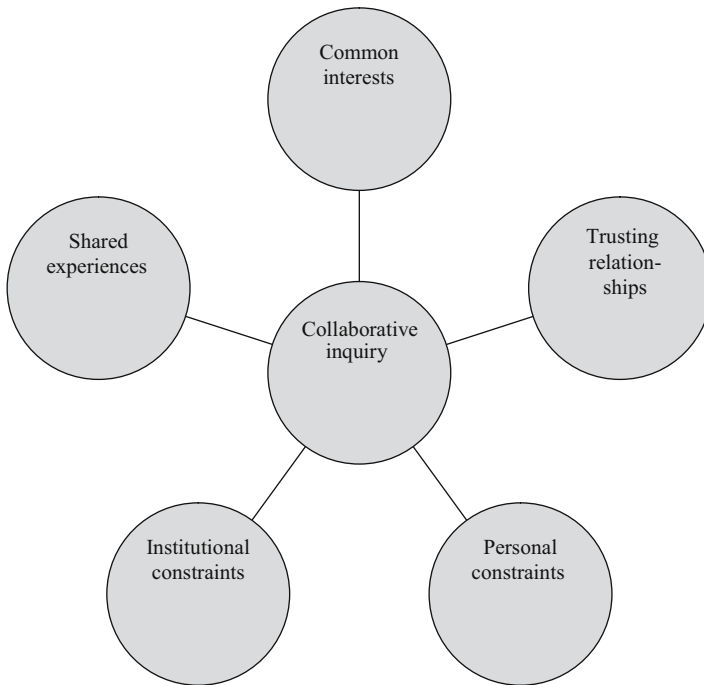


Figure 37.4. Factors that influence the process of collaborative inquiry

of others. Shared experience was another crucial factor. In the episode, Zheng's told story triggered Hu's lived story, and Hu's lived story inspired Zheng's other story and Huang's story. There were many more stories told later in the seminar. The five key members of RICH also contributed a lot of comments and questions while the other three participants seldom did so. All above were partly due to their shared experience involving the curriculum innovation of RICH. Institutional and personal constraints will also affect the process of collaborative inquiry. For example, Hu's reluctance in joining the seminar and the fact that she was not in the mood for discussion were caused by institutional and personal constraints.

PROFESSIONAL LEARNING IN THE RICH COMMUNITY

Knowledge building and understanding in the community of practice

To facilitate teacher's professional learning, the process of collaborative inquiry provided various opportunities for knowledge building. Wells (1999, p.84) describes knowledge building as a process in which 'the individual is engaged in meaning making with others in an attempt to extend and transform their collective understanding with respect to some aspect of a jointly undertaken activity'. The ultimate goal of professional learning is to obtain understanding. Wells (1999, p. 85) takes

understanding as ‘the culminating moment in a cycle of knowing’. He suggests that understanding requires that ‘meaning should be made explicit; understanding is typically more holistic and intuitive’ (ibid., p. 84).

The above episode reveals a unique way of professional learning, i.e. the narrative version of knowledge building and understanding. As Clandinin and Connelly (1998) point out, ‘Knowledge as attribute can be given; knowledge as narrative cannot. The latter needs to be experienced in context’. Instead of learning from academic papers and books, Hu’s lived story in the seminar and the collaborative inquiry concerning it opened up opportunities for all participants to understand what is ‘reflection-on-action’ (Schon, 1987) and what is the significance of narrative inquiry, which also made ‘their practices transparent and their personal practical knowledge explicit in the presence of others’ (Olson and Craig, 2001, p. 671). Hu’s taking out her recorder is ‘the culminating moment in a cycle of knowing’ (Wells, 1999, p.85). She made her personal practical knowledge explicit to herself and others, which was the same with Zheng’s told story. In addition, the follow-up interview revealed some participants thought that Wu’s way of asking questions was very impressive and demonstrated a good way of interviewing, which they could not learn and understand from papers and books.

Creating a shared language culture in RICH

In this episode, teachers’ professional learning not only features the narrative version of knowledge building and understanding, but also features community learning. RICH, as the community of practice, is a safe and story-telling place where teachers narrate the rawness of their experiences, such as Zheng’ told story, negotiate meaning for such experiences, such as reflecting on Hu’s lived story, and authorize one’s own and other’s narrative interpretations of situations (Olson and Craig, 2001, p. 670). Figures 37.2 and 37.3 demonstrate that the RICH community supports shifts in dynamic perspectives that would be impossible to achieve solely through individual reflection and is a place ‘where tensions are revealed and where insights are offered that enable situations to be revisited, reassessed, and restored’ (Olson and Craig, 2001, p. 671). In short, the existence of the community of RICH made the collaborative inquiry possible, profound and meaningful.

On the other hand, the process of collaborative inquiry provided a safe environment, shared resources and trusting relationships and thus helped to create a unique language and culture in RICH. As Wilson and Berne (1999, quoted in Little 2002, p. 918) put it, professional community constitutes a resource for teacher learning and innovations in teaching practice by its specific interactions and dynamics. In this case, all those told and lived stories became shared resources for the community. To refer back to Wenger’s dimensions of a community of practice (see Figure 37.1), the joint enterprise of RICH, the mutual engagement in the process of collaborative inquiry, and the shared repertoire of all told and lived stories in the seminar created a shared language and shaped the unique culture of RICH, which strongly support teachers’ professional learning.

CONCLUSION

In short, this study examines the process of collaborative inquiry in the RICH community to explore how collaborative inquiry helps to facilitate teachers' professional learning in the community and to make personal practical knowledge explicit, by studying the records of situated interaction among teachers in a seminar organized by RICH. Narratives as a way of constructing knowledge and collaborative reflection are essential features of this collaborative inquiry, which make the collaborative inquiry possible, profound and meaningful. Factors that influence the process are also discussed briefly. Moreover, collaborative inquiry not only plays a significant role in the process of building knowledge and understanding for teachers' professional learning, but also helps the community to develop its own language and culture through sharing and reflection.

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SECTION SIX

THE REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONER:
THE WAY FORWARD

38. PARTICIPATION AND THE QUESTION OF KNOWLEDGE

It is quite amazing how a piece of writing is never really finished, how the most carefully crafted and thoughtful essay has obvious gaps and weaknesses when returned to at a later stage. Readers of an academic manuscript may expect more than text that masks an underlying uncertainty. Even so, I find myself wanting to increasingly express my discursive and incomplete thinking as I range across difficult issues in teacher education, encompassing as they do the full gamut of philosophical, epistemological and political problems that society creates.

As I sit back and view the sunset, I am now comfortable with the notion that the best we can do is work through difficult issues with others in cycles of investigation and reflection and attempt to enhance our mutual understanding if we can. It is frustrating to try to find the appropriate words to describe the process and the position reached, while at the same time realising that whatever the choice, the reader must interpret an understanding that is inadequately expressed. Even the esteemed Oxford mathematician Roger Penrose in his latest work (Penrose, 2004, p. 1028) has cast doubt on the quest within physics for a 'theory of everything' and whether it is possible 'to find 'reality' within the Platonic world of mathematical ideals.' If mathematics cannot provide the certainty we seek for explanation and guidance, then my meanderings will never reach a conclusion.

My intention below is to sketch some of these meanderings, the educational and cultural questions that have dominated my life for many years and which I have struggled to resolve. I shall make some comment on research and knowledge and the idea of narrative as a useful construct for personal change and understanding. My thoughts have been strongly influenced over recent times by such matters within the context of Australian Indigenous learning. There is no more difficult or important question in Australian education, indeed within Australia itself and until such time as reconciliation between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples is achieved, we shall all be diminished. We need to seek anchor points within the recognised literature to enable this to occur within education and to provide models of learning that are accessible to all regardless of biography. A critical relationship with knowledge seems to me to be the key in allowing some intellectual purchase on this problem and a willingness to think any thought, to scale any mountain that obstructs our path. But to do so, we need to reach some type of consensus on knowledge itself, to agree on what we are talking about, at least in the short term.

A philosophical framework for thinking about knowledge production may consider human ideas and understanding as emerging from empirical, hermeneutic, or critical investigations. The first approach sees truth or trustworthiness residing in

various forms of experiment and measurement, the second moves beyond mere observation and requires human interpretation of whatever data is at hand and the third, application of a world view that examines personal bias and prejudice, power relations and social purpose. The shift from a more positivist to a more emancipatory frame of knowledge has been an ongoing process throughout the Enlightenment period and is found across the academic disciplines to greater or lesser extents. To this we might add the notion of participatory research that sees understanding arising from communities of learning and research which have an explicit socio-cultural perspective and which engage in the robust contestation of ideas, principles and values as reflective cycles of investigation unfold.

Under these circumstances of critical perspective and participation, knowledge production is non-neutral and generalisable but must always be refined and validated through practice and participation. Experience within an Australian Bachelor of Education program for example and some informal reflections reported below indicates that at least to some extent, a critical participation can form the basis of both teaching and research where staff and students constantly undertake knowledge production and critique over extended periods of time. A central aspect of participatory research is the written documentation of experience and reflection on how the research process itself challenges personal ideas and practice. In this way, research outcomes involve not only new personal knowledge but changes to the researchers themselves which, in the end, is the basis of enduring change. For the author, the drafting of the following reflections on naturalistic methodology as 'understanding in progress' has been another step in that journey.

THINKING ABOUT TEACHING AND RESEARCH

Research as an investigation into knowledge and undertaken from a critical point of view will begin with the question, what is the point of conducting this research if the researchers remain unchanged by the experience? That is, have the researchers learnt nothing about themselves and hold exactly the same views and understandings as they did at the beginning of the project? How will this make for a better world, how will the status quo be altered? Of course, learning, outcomes, or findings are relative terms and can be seen as technical and constraining or critical and liberating. It may be that the work itself is purely or mainly empirical, has scope for interpretation, or can establish a framework of practice and reflection that is deeply challenging of personal values and beliefs. This is the classic contradiction of modern science where research can be conducted for its own sake regardless of the purposes to which the new knowledge can be put. Research of this type is seen as disconnected from our prejudice, bias and irrationality. But research of this type is also a fantasy.

In discussing a reconceptualisation of knowledge within a context of modern and postmodern critiques of curriculum for instance, Moore and Young (2001, p. 459) conclude with a description of knowledge as the 'historically located collective achievement of human creativity.' While positioning knowledge as an artefact of social action, this concept leaves open the process by which such an achievement

actually takes place. For example, two epistemological frameworks are possible when considering how humans go about creating or discovering new knowledge (Chalmers, 1996; Edelman and Tononi, 2000). Both are models to assist our understanding of the human condition at this time. In the first approach, a mind-body duality exists where the mind is separate from both body and brain and there is an absolute distinction between material and mental processes. A second view suggests that mind emerges from the physical properties of matter as encountered in the body, particularly as a certain threshold of complexity is exceeded and new properties such as consciousness are formed. In a broader sense, both models draw sharp distinctions between a theological and scientific explanation of the universe. If mind is 'supra-material' then it owes allegiance to a superior being, whereas if mind is mere matter its existence is simply another feature of the universe and not extraordinary in any way. On this latter basis, the vast reaches of the universe could quite easily be characterised by life and consciousness.

The complexity model (Johnson, 2001) needs to be able to show or at least hypothesise how ideas, values, emotions and morality can arise from matter. This is an extremely difficult task for both philosophy and science. It will involve theorised connections between experience and nature, between action and thought and between feedback, reflection and communication. Such investigations will draw upon the insights of information theory and cybernetics, neurobiology, cosmology and philosophy. An important component of this idea of 'emergence' is a possible explanation of human consciousness, that is how humans are aware of their own histories. This project is sometimes referred to as the 'hard problem' of philosophy (Chalmers, 2002, p. 92) and perhaps the last on which consensus may be reached. For researchers and educators it may be possible to design programs based on certain perspectives of each model without resolving each particular detail. What is important here is that each model is not ignored and that the framework guiding human action of whatever kind is acknowledged, evaluated and changed as human activity and interaction proceeds.

As well as consciousness, proponents of either model must confront questions of neutrality, subjectivity, objectivity and validation and indeed reach agreement on the philosophical baseline before the actual work of projects unfold (Anderson and Herr, 1998; Coulter, 2002; Eisner, 2002). If thought and perspective arise from material and the experience of material occurs in both nature and society, then all ideas develop within a socio-cultural context and cannot be neutral. As humans make decisions and judgements on all experience the results of which ultimately find their way to the brain in the form of electrical impulses, then it follows that the connections between action, experience, nature, society cannot be severed, one is always a part of the other. Rather than an independent mind fashioning human cognition in a manner disconnected from experience, the human organism comes to know through not only connecting with experience, but becoming experience. Rather than the abyss, a movement between subjectivity and objectivity occurs where the knowing subject attempts to establish a relationship with the object to be known with understanding being a function of movement between the two. Knowledge is true when humans agree that it is true at least until new experience casts doubt on the outcomes of action.

Educational research is generally not conducted from an acknowledged and defensible philosophical position. According to St Pierre (2002, p. 26), 'Much educational research, in fact, does not even acknowledge its epistemological grounding, much less take into account the limits of that epistemology and its methodology, in the production of knowledge'. Issues regarding methodology as distinct from method can be assumed. For research in the social sciences particularly when working with local communities where democratic and respectful arrangements are crucial, where the knowledge, wisdom and understandings of groups of people constitute the basis of the research, ignoring such matters will mean that the direction of the research will be poorly defined, problems are more difficult to resolve and interpretations become more disruptive than cohesive.

VIEWING KNOWLEDGE WITH A CRITICAL LENS

The notion of being critical and of developing critique has a long history in both the social and physical fields throughout the modern era (Young, 1990). It has in fact been an important characteristic of the modern era. Galileo, Kepler and Copernicus dared to think about the place of the Earth in the universe against the established wisdom of the church. Marx, Darwin and Freud put forward revolutionary ideas about the human condition. The pragmatic philosophers placed emphasis on practice, enquiry and the individual interest. Bohr challenged Einstein and Newton in regards quantum mechanics, theorists of the Frankfurt School developed a cultural criticism of capitalism, Freire took up the issue of illiteracy and exploitation of the Brazilian peasants. More recently, the postmodern view has identified a range of social features for ideology critique. Researchers always have a very clear choice therefore of seeing their work as being subservient to or being critical of the current socio-economic and scientific paradigm. They do not have a choice of their work being neutral.

A critical theorist is interested in both theory and practice, indeed the theorising of practice and may see each as being the same as the other, that is all phenomena are constituted by a practice/theory unity or dialectic. The research task is to consider the theory that guides practice and the practice that informs theory, to untangle the ideas that are behind every act so that substantial change and improvement are possible. It also means that the participants in the research process must also consider the impact that the research has on them, their views and predilections. As Shacklock and Smyth (1998, p. 4) suggest, 'The intent is to engage in a constant questioning and building up of theory and interpretations through repeated ongoing analysis until a coherent alternative reconstruction of the account is created.' The notion of conversation between ideas and data is important here. If research and knowledge are not neutral but arise from the ideological determinants of society then a dialectical process will also exist between the socio-political views of participants and the emergent understandings. These issues need to be built into the research design, to ensure that personal, political and epistemological perspectives are known so that their influence on the research as it unfolds can be dealt with as necessary. The changes that researchers themselves undergo should be explicitly discussed throughout the project

particularly as they impact on the observations, interpretations, analyses and hypotheses as they occur.

For research to take up emancipatory interest, it must be undertaken by groups of researchers rather than individuals, involve explicit linkages with major social and political events, contain the services of a critical friend for advice and experience that the group may not have and expressly locate itself within the critical tradition as mentioned above. This means the full democratic participation of all participants as equals with open discussions regarding ideological positions from the beginning of the project. Tricoglus (2001) takes up similar issues in discussing a tentative protocol for a practitioner critical ethnography and identifies issues such as establishing the purpose and theoretical basis of research, knowing the worldview and context of participants, knowing the data and yourself. In summary, participation is quite a different concept to that of collaboration and needs to include the following features:

- research and knowledge seen as historical and ideological
- context of research dependent on socio-economic and cultural conditions
- research groups seek to transform reality and basis of oppression
- draws upon the explicit understandings and experiences of participants
- unity of practice and theory, ideas and action, method of social praxis
- new knowledge emerges from reflection on broad experiential base
- connects with other social groupings and colleagues for advice, challenge
- validity of knowledge arises from application, communication, negotiation
- transforms consciousness from technical to critical
- lifelong perspective, involving shorter and longer cycles of investigation.

BOURDIEU AND THE FIELD OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

The above discussion reminds us of the work of the French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu, his notions of field and habitus and particularly the relation between them. He describes the 'proper object of social science' (Bourdieu, and Wacquant, 1992, pp. 126–127) as the 'relation between two realisations of historical action' in the following terms:

It is the double and obscure relations between habitus ie the durable and transposable systems of schemata of perception, appreciation and action that result from the institution of the social in the body (or in biological individuals) and fields ie systems of objective relations which are the product of the institution of the social in things or in mechanisms that have the quasi reality of physical objects; and of course, of everything that is born of this relation, that is, social practices and representations, or fields as they as they present themselves in the form of realities perceived and appreciated.

Bourdieu is clear that social science must direct its attention not to the individual but to the field, its properties and positions, meaning that the focus of research projects is to identify, clarify, characterise those features that impact on social action and which can therefore be changed to influence different outcomes. For educational research, the field would comprise in part ideological approaches towards economic

and cultural development, conflict between philosophies of modernity and post modernity, tensions between ontological and epistemological frames of knowledge production, viewpoints of social class, gender, ethnicity. This is clearly complicated work. An analysis of the field would consider the power relations that exist between positions such as the status of research teams when competing for funding from agencies, methodologies that are more qualitative or more quantitative, the question of 'voice' amongst participants, national priorities that emphasise empirical rather than interpretive outcomes. These are seen in relation to the habitus of researchers, their backgrounds, perceptions, culture, worldview and morality, the range of capitals that constitute their very existence.

The significance of Bourdieu's insights for educational research is that the researchers are dislodged from their insulated capsules of neutrality and, regardless of the specific interest of their projects, must confront the realities of interlocking ideology, context and prejudice. These reside in the habitus and need to be exposed for scrutiny as relations and essentials of the research process. Conceptualising educational research as a field for social action, where the ideas and practices of practitioners is a field of epistemological contestation and understanding for all participants will shake dispositions, values, stereotypes to their very foundations.

INDIGENOUS KNOWING: THINKING ACROSS WORLDS

Ruminating on these types of ideas, that is, different approaches to knowledge and learning, the place of participation and how human consciousness actually comes into being for understanding, are central considerations for reconciliation between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples of Australia. Following settlement of Australia by the British in the 1770s and 80s, the overall health and well being of the Indigenous population has steadily declined. The Indigenous people comprise approximately two percent of the overall population and mainly live in cities and towns down the east coast as do most other Australians. A small proportion live in tiny Indigenous communities in remote areas of the country. With the large-scale dispossession of their traditional lands and the resultant destruction of customs and languages, the struggle of the Indigenous peoples has been to live within two worlds while attempting to maintain their own culture and knowledge systems. In many cases, this has proven to be an almost impossible task.

Of particular concern within Australia of course, is how to provide a curriculum in regular schools that is inclusive of Indigenous ways of knowing. Primary schools are better placed in this regard with their integrated approaches, but the segmented nature of the secondary curriculum where knowledge is disconnected amongst itself and from the broader society in which it is located, is a significant factor in the high drop out rate that occurs. Contradictions that exist between the school organization and curriculum and the way that children learn within their communities, become too much to bear. Insufficient attention is given to Indigenous learning styles (Hughes and Moore, 1997) and the notions of family, community, sharing and co-operation that permeate Indigenous life around the world. Learning from the land and natural

environment is another important principle that is overlooked, even though it provides obvious linkages with western science and the school curriculum. Ma Rhea (2004, p. 9) makes the telling point that the incorporation of empirical Indigenous knowledge into western education 'raises the important question of what theoretical and methodological approaches should be adopted' to ensure that such knowledge is treated with respect and is not distorted or misrepresented. These are huge issues that may not have been resolved by dominant settler societies in very many places around the world.

In attempting to grapple with these matters, I have proposed the idea of 'two-way enquiry learning' (Hooley, 2002) that brings together the general approach to inquiry as advocated by Dewey (1963) and 'two-way learning' in the Australian Indigenous context as suggested by Harris (1990). Participation is a key feature of this approach, democratic participation by Indigenous people in their own education and direct participation in the generation and refinement of knowledge over time. If this is to occur, then new forms of curriculum need to be recognised that in fact challenge the authority of existing structures in the way that knowledge is conceived and privileged. Given the importance of oral, artistic and ritual communication in Indigenous communities, these new curriculum forms will need to take due account of human expression in all its forms, rather than the European insistence of writing only. This also means that due respect and recognition for the Indigenous peoples of Australia within regular schools and university programs through more open, democratic and communicative mechanisms should improve the learning for all students whatever their socio-cultural background.

CONSTRUCTING NARRATIVE AS RESEARCH

For researchers concerned with democratic knowing (Reason and Torbert, 2001; Sanderson and Allard, 2001; Schultz, 2001), particularly when working with communities and practitioners, methodologies must be employed that respect and recognise local practices, knowledges and cultures so that findings are grounded in experience and socio-cultural intent. Approaches that utilise narrative are congruent with the philosophy of participatory action research and enable understandings to be fluidly constructed over time as a project unfolds. Polkinghorne (1988, p. 161) has identified two types of narrative that embody these functions. The first or descriptive aims to outline narratives that already exist and provide the 'means for ordering and making temporal events meaningful.' The second or explanatory 'ties together and orders events so as to make apparent the way they 'caused' the happening under investigation'. In drawing parallels between the law and qualitative research, Donlevy (2003) notes that affidavits, opening addresses by lawyers and the summary by judges are narratives accepted by the court as reliable accounts. Juries are involved in a process very similar to qualitative research where recognised procedures are adopted and where narratives, stories and evidence are given from expert witnesses, direct participants and critical friends resulting in outcomes that are taken to be trustworthy.

Within the concept and practice of narrative (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000; Bullough and Pinnegar, 2001), democratic participation is an essential element in the production of new knowledge where greater definition can be given to human understanding of social and physical existence. There is a direct connection and movement between the human capacity for judgement, decision making, ideas and values on the one hand and the rich substrate of experience and reflection on the other. Ultimately, this process leads to a critical consciousness, the capacity of humans to not only be aware of and think about their own biographies, but to provide critique of their own cognition and activity from a moral and political viewpoint.

A holistic and integrated approach to research and knowledge, indeed to life itself, enables participants to reflect upon their experience and to engage a process that challenges personal ideas, values and practices. The following two e-mail messages written by myself as lecturer indicate the role that writing can play in assisting reflective thought and the possibility for critical consciousness. The first describes an incident from an Australian Bachelor of Education class for final year pre-service teachers:

'We could be doing what Freire said!' This comment from a student blew me away, my excitement almost uncontained. It came towards the end of our Year 4 case conference when we were discussing the data as a whole. As the beginning teachers had noted the changes in their own practice and thinking amply shown in the cases, I had taken the opportunity to make a few points about the series of transitions that I see happening throughout the BEd. These are about seven in all I estimate, ranging from a pre-university to university transition and then 3/4 years later, the university to becoming professional transition ie from being a university student to a disciplined practitioner. While the latter is to be expected if the course structure is accurate and enabling, a final transition that is not required of graduates is movement towards that of critical consciousness as described by Freire where our thinking and reflection becomes that of personal, organisational and structural critique for social change, perhaps recognition of a structure/agency duality. The case conference had thrown up comments like 'taking ourselves out of ourselves' an insight that had certainly not been there earlier in the year, although the notion of 'working hypothesis' introduced by myself as critical friend, had been accepted readily as a means for the group to think about and investigate itself. The remark about Freire was hugely significant and spontaneous arising from our consideration of the case data and seemed to me to indicate the growing professional understanding that was present and emerging; is great leaps going too far? To witness new thresholds and ideas condense from the vapours of practical experience is evidence of transformation from one state to another.

(e-mail communication, October 18, 2002)

This is a personal reflection on my part. The comment regarding Freire (Freire, 1998; Glass, 2001) may have been completely innocent, co-incidental. But I suspect not.

The structure of the 4-year Bachelor of Education has been carefully constructed to enable learning by doing, the establishment of partnership teams between the university and schools where team members are immersed in the difficult experience of professional practice and from which they must make their own interpretations. If the structure is reasonably supportive of participant action and reflection, then practice will be underpinned by theory when the need arises, what has been read and discussed will become applicable to guide understanding and new insights will emerge as the mass of complex experience is reached. Hopefully the critical friend as participant will be attuned to such incidents as they occur.

For a researcher concerned with the production of new knowledge from a context of maximum participation, the separation between life and research is blurred. All that occurs contributes to the energy of the brain and its transformation into thought no matter how confused. Conversations with students in the corridor, meetings with teachers at a school, interactions between students and teachers, political events occurring worldwide, a beautiful sunset or dust storm, decisions regarding personal finances, all cannot be excluded from the experiential base, in fact, they form the experiential base. All of these are also generated from the culture within which the research groups finds itself and from which its collective thinking cannot be disconnected. Freire had been discussed to varying extents for example at different times over the previous 4 years and perhaps it had taken this long for the complex structures of the brain to generate a new thought similar to a 'big bang' process.

The second message concerns another personal reflection on the question of consciousness as noted above and stimulated by the experience of class discussions within the Bachelor of Education program and personal reading:

Given the exciting developments of modern science at the time, it is understandable that both Dewey and Freud sought scientific explanation for a theory of mind and human understanding. They differed markedly however on Freud's unconscious that creates its own reality and imperatives and Dewey's consciousness that emerges from experience and links mind, nature and culture. Dewey's view is not that far removed from what is now called complexity theory when he suggests that mind is a function of matter and that consciousness enables humans to learn from experience, to make decisions and judgements and to develop morality. In part, this is the debate between theism and materialism. One hundred years later, it would be interesting to have his assessment of the struggle that cosmologists let alone philosophers now have of uniting matter, energy, information, complexity, consciousness.

Considerations such as these inform undergraduate programs particularly those involving education and knowledge workers such as teachers. A broadly philosophical approach around mathematics and information and communication technologies for example, would refocus learning around fundamental questions of epistemology rather than the mere imparting of skill in classrooms that is of little benefit to anyone. Adopting Dewey's

views as a guide would emphasise the child's theoretical construction of mathematical ideas and a practical reconstruction of their meaning, rather than a simplistic transmission of universal truths that are said to already exist. The problem of entropy made it difficult for both Freud and Dewey to explain how energy is converted into thought, but today's theory of complexity should work in favour of the curriculum designer. To integrate mathematics and ICT into a philosophical investigation of knowledge begins to break open the intellectual straitjacket imposed on children in schools and reconfigures teacher education programs similarly.

Dewey's theory of mind in the era of Darwin, was evolutionary. He needed to be able to show how the brain was able to convert perceptions into judgements with aesthetic and moral value and to go beyond the immediate in space and time. Freud had also believed the connection between psychoanalysis and biology but it was difficult to prove. He placed importance on an emotional past, entrapment in a repressed and intellectual morass, whereas Dewey saw humans drawing on the experience of the past to create a new and reconstructed future. As mentioned previously, the models of cosmology showing how the universe might work, also inform our understanding of mind, if the universe develops and changes in response to the principles of its physical components, then so too does mind. In the end, there is only matter. Structures of formal programs need to locate themselves within the great narratives of the modern era such as these and not ignore the implications.

(e-mail communication November 2, 2002)

Why is the question of consciousness of such importance for the writer, for myself? Why does critical consciousness appear to offer explanation or a way forward when events are witnessed or experienced? From the theory of complexity, it would be argued that the writer's cognitive structures have been established from a working class culture of poverty and factory work, growing up in a coastal and rural environment, intense experience of opposition to war and teaching and teacher union activity. It is not clear as to why this experience has been seen as important to communicate in writing for many years, except a family history where reading and writing particularly of poetry featured, a classical situation of working class literacy. As a broader reading of academic and political texts ensued, the connections between social life and the need to act in a systematic way against exploitation and oppression became more acute. That is, as the connections between practice and theory became more obvious. This lived experience has become dominant and therefore has been transferred to the field of educational research. A person with a more middle class background would have a more middle class approach to research, where their life can be abstracted from research projects and knowledge itself, where 'objectivity' and 'neutrality' can be maintained, if not vigorously defended.

The work of left wing and critical political theorists and of the pragmatic philosophers have combined to make sense of what has been observed and experienced.

There is of course under this approach a limit to how far humans can develop a critique of themselves. If consciousness is a function of matter then it is impossible to be entirely critical of events and personal action and views, we are in fact, trapped by our own constitution. How conscious can we become of our own consciousness and therefore of our own failings, inadequacies and limitations? The writing contained in this paper and the examples of informal yet reflective communication for comment and criticism, show some attempt at making experience and views public as they occur, little regard for correctness and a determination to engage a holistic and socio-cultural approach to research and knowledge.

UNENDING CYCLES OF LIFE

Where do reflections or musing of this type lead, what are the practical outcomes, what is the place of exploratory writing, is there really a dialectic between knowing and doing? As an example of such issues, Figure 38.1 below is an attempt to schematically depict the writer's current emergent thinking about the key features of education and of a tertiary education program in particular. It contains some terms that are beyond the scope of this chapter, but they have been included to give a more complete picture of the issues that need to be incorporated into a comprehensive model of educational practice. There is an attempt to bring together philosophical questions with those that embrace epistemological structure and educational organisation.

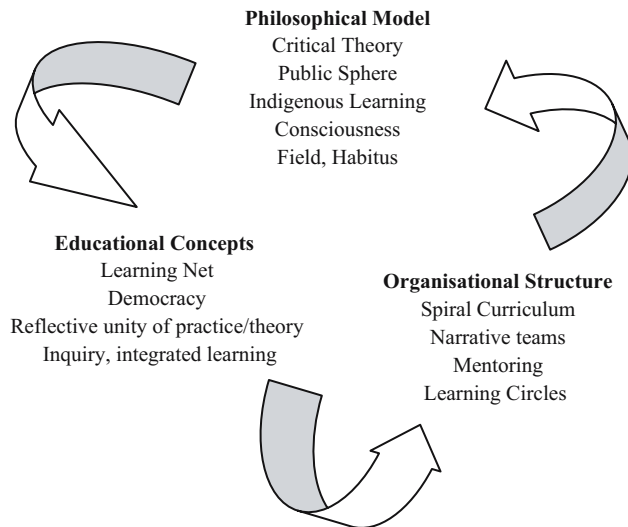


Figure 38.1. Emerging relationship between philosophy, education and organization

They have been identified with the Australian Indigenous issues of reconciliation raised above as determining factors (see Hooley, 2002, for an expanded discussion).

It is difficult to expose one's thoughts as an ongoing and tentative narrative to public scrutiny and criticism as part of a research process, much easier to argue aloofness and disconnection. To not only describe personal thoughts but attempt self-critique and a possible explanation as to their origin, to describe consciousness in action is almost impossible. The 'hard problem' in philosophy of explaining how humans experience the experience of consciousness will remain for some time. What appears possible and necessary is a rich and challenging experience on which systematic reflection can be undertaken with the subsequent generation of diverse views that can be enhanced or rejected. The artefacts of consciousness can be displayed and critiqued but not consciousness itself. This is a significant outcome of the process to this point, that the artefacts of consciousness expressed as ideas, strategies, schema, dilemmas, are central to any research process and are fashioned and refashioned by the acknowledged perspective of the participating group. Perspective becomes a technology working with the ideas-action dialectic. This process demands a life-long commitment to knowledge where all aspects of experience are connected to everything else and where truth although apparently consistent with reality today, may exhibit severe contradictions tomorrow.

AFTERWORD

So where has our reflective and discursive narrative taken us, have issues been encountered that will benefit a more progressive teacher education? I have attempted to write reflectively in narrative form, exposing the thoughts that flow through my mind and which crowd in as an integrated whole. Many of the issues are too difficult for resolution at this time and will remain as background constructs while we struggle with daily practice. For me, Figure 38.1 is an important working diagram for teacher education, containing a schema for new perceptual and conceptual knowledge emerging as a result of experience, reflection and the writing of this chapter. It may not constitute new understandings for other readers and researchers.

The key idea that has occurred to me during the writing of this chapter is that of the connections between Indigenous knowing and critical consciousness and what we can learn from this for teaching and learning in schools. How do teachers work with this connection for example? Some theorising of mind and the place of participation has been included which raises serious implications for the design of tertiary education programs and teacher education specifically. It seems that teacher education programs that concentrate on technique alone and not the full scope of interrelationships contained in practice, will not impact on the world or teachers and children. As a further outcome of the writing itself, the final paragraph above indicates new perspectives for myself, with new references, ideas and avenues to be pursued; 'ideas in action' or 'understanding in progress' is the nature of the work involved. I invite all readers to participate in the confusing and uncertain journey of personal inquiry ahead.

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39. UNDERSTANDING THE SOCIAL SELF:
THE ROLE AND IMPORTANCE OF REFLEXIVITY IN
SCHOOLTEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL LEARNING

INTRODUCTION: 'WHAT IS A TEACHER?'

This chapter is based on three recent research studies into schoolteachers' professional experience carried out by the author and others in England (Moore, 2004a; Moore and Ash, 2004; Moore *et al.*, 2002). The first of these was an action research study involving over a hundred beginning teachers on pre-service courses, in which respondents were invited to keep professional journals to record their reflections and feelings about classroom life, identifying issues – often very personal – for discussion with one or more of their course tutors. The second was a one-year, interview-based study, also involving beginning teachers, that followed ten respondents through their pre-service year in an attempt to identify factors that either hindered or helped the development of informed reflection on practice in the early stages of a teaching career. The third comprised individual and group interviews with eight school principals and approximately seventy primary and secondary school classroom teachers. The initial purpose of this study was to learn more about the ways in which teachers and school principals construct – and perhaps re-construct – their professional identities within contexts of rapid, mandated educational policy change, some of which they may feel less than happy about, and within equally rapid changes in society at large.

All of this research has suggested that beginning teachers, no less than experienced teachers, are engaged in ongoing philosophical and pedagogical repositionings and reorientations in the face of their unfolding professional experience and expertise, and that these inevitably impact either positively or negatively on the development of their professional learning. These repositionings and relocations, which we might wish to be principally informed by constructive, critical reflection on practice, take place within and are strongly influenced by a bewildering barrage of voices or gazes – some dating from our social and educational pasts, some from our ongoing experience – advising or instructing the teacher both what it is to *be* a teacher and what one has to achieve in order to be 'good' at it (Britzman, 1989, 1991; Moore, 2004b). I imagine we all know what these voices are, though such knowledge does little to abate the havoc they can cause. They are the voices of the news media and of films and books and television programmes; the voices of politicians and taxi drivers; the voices of our families and friends, of people in bars and shopping malls and in the street; the voices of our students, of our colleagues – those on and not on the teaching staff – and of our students' parents; the voices of our tutors and mentors; and also the

voices of those remembered teachers from our own school days, the ones we aspire – often self-destructively – to be like. As Hewitson (2004) and others have suggested, these voices do not always chime, often presenting themselves (Britzman, 1991) as ‘cacaphonic’. The voice of government policy, for example, may not always sit comfortably with the voice of our own preferred, internalised pedagogic orientation, and the voices of our university tutors may not always agree with those of our parents and friends. To quote one student in a study carried out by Moore and Atkinson in the late 1990s (reported in Moore 2004a, pp. 41–2):

Every time I go home I'm getting told why [setting students by ability] is better than mixed ability, and why silent working is better than group work, and why everyone should wear school uniform; and I just can't answer it. Every time I start telling them something else, I feel I just can't argue the case. I don't even sound convincing to myself. They just keep telling me I'm following the party line and I shouldn't listen to what I'm told at [the university] because it's all full of do-gooders and lefties, and quoting all these good and rubbish teachers I had when I was at school, and how I got good results in the subjects where the teachers were most strict And then I come back [to the university] and I'm listening to totally the opposite. And when I'm here this all makes sense again, but ... I'm just totally confused.

THE POWER OF PREDISPOSITIONS AND THE OUTLAWING OF THE AFFECTIVE

As has been argued elsewhere, it is the preconceptions and predispositions that student teachers bring with them to their pre-service courses that often exerts the greatest influence on the ways in which they experience and make sense of new classroom interactions and that may present the greatest obstacle to the development of new learning. Afonso and others have argued in this regard that the power of the beginning teacher's prior beliefs and perceptions can be so strong that they act as ‘filters’, affecting the ways in which pre-service programmes themselves are experienced and approached (Afonso, 2001; see also Goodman, 1988; Hollingsworth, 1989; Weinstein, 1989; Britzman, 1991; Wideen *et al.*, 1998). This is a view which echoes Mezirow's wider analysis of adult learning, in which acquired ‘meaning schemes’ and perspectives effectively ‘protect’ the individual from challenging existing assumptions and beliefs, setting up ‘“boundary structures” for perceiving and comprehending new data’ (Mezirow 1991, p. 49). Such schemes and perspectives, Mezirow argues, serve to: ‘diminish our awareness of how things really are in order to avoid anxiety, creating a zone of blocked action and self-deception.’ (See also Rose, 2001.)

The (beginning) teacher, however, is not just exercised by an intellectual challenge in making sense of classroom and staffroom encounters through separating out the false voices from the friendly ones – or, as Brookfield (1990) puts it, of hunting down and challenging their existing assumptions. In addition to this – but fundamentally

and inextricably bound to it – is a project that affects our lives far beyond the confines of the school walls, and that may be seen as the shaping force of each individual biography and each subsequent, very personalised ‘way of experiencing’. This is the more emotional, often less visible human need for the love and justification of our fellow beings: the need for reassurance that we are who – or what – we claim to be and that we are appreciated for being it. As one student teacher poignantly summed this up in a recent research study into the professional learning of beginning teachers carried out at the Institute of Education, University of London: ‘With teaching, it’s not just how you see yourself, it’s about how you see how other people see you: how you see yourself being seen.’ (Moore and Ash, 2002)

I want to suggest that these emotional, affective aspects of classroom experience and professional learning are typically overlooked, marginalized and even pathologised by those other voices telling us who and what we should be (particularly those encountered through government edicts), and that this marginalisation of the affective is precisely what underlies the difficulties many of us experience in moving beyond our ‘boundary structures’. Indeed, one of the reasons why these voices often appear so cacaphonic is that we are invited to make sense of them – if at all – in ways that decontextualise them from our individual histories of ways of feeling, and indeed from our individual ways of experiencing classroom life (McLaughlin and Talbert, 1990). That is to say, we are expected to learn about teaching against some kind of non-affective blueprint as if we could do so without simultaneously developing understandings of who we are, what we want and how we have come to respond to social life in the ways we do.

POWERFUL DISCOURSES

In trying to make better sense of the various imperatives of what we should be and what we should be doing, I have suggested elsewhere (Moore, 2004a) that we locate these voices within larger, overlapping discourses of teaching and teacher education that guide and dominate perceptions of teaching and teachers in the wider social world. I have, somewhat tentatively, identified three of these, which I have called the *competent craftsperson* discourse, the *charismatic subject* discourse and the *reflective practitioner* discourse.

The competent craftsperson discourse, currently enjoying worldwide popularity in the field of teacher education but also, increasingly, in the fields of Further and Higher Education generally (see, for example, Bernstein, 1996), comprehends schoolteaching fundamentally in terms of a set of acquired and discretely demonstrable skills and strategies, to be learned through a combination of formal teaching and practical application. The teacher within this discourse, which has little to say about individuality, local circumstances or reflection on practice (Maguire, 1995), is understood and configured as ‘made’ rather than born (Britzman, 1991). The art of teaching itself can be described in lists of skills and achievements, which often double as the assessment criteria against which teachers’ and student teachers’ performance is judged. The charismatic subject discourse, always popular in the public imagination

and in feature films about teacher heroes and saviours, emphasises, by contrast, the individuality and communicative skills of the teacher, tending to underplay knowledge *about* teaching and representing teachers as born rather than made – or at least made in ways that are informal, contingent and not easily reproduceable. Such teachers are typically portrayed in filmic representations as deliberately ‘throwing out’ perceived wisdom, preferring to rely on instinct and native wit rather than on acquired competences (Dalton, 1999, Mitchell and Weber, 1996). In the reflective practitioner discourse – popular in recent years in university departments offering pre-service and professional development courses for teachers and expounded by, among others Schon (1983, 1987), Valli (1992) and Elliott (1993a, b) – emphasis is given to thinking about and articulating one’s always developing, never perfect practice, firmly grounding new learning in the context of the *practicum*. Becoming more effective as a teacher within the terms of this discourse cannot simply occur through the acquisition and development of skills and strategies or of a more ‘charismatic’ classroom persona, but via informed analysis of the nature and causes of classroom interactions.

Each and all of these discourses, if sensibly and critically engaged with, can provide useful frameworks for the understanding and betterment of what we do, as well as supporting us through the challenges that await us in our many and varied classroom encounters: each and all can help us become ‘better’ at what we do. They all, however, share three common difficulties. The first is that each discourse becomes dangerous when allowed to dominate at the expense of the others: that is, when it becomes the sole or nearly the sole lens through which what we do is perceived, understood and accounted for. This particular difficulty has beset the competent craftsperson discourse in the UK and elsewhere in recent years, suggesting a technicist blueprint for teacher development that leaves teachers and student teachers floundering for advice and support when the universal advice offered by the discourse appears to have only marginal applicability to the particular teaching situations in which the teacher finds herself (for example, in a tough inner-city school whose students do not fit the image of the ideal student implicit in much of this discourse). It has also affected and restricted the development of the reflective practice discourse, in that this discourse has effectively become ‘colonized’ by the competent craftsperson discourse to the extent that reflection itself is seen in terms of a competence rather than a process or function, with the emphasis on its ‘demonstrability’ rather than on its effectiveness (Johnson, 1989). To quote one beginning teacher, frustrated at the constant requirement to ‘provide evidence of reflective practice’ via individual lesson evaluations on her teaching practice:

The whole idea of reflective practice is all very well, but it's very individual, and I think we fall too often into the trap of assuming that reflective practice is x, y and z when perhaps for other people it's different ... It's like with teaching: teaching for everybody is different. ... We've been given these sheets to help us do reflection, to be more reflective in our practice, and on the one hand they're helpful but on the other hand if a

certain thing doesn't happen in your lesson or you didn't pick it up as happening in your lesson, how can you reflect on it? So whilst you may be meeting these dreaded standards, you can't always "evidence" it. And I think one of the things with our society today is that we're obsessed with paper-work, and we're obsessed with assessment. But we're not just obsessed with assessment, we're obsessed with the way that the assessment happens, and the way that it's proven. And I think whilst it's helpful to have frameworks, it's easy to feel that if you haven't ticked all the boxes then in some way you're failing.

(Moore and Ash, 2002, quoted in Moore 2004a, pp. 107–108).

The second difficulty with these discourses is that they tend to have little or nothing to say in response to the stress and upset that inevitably arises from time to time out of the often highly-charged atmosphere of the classroom and the staffroom, other than the platitudinous and futile instruction to 'leave one's emotional baggage at home'. Far from encouraging explorations and understandings of the experiencing self, these discourses – even, ironically, that of the charismatic subject – have a rationalistic turn, traceable to common idealist roots. Within this turn, the individual subject is not only held ultimately responsible for their own conduct but is not encouraged and often not allowed to introduce reflections of personal and wider circumstances – whether present or past – into discussions and explanations of what is going right or wrong.

This difficulty relates closely to the final difficulty, which is that each discourse has the capacity – indeed, in the case of the charismatic subject and competent craftsperson discourses the tendency – to emphasise individual choice, responsibility and (often) blame at the expense of recognising and valuing idiosyncrasy and diversity but also of underestimating the impact and influence of wider social issues and failings on the teaching and learning situation. In a particularly perceptive indictment of the currently favoured competent craftsperson discourse, Bernstein points up this 'personalisation' of the teacher's craft as a somewhat cynical attempt to deflect debates and understandings of educational failure away from social policy failings by concentrating perceived failures on schools, teachers and even students and their families. In Bernstein's words, we are pointed 'away from the macro blot on the micro context' (Bernstein, 1996, p. 56).

THE IMPORTANCE OF REFLEXIVITY:
UNDERSTANDING THE EFFECTS OF OUR PAST ON
OUR EXPERIENCE OF THE PRESENT

The individualising policy turn to which Bernstein alludes is curious in that although it focuses attention away from systems towards individual performance it simultaneously underestimates individuality by way of its universalising tendencies. To summarise this apparent contradiction, we might say that public policy in one respect does focus on the contingent/idiosyncratic aspects of teaching – that is to say, the here and now, the

‘practical and practicable’, rather than on the wider picture, the more broadly applicable theory – but that in doing this it simultaneously promotes a certain kind of universalism that turns us away from other contingent/idiosyncratic aspects such as teachers’ differing biographies and ‘selves’ or the backgrounds and attitudes of their students or the resource environments in which they work.

As has already been suggested, what such a turn tends to bring about is a concomitant underprivileging – at times, almost an outlawing – of the emotional, affective aspects of classroom teaching and of the classroom *experience*. Experience itself too easily gets to be configured within this turn as something ‘out there’ waiting for us to engage with it, when what we should be doing is guiding ourselves towards understandings of the experiencing itself – in particular, why it is that we experience things in the ways that we do, and why and how we experience them differently from one another (why, for example, certain classroom events and interactions particularly please or upset or anger some of us when many of our colleagues appear to remain relatively indifferent to those same kinds of events and interactions and more easily respond to them in a measured and strategic way). Such understanding, which is what I mean here by ‘reflexivity’, involves active, conscious development of self-understanding: that is, understanding our social selves and how those selves have been produced through experience over time.

Anna Freud (1979) famously argued that teachers should not just consider but actually have a *duty* to attempt to understand their own actions and re-actions in the teaching situation in order to avoid the possible negative consequences on their students of a failure or a refusal to do so. To quote Britzman and Pitt’s summary of this position:

... teachers’ encounters with students may return them involuntarily and still unconsciously to scenes from their individual biographies. Such an exploration requires that teachers consider how they understand students through their own subjective conflicts. ... The heart of the matter, for Anna Freud, is the ethical obligation teachers have to learn about their own conflicts and to control the re-enactment of old conflicts that appear in the guise of new pedagogical encounters.

(Britzman and Pitt, 1996, p. 118)

Anna Freud’s suggestion that how we experience life in the classroom may be strongly affected by how we experience and have previously experienced life – including family life – outside the classroom is reflected in a number of projects undertaken by teacher educators that involve the encouragement of practitioners to describe and interrogate their own autobiographies (see, for instance, Quicke, 1988; Schon, 1988; Cole and Knowles, 1995; Thomas 1995). Part of that activity, aimed at helping practitioners to understand more clearly ‘the way in which a personal life can be penetrated by the social and the practical’ (Thomas 1995, p. 5) and to make sense of ‘prior and current life experiences in the context of the personal as it influences the professional’ (Cole and Knowles, 1995, p. 130), involves encouraging individual teachers and student teachers to critique difficulties they may be experiencing in the

here and now within the context of previous roles and experiences they have encountered 'outside' the classroom situation in, for example, their family life or their own schooling, rather than ignoring or denying such encounters. Inevitably, this also introduces issues of *desire* (Hargreaves, 1994; McLaren 1996; Boler, 1999) into understandings of practice:

'What do I want from these interactions?' 'What do others want of me?'
 'What am I afraid of?' 'What do I want to do about the things I don't like here?' – and perhaps the hardest and yet most glibly answered of all:
 'Why did I choose to become a teacher [in the first place]?'

Britzman, and Britzman and Pitt, have pushed this a little further, and rendered the phenomenon more explicit through referencing it to Sigmund Freud's notion of repetition (Freud, 1968, p. 454), whereby we unconsciously seek out new sites for old, unresolved conflicts. The classroom in particular, Britzman and Pitt suggest:

... invites transference relations because, for teachers, it is such a familiar place, one that seems to welcome re-enactments of childhood memories. Indeed, recent writing about pedagogy suggests that transference shapes how teachers respond and listen to students, and how students respond and listen to teachers ...

(Britzman and Pitt, 1996, p. 117, 118, emphasis added: see also Felman, 1987; Penley, 1989; Gallop, 1995)

Such an approach to understanding the difficulties and anxieties we may sometimes feel in the teaching and learning situation may be seen as running counter to the advice often given to teachers, cited above, to 'leave their emotional baggage at home'. This advice, of course, is well meant, but it may be impossible to achieve. What we should really be doing, these commentators seem to suggest, is not so much to leave our emotional baggage at home as to make sure that it is appropriately managed in public places – including, in this case, the public places of the classroom and the staffroom: that it is not, for instance, left in the aisle for oneself or others to trip over; that certain items are better left inside than taken out; and that sometimes there may actually be something forgotten inside the baggage that can help us out of a difficult situation. In other words, the emotional aspects of the classroom experience cannot be denied; nor can they be made to go away by pretending that they do not exist or by treating them as some unwanted sickness. Furthermore, the past never goes away either: it leaves its legacy within us, shaping how we experience and respond to new and often challenging situations and how we proceed – successfully or unsuccessfully – to conflict resolution. The beginning teacher who says to her visiting tutor 'I have tried everything, and everything has failed' may well find herself stuck in an *impasse* precisely because she still seeks answers to her questions in discourses of competence, reflection and charisma rather than adopting a more reflexive turn; that is to say, continuing to configure and understand the problem as 'out there' in the objective relations of the classroom rather than considering the possibility that it might, in part at least, be located 'internally', in some place that is much harder to find.

As has already been indicated, seeking out this other place is not a question of *substituting* the competent craftsman, reflective practitioner or charismatic subject discourses with the reflexive turn, but rather of adopting it ‘outside’ those discourses in a way that makes it easier and more profitable to enter, to understand, to negotiate and perhaps to benefit from them; that is to say, a contextualising function that helps replace morbid, unconstructive ‘self’ criticism (‘Something *in me* is wrong’) with constructive, reasoned, ‘action’ criticism (‘Something *that’s being done* is wrong’). To cite one popular dictionary definition of reflexivity, this is not just an ‘action of mind by which it is conscious of its own operations’ but includes, additionally, the concept of a representational technique whereby part of a picture is ‘illuminated by light from another part of the same picture’ (The *Chambers English Dictionary* 1990, pp. 1233–34): in this case, the part of the picture relating to specific incidents, encounters or feelings is illuminated by the historical, biographical context within which those incidents, encounters and feelings are experienced.

SEEKING A MANDATE: ISSUES OF IDENTIFICATION

Earlier, a young beginning teacher was quoted. With teaching, she said,

it’s not just how you see yourself, it’s about how you see how other people see you: how you see yourself being seen.

This same teacher went on to say:

What you inevitably end up doing is looking at the pupils and judging yourself through them. The children are in your head all the time [...] That exposure ... I mean, I have never been in that kind of situation before. It’s a big thing ... My kind of strengths and weaknesses are kind of really there, in front of me.

(quoted in Moore, 2004a, p. 157)

For a number of beginning teachers taking part in this same study it was a sense of seeing themselves *as their students might be seeing them*, including, in some cases, a very powerful desire to be *liked* by their students, that constituted the dominant gaze on their developing practice. For others, it was a desire to measure up to absent-but-ever-present teachers they had had themselves at school, or had seen teaching impressively at their practice schools. For all ten of the young teachers in this particular study, this sense of exposure was accompanied by a sense of *fear* of exposure (to quote one student teacher, Sarah, ‘There are certain people you’re not going to ever admit to that things are going wrong’): a mixture, perhaps, of wanting to be able to be ‘oneself’ with pupils and colleagues – of *exposing oneself*, in a sense; of being ‘found’ – and of being afraid *to* be found, with all one’s shortcomings there for all to see. In some cases this led to a decision that true exposure could only be countenanced once a certain degree of ‘self improvement’ had been achieved, or in the temporary adoption of a classroom ‘persona’:

It’s a bit of a persona in a way and not really wanting that persona to be too far away from who I am, because then it feels like you are having a

role all day long and I think that's very hard work, having to actually pretend to be someone different.

(quoted in Moore, 2004a: 157)

Though voiced by seemingly very confident people, such confessions may be seen to reveal the sometimes fragile nature of the human psyche and, in particular, the way in which that fragility is put under particular pressure or particularly exposed in the teaching situation. They may also cast some light on the difficulties experienced by some 'failing' students, as well as helping us to understand what makes the 'meaning schemes' (op.cit.) of some adult learners more durable and resistant to modification than others.

By way of exploring a little further these situations and experiences, I want to rehearse, very briefly, some of the ideas of Slavoj Žižek (see also Moore, 2004b), whose interest in our understanding of the social self involves, among other things, taking key concepts of the psycho-analyst Jacques Lacan (cf. Lacan, 1977, 1979) and applying them to the everyday situations and experiences within which we all habitually find ourselves.

Offering a potentially helpful heuristic for making sense of the ways in which we (differentially and individually) experience and make sense of our social (including our professional) lives, while falling short of advising us to adopt the risky pursuit of self-psycho-analysis, Žižek suggests, after Lacan, that each of us develops or achieves a specific identity or identities inside the socio-symbolic world into which we are born. This socio-symbolic world – referred to by Lacan as the 'Other' – effectively 'fixes' our place within it, announcing to ourselves and to others who and what we are. Precisely because these identifications are – or appear to be – produced within the 'Other' we require constant reassurance that we are that which we think and are told we are being. The 'subject', Žižek says:

is always fastened, pinned, to a signifier which represents him [sic] for [others], and through this pinning he is loaded with a symbolic mandate, ... is given a place in the intersubjective network of symbolic relations.

(Žižek, 1989, p. 113)

Developing these ideas a little more fully, Žižek adopts the terms 'imaginary' and 'symbolic' identification to throw light on our professional positionings and the self-understandings in light of which they are made. Imaginary identification here refers to 'the way we see ourselves', while symbolic identification refers to 'the point from which [we are] being observed to appear likeable to [ourselves]' (Žižek, 1989, p. 106). Žižek argues that although each form of identification has, at its root, the individual's desire to satisfy and to be loved, and to find out what action/behaviour is *required* in order to satisfy and be loved, in the case of imaginary identification the subject seeks to emulate, perhaps through the kind of role-playing referred to by one of the beginning teachers cited above, qualities that they feel they have discovered in other individuals (for us, for example, other teachers) in order to achieve the desired effect. In the case of symbolic identification, however, the question inevitably

arises: ‘For *whom* is the subject enacting this role? *Which gaze* is considered when the subject identifies himself [sic] with a certain image?’ (ibid. p. 106).

From the point of view of initial and continuing teacher education and development, what this suggests is that in addition to copying models of ‘good practice’ found in other people, the practitioner will be making a judgement of what that good practice is, not from some ideal, primordial, disinterested point of view, but from a particular perspective within the symbolic order. This may be the perspective of a particular set of shared social practices and beliefs, but it might equally (and simultaneously) be the perspective of a specific individual or group of individuals. Constant references to parents and their views, for example, might be seen as a symptom of a deeper anxiety in the beginning teacher, who feels her/himself to be continually spotlighted under the paternal or the maternal gaze.

For Lacan and Žizek, difficulties arise as a result of a ‘gap’ between ‘the way we see ourselves’ (imaginary identification) and ‘the point from which [we are] being observed to appear likeable to [ourselves]’ (symbolic identification) (Žizek, 1989 p. 106) – typically linked, in the professional field, to the requirement for a ‘symbolic mandate’: e.g. ‘I have been mandated to be a teacher, but what must I be – what am I expected to be – within the terms of the symbolic order, the “Other”, and within the terms of my own image of self, in order to *justify* my role as teacher, in order to be able to *explain* my mandate to myself and to others?’ Žizek argues that it is an ability to move beyond such questions, or to come to view them as unnecessary (i.e. ‘There *is* no mandate to support the role I seek to assume.’) that is necessary if the difficulty caused by such questions is to be removed. Similarly, it is an *inability* to move beyond such questions – an obsessive pursuit of the answer to the question ‘What do others – what does *the* Other – desire of me, beneath it all, beneath the demands that are being made upon me and that I am meeting but still without being liked?’ – that results in continued anxiety, in a sense of failure and lack of self-worth and, ultimately, in failure itself.

CONCLUSION: IDENTIFICATION, REFLEXIVITY AND PEDAGOGY

If such issues may be seen, at first glance, as marginal or fanciful in terms of professional learning, there is ample evidence in the research data – in, for example, stories of moving away from ‘needing to be liked for who I am’ to ‘focussing more on my students’ development, and hoping they may come to like and respect me as a result’, or of adopting classroom ‘personae’, or of overcoming feelings of professional inadequacy, or of being concerned about ‘how you see yourself being seen’ (Moore, 2004b) – to suggest that this particular field of enquiry might offer useful insights not only into understanding the nature of successful teaching but also – and more pertinently perhaps – into understanding how better to support beginning teachers who appear to have many of the necessary attributes for pedagogic success but still find themselves failing in the classroom under the weight of anxiety and of what one of my own student teachers referred to as the ‘over-personalisation’ of difficulties. In terms of the successful beginning teachers in the research study to which I have

alluded, we might say that, for whatever reasons, they had learned – either before joining the course or during it – not just to be pragmatic and eclectic in terms of classroom *practice* but (another thing altogether) to be ‘comfortable with a [social-professional] *self* that is complicated and inconsistent’ (Laupert, 1985, p. 193, emphasis added). Furthermore, this was something of a requirement for the development of authentic reflection on their practice leading to improvement *in* that practice. We might not unreasonably hope that a deeper understanding of how they have achieved such relative comfort, or of the impact of previous and ongoing experiences *on* that achievement, might provide us with invaluable help not only in offering appropriate support in the development of our students’ own reflective practice, but in working with student teachers for whom such an achievement comes far less easily and whose accomplishment is likely to require far more pain.

In this regard I have offered Zizek’s analysis, like that of Britzman, somewhat tentatively but nevertheless optimistically. Their ideas – and those of Lacan (1977) and Freud (1968) on which they are to a degree predicated – offer us exciting possibilities which require a lot more careful thought on our part if we are to make the most effective use of them. They can, however, help us toward finding – and fitting – another important piece in the jigsaw of mapping and understanding classroom experience and practice – to be considered alongside the other voices, pressures and tensions to which the (beginning) teacher is subjected, to be sure, but also as a context and a process: a context within which better sense can be made *of* those other voices, pressures and tensions; and a process that involves ‘reaching inside the self’ to discover what voices we have internalised, in what ways those internalisations have been made, and what – and whose – purposes they may serve.

The reflexive, ‘self-critical’ approach is not an easy one (see Boler’s [1999] linking of it to a ‘pedagogy of discomfort’). However, by addressing, including and putting us more in touch with our ‘*feelings*’ it is a vital tool in broadening our perspectives, in resisting the narrow parameters of professional reflection established and promulgated within dominant public and political discourses, and in enabling us to approach the ‘cacophony of calls’ (Britzman, 1991, p. 223) to which we are subjected, in an instructive rather than a reactive way. Self-understanding may not make any one of us a better teacher on its own. It is arguably, however, a prerequisite to *becoming* not just ‘better’ – in our own terms, not just in others’ – but happier, too, and more fulfilled in the work that we do.

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40. TEACHERS AS LEADERS: BUILDING A KNOWLEDGE BASE OF PRACTICE THROUGH RESEARCHING PRACTICE

It is not uncommon to hear teachers and researchers bemoan the perceived problems associated with the theory-practice gap. From a research perspective there is a view that the complex and messy world of teaching can not adequately be theorised by the teachers who are busy working in that world whilst, from a teacher's perspective, there is a view that theory is not necessarily helpful in responding to the need for ideas and activities that will "work in class tomorrow". One difficulty created by the theory-practice gap then is that policy-makers, perhaps too easily, look to theory for solutions to "educational problems", however, such problems and solutions are not necessarily congruent with the needs and concerns of practitioners. Therefore, finding a balance between both perspectives is important if the construction of knowledge and the value of theory in practice are to be more responsive to the needs of the educational community; and lead to meaningful change. It seems reasonable to suggest that teacher research offers one such response.

Teacher-researchers bring to bear their expert knowledge and understanding of practice in research as they attempt to better understand their practice and its impact on their students. Thus by researching the relationship between teaching and learning in their world of work, that which they come to document, articulate and know is also likely to be valuable and informative for other teachers. As a consequence, the very nature of teacher research then offers an approach to distributed leadership (Wallace, 2003) that is likely to be supportive and affirming in assisting in educational change.

Teacher research has slowly gained a 'foothold' in the academic literature through the work of advocates such as Lytle and Cochran-Smith (1992). Like others involved in teacher research they have seen value in better understanding teacher research as a way of knowing. In so doing, they have helped to create an expectation that the explication of knowledge of teaching must include the teacher's perspective, and therefore, must be drawn from teachers' experiences of *their* classrooms. It has been through the recognition of the importance of this argument that teacher research has begun to be better valued in the worlds of theory *and* practice; two worlds that have an important stake in better understanding the nature of teaching and learning but are too frequently viewed as separate and distinct rather than intertwined and interdependent.

In Australia, the need for research to be both responsive to, and developed in, the practice setting has become increasingly apparent and an exemplar of such work is that of PEEL (Project for the Enhancement of Effective Learning, Baird and Mitchell, 1986; Baird and Northfield, 1992; Loughran, 1999). PEEL has been influential

because teachers have readily identified with the purpose underpinning the project (enhancing student learning) and elected to be involved despite it being over and above their normal teaching duties. Hence, an acceptance of the value of the work of PEEL has largely been driven by teachers' needs and concerns about classroom teaching and learning.

PEEL is based on teachers' desire to develop students as active learners through teaching procedures that encourage the development of their metacognitive skills so that they are engaged in their own learning; hence challenging the ever-present passive classroom learning behaviours with which teachers are so familiar. The aims of PEEL, as restated in *Learning from the PEEL Experience* (Baird and Northfield, 1992) are to:

- Foster students' independent learning through training for enhanced metacognition.
- Change teachers' attitudes and behaviours to ones that promote such learning.
- Investigate processes of teacher and student change as participants engage in action research.
- Identify factors that influence successful implementation of a program to improve the quality of classroom learning.

For some PEEL teachers, an interest in research emerged in response to their concerns to know more about what was happening in their classrooms through systematic, evidence based approaches, and so the PAVOT (Perspective and Voice of the Teacher) project, a teacher research project driven by the research concerns of PEEL teachers, was initiated.

THE PERSPECTIVE AND VOICE OF THE TEACHER (PAVOT)

PAVOT created an opportunity for teachers to collaborate more closely with academic supporters in more systematic research. As was the case with PEEL, the research was led and controlled by the teachers. PAVOT was specifically set up to, "... assist teachers to research aspects of their practice. It is a natural extension of PEEL in that it aims to support teachers in documenting and communicating the kind of teaching and learning that occurs with active involvement in PEEL, and to further explore issues which are important to teachers in their daily work" (Mitchell and Mitchell, 1997, p. 3). Therefore PAVOT offered teachers opportunities to develop their individual voices and to document and portray their research findings and to also share their pedagogical knowledge with other educationalists.

PAVOT is one example of valuing teacher research and of creating different ways for teachers to display their leadership within the profession. PAVOT research has been influenced by the notion of reframing (Schön, 1983, 1987) and is based on a recognition that teaching is problematic. Therefore, inevitably, PAVOT teacher-researchers 'look into' their classrooms in different ways from 'traditional' researchers because of their familiarity with teachers' day-to-day teaching and learning concerns; which are the catalyst of *their* studies.

This reframing has, in part, been facilitated through the work of PEEL and the development of a set of principles (Mitchell and Mitchell, 1997) about the nature of

TABLE 40.1 Principles of teaching for quality learning

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1. Share intellectual control with students.
 2. Look for occasions when students can work out part (or all) of the content or instructions.
 3. Provide opportunities for choice and independent decision making.
 4. Provide a diverse range of ways of experiencing success.
 5. Promote talk that is exploratory, tentative and hypothetical.
 6. Encourage students to learn from other students' questions and comments.
 7. Build a classroom environment that supports risk-taking.
 8. Use a wide variety of intellectually challenging teaching procedures.
 9. Use Teaching procedures that are designed to promote specific aspects of quality learning.
 10. Develop students' awareness of the big picture: how the various activities fit together and link to the big ideas
 11. Regularly raise students' awareness of the nature of components of quality learning.
 12. Promote assessment as part of the learning process.
-

quality teaching. These Principles of Teaching for Quality Learning (see Table 40.1) have been useful in creating a language that has helped to give meaning to 'what it is' that can be problematic in teaching while at the same time creating 'ways in' for examining teaching and learning situations; 'ways in' that are critical in shaping teacher research.

As noted by Dewey (1929) so long ago, educational practices themselves must be the source of the ultimate problems to be investigated if we are to build a science of education. Therefore, a focus on teacher research is paramount as it is *teachers'* 'problems' that are derived from a focus on *teachers'* educational practice, the results of such investigations then are likely to best inform the practice setting, and importantly, those who work in those settings; the teachers. The principles outlined in Table 40.1 then are indicative of an understanding of practice driven by the concerns and constructions of knowledge of (PEEL) teachers in such a way as they carry meanings that inform *their* approach to teaching and learning.

LEADING THROUGH DOING AND DISSEMINATING TEACHER RESEARCH

PAVOT helps to illustrate particular ways in which teacher research leadership is apparent. As a brief review of this work, three examples are outlined in detail below. Each of these examples has been selected largely as a reflection of the nature of the type of research that teachers choose to conduct as a consequence of confronting issues and concerns in their own practice. These examples also shed light on the nature of these teachers' particular research needs (at the time of conducting the studies) and offer a range of approaches to, and ways of seeing, teaching and learning from a teachers' perspective. Finally, each is also indicative of a particular 'category' of leadership through teacher research and therefore offers a strong exemplar for demonstrating that form of leadership for others.

The first example (Boyle, 2002) is illustrative of what might be described as **Leadership through Researching Changes in Teaching and Learning** and

explores the development of a better understanding of teaching and some of the influences on teaching that become important in shaping approaches to researching practice. Boyle's work highlights how different approaches to data collection, the importance of addressing 'taken for granted' aspects of practice and, the need to be responsive to the changes in the way research projects develop influence the way teacher-researchers pursue their research questions.

The second example (Berry and Milroy, 2002) highlights the notion of **Leadership through Curriculum Development** and is essentially a window into the complex and protracted journey that teacher-researchers embark upon and learn through when they begin to reconsider their teaching in relation to the curriculum that shapes that teaching. Through critical reflection (Brookfield, 1995) Berry and Milroy illustrate how difficult it is to separate the process from the product and that in truly coming to understand what curriculum change really entails, there is an explicit need to share the wisdom gained.

The third example (Osler and Flack, 2002) is illustrative of **Leading through Professional Learning**. Osler and Flack demonstrate the personal risks and dangers associated with confronting dilemmas and choosing to lead by example in the pursuit of understanding issues pertaining to growth and development over time through a serious regard for learning about practice and sharing that learning with others.

LEADERSHIP THROUGH RESEARCHING CHANGES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

In this study, Boyle (2002) came to see that for quite some time she had not really differentiated between teaching and learning because her prevailing view was that if students were busy completing the set task and they were enjoying it, then they were no doubt learning.

It was a long and challenging path that led me to the realization, and then the understanding, that students need to be metacognitive if they are to be true learners; to reflect on their learning and to understand what makes a good learner. I also came to understand that I could assist students in achieving that through the implementation of PEEL procedures. My teaching journey is taking me on a frustrating yet rewarding quest for encouraging metacognition in the students I teach ... [and] to acknowledge that good learning does not come from what traditionally has been seen as "good teaching" and that engaging students in a classroom activity does not necessarily equate with good learning. It is certainly true that students will learn better if they are engaged in the task but are teachers always clear on what it is that is important for students to learn? My focus is not just on the student as a learner, but the teacher as learner, which is made explicit in the effect that my research has had on my approach to teaching.

(Boyle, 2002, pp. 74–75)

TABLE 40.2 Good Learning Behaviours (GLBs) adapted from Baird and Northfield, 1992

<i>Seeks assistance</i>	Tells the teacher what they do not understand
<i>Checks progress</i>	Refers to earlier work before asking for help
<i>Plans work</i>	Anticipates and predicts possible outcomes
<i>Reflects on work</i>	Makes links between activities and ideas
<i>Links ideas and experiences</i>	Offers relevant and personal examples
<i>Develops a view</i>	Justifies opinions

Boyle goes on to explain how her assumptions of practice were continually challenged as she came to better understand the nature of teaching with the intention of enhancing students' metacognitive skills. She set out to help her students begin to conceptualize Good Learning Behaviours (GLB's; see Table 40.2 for examples) so that they could then actively shape their own understanding of their learning and therefore be more metacognitive.

In order to encourage the development of GLBs she had her students maintain "thinking books" (Swan and White, 1994) and to respond to a number of prompts designed to encourage their metacognitive skills e.g., "What I did today ... ; What I learnt today ... ; To improve my learning I could ...". However, she found that the comments her students wrote in their thinking books were related to the tasks they completed in class rather than to their thinking and learning e.g., "what I did today was draw a map"; "what I learnt today was how to draw a map". Despite her best efforts to constantly reinforce the notion of GLBs she was constantly, "being driven crazy by unnecessary questions and requests [such as] Do I have to do a border? Do I have to stick this in?; Do I have to have a heading?; So-and-so has my ruler!" (Boyle, 2002, p. 78).

Almost in desperation she resorted to using what Hynes (1992) described as a "Dirty Trick" because she felt that her students were happy to simply approach their work in an unthinking way and, from their perspective, completing tasks equated with being a good student; thinking about learning was not an important aspect of their "job" as students. The use of a "Dirty Trick" was powerful for it showed the students the importance of questioning their own thinking. Yet Boyle still felt frustrated for her need was to have "something that would work in her class" but be ongoing and continually reinforce the notion of GLBs. She found a possibility through the work of another PAVOT teacher (Pinnis, 2002) and introduced L-Files (Learning Files) in the following manner:

- Each student was presented with their own L files booklet – each page had a different Good Learning Behaviour on it.
- She told her students that she was concerned that they were not really becoming good learners so they negotiated a process of achieving "P plates" (Probationary plates, analogous to those displayed on the cars of Australian drivers when they first gain a driver's licence).
- When a student displayed 10 of the behaviours twice they would be presented with a P plate.

- The student had to present their L files to Boyle and have the identified GLB signed.

This created great interest and immediately the class was thrown into a frenzy of practising good learning behaviours. At the end of each lesson 5 minutes was set aside for students to come and justify the claim for having pages signed – students were planning prior to starting work, asking good questions, linking to other subjects or their own experience.

(Boyle, 2002, p. 80)

To Boyle's delight, she found that her students' journal responses also began to relate to good learning behaviours (although some students were not interested in identifying GLBs at all). Yet her learning about teaching journey had not ended for another breakthrough occurred, as a result of what she described as a disaster, when she retaught a lesson using a teaching procedure ("the continuum") that had not "worked properly" for her the first time through.

I felt like I could see them learning; and I had been ready NEVER to do the continuum activity again after that first disaster. If I had not taken the risk, and the challenge, to attempt the continuum again so much student learning would never have occurred. All of what I had attempted to achieve through introducing the L files books would not have had a chance to be reflected in this 'disaster'. What a lot I have to learn!

(Boyle, 2002, p. 85)

As a result of Boyle's systematic approach to researching her attempt to enhance students' metacognitive skills, she developed a powerful list of "teacher knowledge", crucial to informing her understanding of, and approach to practice. She learned that:

- *There are many facets to good teaching but there is a need to share intellectual control with the students if lessons are to genuinely be successful.*
- *When students have a need to know, real learning begins.*
- *"Good" questioning is not always clear to the teacher, but it becomes more apparent when students actually start asking meaningful questions themselves.*
- *Students need to be told HOW to do something not just WHAT to do.*
- *There is often a disparity between what the teacher thinks students understand and what they do understand and teachers should not make assumptions about student understanding.*
- *Students can be independent thinkers and good learners and teachers' expectations influence this.*
- *Positive self-esteem in determining self-motivation and a positive attitude to learning – for both students and teachers – is important.*
- *Just as teachers need to learn from my (their) perceived 'disasters' by taking risks so too students need (the opportunity) to learn from experience.*
- *Research is not a linear path on which all things expected occur at the right time and in the right place. Learning from research does not mean that generalizations or undisputable conclusions can be always be made.*

In undertaking research I have realized that once you begin considering learning along with teaching that teaching and learning are not synonymous and that teachers along with students will always be challenged with, and by, learning. As a teacher, I will forever be challenged to take risks and ride the roller coaster of learning along with my students.

(Boyle, 2002, p. 87)

Boyle's learning through research impacted on her practice in ways that could not be as authentic and meaningful had she not chosen to pursue her work in this manner. No directive to teach for metacognition, no policy document to turn to to direct such practice could have informed her in ways commensurate with the genuine learning of this experience. By choosing to be a teacher researcher Boyle not only displayed how teacher research offers leadership within the profession, but in documenting and disseminating her learning in the way she did, she also illustrated the value of questioning taken-for-granted aspects of practice and offered leadership in the risky business of teaching so that others might begin to identify with, adapt and adjust her approach to suit their own practice in their own context. That is surely indicative of meaningful leadership.

LEADERSHIP THROUGH CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

In Berry and Milroy's (2002) examination of teaching science for conceptual change, they address a well-documented image of school science as isolated facts. In so doing, they construct their work around a series of snapshots from their classes in order to illustrate different elements of their approach. However, at the heart of their work is the issue that the existing curriculum documents from which they were to work were not helpful in constructing teaching episodes that would develop students' construction of science in meaningful and conceptually important ways, and, that when they turned to the research literature for help and support, they found precious little existed.

The snapshots they developed to illustrate how they managed and learnt through the situation included:

- A Big Comfortable Lie ... – *Snapshot 1: Exposing the Assumptions.*
- Put the Lid back on (it's too tricky) – *Snapshot 2: Recognising the responsibility.*
- Diagnosis is easy, where's the rest? – *Snapshot 3: The research knowledge we need is missing.*
- Exposing themselves – why would they bother? – *Snapshot 4: Building an atmosphere of trust.*
- "Thinking hurts" – why would they bother? – *Snapshot 5: Fruitfulness.*
- Sorting out words and meaning – *Snapshot 6: Learning to clearly 'speak'.*
- "Last lesson Laura made the point ..." – *Snapshot 7: Learning to really listen.*
- Tie them to a strong idea (and come back to the idea not the label) – *Snapshot 8: Attaching labels.*
- What is the smallest bit? – *Snapshot 9: Making the abstract concrete.*
- Taking time and making links – *Snapshot 10: Revisitation.*

These headings certainly suggest a great deal about the process of curriculum development in terms of a coherent approach to questioning that which the curriculum might contain, how it might be structured and why, and the importance of views about teaching and learning that need to be apprehended if the curriculum is to be implemented in ways congruent with the purposes and intentions that influence its construction. So in one sense, these snapshots illustrate a form of teacher knowledge that captures the essence of their experience, however; the context in which this knowledge is applicable needs some explanation.

Throughout their study, Berry and Milroy illustrated how schools contain both ‘enhancers’ and ‘frustrators’ for progress and development in teaching and learning and interestingly, one of the important frustrators was the lack of *appropriate* support materials; interesting when one considers what would be expected to go hand in hand with curriculum documents. They were working to initiate conceptual change in their students’ approach to learning science yet this became a source of frustration as much as it was an inspiration. They were unable to find relevant classroom translations of a conceptual change approach or resources that specifically addressed the kinds of engagement with content necessary for such teaching; yet most prescribed curriculum documents suggested that such teaching was relatively unproblematic and would not only be manageable but also ‘expected’.

Their honest and insightful study highlights that attempting to teach science in a constructivist manner and, focussing on developing conceptual understanding in students, is, “a messy and muddy business [and that although it is] one that feels exciting and worthwhile. It is truly the *swamp of real practice*” (p. 218). This is an issue that needs to be fully apprehended by curriculum planners and writers, for it is the importance of this issue of the uncertainty; the problematic, and the grappling with ever changing issues and concerns that makes policy advice and curriculum support material so difficult to develop. Failure to recognize this situation only tends to exacerbate the divide between the expectations and the realities of classroom teaching and learning; Berry and Milroy certainly highlight this issue in a powerful way in their study and offer a strong example of leadership through curriculum development.

LEADING THROUGH PROFESSIONAL LEARNING

Osler and Flack (2002) offer insights into the nature of teaching and learning through professional learning and the impact that such learning has through a reflective account of their experiences as: teachers; learners; professional learning providers; role-models; and, teacher researchers. Their story is initially portrayed through a fable – tales from the Poppy patch.

In a small patch amongst many others grew a poppy. She had always been a happy poppy. Happy with her friends and enjoying what she did. Just the same, she was inquisitive about the way things worked in other places for other poppies. So it gave her great pleasure when another poppy that shared her curiosity began to grow right beside her.

Together these two friends looked upwards and outwards from their part of the world.

It had been a great time for growing. The two poppies were thriving. They had learned to organise and manage the nutrients from the familiar, comfortable earth around them, and lately they had discovered how to get more energy and nourishment from the sun way beyond their own small patch.

The sun was available for all the poppies but sometimes the two friends needed to actively seek the best position to get the most from its rays. It surprised them a little to find that they had grown tall and that they now had a different view of things. At the same time though it was exciting because they could see from their poppy patch clear across to the other poppy patches that were nearby. The poppies over there looked much the same but different enough for them to wonder about what they did and how they got to be that way. The two poppies discovered that they could be seen by the poppies from the other patch and that they could call out and ask them questions. The distant poppies were generous about sharing their different knowledge and they would respond and give them great insights about their world. It was interesting and stimulating and gave the two friends plenty to talk about and reflect on. Life in their own patch now became more interesting because they could see it through different eyes.

On the other hand, their old friends in their poppy patch looked just as they always had and sometimes the two poppies forgot that others didn't know what they knew and couldn't see what they saw, and that was why they couldn't be any different.

Now unfortunately, because the poppies were tall they didn't have the support of the bunch around them, they felt fragile and very vulnerable to the elements. The whispering breezes from all directions seemed extra strong as they blew across the poppy patch where they stood so tall. At times they even feared that the pressure of the winds would cause them to snap and break. They called for help but their old friends couldn't hear them because they were used to them being so far away and they didn't expect them to need their help anyway! Their new friends were not able to help them much from where they were; though they did offer encouragement. The two poppies began to envy the safety and security that staying with the bunch would have given them, but of course they couldn't go back.

Despite the frustration and sadness they felt when they thought of their friends and what they were missing out on, the tall poppies celebrated the many joys that their growth was giving them. They were determined to remain patient, knowing that one-day they would share their new insights with their old friends. They believed that eventually many would seek the light and view from where they were, especially when they realised that growing tall was not undesirable.

Time passed and their earlier fragility lessened as they gained strength and became tougher. They noticed that some other poppies in other parts of the patch were taller and because of where those poppies grew and what their views were, it made the patch far more interesting.

The winds no longer frightened them as they had. One day in a particularly strong wind, the two poppies commented on how strong they felt and wondered why that was. They looked around and to their delight, right next to them, were some other poppies. Some of them they knew, some they didn't, but they all could share the vision of what was beyond their poppy patch. They too were thriving.

The two poppies were excited at their excitement and at last they could talk and share and support more of their kind. Best of all they could see more together. Perhaps their message had not fallen on deaf ears after all. Surely the winds could not knock down a whole bunch of poppies!

(Osler and Flack, 2002, pp. 223–225)

Osler and Flack present their portrayal through their fable (above), then they dissect and explain the issues, ideas, problems, dilemmas and successes that emerge through the fable of the two poppies. They explain how the process of research enriched their practice as they came to better understand the value and purpose of metacognition; for both themselves and their students. They also developed a strong sense of commitment to supporting the developing skills of others by sharing their experiences of their attempts to develop students' learning and their learning about the research process. In so doing, they became more aware of their own professional growth; how threatening that can be and how carefully it needs to be managed (an issue barely noted in the traditional research literature and one which their 'voice' certainly brings to life in a powerful way through their fable).

A most important outcome of their experience was the way in which, as teacher researchers, they came to see themselves as sitting between two worlds: "as teacher-researchers we can access the worlds of teachers and academics" (p. 245). Their account illustrates how through their professional journey they experienced the pleasure associated with personal and professional growth, as well as the dilemma of not knowing where or how to 'fit in'.

Their most engaging account of their teacher research journey illustrates the problems created for teachers as leaders when that leadership is through a well informed understanding of practice as a result of learning through teacher research. Understanding the learning about practice through the teacher research process itself then emerges as crucial to success and to creating possibilities for genuine educational change.

Leadership in teaching is important and what it means personally and professionally could not be understood – nor portrayed – were it not for the efforts of teachers such as Osler & Flack because of their valuable insights from a teacher researcher perspective; a perspective that surely influences the expectations and approaches to leadership so important in supporting the process of educational change. Importantly, the account

of their journey demonstrates the inherent value of recognising that teachers have a privileged position within the classroom and that their understanding of their work is best driven from within that context, not solely from the educational bureaucracy where the focus is often on a different ‘bigger picture’ of organisation, direction and control. It could well be argued, that which Osler & Flack demonstrate, is that one of the great disjunctions in teaching and learning is not so much between theory and practice, but between genuine educational autonomy and bureaucratic control. Their study truly demonstrates that educational leadership hinges on teachers’ professional learning.

CONCLUSION

In the detailed account of his return to school teaching, Jeff Northfield, an experienced teacher educator and educational researcher drew attention to the need for a wider understanding of the work of teachers and the influences on students’ learning (see *Opening the Classroom Door: Teacher, Researcher, Learner*; Loughran and Northfield, 1996). He noted that, “As education continues to go through changes and restructuring, often implemented by those without an understanding of the complexity of roles associated with teachers and students ... a clearer understanding of what is happening in schools [is needed] ... The PEEL project ... affirms the work of teachers and provides encouragement and ideas for those who are concerned about improving their teaching and their students’ learning outcomes” (p. 4). Just as PEEL led the way for Northfield to re-examine his practice and knowledge of practice so too it has offered leadership in encouraging others to develop through PAVOT.

PAVOT teachers (as the accounts above illustrate) have demonstrated their leadership within the profession in ways that offer new understandings of the complexity of teaching and learning and have created new possibilities and opportunities for the future. In many ways these teachers have actively sought to examine their own developing knowledge base and have highlighted the professional responsibilities that accompany such a decision, such that new and valuable ways of offering leadership and knowledge to the educational community have emerged.

The work of teacher researchers (through the selected examples briefly reviewed in this chapter) offers a compelling argument for placing greater emphasis on developing and valuing a deeper understanding of teaching and learning and does so by addressing the theory-practice gap in a meaningful way. The exemplars used in this chapter have been selected in order to highlight the importance and value of focussing on the issues, concerns and dilemmas that teachers face in their own classrooms such that appropriate ways of understanding and addressing these concerns, issues and dilemmas are able to be demonstrated for the important *users* of the knowledge (teachers) gained through such valuable work.

Generally, a prevailing stereotype is that teachers are *not* seen to be teaching if they are *not* in front of their classes *doing* ‘teaching’. Importantly, teacher researchers offer tangible examples of leadership by offering so much more, and in so doing, offer a more rounded conceptualization of the work of teachers in ways that

can lead to major gains in the knowledge of teaching itself, which ultimately, must lead to better learning outcomes for students.

Leadership through teachers as researchers is vitally important to both the worlds of theory and practice and offers real possibilities for enhancing educational outcomes for all concerned.

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41. SCHOOL REFORM AND TRANSITIONS IN TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM AND IDENTITY¹

THE FASHIONING OF A NEW ACCOUNTABILITY AGENDA

There are a number of key events which have changed forever the post war environment in which teachers teach and students learn in many countries. Supported by claims of falling standards relative to those in competitor nations which are deemed to be incompatible with the need to increase economic competitiveness and social cohesion, successive governments have attempted to re-orientate the strong liberal-humanist traditions of schooling, characterised by a belief in the intrinsic, non-instrumental value of education towards a more functional view characterised by competency based, results driven teaching (Helsby, 1999, p. 16), payment by results and forms of indirect rule from the centre (Lawn, 1996). It is important to recognise that what has happened to education is one outcome of a larger ideological debate on the costs and management of the public services in general. In England, for example, education as a public service was the test bed for a raft of radical reforms from the mid 70's which were born of political 'new right' ideology and economic pragmatism and which challenged the post Second World War monopoly which professionals in education, health, and the social services had held. For education, as for all the public services, what we are witnessing still: '... is a struggle among different stakeholders over the definition of teacher professionalism and professionalism for the twenty first century ...' (Whitty *et al.*, 1998, p. 65).

As part of this, there have been new limits placed on teachers' autonomy. Policies of decentralisation of the management of budgets, plant, staffing, student access and curriculum and assessment (Bullock and Thomas, 1997) have been accompanied by centrally determined and monitored measures of pupil achievement.

These have had the effect of restricting the conditions under which teachers work, putting into place a system which rewards those who successfully comply with government directives and who reach government targets and punishes those who do not.

In the USA, for example, a high stakes testing regime has been established in order to ensure that schools engage in a State determined improvement agenda for all students to meet a prescribed level of achievement on State authorized tests. The message is clear: improve or be taken over or closed down. In a recent wide ranging evaluation over 3 years of the effects of such high-stakes testing on high schools in Texas and Kentucky, New York and Vermont, Siskin and her colleagues found that although they have provided for a new tightening up of the curriculum in certain areas and a

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new sense of purpose in teaching, the net effects have been the massive growth of expensive measures of testing and curriculum validation of traditional core subjects at the expense of those which are not. Whilst teachers and teacher unions have welcomed the introduction and development of new *standards* for curriculum and teaching they are reported to have been dismayed by the quality and applicability of the new *tests* which form the basis for judging the value of their work. Moreover, the high stakes testing measures do not yet appear to have contributed to improvements in pupil achievements. Indeed, many more students in urban and high poverty districts will be denied qualification as high-school graduates (Carnoy *et al.*, 2003).

Teachers in most countries across the world are all experiencing similar government interventions in the form of national curricula, national tests, criteria for measuring the quality of schools and the publication of these on the internet in order to raise standards and promote more parental choice. Although school contexts continue to mediate the short term effects of the intensification of work which is a consequence of such reforms (Apple, 1986), the persisting effect is to erode teachers' autonomy and challenge teachers' individual and collective professional and personal identities. Furthermore, reforms of this kind are being reinforced by changes in pre-service teacher training through which students now must meet the measurable requirements of prescribed curricula and sets of narrowly conceived, instrumentally oriented competencies in order to succeed.

Although reforms in schools are different in every country in their content, direction and pace, they have five common factors. They:

- are proposed because governments believe that by intervening to change the conditions under which students learn, they can accelerate improvements, raise standards of achievement and somehow increase economic competitiveness;
- address implicit worries of governments concerning a perceived fragmentation of personal and social values in society;
- challenge teachers' existing practices, resulting in periods of at least temporary destabilisation;
- result in an increased work load for teachers;
- do not always pay attention to teachers' identities – arguably central to motivation efficacy, commitment, job satisfaction and effectiveness.

Prior to this new work order, a compact had existed between government, parents and schools in which, by and large, teachers were trusted to do a good job with minimum direct intervention by government into matters of school governance, the school curriculum, teaching and learning and assessment. In England and Wales, for example, quality assurance (a term not yet invented in the 70's) was provided by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI), a relatively benign group of ex-teachers and lecturers who had become civil servants and who were charged with monitoring and maintaining standards through their connoisseurship judgements on quality (this was also the case in many other West European countries). Local Education Authorities (the equivalent of School Districts) were still responsible for curriculum and professional support and employed either School Advisers or School Inspectors – consisting, like HMI, of ex-heads and senior staff – to achieve this and monitor schools. Apart from a minimalist core curriculum, LEAs and schools were able to

exercise considerable choice with regard to the balance of the curriculum taught, (although most of secondary education conformed to a university entrance driven national examination system for students at age 16 and 18) and this was reflected in different opportunities for students who lived in different LEAs. Colleges of Education, responsible for providing the bulk of new teachers, also exercised choice in their pre-service work, as did Universities in their post-graduate 1-year courses. Significantly, continuing professional development (C.P.D.) opportunities were largely left to the choice of individual teachers; teacher development was a term widely used; and the curriculum in school was 'taught' not 'delivered'. Curriculum developments in schools were initiated and managed locally or by a national 'Schools Council', funded by government but governed by a partnership between teachers' professional associations and government. 'Value added', 'accountability', 'training', 'performativity' and 'performance management' were not yet even twinkles in the eyes of the policy makers. The nation's primary (elementary) schools were the envy of the world and headteachers were the power in their own kingdoms, free to govern as they wished.

The 'new public management' (Clarke and Newman, 1997, p. ix) illustrated in the discussion so far, has opened schools to market pressures through parental choice, given greater financial autonomy increased expectations that they will improve on a yearly basis in terms of both teacher and pupil performance through independent external inspection, pupil testing, annual performance management reviews of individual teachers and associated annual school development plans and target setting. In some countries league tables of results have been introduced and made public; parents are encouraged to choose the school to which they send their children; school governors (lay people) have been given more authority as schools have become locally managed and centrally accountable. To ensure that schools comply with these innovations, regular school inspections have become more prescriptive (for instance, 'HMI' became 'OFSTED', The Office for Standards in Education) with judgements based upon a national assessment framework. In England, there has been the 'naming' and 'shaming' of schools which are categorised as being in need of 'special measures'. Some schools have been closed. Successful schools have been awarded 'Specialist', 'Lighthouse' or 'Beacon' status and given more resources. And for schools with a negative evaluation, follow-up procedures have been installed, putting more pressure upon the teachers. Among the negative consequences of these (and other) centrally imposed initiatives have been an increase in teachers' work time, low morale, and a continuing crisis in teacher recruitment and retention, especially in those schools which are in challenging socio-economic contexts. Alongside (though not necessarily associated with) these, has been a rise in dissatisfaction of their school experiences by a significant number of pupils, expressed in increases in absenteeism, behavioural problems in classrooms and in the less easily measurable but well documented alienation from formal learning of many who remain. Ball (2001) has described this central drive for quality and improvement as being embedded in three technologies – the market, managerialism and 'performativity' (Lyotard, 1979) – and placed them in distinct contrast to the post war public Welfarist State.

DISCOURSES OF PROFESSIONALISM

Professionalism has been the subject of many studies over the last century. Adopting a macro perspective, Andy Hargreaves has presented the development of professionalism as passing through four historical ages in many countries – the ‘pre-professional’ (managerially demanding but technically simple in terms of pedagogy); the ‘autonomous’ (marked by a challenge to the uniform view of pedagogy, teacher individualism in and wide areas for discretionary decision taking); ‘collegial’ (the building of strong collaborative cultures alongside role expansion, diffusion and intensification); and the ‘post-professional’ (where teachers struggle to counter centralized curricula, testing regimes and external surveillance, and the economic imperatives of marketisation) (Hargreaves, 2000a, p 153). Essentially, his work and that of other researchers (Helsby, 1996; Robertson, 1996; Talbert and McLaughlin, 1996) illustrates the growth of challenges from governments to teachers’ agency, and a contestation of control of curriculum content, pedagogy and assessment historically associated with teacher professionalism. From a different perspective, researchers have situated teachers within, for example, debates about ‘restricted’ and ‘extended’ (Hoyle, 1974), referring to the extent to which they engage in learning; and proletarianisation, intensification and bureaucratisation (Ozga 1995; Campbell and Neill, 1994; Helsby, 1996, 1999), referring to the extent to which teachers’ work has been affected by external prescriptive policy interventions which result in less control or autonomy of classroom decision making, a diminished sense of ‘agency’ (Gilroy and Day, 1993).

Reforms have changed what it means to be a teacher as the focus of control has shifted from the individual to the system managers and contract has replaced covenant (Bernstein, 1996). Yet, ‘being a professional’ is still seen as an expectation placed upon teachers which distinguishes them from other groups of workers. Professionalism in this sense has been associated with having a strong technical culture (knowledge base); service ethic (commitment to serving clients’ needs); professional commitment (strong individual and collective identities); and professional autonomy (control over classroom practice) (Etzioni, 1969; Larson, 1977, Talbert and McLaughlin, 1996). The emphasis on corporate management which many reforms produce has, however, resulted in a sea change in the nature of professionalism. Each teacher must now be:

‘... professional who clearly meets corporate goals, set elsewhere, manages a range of students well and documents their achievements and problems for public accountability purposes. The criteria of the successful professional in this corporate model is one who works efficiently and effectively in meeting the standardised criteria set for the accomplishment of both students and teachers, as well as contributing to the school’s formal accountability processes’

(Brennan, 1996, p. 22).

Sachs (2003) identifies two contrasting forms of professional identity:

- **Entrepreneurial**, which she identifies with efficient, responsible, accountable teachers who demonstrate compliance to externally imposed policy imperatives

with consistently high quality teaching as measured by externally set performance indicators. This identity may be characterised as being individualistic, competitive, controlling and regulative, externally defined, standards led.

- **Activist**, which she sees as driven by a belief in the importance of mobilising teachers in the best interests of student learning and improving the conditions in which this can occur. In this identity, teachers will be primarily concerned with creating and putting into place standards and processes which give students democratic experiences.’

(Sachs, 2003).

The former, she argues, is the desired product of the performativity, managerialist agendas while the latter suggests inquiry oriented, collaborative classrooms and schools in which teaching is related to broad societal ideals and values and in which the purposes of teaching and learning transcend the narrow instrumentalism of current reform agendas.

As a result of analysis and critiquing of different discourses of professionalism and professionalisation in a post modern age, Hargreaves and Goodson propose seven principles which provide an alternative to current reform agendas:

- *Increased opportunity and responsibility to exercise **discretionary judgement** over the issues of teaching, curriculum and care that affect one’s students;*
- *Opportunities and expectations to engage with the **moral and social purposes** and value of what teachers teach, along with major curriculum and assessment matters in which these purposes are embedded;*
- *Commitment to working with colleagues in **collaborative cultures** of help and support as a way of using shared expertise to solve ongoing problems of professional practice, rather than engaging in joint work as a motivational device to implement the external mandates of others;*
- ***Occupational heteronomy** rather than self-protective autonomy, where teachers work authoritatively yet openly and collaboratively with other partners in the wider community (especially parents and students themselves), who have a significant stake in students’ learning;*
- *A commitment to active **care** and not just anodyne **service** for students. Professionalism must in this sense acknowledge and embrace the emotional as well as the cognitive dimensions of teaching, and also recognise the skills and dispositions that are essential to committed and effective caring;*
- *A self-directed search and struggle for **continuous learning** related to one’s own expertise and standards of practice, rather than compliance with the enervating obligations of **endless change** demanded by others (often under the guise of continuing learning or improvement);*
- *The creation and recognition of high task **complexity** with levels of status and reward appropriate to such complexity.*

(Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996, pp. 20–21).

Professionals themselves from these perspectives, are said to have various, 'core moral purposes' and ethical codes (Jackson *et al.*, 1993, Hansen, 1995, Pels, 1999, Day, 2000a), pursuing teaching as an art, craft (technical) and scientific endeavour (Brown and McIntyre, 1992, Galton *et al.*, 1999, Friedson, 2001). Such higher moral purposes of teachers (Socket, 1993) are under threat by teaching and learning agendas which focus upon improving schools and raising student achievement within a restricted, measurable range of subjects, abilities or competencies. Teachers' broader identities, central to the exercise of the kinds of professionalism described above, are being challenged. This new age has been called post-professionalism (Ball, 2003), since teachers and other public services workers succeed only by satisfying and complying with others' definitions of their work. The ethical-professional identities that were dominant in schools are being replaced by 'entrepreneurial-competitive' identities.

PROFESSIONAL AND PERSONAL IDENTITIES

... the self is a crucial element in the way teachers themselves construe the nature of the job.

(Kelchtermans and Vandenberghe, 1994, p. 47)

Much research literature demonstrates that events and experiences in the personal lives of teachers are intimately linked to the performance of their professional roles (Ball and Goodson, 1985; Goodson and Hargreaves, 1996). In her research on the 'realities of teachers' work, Acker (1999) describes the considerable pressures on teaching staff, not just arising in their work but also from their personal lives. Complications in personal lives can become bound up with problems at work. Woods *et al.* (1997, p. 152) argue that '*teaching is a matter of values. People teach because they believe in something. They have an image of the "good society"*.' Kelchtermans (1993) suggests that the professional self, like the personal self, evolves over time and that it consists of five interrelated parts: *Self-image*: how teachers describe themselves though their career stories; *Self-esteem*: the evolution of self as a teacher, how good or otherwise as defined by self or others; *Job-motivation*: what makes teachers choose, remain committed to or leave the job; *Task perception*: how teachers define their jobs; *Future perspective*: teachers' expectations for the future development of their jobs (Kelchtermans, 1993, pp. 449–450). So teachers' identities are closely bound with their professional and personal values and aspirations. Where teachers are opposed to the values embodied in imposed change it is difficult for them to adjust to new roles and work patterns (Woods *et al.*, 1997). Osborn *et al.* (1996), in a large scale study of English primary schooling, found that over the 8 years of the study, while some tensions were experienced in adapting to the new values in the reforms, the main response of the teachers was one of incorporation of the changes. However, Helsby (1999) in a study of secondary schools, and Menter *et al.* (1997) in a primary school study, found that, at least temporarily, many teachers' professional identities, in which their values were embedded, were undermined by the reforms.

Teachers' sense of professional, personal identity is a key variable in their motivation, job fulfilment, commitment and self efficacy; and these will themselves be affected by the extent to which teachers' own needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are met. Reforms have an impact upon teachers' identities and because these are both cognitive and emotional, create reactions which are both rational and non rational. Thus, the ways and extent to which reforms are received, adopted, adapted and sustained or not sustained will be influenced by the extent to which they challenge existing identities.

Several researchers (Nias, 1989, 1996; Nias *et al.* 1992; Hargreaves, 1994; Sumsion, 2002) have noted that teacher identities are not only constructed from the more technical aspects of teaching (i.e. classroom management, subject knowledge and pupil test results) but, also as van den Berg (2002) explains: '*... can be conceptualised as the result of an interaction between the personal experiences of teachers and the social, cultural, and institutional environment in which they function on a daily basis*'. Reporting on research with teachers in The Netherlands, Beijaard (1995) illustrated the different patterns of change in teacher identities:

Mary remembers her satisfaction about her own teaching in the beginning because she experienced it as a challenge. This challenge disappeared when she had to teach many subjects to overcrowded classes. The second lowest point in her storyline was caused by her time-consuming study and private circumstances at home. Now she is reasonably satisfied, due to a pupil centred method she has developed together with some of her colleagues. Peter is currently very satisfied about his own teaching; he qualifies his present teaching style as very adequate. In the beginning of his career, however, it was very problematic for him to maintain order. In this period he considered leaving the profession several times. The second lowest point in his story line refers to private circumstances and to problems in the relationship with colleagues

(Beijaard, 1995, p. 288).

Here we see the ways in which personal and professional environments affect teachers' identities both positively and negatively. This interplay between the private and public, the personal and professional lives of teachers is a key factor in their sense of identity and job satisfaction and, by inference, in their capacity to maintain their effectiveness as teachers. In Mary's case, increases in size and role diversification and intensification decreased the keen challenge she had felt on her entry into teaching; in the case of Peter 'painful beginnings' (Huberman, 1995) had made it difficult even to survive. Common to both were the times when personal problems in their lives outside the classroom affected adversely their attitudes to teaching.

The architecture of teachers' professional selves, in other words, is not stable, but discontinuous, fragmented, and subject to change (Day and Hadfield, 1996). This is not to say that teachers do not themselves in different ways seek and find their own sense of stability within what appears *from the outside* to be fragmentary identities. On the contrary, much empirical research indicates that many find meaning in their

work through a strong sense of moral purpose. Stronach *et al.*'s (2002) research with nurses and teachers, like others before it (Nias, 1989; Bowe and Ball, 1992; Kelchtermans, 1993; Hoyle and John, 1995; Hanlon, 1998; Furlong *et al.*, 2000; Friedson, 2001) claims that 'professionalism' is bound up in the discursive dynamics of professionals attempting to address or redress the dilemmas of the job within particular cultures (p. 109). Their reading of the professional, 'as mobilizing a complex of occasional identities in response to shifting contexts' (p. 117) and their own data from teachers in six primary schools in England, though limited, and, 'walking the tightrope of an uncertain being' (p. 121), resonates with much other empirical research on teachers' plurality of roles (Sachs, 2003) within work contexts which are characterized by fragmentation and discontinuities (Huberman, 1995) and a number of tensions and dilemmas (Day *et al.*, 2000) within what is generally agreed to be a hostile external audit policy culture (Power, 1994); and it does add to the considerable body of existing literature which highlights the complexities and instabilities of teachers' professional lives, which points to teachers' continuing sense of agency in their work and which recognizes that, 'excellence can only be motivated, it cannot be coerced' (p. 132). Yet one omission from the paper is the discussion of the teacher's *personal* identities – all the more surprising because its presence shines through in the teachers' words which are used. If we are to understand teachers' professionalism, it is necessary to take account of teacher identities, the importance to these of self-efficacy, motivation, job satisfaction and commitment and the relationship between these and effectiveness.

There is an unavoidable interrelationship between professional and personal, cognitive and emotional identities if only because the overwhelming evidence is that teaching demands significant personal investment of these:

The ways in which teachers form their professional identities are influenced by both how they feel about themselves and how they feel about their students. This professional identity helps them to position or situate themselves in relation to their students and to make appropriate and effective adjustments in their practice and their beliefs about and engagement with, students

(James-Wilson, 2001, p. 29).

Many writers have argued that teachers derive their job satisfaction from the psychic rewards of teaching (Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz, 1989; Hargreaves, 1998a, b, 2000). Central amongst these is the development of close relationships and emotional understanding. Despite Riseborough (1981) arguing some time ago that teachers have to '*feel right*' in order to do their job to the best of their abilities, Hargreaves (1998b) points out that there have been:

few socio-politically informed analyses that put a prime emphasis on teacher emotions in the context of how teachers' work is organized and how it is being reorganized through educational reform

(Hargreaves, 1998b, p. 318).

Yet whilst the new right managerialist agendas now acknowledge the existence of widespread teacher disenchantment and stress and its effects upon the quality of teaching and learning, there are no signs that they recognise the crucial effects on teachers' emotional as well as intellectual identities. It is through our subjective emotional world that we develop our personal constructs and meanings of our outer realities and make sense of our relationships and eventually our place in the wider world (p. 42). In addition, these are also clearly related to our motivation and state of attention. From a neuroscientific perspective, Le Doux (1998) argues that the emotional brain may act as an intermediary between the thinking brain and the outside world. There is an interplay between thought and feeling and feeling and memory. When feelings are ignored, they can act unnoticed and thus have unacknowledged negative or positive influences.

Our capacity to function intellectually is highly dependent on our emotional state. When we are preoccupied our minds are literally occupied with something and we have no space to pay attention, to take in and listen to anything else. When we are frightened we are more likely to make mistakes. When we feel inadequate we tend to give up rather than struggle to carry on with the task.

(Salzberger-Wittenberg, 1996, p. 81)

When flooded by our emotional brain, as is the case of multiple reform agendas, our 'working brain' may have little capacity for attention to hold in mind the facts necessary for the completion of a task, the acquisition of a concept or the making of an intelligent decision. The performativity agenda, coupled with the continuing monitoring of the efficiency with which teachers are expected to implement others' plans for the kind of curricula and approaches to teaching, learning and assessment, has five consequences which are likely to reduce rather than increase effectiveness. They:

- threaten teachers' sense of agency;
- implicitly encourage teachers to comply uncritically (eg teach to the test);
- challenge teachers' substantive identity;
- reduce the time teachers have to connect with, care for and attend to the needs of individual students;
- diminish teachers' sense of motivation, efficacy and job satisfaction.

It is these sources of meaning which reforms that ignore or erode core values de-stabilize, and which can destroy the sense of identity which is at the core of being an effective professional. *Paradoxically, then, imposed reform may in the long term diminish teachers' capacity to raise standards.*

TWO LONGITUDINAL RESEARCH STUDIES: THE SELF AND PROFESSIONALISM

Constructing, sustaining and renewing identity, then, are essential processes when implementing school reforms:

... the maintenance of a coherent story about the self is no longer a matter of occasional fixing if something goes wrong, but it is a continuing

process in need of continual 'reskilling'. This is deemed necessary in order to weather transitions that are part and parcel of everyday life
(Biggs, 1999, p. 53).

Two recent research studies provide empirical data about the ways in which reforms are affecting teacher identities and, therefore, their professionalism. The first, a recently published report of a cross cultural study which investigated the impact of policy on the work of secondary school teachers in England, France and Denmark (McNess *et al.*, 2003) found that in England the perceived demand for delivery of 'performance' had, 'emphasized the managerially effective' in the interests of accountability while ignoring teachers' deeply rooted commitment to the affective aspects of teaching and learning' (ibid, p. 243). It drew attention to the increasing body of work which illuminates the extent to which the social and emotional aspects of teachers' work – the emotional investment of self – causes them to be vulnerable to policy changes (Hargreaves, 1994; Nias, 1996; Woods and Jeffrey, 1996; Acker, 1999) which reduce opportunities for them to exercise creativity and develop caring relationships with their pupils (Pollard *et al.*, 1994; Woods, 1995; Menter *et al.*, 1997; Woods *et al.*, 1997). Using Bernstein's pedagogic models (Bernstein, 1996, pp. 57–63), the authors argued that curriculum pedagogy and assessment had moved from weak to strong classification through the imposition of a 'highly prescriptive national curriculum' (ibid, p 247) which had devalued 'the professional pedagogic skills of the teacher' (ibid, p 248). This had undermined the joint negotiation and close personal relationships between the teacher and pupil in which teachers' sense of personal identity in all countries is so bound up.

In Denmark, though reforms are different, the relatively loose national curriculum framework has meant more preparation time for differentiated work with a perceived 'effect on social cohesion and cooperative working' (ibid, p. 253) and the recent availability of children's test results on the internet indicates further movement towards a performativity agenda. In terms of teacher professionalism (in England), as in these countries, the research suggests that the role of teachers as knowledge constructors has been eroded, that autonomy in classroom decision making has been constrained, that their roles have become more instrumental and that their worth is judged principally on their success in complying to central agendas. In Norway, too, there is now national testing, national measures for judging the quality of schools, and increased competition between schools as privately financed schools are encouraged (Welle-Strand and Tjeldvoll, 2002). Similar changes have been reported in Finland (Rinne *et al.*, 2002) and Sweden (Lundahl, 2002). In short, ownership of the three key components of professionalism identified by Furlong *et al.* (2000, p. 4) – knowledge, autonomy and responsibility – is being contested.

These findings mirror those emerging from the VITAE project (a 4-year on-going study of variations in teachers' work and lives and their effects on pupils). This project conducted a survey with 1400 teachers and is working with 300 teachers at different phases of their careers in 100 primary and secondary schools in England over a 4-year period. Fewer than half the sample reported that their motivation was high, and one-in-five secondary teachers reported low motivation. The level of motivation

varied with years of experience. It was highest in the early years of teaching and then it declined, particularly in those with more than 16 years of experience. For around half only, motivation had increased over the past 3 years. For the others, it had declined. Half the teachers reported high levels of stress, and nearly two thirds of teachers in one disadvantaged LEA reported that they were consistently and frequently affected in their work by stress. The majority of teachers also perceived both a loss in time to respond to the needs of individual pupils and to teach creatively (Day *et al.*, 2003). In the first round of interviews, questions were asked about the effects of policy, practice, pupils and personal biography. Analysis of these showed that the overwhelming number of responses centred upon the self – in particular the effects of reforms on: 1) motivation and commitment; 2) beliefs, ideologies and personal and professional values; and 3) efficacy and job satisfaction. It was clear that these were *core elements of the teachers' professional identities*.

When asked what helped them to be an effective teacher, the respondents pointed to these core elements and to the emotional support of school cultures, individual colleagues, social relationships in the staffroom, a sense of being valued and that they were 'making a difference' in pupils' lives – a sense of agency. Many spoke of reforms as undermining their professionalism. They 'put you into a straightjacket', 'gave less time for creativity', 'take time away from teaching to kids' needs', 'de-skill', make it impossible to 'follow up interests of pupils'. There was 'too much filling in paper at the expense of teaching'.

That's why people don't enjoy teaching so much because there isn't that opportunity to put something of yourself into your classroom.

Further issues which arose from the survey and interviews must be taken into account in discussing changes in professionalism. First, there were differences between those teachers (the majority) who had entered teaching before the reforms and those who had entered during them (the latter were more positive about their impact). Whilst more experienced teachers were critical of the erosion of opportunities to exercise their moral purposes and contribute as educators to the education of the whole student, younger teachers seemed to be more content to exercise their pedagogical skills within what was perceived by their older colleagues as the narrower range of discretionary decision-making which was a consequence of the reforms. In short, two different kinds of professional identity are now being able to be distinguished in the reform landscape: one is located in a broader vision for professional identity which includes some responsibilities for care of the cognitive, affective, social and societal parts of the education of students by professionals who exercise broad moral purposes in their work; and the other focuses primarily upon teachers whose success is measured primarily through their ability to educate students to pass tests. This suggests that there may be an evolving transition in teacher professionalism towards the more instrumental, technical. It is clear, also, that the strength of the effects of reform upon identity are mediated not only by the nature of the reform itself but also by teachers' personal sense of vocationalism and the leadership, cultures, and pupil populations of the schools in which they work.

CONCLUSION

If the quality of the education provided to students is to be maintained or improved in the face of the increasing pressures and demands from a variety of stakeholders, teachers must be assisted in sustaining their enthusiasm for, and identification with their work which demands considerable investment of their cognitive and emotional selves (Louis, 1998; Day, 2000b). Teacher commitment has been found to be a critical predictor of teachers' work performance, absenteeism, retention, burnout and turnover, as well as having an important influence on students' motivation, achievement, attitudes towards learning and being at school (Firestone, 1996; Graham, 1996; Louis, 1998; Tsui and Cheng, 1999). As a consequence of the new monitoring, inspection and public accountability systems, in addition to the increased intensification of work through added bureaucratic tasks directly associated with the performativity agenda, reforms have promoted high degrees of uncertainty, instability and vulnerability for teachers (Ball, 2001, p. 7). Kelchtermans' (1996) study of the career stories of ten-experienced primary school teachers revealed two recurring themes: *stability in the job*: a need to maintain the status quo, having achieved ambition, led to satisfaction; *vulnerability* to the judgements of colleagues, the headteacher and those outside the school gates e.g. parents, inspectors, media reports which might be based exclusively on measurable student achievements. As vulnerability increased, so they tended towards passivity and conservatism in teaching. Surprisingly, however, the relationship between external reform, teachers' commitment, identity, the environments in which they work and the quality and effectiveness of their work is absent from the policies of those who believe that it is possible to steer the daily activities in the classroom from the centre. Nor has it been the subject of extensive research.

The implications for those wishing to change how teachers construe, construct and conduct their work are clear. Individuals' commitment to such change is essential. Changing operational definitions of professionalism requires working closely with teachers and their individual emotional and intellectual identities because unless these are addressed reform is unlikely to succeed in the longer term. This suggests rebuilding professionalism through sustained, critical dialogue, mutual trust and respect. In a multidisciplinary review of the theoretical and empirical literature on trust spanning four decades, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000), highlight the need to pay attention to trust, particularly in terms of change. They found that trust is:

- a means of reducing uncertainty in situations of independence
- necessary for effective cooperation and communication
- the foundation for cohesive and productive relationships
- a 'lubricant' greasing the way for efficient operations when people have confidence in other people's work and deeds (p549)
- a means of reducing the complexities of transactions and exchanges more quickly and economically than other means of managing organisational life.

Conversely, distrust, 'provokes feelings of anxiety and insecurity ... self protection ... minimising (of) vulnerability ... withholding information and ... pretence of even deception to protect their interests' (ibid. p. 550).

Identity, so important in the lives of teachers, is not, then, something which is fixed or static. It is an amalgam of personal biography, culture, social influence and institutional values which may change according to role and circumstance. It is often, 'less stable, less convergent and less coherent than is often implied in the research literature' (MacLure, 1993, p. 320). Yet sustaining a positive sense of identity to subject, relationships and roles is important to maintaining motivation, self-esteem or self efficacy, job satisfaction, and commitment to teaching; and although research shows consistently that identity is affected, positively and negatively, by classroom experiences, organisational culture and situation specific events which may threaten existing norms and practices (Nias, 1989; Kelchtermans, 1993; Flores, 2002), successive reform implementation strategies have failed to address its key role in effective teaching. Reform which addresses key issues of professional identity, commitment and change is more likely to meet the standards raising recruitment and retention agendas more efficiently and more effectively than current efforts which, though well intentioned, appear from empirical data to be failing to connect with the long term learning and achievement needs of teachers and students.

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42. TEACHERS ENGAGING IN RESEARCH AS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

There are countless representations of versions of teacher research, ranging from the action research model developed by Kemmis and McTaggart (1988), the teacher as critical researcher (Kincheloe, 2003) to the teacher as reflective practitioner (Schon, 1995). This chapter is not a polemic that critiques these various representations in order to mount a case for my own particular version. Rather, I want to particularise these different accounts within my own context, a context that includes myself as an ex-primary school teacher and a early career researcher, and the teachers that I have worked with during research projects over the last 2 or 3 years. Part of my interest in developing research partnerships with teachers stems from my own dissatisfaction with professional development or 'in-service' that was presented to me when I was teaching, as holding a one-size fits all solution to any given teaching 'problem'. Given this dissatisfaction, I am therefore reluctant to write a chapter that espouses a particular method or solution to questions about how to do research as a teacher. Instead, I begin this chapter with an overview of what is important to me to consider when working with teachers as co-researchers. The second part of the chapter describes some examples, localised and contextual as they are, of what seems to have been successful in my own work with teachers. The final section explores some of the problems that I have encountered, and a discussion of possible reasons for these problems.

TEACHERS AS RESEARCHERS

I am interested in the possibilities of engaging teachers as researchers who actively and agentially participate in projects that will lead to effective and meaningful changes in their practices. By positioning teachers as researchers I recognise the complexity of teachers' work and the theoretical underpinnings that inform their practices, while also recognising that 'teachers as researchers' has become one of many slogans infiltrating contemporary educational discourses. As Zeichner signals:

In the last decade, the slogans of 'reflective teaching', 'action research', 'research-based' and 'inquiry-oriented' teacher education have been embraced by both teacher educators and educational researchers throughout the world.

(Zeichner, 1994, p. 9).

My use of these slogans then is somewhat paradoxical. I signal my knowledge of the slogans while at the same time I want to disrupt the emptiness of the slogan – to point

out the richly complex work that teachers do when they act as researchers into their own practice.

The embrace of slogans in the 1980s and 1990s that Zeichner refers to has become a tight bearhug in the 21st Century. These terms have become commonplace not only in education faculties across Australia and other parts of the world, but within education systems and schools. The slogans have infiltrated political discourses, so that state education ministers can talk about teachers as reflective practitioners, and have become part of new managerialist discourses so that school principals and administrators can talk about the performative outcomes of using action research in professional development. Critics such as Zeichner (eg 1993) point to the haphazard way that such terms have been taken up by disparate groups. Ivor Goodson points to the “number of problems” (1995, p. 55) that arise when the ‘teacher as researcher’ slogan is used to focus research on teacher narratives and classroom experiences. While Butt et al (1992, p. 53) call for “research approaches that allow the teacher’s knowledge of classroom realities to emerge”, they also warn of the dangers of attempting to find generalisable and prescriptive solutions in educational research.

TEACHERS AS BRICOLEURS

Within this context then, it is important to foreground the complex nature of teachers’ work and the rich mix of theoretical underpinnings that informs teachers’ work. All of my research and teaching is informed by my understanding of teachers as *bricoleurs*. *Bricoleur* is a French word, drawn from the work of anthropologist Levi-Strauss and used by French philosophers, Derrida (1978) and de Certeau (1984). A *bricoleur* is someone who draws on a variety of resources around them to create a meaningful assemblage of practices. For teachers, these resources may include curriculum documents, teachers’ reference books, in-service and professional development sessions, pre-service education experiences, conversations with other teachers, and memories of their own school experiences. Drawing on this diverse range of resources allows teachers to create a *bricolage* of practice that makes specific and particular sense for each group of students with whom they work.

Understanding teachers as *bricoleurs* and their work as *bricolage* helps me to make sense of some of the questions and dilemmas that continually arise in the education sector. For example, often departmental staff, curriculum advisers, policy writers and academics assume that teachers do not read or understand policy documents and this is blamed for the inconsistent uptake of new curriculum. When teachers are regarded as *bricoleurs*, it is possible to see that teachers take what they need from any policy documents to help them construct their meaningful practices. Each *bricolage* is unique, even those constructed by the same teacher for different groups of students, in different years, at different schools and so on. Teachers are also professionals, who will not follow blindly mandated curriculum or departmental directives and who will not be technical bureaucrats teaching with pre-packaged sets of materials from professional development sessions. The teacher as *bricoleur* is someone who carefully and thoughtfully makes a series of professional judgements about **what** and **how** to teach.

DISRUPTING THE THEORY/PRACTICE BINARY

The practical teacher is often constructed as subordinate to the theoretical academic. The binary of theory/practice permeates teaching, teacher training, and theories of pedagogy to such an extent that it is often taken-for-granted. The removal of sociology, philosophy and psychology from teacher education courses, the ‘what do we do on Mondays’ approach of many inservice packages, the atheoretical construction of many teacher education curriculum courses, are all examples of the pervasiveness of this discourse.

The implicitness of the theory/practice binary allows Bob Connell to disavow teachers’ abilities to theorise their work: “In place of theories of education these teachers have what might be called operating principles about how to be a teacher: something between a rule of conduct and a style of approaching the world” (Connell, 1985). Connell’s statement itself constructs a binary between theories and operating principles, as if one’s style of approaching the world cannot be called theoretical. This construction has much to do with the structuralist construction of knowledge, with the Cartesian split between the mind and body, and with the commonsense view that theory is somehow aesthetic and esoteric (the thinking), while practice is pragmatic, embodied actions, (the doing). Construction of this binary denies the realities of the ways in which theoretical propositions inform embodied realities. This in turn denies the realities of teachers’ work; classroom practice is always pragmatic, embodied, and is always informed by some kind of thinking. The lack of attention paid in research and pedagogical theories to the reflexive work that goes on in, within, and behind teachers’ actions has much to do with the maintenance of this binary.

LOCAL AND CONTEXTUAL EXAMPLES OF WHAT WORKS

During the last 3 years I have developed research projects that are based on work with teachers as co-researchers (Honan, 2004). These projects were designed to contribute to the field of research involving teachers as critical, reflective co-researchers. Research that provides insights into praxis actively contributes to the reconstruction of “teaching as intellectual work” (Smyth, 2001, p. 197). Such research also contributes to the development of new relationships between members of faculties of education and the teaching profession, as it shifts the emphasis away from the construction of academics as ‘experts’ towards collegial, ethical and agentic collaborations between different groups of educators.

THE PROJECTS

The research projects involve teachers investigating their literacy teaching and learning practices, using the framework of the “four resources literacy model” as a mapping tool:

One of the strengths of the “four resources model” is that it attempts to recognise and incorporate many of the current and well-developed

techniques for training students in becoming literate. It shifts the focus from trying to find the right method to whether the range of practices emphasised in one's reading program are indeed covering and integrating a broad repertoire of textual practices that are required in new economies and cultures. The model, then, is a map of possible practices
(Luke and Freebody, 1999).

The four resources model, as explicated by Freebody and Luke (see for eg Freebody and Luke, 1990, 2003; Luke and Freebody, 1997, 1999), provides teachers with a framework to investigate their current literacy teaching practices while also providing an overview of the particular resources that “participants in literacy events are able to use” (Freebody and Luke, 2003, p. 56). These four resources are breaking the code of texts, participating in the meaning of texts, using texts functionally, and critically analysing and transforming texts. Teachers can use the four resources model to examine their current practices to find out if they are helping students to use all four repertoires of practices or if they are focusing only on one or two.

I have worked with three different groups of teachers as they undertake this investigation of their own practices, mapping the existing practices onto the four resources model, and trialling strategies and teaching practices that would ‘fill the gaps’. Each of the projects has differed in timing and organisation, while following the same framework. The latest of these projects, completed in November, 2004, followed the procedure described here.

A group of six teachers and the school literacy coordinator met over a three month period. We had five full-day sessions and one after-school meeting. At this first after-school meeting, I provided teachers with readings on the four resources model (Luke and Freebody, 1999; Freebody and Luke, 2003; Honan, 2004). During each of the full-day sessions, teachers spent time writing and reflecting on issues raised. As well, I tape recorded part of the discussions and their reflections at the end of the project. The written reflections and responses and the transcriptions of the tape recordings form the main part of the data collected, along with my own notes and reflections.

The teachers drew on their readings of the two papers, the framework, and on my explanations of the four resources to develop a set of shared understandings about the model. We discussed examples of activities that would assist students to develop one or other of the resources and we talked about the kinds of balanced literacy programs that could be the result of using the model. Following this session, the teachers engaged in a discussion that centred on the question, ‘why do we do the things we do?’ I asked them to brainstorm the factors that had influenced their teaching practices and then to write about their responses to this question.

The teachers then collected data on their current teaching practices using diverse sources such as their planning documents, student worksheets and/or information they collect for ongoing assessment of student work, while others made notes about their teaching practices while they were actually engaged in teaching. The next stage of the research process was to map the strategies that the teachers currently used, collected in the data collection phase, onto the four resources framework. The teachers

and I worked together to decide which of the four resources was being encouraged by each particular teaching strategy they described as being used in their classrooms.

There are some important points that can be made about the teachers' practices from the construction of this map, and the discussion that surrounded the construction. For example, in one project, the emphasis on code breaking in their current teaching was quickly recognised by the teachers. They drew each others attention to the growing list of practices under the *breaking the code* heading, while at the same time noting that they had not been previously aware of this emphasis. So the mapping exercise shed new light on the teachers' existing practices.

In that same project, the teachers were aware that the practices listed under the map heading *participate in the meaning* grew out of work they had previously done using a language experience approach. The language experience approach encourages teachers to plan shared activities such as excursions so that literacy teaching can build on the shared knowledge and experiences gained during such activities. So the mapping exercise assisted teachers to see how their theoretical beliefs about literacy informs their practices.

In all of the projects teachers saw that they were not encouraging students to *critically analyse and transform texts*. Making visible this gap helped teachers to think critically themselves about their own practices. So the mapping exercise not only helped the teachers see their practices in new ways but also helped them to identify where they might strengthen their work. This then is much more than just a reaffirmation of teachers' work – the mapping exercise provided the teachers with the impetus needed to create and transform new practices.

The next stage of the process was directed at the creation of new practices, as the teachers worked to discover ways to teach students how to critically analyse and transform texts. However, this search for new practices once again depended heavily on the teachers' existing professional knowledge. From these discussions and searches, the teachers devised practices that could be trialled within a two week period in their classrooms.

After the two weeks of trialling new strategies we met to discuss the problems and successes experienced in the classroom. We then began the task of creating a list of strategies that could be used to encourage students' development of all four of the literacy resources. This was a long and complex task that involved many drafts until all the teachers were satisfied with the final list. During our last meeting I asked the teachers to reflect, in both written and oral forms, on their experiences during the project. I asked them to consider not only the content of the project, that is the investigation of their current literacy teaching practices and the use of the four resources model as a mapping tool, but also the process of the project, including issues related to time, organisation, number of participants and so on.

There were three decisions that I made in the planning of these projects that were significant to the overall success of the relationship between myself and the teachers. The first decision was related to time. Taken for granted within discourses that describe teachers as 'life long learners' is that they will be willing to engage in such learning opportunities in their own time. In Australia at least, and quite commonly in

other countries, professional development and inservice courses are offered either after school or on weekends. In Australia, schools may support teachers' participation in such programs through financial reimbursement but few have the financial resources to release teachers from classroom duties so they could attend such courses in school time. Primary school teachers are especially vulnerable to this situation as they have little non-contact time. A significant impediment to primary school teachers becoming researchers is the lack of time available to them to pursue such intellectual interests. The development of teachers as reflexive practitioners is also affected by the lack of time available to them (Goodson, 1995). Teachers themselves acknowledge the possibilities of transforming practices through thoughtful and considered discussions about praxis (Honan, 2003, 2004). In my research funding applications I therefore budget for classroom release for teachers to participate. This aspect of the projects is always commented on favourably by the teachers in their final reflections on their participation.

The second decision I made was to distribute some readings for the teachers to read before the project began. The construction of teachers as atheoretical and practical includes descriptions of them as non-readers, as too busy, or disinterested, to read. I wanted to debunk this myth, or to at least test it, to see if teachers would read materials that were theoretical. In teaching language and literacy education, I often point out to students that children will and do read, if the material is relevant and there is a purpose for the reading. These criteria are also important to teachers (and to other adults as well). I provided the teachers with sets of readings during our first meeting and explained that during our first whole-day session there would be a space for teachers to discuss these readings with me, to ask questions about the readings, and that the readings provided the context for the project we were about to embark upon. It was clear then to the teachers that the project depended heavily on their prior reading of the materials.

The third decision was related to the expert/novice binary that permeates many school/university partnerships. In a paper reflecting on the collaborative work undertaken by academics and teachers in one significant research project, Grundy and her colleagues point to a "history of school mistrust of academics" (Grundy *et al.*, 2001, p. 207) as one of the impediments to the development of collegial relationships. In their attempts to break down this perceived mistrust, the academics in the project attempted to reject the "role of the 'expert', the outsider who has the knowledge and provides the answers" (p. 208).

In my own work I also make a conscious effort not to position myself as 'expert'. In one of the projects this seemed to be reasonably successful in at least one of the teacher's eyes. Lavinia says in her reflections on the research process:

I've never been involved in a process where there's an end product like this and you're going to publish it so it's an interesting process. I really enjoyed it. I think that it's got a lot to do with you, very laid back way that makes people have to think about it- gives people scope to feel that what they're saying is beneficial and of benefit. Because what you're doing is

not saying well, I have an end product, I've already written it, you're saying whatever the end product is it's worthwhile because the whole lot of us went through that process not just ... I like that you've challenged us, if someone says something that you think, I don't really agree with that, then you've said, oh I don't agree with that but you've never I don't think it's ever been a put down, like I know more because I've done more, it's more a well have you ever thought of.

Here, Lavinia constitutes me as a co-researcher who engages in discussions that allow teachers scope to consider thoughtfully their current practices. While providing opportunities for teachers to extend their thinking, this co-researcher undertakes such challenges in such a 'laidback way' that teachers feel comfortable in offering their own opinions. Lavinia's positioning of me as this collaborative co-researcher may be due to our closeness in age, our common experiences in classrooms and schools that were identified during our meetings, and her own acceptance of some of the challenges that I provided during our discussions.

PROBLEMS

Research or professional development

The model of research that I use is far removed from models of professional development usually offered to teachers. I believe that this kind of research offers teachers more complex and deeply theoretical ways to think about their teaching practices than those offered in professional development opportunities. As I explained at the beginning of this paper, one of the outcomes I desire is to encourage teachers to see themselves as co-researchers investigating ways to improve their teaching practices. Lankshear and Knobel (2004) have described one of the key points that distinguishes teacher research from that led by academics as "that teacher research must flow from the *authentic* or felt questions, issues and concerns of *teachers themselves*". Most importantly they see this point as being compatible with guidance and formal suggestions offered by academics. It is how the relationships are formed and conducted between members of the research team that identifies the work as teacher research. I believe that one of the impediments to this construction of a collegial relationship between teachers and academics is the history of professional development and research as sites for any engagement between these two groups of educators. Implicated in this historical relationship between teachers and academics is "teacher education's history of ineffective incorporation of research into professional education programs" (Kincheloe, 2003, p. 40). Kincheloe says that:

Teachers involved in on-site action research projects often have difficulty adapting their teacher education-inculcated notion of research in education into the context created by the teacher research proponents. Even after their involvement in educational action research, teachers are reluctant to say that they really did research

(Kincheloe, 2003, p. 40).

To try to get a sense of the teachers' understanding of their own engagement in the research project, during the reflection interviews I asked the question, 'did you see this process as research or professional development?' Their answers point to the complexity of trying to tease apart these two different relationships between academics and teachers.

I see the research has helped the professional development but I see it as research because you basically asked us to collect data, to analyse data, to talk about data, and then come up with recommendations for the next time ... I think the research side of it was important.

(Lavinia)

It would seem that here Lavinia understands herself as a co-researcher because of her understanding of the nature of the research process. Collection of the data and analysis of the data were undertaken by her so she knows that she was a researcher.

I don't know how you separate the research and the pd, because it was pd, it was professional development but we also based it on somebody's research. I think it was myself as a teacher receiving pd based on the research and a little bit of the research process.

(Isobel)

Here Isobel is drawing on her past experiences of professional development programs that are informed by research. The research done by somebody else (i.e. Freebody and Luke) was more important to her than any process she engaged in.

I suppose I didn't look at it as research. I came on board looking at it as professional development because I know when I signed up it was, for me, well I'm coming here, I'm hoping to learn about something new hopefully or take away with me strategies or even look at things in a way that I hadn't looked at before. I didn't see it as research. I mean with research I thought it was more your angle, it was something we were helping you with but I saw it as two focus where I saw it as well, we'll help you with your research and you're helping us to highlight the different strategies we could use in the classroom. For me that was going to be the purposeful thing.

(Jenna)

Jenna describes what I would call 'research as usual', where an academic invades a school for her own purposes, and attempts to 'give something back' to the teachers as a gift for being involved. While this would seem to be a cooperative exercise, it highlights the unequal relationships between academics and teachers during these types of research projects.

I think it's a bit of both but I think the difference is, in PD you get given a whole lot of in a day or something you get given a whole lot of information and it's all theoretical. And the difference is we've been given a

lot of theoretical information as well but we've been able to use all our practical experience and we've had time.

(Tara)

To Tara the difference between this project and her previous experiences lay more in the time and content than in the process. Like Jenna's comments, Tara also points here to the unequal relationship established between academics and teachers, where the teachers are receivers of packages of information.

Comments such as these have led me to ask questions of myself as an academic and a researcher, and of the research process I designed. Some of these questions include: was I engaging in 'research as usual' under the guise of engaging teachers in co-researcher practices? What kinds of discourses were operating in our discussions and how did these discourses work to position the teachers as both co-researchers and teachers receiving professional development? How am I implicated in the construction of these positionings?

These questions provide a far different reading of the teachers' comments than a reading that would increase the barriers between academics and teachers. In what follows I turn a reflexive gaze on my own position within these projects, as I examine the discourses that I used in one particular project.

THE ACADEMIC AS EXPERT

In reflecting on my own rejection of the 'expert' role, I reassured myself that I had never intended to take up this position. I revisited the funding application I completed, where I described one of the aims as: 'to support teaching staff at one school as they undertake research to inform improvements in their literacy program'. The synopsis of the project in this funding application included the point that the project 'will involve teachers investigating their own practices with guidance from Dr Honan, and teachers and Dr Honan working together to investigate the changes in pedagogical practices that occur after the introduction of the four resources model'.

Such admirable aims, and rejection of the position of expert, are contradicted, unfortunately, through a close examination of the discourses operating in the conversations I had with the teachers, as evidenced in the transcripts of the tape recordings. For example, in the following transcript extract there are many indicators of the expert status I hold:

Eileen: So do you think that's part of teaching generally?

Jenna: Very much so now at the moment

E: What do you mean now

Jenna: Because I think these days the focus is more on how children learn best and we know so much more about different learning styles and we're wanting to know more about it so we're gearing ourselves towards that

E: Lavinia did you want to say something?

Lavinia: I agree with Isobel I think that often you can make changes ... and you are very motivated and it the work's really hard but

you work at it but then it becomes really hard work – there’s a lot more preparation – and sometimes it slides and you have to keep that motivation level up to maintain it – so I think change often requires a lot of motivation on your part and a lot of good resources and good strategies – otherwise it is a very difficult situation

E: Tara?

Tara: Umm because that’s what’s happened in my classroom because I’m not really sure what they did in the first half of the year so we came in and kind of created a different environment for them and um I guess because I’ve done that before it wasn’t as hard for me and it’s taken them a little bit of time but they’ve been able to get into a routine and I think you have to get to know those children my children don’t like lots of change, but yeah like introducing just one thing, one activity going through that and then they get comfortable with that type of thing, it works. If you’re introducing everything at once it gets too difficult I think
E: But do you think that’s for yourself as well as a teacher?

Tara: Yeah

In this extract, I act as director and manager of the discussion. I ask the questions (do you think that’s part of teaching generally?’, I direct who responds and when they respond (Tara?), I probe for further explanations (what do you mean ‘now?’), and I attempt to steer the discussion in the direction I want it to take (do you think that’s for yourself as well as a teacher?). This is only one small example from the transcripts, but the complete set of transcripts provides many such interactions. The turn-taking, direction of discussion, and management of responses, are generally also examples of common classroom interactions between teachers and students (Edwards and Westgate, 1987). This is quite a telling analogy, as I was a primary school teacher, and I am employed now as a teacher educator. It would seem then that the co-researcher relationship I wanted to establish with the teachers in this project was infiltrated by the discursive positionings more in common in relationships between academics and teachers, or teachers and students. In both cases, the ascendant position is that of expert, the holder of power(full) knowledge (Honan, 2002).

RESEARCH AS USUAL

I believed that the invitation to work with these teachers helped to establish the collegial and co-researcher nature of this particular set of relationships. I intended that the research project was organised in such a way that teachers’ ‘authentic questions’ were being addressed while they were being guided in the conduct of the research process by myself as academic researcher. But in a description of the project (see Honan, 2003), the use of the singular personal indicates the number of decisions made by myself without consultation with the teachers:

- I suggested that a pilot research project could be undertaken
- I decided to use the four resources framework
- I asked the teachers to spend time writing

- I tape recorded part of the discussions
- I asked the teachers to brainstorm
- I asked the teachers to collect data
- I introduced the four resources framework
- I gave the teachers two papers
- I asked the teachers to reflect

Here I am not claiming that a stylistic, grammatical alteration from singular to plural personal pronouns would change the constitution of myself as expert. Rather, my use of the singular pronoun signifies the power(full) position I maintained, both during the research process, and in the reporting of the process. It signifies that the process, while taking on the superficial gloss of the teacher as researcher rhetoric, continued to uphold my power(full) position as expert academic.

CONCLUSION

Turning this reflexive gaze on my own contributions to the research project has allowed me to examine some of the hidden implications of attempts to develop new relationships between academics and teachers. My current work is extending this examination to take account of how teachers are positioned within discourses surrounding existing partnerships between teachers and academics. I am engaged in an analysis of the discourses that academics use in their writing about the success or failure of such partnerships. This analysis will reveal the subject positions offered to teachers within these discourses, and the consequences for teachers who accept or resist such positioning. This work will contribute to the development of partnerships that recognise the complex theoretical work that teachers do, and engages both academics and teachers in collegial relationships that will result in research that has significant impact on the improvement of quality learning outcomes in schools.

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SECTION SEVEN

THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY: TOOL OF THE
TRADE OR THE TERROR FOR TEACHERS?

43. ICTS AND TOMORROW'S TEACHERS: INFORMING AND IMPROVING THE ICT UNDERGRADUATE EXPERIENCE

It's no use standing in the shower if you don't turn the tap on.
from *The wisest wisdom of Guru Bob*

(Champion, 2004)

It won't happen overnight – and it might not happen at all ...
The famous Knitting Lamas of Aerbaijani Marketplace,
cited in *The wisest wisdom of Guru Bob*

(Champion, 2004)

INTRODUCTION – ICTS AND CHANGES
IN EXPECTATIONS FOR TEACHERS

The two humorous quotes resonate provocatively with the challenges presented by Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). Specifically, despite the increasing provision of computer hardware and software in classrooms, we continue to observe instances of ICTs not 'being turned on', and whilst we acknowledge that effective ICT integration 'won't happen overnight', there is evidence that ICT integration is 'not happening at all'. Support for this is provided by Morrison and Lowther (2002), who note that although there has been a dramatic effect of ICTs on work culture, we have not seen the predicted revolution in learning.

We distinguish here between the provision of ICTs (e.g. Internet capability) in schools and meaningful learning with ICTs by students. For example, the NCES report (2003) indicates that 99% of a sample of public schools in the U.S.A. had access to the Internet in 2001, as did 87% of instructional rooms. Furthermore, 85% of those schools with an Internet connection (all but 1%) used a broadband connection. Nevertheless, while that data reflects high levels of accessibility to the Internet in schools in the U.S.A., the availability does not guarantee meaningful use of the Internet for learning. In part, this may be due to the caution posed by Brady and Kennedy (2003) that teachers used to industrial-style classrooms will be challenged by reconfigured classrooms. Similarly, Smith and Finger (2002) remind readers that teachers and school administrators' experiences were shaped in an historical period where clear boundaries and security were the norm. The certainties of these times have "given way to a new kind of turmoil and uncertainty" (Smith and Finger, 2000, p. 22).

In many respects, issues involving ICTs are indicative of a wider movement towards a different kind of society, where there are changed expectations for teachers. For Blake and Hanley (1998), the critical factors associated with an imperative for change include the growing importance of the Internet, the redundancy of technologies

and the consequent increases in ICT budgets. This results in additional explorations of new knowledge possibilities, pedagogies, and student-teacher relationships responsive to learners' needs.

It is symptomatic of periods of fundamental change, as Smith and Finger (2002) suggest, that cherished ideas become dysfunctional. The importance of this observation for teachers is that school practices can remain unchanged from earlier times, before the introduction of ICTs. While ICTs are being increasingly beyond schools, the inertia of educational systems contribute to a situation where the production and reproduction of obsolescent data and theories from an earlier period can continue to inform current teacher education practice. Our view, in contrast, is founded on the premise that there are critical connections between required changes in teacher education programs, visions of new teaching and learning programs, and the educational benefits of ICTs.

ICTS AND TEACHER EDUCATION – DIMENSIONS OF ICT USE

Growing concerns about preservice teacher education in Australia have focused on issues such as teacher shortages, funding, and teacher education quality provided by universities. These are undoubtedly real concerns, reflected in the observation by the Australian Council of Deans of Education (ACDE, 2001) that “teacher supply is projected to reach critical levels over the next five years” (p. 114). However, we argue that there are additional urgent issues relating to preparing future teachers to realise the associated transformational potential of ICTs. There is now evidence of widespread support that we need to “better exploit the potential of ICT” (DEST, 2002, p. 3) but that:

... to date, this potential has not been realised in any significant way, particularly the potential to transform how, what, where and why students learn what they do. While there are only limited examples of the transformative power in the educational sector, experience from industry and other sectors clearly demonstrates that new times need new approaches, and that the nature and application of ICT enable that transformation.

(DEST, 2002, p. 3)

Recognition of the importance of ICT curriculum integration has already occurred, and most teacher education programs have introduced courses in ICTs for future teachers. International examples include the U.S.A. (US Department of Education, 1999), New Zealand (Ministry of Education, New Zealand, 1998), Hong Kong (Information Technology Learning Targets Working Group, 1999), and Australia (DEST, 2002). What is needed is a closer look at the aims and content of those courses.

According to DEST (2001), there was a tendency in early approaches with ICTs to focus on the acquisition of ICT skills as an end in themselves – teaching *about* computers. Subsequently, the focus moved to teaching *with* computers which attempted to enhance teaching and learning through integrating ICTs within the existing curriculum.

The teacher education response to this orientation aims to enable student teachers to integrate ICTs into their teaching and learning. While this is a commendable development, this conceptualisation of ICT integration assumes that the existing curriculum remains unchanged in terms of what is taught, and ICTs become used as a means for enhancing the delivery of that curriculum. Even at this level of ICT integration, success is limited, as *Making Better Connections* (DEST, 2001), which reviewed preservice teacher education programs in Australia, reported that “while pre-service teachers receive considerable exposure to, and experience with, ICTs in their training, they receive limited experience in actual classroom use” (p. 2).

Teaching *about* computers and teaching *with* computers reflects the first two dimensions of ICT use articulated in the framework provided by DEST (2002) which identifies four interrelated and overlapping dimensions of ICT use. The third dimension indicates that ICTs influence changes in *what* students learn and *how* students learn, while the fourth dimension notes that ICTs becomes an integral component of reforms that “will alter the organisation and structure of schooling itself” (pp. 20–21). Drawing on this dimension of ICT use, we question assumptions that it is sufficient to focus on learning *about* and learning *with* computers. We maintain that much of this work in teacher education has not gone far enough.

There is little evidence available which illustrates ICT use as an “integral component of the reforms” to schooling. In our view, schools and student needs are likely to be very different in the next decade. Among the diversity of school types will be virtual schools, where students spend part or all of their time working ‘off-campus’, for example, from home using an online computer. In preparing for the future, we need to ask – what will schools look like in 5–10 years time? The traditional model of one teacher with a class of students which meets in a physical space for timetabled lessons is already being challenged. More than thirty years ago, Alvin Toffler’s (1970) prediction in *Future Shock* that computer-assisted education would play a part in changes to school education anticipated the current developments of virtual schools and other forms of distance education using computers. Clark (2001) identified over 100 virtual schools in the U.S.A. alone. The number of these schools, characterised by a separation between teacher and learner, and the use of online computers, are continuing to expand. There are virtual schools in Canada, Australia, Israel and the United Kingdom, in addition to examples such as the Islamic Virtual School, the Virtual School for the Gifted, and the International House Net Languages School (Russell, 2002). In addition to virtual schools, ICTs are affecting many aspects of school education, and it is timely to consider what the implications of these changes for teacher education might be.

ICTS AND TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS – ALIGNING ASPIRATIONS AND AUDITING ACHIEVEMENTS

The aspirations for improving the ICT competencies of future teachers have focused on the identification of standards in Australia, (DEST, 2002; Finger, Lang, Proctor, and Watson, 2004), the U.S.A (ISTE, 1998; 2000) and the United Kingdom (BECTA, 2003).

Within Australia, individual Australian states have established their own standards, frameworks for teachers in their respective jurisdictions. An example is in Queensland, which requires that graduates should be “proficient in the use of ICT in learning environments” (Board of Teacher Registration, 2002, p. 6). Education Queensland now requires government schools, as an accountability measure, to undertake an ICT census which includes benchmarks for reporting the extent of ICT integration (Finger *et al.*, 2003; Proctor *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, Education Queensland has formulated an *ICT Continua* which expects teachers to see their professional development in ICTs as an ongoing ‘ICTs journey’ (Education Queensland, 2003a).

Thus, there are expectations that education graduates will need to be able to integrate ICTs in their teaching, and consequently should be given appropriate undergraduate courses for them to do so. However, it is not clear that existing courses match the rhetoric. While the Australian Council of Deans of Education (ACDE, 2001) predicted that “technology will become central to all learning”, DEST (2001) noted with respect to ICTs in tertiary teacher education programs that “while 75% expected all teacher education staff to integrate technology in the teaching of their subjects only 38% reported their staff actually doing so on a regular basis” (p. 39). To support the closer alignment between understandings of the need for ICT competencies in graduates and the actualities, The Council of Australian University Directors of Information Technology (CAUDIT) sought to identify ICT literacy required of all tertiary students and academic staff (Winship, 2000; 2001). CAUDIT encouraged universities to develop action plans which included processes to audit “IT literacy levels of staff and students on an on-going basis and of monitoring performance in achieving the goal of IT literacy” (Winship, 2001, p. 43).

Watson *et al.* (2004) noted that Winship identified issues relating to ICT literacy of university students that included the contestable assumptions that school leavers will have advanced ICT competencies; ICT literacy cannot be assumed in the case of mature-age students; ICT literacy is not a “once in a lifetime one shot injection but a lifelong continuum” (Winship, 2001, p. 33); and even students entering university with ICT competencies will require upskilling during the life of their university course. Thus, according to Watson *et al.* (2004), there are identifiable expectations that all university graduates will have developed an array of ICT competencies and education systems will expect education graduates to have additional competencies.

In an audit of teacher education undergraduates’ perceptions of their ICT experiences at one Australian university, Watson *et al.* (2004) raised concerns in relation to the limited band of computer applications with which the participants expressed high levels of competence and the high percentages of participants who perceived themselves to have no competence with certain applications. According to Watson *et al.* (2004), this applied specifically to applications such as multimedia development, visual thinking software and digital video editing which are arguably the applications that should be evident in schools.

Participants’ self-perception of their confidence to integrate ICT into student learning also revealed that the percentage of participants who rated themselves as having no or limited confidence with particular integration examples was of concern.

In relation to the integration examples, information was sought from respondents to items taken from the *ICT curriculum integration performance measurement instrument* (Proctor *et al.*, 2003) which Education Queensland uses in its annual ICT census data collection. This could be perceived as a predictor of ICT integration as these future teachers will be required to report against those ICT curriculum integration examples. Importantly, Watson *et al.* (2004) highlight the importance of conducting audits of the ICT experiences of students in undergraduate teacher preparation programs to ensure that all graduates will have the necessary competencies and confidence to integrate ICT into their students' learning. Furthermore, they are dubious about the extent to which all university academics are sufficiently ICT competent to model ICT integration effectively and hence state that "Specialist ICT academics have a role in the planning of ICT experiences across programs and in the auditing of ICT outcomes" (Watson *et al.*, 2004).

SCHOOL EDUCATION AND ICT: ONLINE INITIATIVES IN AUSTRALIA

In an overview of ICT initiatives in educational systems across Australia, Finger and Trinidad (2002) concluded that there is an "emergence of initiatives aimed at taking advantage of the potential of connectivity and students' learning in an online world" (p. 4). Evidence of the Australian Commonwealth Government's support for such initiatives is also found in the DETYA (2000) report, entitled *Learning in an Online World – School Education Plan for the Information Economy*. As displayed in Table 43.1, major online initiatives are occurring at the national level within Australia.

TABLE 43.1 Online initiatives in Australia Commonwealth Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) Initiatives and Projects

Initiatives and projects	Summary
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Progress report: Learning in an online world • The <i>Le@rning</i> Federation – Schools online curriculum initiative • Innovation and best practice project • Quality teacher programme (QTP) • Models of teacher professional development for the integration of ICT into classroom practice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Commonwealth Government promotes and supports national collaboration across school systems to achieve the goals set down in <i>Learning in an Online World</i> • A component of Backing Australia's Ability: An Action Plan for the Future, the <i>Le@rning</i> Federation aims to generate online curriculum content for system delivery to schools • The report <i>School Innovation: Pathway to the Knowledge Society</i> is available at http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/publications/2001/index.htm • Information technology is one of the QTP's six priority areas • The project report <i>Making Better Connections: Models of teacher professional development for the integration of ICT into classroom practice</i> is available at http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/publications/2002/professional.htm

Continued

TABLE 43.1 Continued

Initiatives and projects	Summary
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ICT competency standards for teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The project now complete and the report <i>Raising the Standards: a proposal for the development of an ICT competency framework for teachers</i> is available at http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/publications/2002/raisingstandards.htm
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Innovative bandwidth arrangements for the Australian education and training sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High speed online communications is a very high priority for the education and training sector. The project report is available at http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/publications/2001/bandwidth/index.htm
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Computer technologies for schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This project provides surplus Commonwealth Government computers and equipment to schools throughout Australia
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technical standards for the education and training sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The AICTEC established a Standards Sub-Committee to deal with standards issues relating to ICTs for education and training
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Performance measures for ICT 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MCEETYA, in 2001, endorsed a framework for national assessment and reporting of students' ICT skills and knowledge. MCEETYA also authorised the development of assessment instruments and key performance measures, and endorsed the national monitoring of ICT skills and knowledge of Year 5/6 and Year 9/10 students through two- or three-yearly sample assessment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National ICT Research Database 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An online database of State, National and Commonwealth research on the use of ICT in school education has been developed
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> International comparison of ICT policies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This project describes and analyses what governments in Australia and overseas, private education and training providers in Australia are doing in terms of ICTs and supporting transition to the information economy. This will provide a searchable, online database available through EdNA Online
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effective use of ICT to enhance learning outcomes of 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This project seeks to identify effective ICT practices and how they can be used with disadvantaged students to enhance learning outcomes of disadvantaged students
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> EdNA online 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> EdNA Online website is available at http://www.edna.edu.au, is managed by education.au.limited which is a non-profit company owned by the State, Territory and Commonwealth Ministers for Education and Training. This website provides a portal for an extensive range of quality services and resources to facilitate a network of Australian educators

(Source: Finger and Trinidad (2002) Summarised from MCEETYA Information Communication Technologies in Schools Taskforce. (2002). *Learning in an online world: the school education action plan for the information economy Progress report 2002*. MCEETYA.)

As well as the obvious implications for schools from the national initiatives, each of the Australian States and territories are engaged in online initiatives. For example, Table 43.2 displays examples of systemic online initiatives in Queensland. Listed among the digital content initiatives is *The Virtual Schooling Service*, which introduces new flexible delivery strategies using a range of ICTs (Education Queensland, 2003b). Delivery modes can be synchronous whereby students are linked using audio and data conferencing technology. In addition, asynchronous teaching and learning is available whereby the students can access digital media including documents, digital video, audio and graphics.

TABLE 43.2 Education Queensland – Systemic ICT Initiatives and Projects

Summary of Education Queensland's Systemic Projects to Support ICTs for Learning

Hardware, Infrastructure and Connectivity

- The systemic student to computer ratio improved from 6.6:1 to 6.1:1 over 12 months from 2000 to 2001. In Secondary Schools, the systemic student to computer ratio was 4.6:1.
- Schools report that, in 2001, 66.2% of curriculum computers had access to the managed Internet service.
- Education Queensland has set a target of 1 computer for every 5 students by 2005. (<http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/qse2010/pdf/draft-action-2010.pdf>)
- All Education Queensland schools are part of the Wide Area Network, each with either full cabling or a network starter kit installed.

Staff Professional Learning Programs

Learning and Development Foundation facilitates learning programs. ICT related professional development initiatives included:

- *Quality Teacher Program*
- *Learning and Development Centres (Technology)* were established to provide professional development for teachers.

Other initiatives include:

- The establishment of 8 *Technology, Maths and Science Centres of Excellence*.
 - *The Minimum Standards Learning Technology* requires all teachers to have attained these standards.
 - *The Information and Communications Technology Continua* (draft form) provide scaffolds for personal learning and development plans that incorporate ICT (<http://education.qld.gov.au/curriculum/learning/technology/cont.html>).
 - *Education Queensland's Website* (<http://education.qld.gov.au>) Redesigned to improve teacher and student access to online resources. The Curriculum Exchange, for example, has ICT resources http://education.qld.gov.au/tal/curriculum_exchange/ict/
 - *ICTs for Learning Strategy* (<http://education.qld.gov.au/ictsforlearning/>) Aims to assist Queensland state schools to integrate information and communication technologies (ICTs) into teaching, learning and the curriculum. It is part of the Queensland government's Education and Training Reforms for the Future (ETRF) package.
-

Continued

TABLE 43.2 Continued

Summary of Education Queensland's Systemic Projects to Support ICTs for Learning

Key Features:

Benchmarking, Core Schools Program, Priority Schools program, Innovation, Excellence and Improvement program

- *Systemic Projects to Support ICTs for Learning*

School ICT Profile Project, Performance Measures Project, Systemic Procurement and Service Delivery Project, ICT Support, Online Examples of ICT Curriculum Integration, Community Access to ICTs in Schools, Learning and Development Centres (Technology), and The Learning Place.

- *Education Queensland's Information Technology Board*

Established as a high-level strategic action group

- *Digital Content Initiatives*

AccessED produces digital content. Edulist is a collection of reviewed Internet sites. The Digital Resource Centre service is a key element and manages the Curriculum Exchange and Professional Exchange. Virtual Schooling Service has developed a range of digital content for some Year 11 and 12 subjects. Education Queensland actively promotes EdNA Online and Education Queensland schools are participants in EdNA sponsored online collaborative projects such as Netdays and OZProjects.

- *BYTE Awards*

Established to recognise excellent student achievement in ICTs and developing partnerships with industry leaders and universities.

- *Blackboard5*

Adopted as the Standard e-learning Platform.

- *Managed Internet Service Steering Committee*

Established to enhance communications between schools and the Internet Service Provider.

(Source: Finger and Trinidad (2002). Summarised from MCEETYA Information Communication Technologies in Schools Taskforce. (2002). *Learning in an online world: the school education action plan for the information economy Progress report 2002.*)

Implications of Online Learning for Teacher Education Futures

An extrapolation of these trends into the future predicts that teachers will need skills that are not currently emphasised in many teacher education courses, and that other skills will become less important when compared with current needs. Palloff and Pratt (2001) refer to the concept of the art of online teaching, and indicate that teaching in the cyberspace classroom requires that we move beyond traditional models of pedagogy into new and more facilitative practices. However, the transfer of traditional pedagogy to new and different media has not been matched by adequate training and professional development, resulting in the following difficulties:

- teachers within academic institutions ill-prepared to teach in an online environment;
- poor student and faculty participation in courses;
- difficulties with course construction; and
- poor course evaluations by students.

(Palloff and Pratt, 2001)

Thus, we argue that new skills are needed to enable the potential benefits afforded by ICTs to be realised. In order to conceptualise these new skills we have drawn on lists of skill sets in the U.S.A. and Australia. These include the enGauge 21st-century skills list (NCREL, 2003), which in turn has been derived from a number of nationally recognised skill sets in the U.S.A. In addition, we considered the teacher learning technology competencies developed by the Australian Council for Computer Education (ACCE, 2000). We have also drawn on the conceptual map of ICT skills provided by Russell, Finger and Russell (2000). These writers, drawing on the earlier work of Sandholtz *et al.*, (1997), argue for a transformative stage in teaching and learning using ICTs, in which technology is a catalyst for significant changes in learning practice.

Two of the essential conditions for effective technology use; that is, the notions of *educator proficiency* and *effective teaching and learning practice*, defined by NCREL (2003) as:

Educator proficiency (with Effective Teaching and Learning Practices) refers to educators who are proficient in implementing, assessing and supporting a variety of effective practices for teaching and learning. Proficiency requires the cultivation of digital-age skills and processes, planning and design, implementing technology-supported learning, assessment literacy, professional practice and productivity, and able to guide students as they deal with social, ethical and legal issues related to life in a technological world; and

Effective teaching and learning practice requires the vision to be translated into practice through learning environments characterised by powerful, research-based strategies that effectively use technologies.

Those two considerations do not comprehensively cover all dimensions proposed in the NCREL framework. However, our focus on these represents an attempt to suggest a starting point for identifying implications for pre-service teacher education. In each case, a future skill is identified, together with corresponding implications for teacher education (see Table 43.3). In our view, this is necessary to enable alignment with the third and fourth dimensions of ICT use (DEST, 2002, pp. 20–21), described earlier in this chapter, to realise effective changes in *what* students learn, *how* students learn, and contribute to reforms to the organisation and structure of schooling.

The New London Group (1996) notes that as we move into the 21st Century, changes have occurred in almost all aspects of people's working, public and private lives. The spread of ICTs in schools through improved provision of computer hardware, infrastructure and connectivity should not be seen as an isolated example of change affecting traditional educational structures. Rather, ICTs are a sign of the global, social and technological changes that have contributed to the 'new times' that we live in, a time where daily life is mediated by complex and changing multimedia and technologies. In education, this situation causes unavoidable dissonance as teachers who were trained in earlier times try to forecast and prepare others and themselves for future times (Luke, 2001). It is likely that this problem is compounded by the concerns relating to resistance raised by Hodas (1993). In this understanding of the organisational culture of schools, a conservative conception of what schools should be like can delay adequately preparing future teachers to cope with such

TABLE 43.3 Implications of ICT and connectivity for teacher education

<i>Essential conditions</i>	Implications for teacher education
Teacher skill	
<i>Educator proficiency</i>	
Behaviour management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Still required in conventional schools. Reduced need in virtual schools where there is no face-to-face contact. New environments require • Establishment of protocols for online communications; • Development of acceptable use policies; e.g. for Internet use; • Confidentiality, copyright, intellectual property.
Multi-modal screen-based literacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased need for this skill in most traditional and virtual schools. Includes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading, authoring and correcting screen-based material; • Advising students on appropriate use of elements such as graphics and sound; • Teaching web-authoring and multimedia production; • Evaluation of online materials.
Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multimedia and online environments enable • Creation of digital/electronic portfolios; • Online testing; • Online surveys, data collection, storage and analysis.
Authenticity determination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students will submit materials electronically. Verification will be difficult. Issues include <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cybercheating and plagiarism; • Intellectual property.
Context knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers should not learn ICT skills in isolation. They will need to know <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social practices, beliefs and values that embed ICTs in students' lives.
Effective teaching and learning practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implications for Teacher Education
ICT curriculum integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adequately prepared to design teaching and learning experiences where their future students demonstrate high levels of ICT use; e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To critically interpret ICT-based information and evaluate the worth of this information; • To develop confident, responsible and ethical attitudes to the use of computers in their school and society globally; • To communicate with others locally and globally.
Hypertext pedagogy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In addition to a basic knowledge of how to follow or create hyperlinks, teachers will need to be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create hyperlinks; • Teach and learn in an online world; • Teach students how to avoid the "lost-in-space" syndrome; • Achieve deep learning using the Internet; • Incorporate web-delivered, web enhanced and web-supported modes of delivery; • Incorporate "Learning objects" in teaching.
Interpreting cues in mediated communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In the absence of face-to-face cues such as facial expressions and body language, teachers will need to develop skills in reading nuances in email and other materials sent by students; e.g. emoticons.

Continued

TABLE 43.3 Implications of ICT and connectivity for teacher education

<i>Essential conditions</i>	
Teacher skill	Implications for teacher education
Socialisation and the teaching of values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where traditional school-based socialisation is reduced by agencies such as virtual schools, teachers will need to be able to offer alternative programs; • Explicit provision must be made for the teaching of values required in a civilized community.
Incorporating ICTs into discrete subject areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It will not be sufficient for teachers to be able to use a computer, or understand common applications such as a word processor, spreadsheet or database. • All teachers will need to be able to use online computers for learning in specific subject areas, in rich tasks which involve a transdisciplinary approach, and in integrated themes across subjects involving an interdisciplinary approach.

challenges and to capitalise upon the potential of the new ICTs to create new learning and teaching environments.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have argued that ICTs in education are linked to the need for an urgent reconceptualisation of the skills and learning experiences of students in current teacher education courses. We suggest that future teachers will require skills not currently emphasised in many teacher education programs, and that some skills which have been traditionally considered as important will become less central. Teacher education programs must move beyond a focus on the improvement of ICT skills, and beyond learning to integrate ICTs into existing curriculum using current practices. In this chapter, we have presented the case that we must aspire for more than that. Furthermore, we have argued for developing processes for auditing the ICT experiences, competencies of undergraduate education students to ensure that those aspirations are achieved.

NOTES

This Chapter has built upon the following refereed conference papers by the same authors:

- Russell, G. and Finger, G. (2003) Teacher Education Futures: Implications of Teaching and Learning in an Online World. Paper presented at *ICET/ATEA 2003*, July 20–25, 2003. Melbourne, Australia, and Finger, G. and Russell, G. (2004) Teacher Education Futures: Implications of Teaching and Learning in an Online World. Paper presented at the *ACEC 2004, Research, Reform, Realise the Potential*, July 5–8, 2004. Adelaide, Australia.

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44. WEBFOLIOS: AUTHENTIC OF STATE AND ACCREDITATION STANDARDS

In recent years, webfolios and ePortfolios have been highly vaunted as the next great innovation in education (Kilbane and Milman, 2003; Educause: NLII, 2002; Gathercoal, Love, Bryde and McKean, 2002; Love, McKean and Gathercoal, 2004). Prominent in the literature is optimistic rhetoric praising the benefits of the heuristic and metacognitive processes native to generating growth and showcase portfolios; most of the literature indicates that the process is so important and so valuable to the student, that the process alone is reason enough to “dump” traditional assessment practices in favor of portfolios, ePortfolios and/or webfolios.

Gaining widespread popularity in education, portfolio assessment has tremendous advantages over traditional one-time, objective-based test assessment. Objective-based test assessment only focuses on the product and limits the learner's ability to demonstrate the learning process. It does not allow learners to focus on specific developmental issues that are important to them, instead forcing them to focus on what the teacher deems important. Traditional assessment is a “moment in time glimpse” of a learner's ability to perform a task or set of tasks. It does not account for any external forces that may be affecting learners' ability to demonstrate their skills. In addition, portfolio assessment allows learners to demonstrate the knowledge they felt was crucial to their learning experience. Through properly constructed and thoroughly documented portfolios, learners can chronicle the moments of discovery that they underwent during their learning journey (Herman and Morrell, 1999, p. 86–87).

Today there is considerable interest in K-12 schools to move from paper to electronic portfolios and there seem to be no apparent obstacles, certainly no technical obstacles that will impede that transition. This is the view held by the authors of this chapter when we began implementing web-based electronic portfolios in K-12 schools. After implementing and generating our own web-based student portfolios in higher education, our experiences at California Lutheran University (CLU) and our work with other institutions indicate the transition is not as easy as it seems and successful implementation depends on a set of critical success factors. In K-12 schools where some of the success factors are missing, CLU is assisting its partner schools by providing resources and training so CLU can better prepare our preservice teachers

who are placed in these partner schools, our graduate students who are already teaching and our cooperating teachers to better use technology in teaching and learning.

As developed in this chapter, a webfolio is a tightly integrated collection of web-based multimedia documents that includes curricular standards, course assignments, student artifacts in response to assignments, and reviewer feedback of students' work. In the authors' opinions it is the integrated collection and how the collection is stored and used that differentiates the webfolio from other paper and traditional electronic portfolios. The webfolio opens up new possibilities for observing and influencing the interaction between curriculum, students, parents and teachers.

A K-12 webfolio system consisting of teacher assignments, learning resources, student artifacts, mentor feedback, and curriculum standards is being utilized in the CLU Teacher Preparation program and in partner schools. The webfolio system also supports continuous curriculum improvement and allows all educators to share teaching and learning strategies, learning resources, and assignments with their colleagues. A collaborative community of learners evolves around the development and use of the webfolio system. Students respond to assignments linked to state curriculum standards by generating multimedia WWW documents (*artifacts*). Teachers and mentors provide feedback on a student's work and the comments are kept as electronic logs and viewed only by the student who generated the artifact. A web-based system instantly organizes a student's work and presents the artifacts in a student webfolio, displaying not only the artifact, but also the associated assignments and activities. Any authorized webfolio user can assess the student's mastery of curricular standards. A student's webfolio starts in kindergarten, is continued through grade 12, and it archives a student's lifelong learning and career development; as well as showcasing the newest and finest achievements in the student's life work. This manuscript will discuss how the ProfPort K-12 Webfolio system operates and share insights about the implementation process in CLU's K-12 partner schools.

RATIONALE FOR USING A WEBFOLIO WITH A STANDARDS-BASED CURRICULUM IN K-12 SCHOOLS

As with all educational reforms, the standards movement in California has brought both opportunities and challenges. One of the challenges is to make teaching to the standards an engaging and meaningful process for students and for teachers, rather than just another arid and empty "reform" imposed from above. Authentic assessment of student work, including a cumulative presentation of that work, would encourage authentic student participation in the work. A web-based portfolio system provides a way for teachers to organize their instruction, to store student work, and to allow for authentic assessment of student learning.

The California academic content standards are carefully organized to be sequential, developmental, and age-appropriate. The use of a webfolio can help teachers

make both instruction and assessment also be sequential, developmental, and age-appropriate. Grade-level colleagues, academic departments, and even district-wide groupings of teachers should collaborate on the targeting of standards, the creation of authentic and meaningful assessments of the learning of those standards, and collegially-developed methods of instruction. A webfolio can allow for ways of organization that are easier to navigate for students and teachers, and allow for a more obvious set of connections among assignments to demonstrate the developmental sequence of assignments tied to the standards. Clearer organization of assignments, more obvious sequential and developmental processes within the assignments, and the visible presence of assignments over a long period of time will all aid both teachers and students in the process of engaging in a meaningful process of standards-based teaching and learning.

The challenge for those charged with teaching to state-mandated standards is to make standards-based instruction meaningful, purposeful, and engaging, not just another set of required exercises. Teaching to the standards is no guarantee of effective and engaging instruction, nor is use of the webfolio such a guarantee. But portfolio assessment allows teachers to collect work over time, which allows students and teachers to spot continuing problems, to note areas of progress, to develop holistic evaluations of student work, and to develop holistic evaluations of instructional success.

The webfolio also allows for and encourages the kind of long-range instructional planning necessary for successful teaching to standards. The California academic content standards are organized in proper sequence and move from one developmental stage to the next. By placing assignments on the webfolio, teachers are able to organize for themselves and demonstrate to their students what the scope and sequence are. This promotes long-term, focused, standards-based planning by instructors and it promotes a deeper understanding of the course process by students.

One of the theoretical benefits of academic standards is that they express clear expectations for what students should know. Organizing the standards into coherent lesson plans, unit plans, and year plans will be a challenge for the teacher who wishes to do more than plow through the textbook chapter by chapter. Having the webfolio as a place to post assignments accomplishes several goals in this regard. First, the assignments over a long term are visible to the students. Second, the webfolio allows the teacher to include a great deal of information about each assignment, including a notation of the standard or standards being taught to, a rubric for the assignment, notes on how this assignment builds on the previous assignments and helps prepare for the following assignments, links to web resources that would be helpful on this assignment, and so on. And third, the authentic assessment allowed for by the use of the web portfolio allows the teacher to modify future plans on the basis of real data.

The use of the webfolio brings together three important elements of successful instruction: teaching to well-defined standards, the authentic assessment of a portfolio system, and the remarkable versatility and flexibility of the web. Teaching to state-mandated academic content standards can be seen by some teachers as antithetical to “real” teaching. The use of a webfolio as a means of assessment can help demonstrate

to both teachers and students that standards-based instruction can and should be a rich, integrated, informative, and engaging process.

THE BENEFITS OF A K-12 WEBFOLIO SYSTEM

The authors' implementation experiences within their own schools as well as their experience working with other schools indicate that a critical success factor for electronic portfolio implementation is a culture where educators clearly understand their central role in the portfolio process is to be resource providers, student mentors, conveyors of standards, and definers of quality. The major obstacle to successful implementation of web-based electronic portfolios is not student readiness. It is this full participation by all educators.

The misunderstanding about the educator role in the portfolio process stems from a misunderstanding about the portfolio process and is magnified when schools attempt to move from paper portfolios to exploit the promise of electronic portfolios on the web. When engaged in a paper (hardcopy) portfolio process, limits on the scope of portfolios are imposed by the hardcopy media, itself. Storage considerations and dissemination for readers impose limits on the amount and type of content, the number of readers/ reviewers, and the scope of the content. The hardcopy format artificially imposes restrictive constraints on the number of participants in the portfolio process, on what each participant can do, and on what an institution can accomplish with portfolios.

When the move to webfolios is contemplated, portfolio supporters quickly understand the web's promise of a rich variety of formats, unconstrained quantity and scope of content, anywhere/anytime availability, and possibilities of integrating curriculum. But, these visionaries fail to recognize the associated implications for their role and the roles of other participants. Successful implementation requires participant appreciation of the benefits that include tight integration of curricular standards, course assignments, student responses to assignments, and mentor feedback about students' work. Educators must understand their vital role and believe that the benefits of a web-based portfolio system are worth the costs.

To obtain their participation, it must be demonstrated to educators that their involvement has payoff for them *and* potentially dramatic payoff for the school. Benefits increase for each participant as the number of participants increase, much like the value of e-mail increases as the number users increases. Obtaining educator participation is much easier when the school is already using some type of paper portfolio process than when the school has had no experience at all with portfolios.

The most immediate physical benefit of a K-12 Webfolio system is the elimination of storage problems associated with traditional portfolios. The Web-based portfolio allows students to house artifacts in a virtual environment. No longer will they need to transport and pick-up their artifacts from the teacher. The teacher can simply tap into their webfolio and view the artifacts any time and from any place there is World-Wide Web access.

K-12 Webfolios can serve as working portfolios, developmental portfolios or showcase portfolios. In the Webfolio system, students, in concert with their teachers,

have complete control over what artifacts are displayed and who is able to see their work samples. The K-12 webfolio system is a closed system and the teachers have control over who can access what artifact. Initially the access is granted to both the student and the teacher. Since students are not allowed to grant access or prevent their teachers from seeing any of their artifacts the teacher acts as supervisor over what is being placed on the Internet. When access is limited to just the teacher and the student, they have a working portfolio with all their artifacts that only they can view, a developmental portfolio that they share with all teachers is generated when the teacher and the student grant access to "All Teachers." A showcase portfolio would consist of those items that the teacher and the student allowed access to "Guests" and they share these artifacts with parent/caregivers and significant others who have a need to know, however the teacher and mentor comments would be hidden from "Guests."

A K-12 webfolio encourages creative thinking and collaboration with others. Students are not confined by the limitations of paper and pencil. They have the resources of the WWW available to them and they can confer and collaborate with the world as their partner. Students can display graphics, sound, digital video, text and presentation media all in the same portal. The possibilities are virtually limitless and only confined to the student's imagination.

The K-12 webfolio invites self-evaluation and reflection. Students are encouraged to take a heuristic viewpoint and examine each artifact placed in their webfolio. Teachers can give reflective feedback to the student and then the student can respond by altering the artifact, working towards mastery of the subject. The student could solicit feedback from other teachers and get a second opinion on the artifact before deciding if and how to modify an artifact. The webfolio system will allow students to construct their own truth, reflecting on each artifact with many mirrors, their peers, teachers, and significant others. The use of a K-12 Webfolio system irreversibly changes the teacher's role and the role of the student. No longer is the student simply the recipient of information; the student is actively involved in constructing meaning by generating and displaying for others their real world responses to questions and assignments raised in a course or program of study. The teacher no longer simply imparts information, but helps the student to construct meaning through facilitating and coordinating the learning environment. The K-12 Webfolio system is truly a form of authentic assessment and it matches up well with methods and strategies that complement constructivist philosophies.

K-12 WEBFOLIO ASSESSMENT AND STATE STANDARDS

The K-12 Webfolio system allows teachers to assign State and Program Standards to each assignment students complete. At the beginning of school, teachers type or paste their syllabi or unit plan, along with assignments, activities, and projects into the K-12 Webfolio system. They use a built-in web-based "What-You-See-is-What-You-Get" (WYSIWYG) editor that is just like word processing. Each assignment includes a brief description of the actual task along with sections providing additional

assignment detail, pointers to helpful Internet resources, and criterion referenced measures for assessment (a rubric). The teacher also ties each assignment to curriculum standards, goals, learning categories and assignment types. This simple act involving a few mouse clicks combined with the assessment scores the teacher assigns to each student’s artifact can be used to address critical assessment questions, like:

- Overall, have program goals and standards been met or improved?
- Have *specific* program goals and standards been met?
- Are *individual students* meeting goals and standards?
- Is the curriculum designed for success?

The K-12 Webfolio system exports selected information needed to address critical assessment questions. This information can then be imported into SPSS, SAS, EXCEL, and other analysis and graphical presentation packages. Graphs can be generated to indicate the percent of student artifacts assessed below, meeting, and exceeding teacher expectations for multiple years. Charts can be produced that show how mastery of a standard is being developed throughout the curriculum. The visual impact is to immediately convey whether there is proper scope and sequence within the curriculum to meet state and institutional standards and whether the curriculum is helping students to achieve those standards.

Figure 44.1 indicates how the teacher sets up the assignment with a caption that appears in the student’s webfolio and how that assignment can be linked to State Standards.

After using the webfolio for the first time, a teacher gets ready for an upcoming term by taking a few seconds to have the system copy materials and assignments from the previous term to the new academic term. In this way, the time spent developing

TECH 6TH 6th Grade Technology
Section: pg. SF, 2004, gathercoal
web Page - (Caption) Section

A caption/title is required. Click [Save] when finished with changes

Caption/Title	<input type="text" value="Missions Web Page"/>
Caption/Title order (1-999)	<input type="text" value="10"/>
Activities will appear in Webfolio	<input type="text" value="03/24/2004"/>
Artifact/Content lock date	<input type="text"/>
Learning Taxonomy for Activities	Application <input type="button" value="v"/>
Activities type	Project <input type="button" value="v"/>
Educational Standard(s)	-NCATE Technology Selected Standard(s)- <input type="button" value="v"/>
<u>Program Goals</u>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;"> -NCATE Technology Selected Standard(s)- TECH-INIT 1.2.1 Use productivity tools TECH-INIT 1.2.4 Use computers to support problem solving/data collection TECH-INIT 1.3.5 Practice responsible/ethical/legal use of technology TECH-INIT 2.3.2 Use electronic mail/web browser applications TECH-INIT 2.3.3 Use automated on-line search tools/intelligent agents </div>

Figure 44.1. Teacher sets up an assignment by providing a caption and linking it to state and program standards

materials inside the webfolio system is not wasted as the teacher can copy the materials to a new course and then update the course or unit of work as needed for the new academic term.

The K-12 Webfolio system maintains the teacher and student content both as it existed for the previous term and as it exists for the new term. This assures that someone looking at a student's work sample (artifact) several years later also will be able to see the actual assignment as it existed when the student created the artifact. As an intended by-product of the process, the teacher's course work continuously improves with the updates and curricular modifications over time.

The entire K-12 Webfolio process begins with the teacher preparing course and unit content for students before they arrive at school. On the first day of class, students add the new courses and units of work prepared for them to their webfolios by selecting from a list of teacher-generated courses and units of work. When registered for the course, the student can then see every assignment, activity, and project listed in his or her webfolio's table of contents, unless a teacher has made use of the automatic scheduling feature built into the ProfPort Webfolio System to hide the assignment from students until some later date. In that case, the assignments will appear in the students' webfolios throughout the year on the teacher's predetermined dates for specific assignments to appear. Either way, when an assignment appears in the table of contents the description, models, resources and rubric for assessment for each assignment are just a click away for every student in the class.

Invariably at least one student asks the teacher to show the class examples from past students' work. Some students appear surprised when the teachers grant these requests, as they simply call up past students' work from the webfolio and orally comment on the qualities of the work done by previous students. Although more subtle in its approach, the teacher's goal is the same as that of the early twentieth century industrialist who took a piece of chalk and scrawled the night shift's production number on the factory floor for the morning shift to see how productive they had been that night. By sharing past students' work with current students, the teacher conveys and raises expectations as students will want to work hard to meet or beat the previous piece of quality work.

Figure 44.2 and 44.3, displayed below, show how the teacher can provide qualitative reflective feedback to the student and also provide summative feedback by completing a department approved rubric for assessment that is displayed in Figure 44.3.

The teacher can also set a lock out date when she or he creates an activity. This is a date when the system will "lockout" and no longer allow students to add content or modify their work in that section of their webfolio. This "lockout" date is set for each artifact. After the "lockout" date, in order for the student to be able to add or modify artifacts, the teacher has to change the "lockout" date to a future day. Then, after the student has modified the artifact and the teacher has completed the assessment of all students' work, the students are finally "locked out" of the system so they cannot adjust their work again. When all is finalized, the K-12 Webfolio

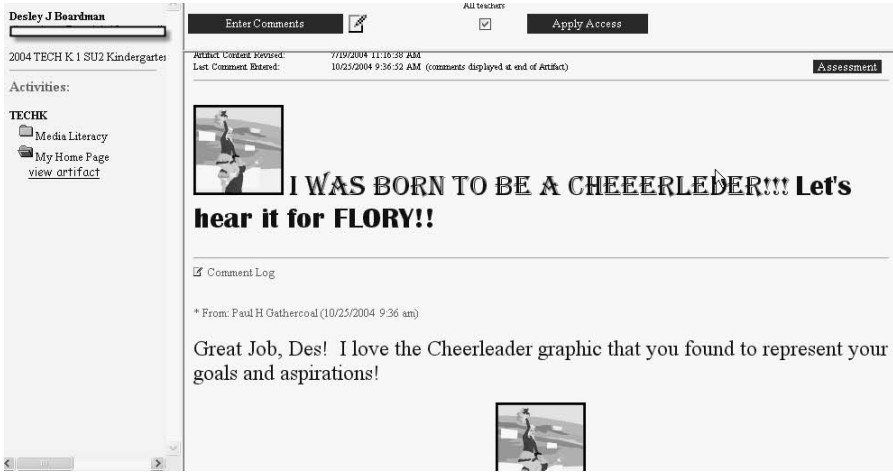


Figure 44.2. A student artifact in the Webfolio system with teacher feedback inserted below the work

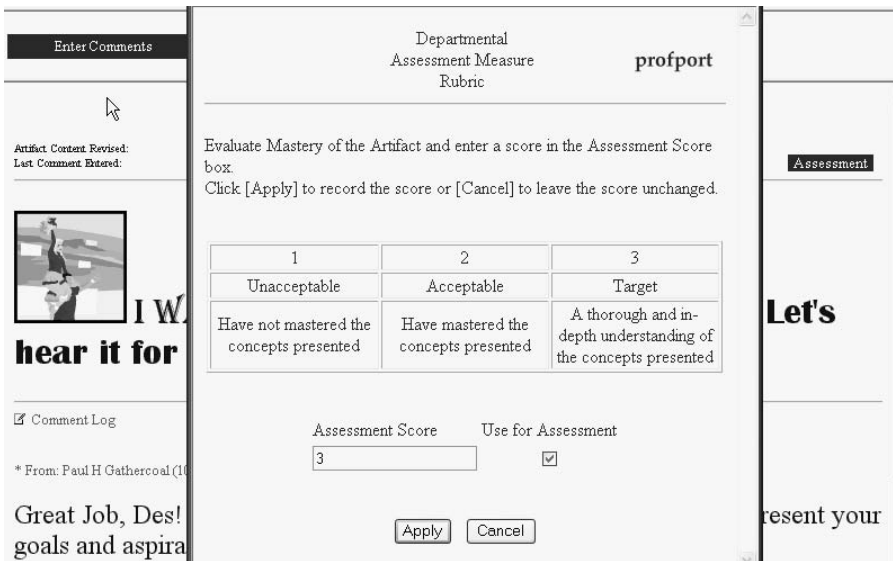


Figure 44.3. A departmental rubric used to summarily assess students' work in the K-12 Webfolio system

administrator can export the data from the webfolio system and prepare it for analysis.

IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES

Sandholtz *et al.* (1997) indicate that teachers will not use technology unless they *believe* it will make a difference in the quality of education provided to their students. This is number one on the list of imperatives for implementing the K-12 Webfolio system; convincing teachers that implementation is in the best interests of the students they teach. At the same time, there needs to be an “implementing force” that drives teachers to simply consider this proposition (Gathercoal, 1991). An implementing force can be an idea, a policy, resources or some other motivating stimulus. Usually, affecting faculty beliefs will go hand-in-glove with establishing an implementing force, but this need not always be true.

At CLU the implementing force was a successful “Preparing Tomorrow’s Teachers to Use Technology” grant from the U.S. Department of Education. Prior to submitting the grant, the authors took its contents to a Teacher Preparation Department faculty meeting and presented all the goals and objectives of the grant for faculty approval. Each goal was read and displayed and every faculty member was asked whether he or she could live with the goal or objective or whether it needed changing. One of the objectives read: *To establish and use throughout the undergraduate and graduate programs an electronic portfolio system that addresses specific competencies in the various disciplines and in the Teacher Preparation Program.* This objective passed the meeting unchallenged. This tacit approval from School of Education (SOE) faculty and concomitant grant award provided the SOE with its implementing force and belief system that the Webfolio system would work to benefit the education of all its students. It was a natural progression to then develop the K-12 Webfolio System throughout the SOE’s K-12 partner schools.

Teacher beliefs need to be addressed first and they need to be addressed often. The implementation process cannot address teacher beliefs once and think that it is finished. Teachers will question the use of technology every step of the way. Those responsible for the implementation must be knowledgeable of reasons why this technology is good for education and how it works in the best interests of the K-12 students.

While continually addressing teacher beliefs and establishing an implementing force, the next step is to break the implementation process into incremental units. Implementation should not try to do everything at once. It is best to start small and expand. It will take time, so K-12 Webfolio advocates and implementation personnel should be patient as the process will probably take years.

At CLU the implementation began in 2000 with select partner schools and graduate students. Presently, there are four entire schools, numerous teachers, preservice teachers and graduate students who are teaching in K-12 schools and using the K-12 Webfolio system. We begin small and expand.

Resource allocation and reallocation is critical to the implementation process, too. The implementation process will need institutional backing and credentials.

The administration of K-12 schools needs to “anoint” the process and its people and ensure that all who are involved know that the implementation process is “approved.” It helps to give the process a name, at CLU the implementation is called, “MAGNETIC CONNECTIONS” and the process champions are given “credentials” that set them apart from other faculty. When the implementation process and its people are given titles and recognized by the institution, the process finds a quick way of explaining away things that may not make sense. For example, when it is announced that the Webfolio administrator will be team-teaching with teachers in the middle school today, there are few questions asked about why or what. Simply mentioning the name Webfolio administrator brings back visions of a commitment made to the implementation of the K-12 Webfolio system.

Successful implementation will demand that regular meetings are held to provide teachers with the concepts and skills for successful implementation. All teachers need to attend these professional development meetings, and there must be multiple sessions to accommodate the varied schedules of teachers. The meetings should address both theory and practice. The meetings should be held during regular teaching hours and the teachers should be paid to attend (if possible). K-12 Webfolio system implementation should involve technology workshops and curriculum revision meetings throughout the school year.

Chappell & Schermerhorn (1999) suggest five rules for implementation of electronic portfolios:

Rule 1: Electronic portfolio programs should be mandatory if they are to overcome resistance on the part of many students who remain technically adverse ...

Rule 2: Students must not be able to opt out of the program due to deficiencies in their computer skills. These students must be encouraged to recognize their computer shortcomings and catch up on their own time, with the help of computer lab assistants ...

Rule 3: Students need to be challenged and encouraged to select their own materials to include in the ESPs, as long as the required content areas are covered ...

Rule 4: The portfolio program must run under defined deadlines, with regular feedback to students. The provision of successful examples early in the process is helpful ...

Rule 5: “Portfolio champions” must be involved from the initiation of the program to ensure success and foster imitation.

(Chappell & Schermerhorn, 1999, p. 658–660)

When implementing the K-12 Webfolio system, CLU’s SOE found that these rules were good caveats; but strictly enforcing them was not a good idea. Respecting students’ and teachers’ needs and different learning styles and the speed with which they come to terms with this new situation need to be valued and respected. For example, some teachers and students may simply be “pushed out” of their schools

because of the K-12 Webfolio system. Holding a strict posture on these rules suggested by Chappell & Schermerhorn (1999) will certainly affect the culture of the school and could “push” some out of education for good. We have found that it is best to take a mentoring posture and help teachers and students to come to terms with the new situation in their own time.

THREE EXAMPLES OF THE K-12 WEBFOLIO SYSTEM IN PRACTICE

New technologies for enhancing the writing of secondary students can be facilitated through the use of the K-12 Webfolio system. This is a prime example of K-12 school-university collaboration as well as a demonstration of the use of advanced technologies. It also demonstrates the significance of ongoing mentoring as a method for increasing the quality of student performance. This process enables the English department in a secondary school to increase the rigor of writing expectations with a realistic prospect of students’ ability to meet higher standards.

This first exemplar arose from a Service Learning assignment in a Special Education course. A CLU graduate student, who is also a special education teacher, designed a service learning project involving the webfolio. This project connected special education seniors with general education ninth graders. The two teachers constructed a rubric and trained the special education students to use the rubric. That rubric was used by students with special needs to give feedback on the writing of ninth graders. The special education teacher constructed a course in the K-12 Webfolio system. The rubric resided in that online course. There was also a place in the course for general and special education students’ reflective writing about the process.

A second, similar example was part of a graduate reading course at CLU. The director of the program, with the course instructor and a sixth grade teacher, created a webfolio course called “OWL”: Online Writing Lab. They used a rubric currently applied in the local school district and trained the candidates in the graduate reading class to use it to give feedback on the writing of sixth grade English learners. The “OWL” was constructed as a component of the graduate reading course in webfolio. The rubric resided in that course. There was also a place in the course for written feedback from candidate to mentor/s and from mentor to mentor. There was a focused effort to provide structure and consistency for the graduate students and the sixth grade writers during the OWL experience. The program director assisted the reading specialist candidates with using the webfolio system and with constructing appropriate responses to student writing. The sixth grade classroom teacher also visited the graduate class. She helped reading specialist candidates become familiar with the district’s sixth grade writing assessments and the rubrics used to grade them. The teacher brought samples of student writing from a previous year, and the graduate candidates scored them in class. The scores were then calibrated and discrepancies addressed in class. The sixth grade students in need of extra help with writing were selected by the classroom teacher, and permission was obtained from the parents for

the students to write at home on the family computer. The selection was therefore limited by student need, parent cooperation, and access to technology. One graduate mentor explained the process to her sixth grader:

Hi Paperclip,

Thank you for sending me your last school essay about the Isaac Singer story. I guess there was some confusion about how our exchanges are to work. Here's the scoop: you write the essay and send it to me; I read and write suggestions to you for rewriting the essay; you rewrite and send that back to me; I read and consider if there are more things to do to "polish" up before publication; we stop writing back and forth when we've decided the essay is top notch and ready to turn in to Ms. Morton. This process is actually the way writers and editors work!

(Rush, personal communication, 2003)

At the close of the semester, the graduate candidates were asked to provide feedback on the experience. All reported growth in responding to student writing by putting theory into practice; growth in using distance teaching and learning; appreciation for the assistance of the classroom teacher and consistent, ongoing online support from the course instructor. Sixth grade students reported seeing growth in their writing and enjoying the distance learning experience. Some challenges noted by the graduate candidates were "insufficient understanding of the nature of the back and forth editing process by the 6th graders, and an absence of deadlines or other guidelines to keep the 6th graders motivated to engage fully" (Rush, personal communication, 2003). It became apparent during the course of the study that use of an entire class in a computer lab setting would have been preferable. In this case, student input was sporadic and revising didn't occur as effectively as planned. It was suggested that writing and responding would be enhanced if both sixth grade and graduate students used a technology lab during scheduled class time.

It has been demonstrated that technology enhances communication between faculty and students through use of electronic discussion groups, email and the use of portfolios when feedback is present (Crowe and Karayan, 1997). The inclusion of a rubric elevates that communication by focusing on assessment and evaluation connected to writing standards. The use of portfolios across an extended time period can construct a complete picture of the learning for each student. (Farr, 1991) The intent of these applications is to provide consistent, ongoing, specific feedback to student writers. Strong portfolio systems are characterized by a clear vision of the student skills to be addressed ... use of criteria to define quality performance and provide a basis for communication, and self-reflection through which students share what they think and feel about their work, their learning environment and themselves (Arter and Spandel, 1992). The skills addressed tied directly to the writing standards for the targeted grade levels. The rubrics provided the mentors (grade 12 special education students and graduate reading program candidates) and the student writers (Grades 9 and 6) with clear criteria for the work. In addition, student writers and mentors reflected in writing on the process.

The third example comes from Ascension Lutheran School, a private, Christian school with grades Kindergarten through eighth. The students in grades 7th through 8th were using the K-12 webfolio system as part of their history and computer sciences. With each chapter addressed in class, activities are added to the webfolio with the hope that at the end of the year the students will be able to complete a showcase webfolio that shows evidence of how the students have met California's Learning Standards for their grade level. The showcase webfolio can be used in place of a written final exam for the course, as well as, for later school-wide accreditation reviews. It provides a view of students' work over time without having the issues related to storing traditional portfolios.

The webfolio allows authentic assessment of students' learning, encouraging students to collaborate and take a creative approach to solving problems. Students beg to go the computer lab, so they can use the system. The students have also found ways of using the system when it is not part of the lesson. The students create their own folders to transfer assignments from school to home. Often times this is because of the pride they have in their work and they want to be able to show friends and family. One student even taught her mother to use the system, so she could complete work in the higher education version of the webfolio system used at California Lutheran University.

The implementation process has been slower than initially planned because of changes in administration and core teachers. The support and enthusiasm are still present. The students who were in 6th grade when we initially introduced the webfolio system are now in 8th grade and now have a webfolio that contains samples of work from their time in middle school. The students can see the progress they have made in their writing and technology skills. Students also have access to assignments that would have been deleted off the school server in order to save hard drive space. The school plans on implementing the webfolio system throughout all of the academic classes in 6th through 8th grades. The hope is to create integrated and cross-curricular activities to promote higher order thinking skills. In the future the system will be implemented into the elementary portion of the school. The hope is to provide evidence of the students' learning throughout their schooling. The webfolio system is a simple way for teachers to see what the students have done in the past and gauge their ability to meet expected learning standards.

CONCLUSION

Principal to the process is the educator's beliefs about technology and assessment practices. Educators must give up the idea that portfolios are something that is done "to" students and embrace the notion that the webfolio process is something that is done "with and for" students. A well-designed curriculum embedded in a webfolio system, conveying academic standards, appropriate resources and providing vehicles for mentoring, enables student's development and upkeep of developmental, growth and showcase portfolios at once. A K-12 web-based electronic portfolio system acknowledges and appreciates the intrinsic links between student assessment, faculty

and program evaluation and the meaningful reporting of assessments and evaluations to interested third parties. The most limiting factor surrounding the implementation of a K-12 web-based electronic portfolio system will be lack of vision and “creative imagineering.” In the capable hands of professional educators who have the best interests of their students at heart, webfolio systems may permanently transform traditional assessment, evaluation and reporting to comprise authentic assessment, evaluation and reporting. The K-12 Webfolio System used at CLU is a tool that integrates aspects of assessment, evaluation and reporting into one web-based portal. It facilitates formative and summative assessment and provides information that can be used for program evaluation and needs assessment. The promise is great when the institutional culture shifts to include the use of webfolios in teaching and learning, as webfolios can challenge the mystique and authority of standardized tests which seem to be the guiding force behind education today. The K-12 Webfolio System may be the technological tool that will bridge the gap between standards-based accountability and authentic assessment.

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45. COLLABORATIVE ONLINE PROJECTS IN
A GLOBAL COMMUNITY

Collaborative online projects use communication technologies to communicate and collaborate effectively with schools in various locations to participate in projects which may be interdisciplinary or cross curricular in nature, with a defined purpose or theme in order to facilitate meaningful and authentic student learning. Collaborative online projects may use online communication technologies such as email, mailing lists, newsgroups, discussion boards, bulletin boards and/or websites to communicate across the country or the globe. They include the facility to use communication technologies to collaborate on a theme, or for a purpose, defined by the project. The level of collaboration may vary depending on the projects which may have a limited life span or be ongoing. It can be argued that collaborative online projects provide authentic purposes for the use of the communication technologies. In some cases collaborative online projects focus on humanitarian and/or environmental issues.

Gragert (2000) argues that 'the Internet is a powerful tool for connecting learning to action as students collaborate on real issues facing young people in the world today.' Carr (2001) believes that collaborative online projects provide valuable learning experiences for students. She says that collaborative online projects can be powerful social contexts for learners, enabling a variety of social experiences. Collaborative online projects have played a significant role in the integration of computers into teaching and learning throughout the world and to the internationalization of the curriculum. The use of online communications for collaboration opens the boundaries of both physical location and what are often stand-alone curriculum content areas. Riel (1994) describes the potential of technologies to be powerful components in accomplishing current educational visions. Such visions include helping students to develop a broad, deep, and creative understanding of community, culture, economics and international politics, past and present, and acquire the social skills to work across differences and distances.

The history of the involvement of schools in collaborative online projects dates back to the 1980s when the use of telecommunications in teaching and learning was pioneered by the early adopters in the education profession. At this time collaborative online projects used mainly plain text-based communication tools. Access to the Internet was not available in many schools at this time and access to the World Wide Web (WWW) was rare. For the limited number of Australian schools that had access it was usually through a dial up account using a single telephone line. What would now be considered crude communication tools, such as email and conferences/newsgroups and bulletin boards, were at the leading edge of communication

technologies at this time. Some of the early adopters of these forms of communication technologies in countries such as Argentina had even lower level internet access through bulletin boards. Early adopters of communication technologies in teaching programs were excited by the human interaction it enabled. The WWW sites that were developed later did not necessarily enhance communications and human interactions, in collaborative online projects. There are still many people in the world who do not have any kind of internet access as demonstrated in a recent bullet from the APCNews, the monthly newsletter of the Association for Progressive Communications that describes how they are 'working with impoverished and disenfranchised sections of communities in Argentina, Brazil, the Philippines and many African nations including Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe' who have little to no technology (APC, 2002).

Copping and Hocking (1996) who played a leading role in the promotion of collaborative online projects, described how their aim was for teachers and students in Australia and around the world to work together in a low-cost, people-centred, telecommunications model where primary and secondary students could make a 'meaningful contribution to the health and welfare of the planet and its people'. At that time collaboration in online projects was conducted in online conferences (newsgroups). Teachers and students from around the world communicated by sending electronic messages that could be accessed with very low bandwidth, to the online conferences (newsgroups). The closed conference/newsgroups used only plain text for messages and were available to members only – teachers and students. The focus was on expanding students' knowledge and understanding of their world from humanitarian and environmental perspectives. One of the powerful aspects of these projects was the international online community in which they operated.

Collaborative online projects are described in various ways. One description says that 'in Collaborative online projects students are often faced with problems that are best understood by talking with others, collecting data from remote sites, or going through a series of problem solving activities' (Ask Jeeves, 2002). The iEARN group's website provides this definition:

Collaborative projects bring together two or more groups of students who work together on a theme or question or who contribute to a compilation of materials on a topic. iEARN collaborative projects use the full range of ICT, including newsgroups, email, web pages, video-conferencing. Many projects also involve physical exchanges of student work either as part of the process of the project or as a culmination of it.

(iEARN, 2002)

The second example places more focus on the collaborative aspect in that it mentions students 'working together'. The Macquarie Dictionary tells us that to 'collaborate' is 'to work with one another'. So it can be expected that in collaborative online projects students work together with other students online.

Collaborative online projects share some similarities with Project-Based Learning (PBL) in that learning is organised around projects. But PBLs, (Thomas, 2000) as

they have become known, are projects ‘focused on questions or problems that “drive” students to encounter (and struggle with) the central concepts and principles of a discipline’. Collaborative online projects tend to be focused on overarching ‘issues’ whether they are scientific, environmental or humanitarian and are often global in nature. They may well also include ‘questions or problems’ but the overarching ‘issues’ drive the encounters. They also include the use of online technology to facilitate communications.

COLLABORATION/PARTICIPATION

The level of collaboration/participation varies between the collaborative online projects identified. With many there is little more than a requirement for a class to prepare some data they have collected, student writing, or artwork and send it to the class/teacher ‘running the project’ – very much ‘peripheral participation’. In projects of this type the managing class and teacher may be involved in a high level of interpretative work and collaboration with their students but much less involvement is available for other participants. This level of participation was often seen as suiting classes new to this approach. These could be described as more ‘contributory’ than ‘collaborative’. Some so called ‘collaborative projects’ seem to have nothing more than an online presence to provide information about activities. Other projects require a more sophisticated level of collaboration and interaction with participants contributing on a more equal level. Participation in this more collaborative format, requires ongoing communications with responsibility for many aspects of the project taken by all participants (See Figure 45.1).

Collaborative online projects in this case is taken to mean that the project encourages a level of collaboration where teachers and students participate online in active

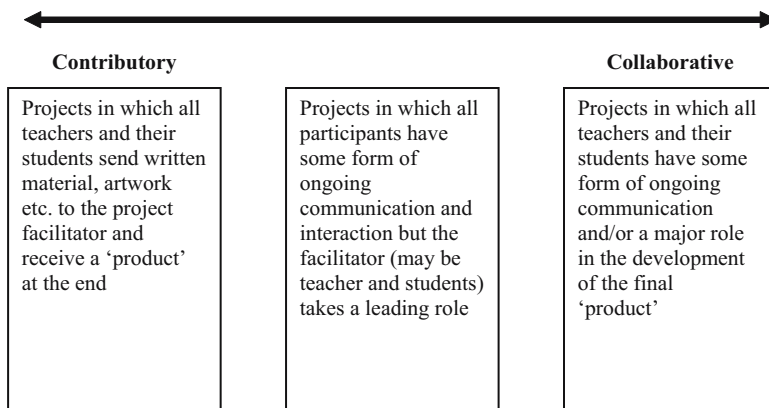


Figure 45.1. Types of collaboration/participation

communication with other participants associated with the project, based around a theme or purpose. When project participants work together collaboratively and are in active communication they could be considered to be working within a 'community'.

COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE/LEARNING COMMUNITIES

Community is a term widely used in the online world. 'Virtual community' and 'online community' are terms commonly used by groups who use ICTs for communication. Virtual and online communities develop without the usual need for face-to-face meetings or communications. Meetings and communications take place over the Internet in synchronous (live chat) or asynchronous modes. Terms such as 'an inclusive and culturally diverse community' can be found on many of the websites that host project listings (iEARN, 2002).

Allard and Cooper (2001), argue that to build different forms of community an ongoing commitment to and use of 'designed' cooperative learning among groups and across differences as a pedagogical technique works to build co-reliance among members and as well, provides for a sense of belonging. The process of working through shared tasks where all members contribute in order for the different groups/community to achieve the goal is a means that can help to give value and respect to all contributions. In collaborative online projects it could be inferred that higher levels of collaboration could be compared in terms of use of cooperative learning among groups and building of different forms of community. This process could be seen to be part of the value of participation in collaborative online projects to the learning community. Wenger (1998, p. 214) describes how, functioning at its lowest level, 'a community of practice is a living context that can give newcomers access to competence and also invite a personal experience of engagement by which to incorporate that competence into an identity of participation. When these conditions are in place communities of practice are a privileged locus for the acquisition of knowledge.' But, Wenger goes on to say that 'a well functioning community of practice is a good context to explore radically new insights without becoming fools stuck in some dead end'.

According to Wenger (1998, p. 214) 'A history of mutual engagement around a joint enterprise is an ideal context for this kind of leading edge learning which requires a strong bond of communal competence along with a deep respect for the particularity of experience. When conditions are in place communities of practice are a privileged locus for the creation of knowledge'. Participation in collaborative online projects allows for 'mutual engagement around a joint enterprise' and 'leading-edge learning' and can lead to a 'well functioning community' or at a minimum 'legitimate peripheral participation' (Lave and Wenger 1991). The joint enterprise being the communications in the online collaborative project and/or the products created as a result of participation for example publications such as the Faces of War CD ROM (Tate, 1998), 'The Meeting Place' magazine and the calendar of art work from the First Peoples' Project or the 'Anthology of Children's Writing' published in hard copy by the student management team in the Lewin

Project. Van House's (2002) explanation regarding the 'process of gaining credibility' helps explain the vast amount of time spent on publications especially in the form of hard copies of books, calendars and magazines (products) in what is otherwise an electronic form of working. This apparent contradiction may be explained in terms of how the products provide a means for the student's work to be valued but also provide a means of publicizing and 'proving' the value of collaborative online projects, of gaining credibility in that they 'carry the work' to a larger audience in the wider community in such a way that 'its meaning and significance are irrefutable' and contribute to a communal memory.

Bede (2000) talks about technology creating a paradigm shift towards knowledge networking and virtual communities that have communal memories. Virtual communities are well able to develop communal memories. Collaborative online projects that operate within overarching organisations such as iEARN are especially well placed to develop and draw upon 'communal memories'. Threaded conversations within online forums in their various forms are particularly well placed to support the ongoing development and use of 'communal memories'. Collaborative online projects could be seen, particularly in the case of projects identified as facilitating high-level collaboration, as empowering this paradigm shift with the participants behaving as 'virtual communities' that develop 'communal memories'.

CASE STUDIES

Two organisations with close links to the selected case study projects are iEARN and the Global Classroom Project fostered by the Victorian (Australia) Department of Education.

IEARN

iEARN (the International Education and Resource Network) describes itself as 'a global community of persons committed to its goal that learning and the quality of life on the planet can be enhanced through meaningful collaborative work among young people around the world.' (iEARN, 1997). iEARN is a non-profit organization made up of over 4,000 schools in nearly 100 countries. The stated goal of iEARN is to empower teachers and young people to work together online at very low cost using the Internet and other new technologies. Since 1988, iEARN has pioneered on-line school linkages to enable students to engage in meaningful educational projects with peers in their countries and around the world. iEARN became involved in collaborative projects when Internet access was in its infancy. They used very low-level technology initially because that was all that was available, but a commitment to this approach became part of the community's philosophy in order to be accessible to as many schools as possible, including those in the most economically disadvantaged countries.

iEARN collaborative projects are developed and facilitated by practicing teachers. Some teacher/facilitators organise a student management team, usually within their

own school, to help run the project. The project is promoted through the online newsgroups or forums. Interested teachers register their classes. The classes then work closely with the facilitating teacher and other participating classes to meet the aims of the project. Communications can take place on the online newsgroups or forums that use threaded conversations or by email. Many projects have supporting websites to publish various aspects of the project.

Often hard copy publications are prepared by project facilitators and presented to participating schools. Communications in these projects, for students from around the world, are conducted in iEARN conferences (newsgroups). The closed conferences (newsgroups) use only plain text and are available only to iEARN members – teachers and students. They can be accessed with a very low bandwidth using offline newsreaders to help reduce costs. The focus is on expanding students' knowledge and their understanding of their world from humanitarian and environmental perspectives. The projects are interpreted by individual teachers for use with their students. One of the powerful aspects of this organisation is that it operates in an international forum. There were 132 iEARN facilitated projects listed on their website for participation by members in October, 2002.

THE GLOBAL CLASSROOM PROJECT

In November of 1994, the Department of Education in Victoria, Australia, decided to support The Whalesong Foundation's design of a plan to co-ordinate and implement a State-wide telecommunications project for all Victorian schools based on the iEARN model. This became known as 'The Global Classroom Project'.

The Victorian Department of Education actively encouraged teachers in their education system to participate in collaborative online projects with local and international educators. Support was provided in a variety of forms through the Global Classroom Project. Systemic support was provided in terms of advice on how to connect to the Internet, the identification of teacher mentors to support new schools to participate in collaborative projects and encouragement for early adopters to develop collaborative projects and to act as project facilitators (Coppinger and Hocking, 1996). This project was run through the Whalesong Foundation, by Coppinger and Hocking, both of whom also had a leadership role in iEARN and, as a result the history of these two groups is intertwined.

The Project website says that the Global Classroom Project is now in its ninth year. During this time it says that thousands of schools from Australia and around the world have participated in the range of collaborative online projects the Global Classroom has to offer. Schools from as far away as Argentina, Sweden, France and Latvia (just to mention a few) have collaborated and contributed to the teaching and learning activities taking place in Victorian classrooms' (Global Classroom Project, 2004). The Global Classroom Project site says that it offers teachers access to collaborative online projects covering all year levels, curriculum levels and skill levels and that Victorian teachers can also call upon the expertise of the Global Classroom mentors, who are there to support project coordinators.

CASE STUDY PROJECTS

The projects selected for the case study are the 'Environmental Mystery Competition', the 'First Peoples' Project', 'Lewin, An Anthology of Children's Writing' and The Teddy Bear Project. All have had links to iEARN and the Global Classroom Project at some stage of their development.

THE ENVIRONMENTAL MYSTERY COMPETITION

In 1995 Kyneton Secondary College was selected as a participant in the Victorian Department of Education's Global Classroom Project. The project theme involved the exchange of data on habitat and water quality of local streams based on the Water Watch model. At that stage most of the schools in the project (including Kyneton Secondary College) did not have the equipment or expertise to carry out much of the water testing and were all struggling to learn how to post messages to the iEARN newsgroup. What was needed was a simple online project that would allow schools to participate immediately without having to buy water monitoring equipment and arrange field trips. As a consequence Kyneton SC devised and ran a simple environmental competition that ran over several weeks on the iearn.aqua online conference. This was well received and seemed to fill a need, so similar environmental competitions have been run in each subsequent year. Over 2000 students from more than ten countries have since been involved in the competitions. Many other schools have followed the competition or used the material on the website in their classes but have not participated directly in the competition.

The first Environment Mystery Competition that commenced in June 1998 attracted participants from 44 schools in 8 countries. This competition won an award in the 1998 Ford One Planet Environmental Awards (EHNPS, 2002). Kimber and Deighton (1999) argue that projects such as the EMC lend themselves to a wide variety of teaching and classroom management strategies and provide the teacher with the opportunity to explore many of the suggested middle school years teaching and learning strategies and as such are considered very successful projects for students in the middle years of schooling. The Environmental Mystery Competition was originally established and coordinated by David Francis of Kyneton SC, but was later facilitated by Eaglehawk North Primary School, both in Victoria.

The Environmental Mystery Competition is an online collaborative project that involves a competition presented in episodes in the narrative genre. The episodes are published on the project web site over a period of 6–8 weeks. Students use the clues presented within the narrative to try to solve the mystery. Classes compete to be the first to solve the environmental mystery.

Participating schools enter one team of from 2 to 30 students in the competition. Each school emails one or more responses each fortnight and these are posted to the web pages for all the other schools to see. Schools can discuss each other's ideas on the web pages and so collaborate to solve the mystery. The first school to solve the mystery is the winner.

Episodes of the 'mystery' are written by the facilitating school. Initially the project was run by Kyneton Secondary College, in southern Australia. They found the writing of the episodes to be a significant body of work, with a real purpose and real audience. The year 8 students wrote each episode that contained many clues to take students off in various directions so that the mystery could eventually be solved, but not too easily, so as to maintain the interest of the students over a six to eight week period. The Kyneton students had to ensure that all the environmental and geographical information that was included was accurate. They also had to respond to the responses of students around the world. In 1995, in the first 'mystery', the platypus disappeared from the river in the local Kyneton area. One school in Latvia wrote that they thought that the ice on the river may have caused the platypus to disappear. The Kyneton Secondary College students quickly learnt that they had to provide extra information to support students from outside Australia whose experience of a climate was very different from their own.

In this project the level of participation/collaboration is extremely high for the facilitating school – writing, publishing (in the iEARN newsgroups and on the World Wide Web) and communicating with participating schools. For the participating schools the experience of participation in the Environmental Mystery Competition is that students are expected to read each episode of the mystery over time, carry out research to better understand the 'clues' within the narrative, and compare their answers with the answers of others (which are also published). The level of participation for schools, other than the facilitating schools that write the episodes, could be considered medium. The level of participation for these schools is more than for projects in which students send writing and/or artwork to the facilitating school for publication or environmental projects in which data is sent to be included in a large database for analysis.

The Environmental Mystery Competition does not build a strong 'community of practice'. Participating schools often engage deeply with the environmental and geographical content but collaboration is limited to students' sending their solutions to the mystery by email to the facilitating school. Solutions are added to the web site but online conversations do not take in place in any form. Participants do not work together to create an end product. As a result 'peripheral participation' does not lead to the development of a community of practice.

THE FIRST PEOPLES' PROJECT

Ellis (2003) describes how in the First Peoples' Project 'Indigenous students on five continents share their stories, poems, photographs and art work'. The First Peoples' Project (King and Carter, 2002) operates within the iEARN network. The project originated, in early 1996, as email and newsgroup discussions held between students and teachers on issues of indigenous history and culture and was further developed through discussions held at the iEARN International Teachers' Conference, Budapest, July, 1996. The project links indigenous students around the world in a

range of activities: writing exchange, art exchange, discussion of issues relating to indigenous people. The three main components of the project are:

- **Writing Exchange:** students write about topics of interest to them. This may include a variety of formats, eg: poetry and prose. It also includes research and reporting on historical or cultural events of the participating groups and the interviewing of elders. This writing is compiled into a magazine, *The Meeting Place*, which is then distributed to all participants. Selected pieces of writing are featured on the project's WWW site. The magazine is published in English and Spanish. An editorial team of students and teachers from Bairnsdale Secondary College, Australia prepare the magazine for publication and a team of students from Escuela CPEM #3 in Argentina undertake the translations.
- **Art Exchange:** students complete art work on a predetermined theme. In December each group sends artwork to each of the other participating groups. Each community holds an Indigenous Global Art Exhibition, featuring the artwork they have received. A calendar is produced featuring the artwork from each group. A world wide web site is produced featuring the art work from each participating school:
- **Humanitarian Effort:** students in the project have worked to raise money to support two communities of indigenous students: Sumu in Nicaragua and Karen in Thailand. Students in Victoria, Australia, New Mexico and Mississippi, U.S.A. and Bangkok, Thailand have raised money to enable the purchase of school supplies, a generator, blankets and the employment for four years of a teacher aide in one of the schools they are working with. Recently 70–80 blankets were sent to the Karen students from Australia, courtesy of QANTAS. These blankets were produced as the result of another iEARN project, *The World's Longest Scarf*. Students in New Mexico and Mississippi have also raised money to enable the purchase of school supplies and a boat motor for Sumu communities in Nicaragua.

The First Peoples' Project encourages the development of literacy, art and technology skills and fosters understanding of the students' own culture and the experience of other indigenous cultures. It provides an authentic context in which to develop these skills. It requires perseverance and a commitment to complete the work in meeting timelines for editing and publishing. The students work collaboratively with other indigenous students from around the globe. It helps indigenous students to see their cultural experiences from a wider perspective both politically and historically.

In 2002 the project supported 10 students from the Karen community with scholarships to help them complete their secondary education, as well as continuing the support for the teacher aide. More than 1000 students worldwide are active in the project, with more than 40 coordinating teachers and their indigenous students including:

- **Choctaw, U.S.A.:** Pearl River Elementary School, Red Water Elementary School, Choctaw Central Middle School, Tucker Elementary School, Standing Pine

- Elementary School, Conehatta Elementary School, Bogue Chitto Elementary School, Choctaw Central High School.
- Zuni, U.S.A.: A:Shiwi Elementary School.
 - Karen, Thailand: Baan Nu-Se-Plo School, Umphangkee School, Samakkee Witthaya School
 - Mapuche, Argentina: Escuela CPEM#3
 - Taos, U.S.A.; Taos Day School
 - Cygany, Hungary: Children's Home, Pecs
 - Nunga, Australia: Kurna Plains Aboriginal School
 - Nyoongar, Australia: Narrogin Senior High School
 - Kunwinjku, Australia: Gunbalanya Community Education Centre
 - Zapotec, Mexico: Escuela Matutina Benito Juarez
 - Kek'Chi, Guatemala: ten schools in Guatemala participated as part of the Educating The Girls' Program
 - Koorie, Australia: Nowa Nowa Primary School, Bairnsdale Secondary College, Bairnsdale Primary School, Bruthen Primary School, Paynesville Primary School, Bairnsdale West Primary School, St. Mary's Primary School, Bairnsdale, Swan Reach Primary School, Grange Secondary College, Woodglen Primary School
 - Wisconsin Woodlands Nations: The Indian Community School

King, the project facilitator, in a personal communication (2002), explained that 'Indigenous students have generally been marginalised in the education systems of their nations. The education systems have neither recognized their cultural and historical heritages nor have they provided a vehicle for success for indigenous students.' She explains how The First Peoples' Project seeks to give indigenous students a situation where they can engage in high-profile activity which both engages them and creates an environment in their schools where their history, culture and their communities are recognized and valued. Through creating situations of public recognition, the First Peoples' Project endeavors to provide incentive to indigenous students to achieve excellence in a range of skills, including research, writing and art. The project seeks to provide a basis upon which the schools and the local indigenous communities can work collaboratively and positively, a situation where the contributions of indigenous community members become an intrinsic part of the school curriculum. The First Peoples' Project was a winner in the 1999 International ChildNet Awards (London) and the Global Bangemann Challenge (Sweden).

THE FIRST PEOPLES' PROJECT AND THE PARTICIPATING INDIGENOUS COMMUNITIES

All activities and initiatives carried out in the First Peoples' Project rely on the endorsement and approval of recognized authority within the relevant indigenous communities. All portrayals of traditional stories, whether in written or visual form, undergo an approval process with community elders and/or cultural officers of local indigenous organizations. This approval relates to both the accuracy and cultural

sensitivity of student work. Maximum possible use is made of local indigenous people in instruction in approaches to art and writing and in the treatment of traditional and oral histories. The Project emphasizes collaborative relations between schools and their local indigenous communities, liaising closely with parents, elders and with indigenous organizations (King, 2002).

The Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians, who run the largest and one of the most tech-savvy tribal school systems in the US, has participated in the First Peoples' Project since its inception. For the Choctaw Community, gaming revenues and other economic initiatives have fueled a school building boom and the proliferation of technology in the classroom. But 'prosperity' presents a new set of challenges for this community. "I don't want kids to [stop] playing stickball or forget about traditional dancing, cooking, or speaking their own language," says athletic instructor Jason Bell. "I hope we can influence these kids that we need to keep our culture alive for the next generation" (in Ellis, 2003). He sees the First Peoples' Project as providing the opportunity for these students to learn to use the newest technology to celebrate their timeless culture and share its wisdom with the rest of the world, to 'value' their traditions and to increase communications with their tribal elders (Ellis, 2003). In this way this online collaborative project is supporting, in Wenger's terms, the members of this indigenous community to participate in 'leading-edge learning'. They would appear to be 'a well functioning community of practice'. They have a 'history of mutual engagement around a joint enterprise'. This is an ideal context for leading-edge learning of a strong kind of communal competence along with a deep respect for the particularity of experience. Their communities of practice are 'a privileged locus for the creation of knowledge' (Wenger, 1998, p. 214). It would seem that sensitive and skilled project facilitation has resulted in the development of a 'well functioning community of practice' for indigenous communities who have participated in the First Peoples' Project.

THE LEWIN PROJECT

Lewin is an anthology of students' writing from around the world. The anthology's title comes from the language of the Ganai/Kurnai community (Australia) and means Messenger. Students from around the world are invited to contribute their writing in the various genres including poetry, autobiographies, opinionative, informative and creative.

The project is for students of all ages. Lewin is currently coordinated by teachers in Karachi, Pakistan and Bairnsdale, Australia and edited by students at Sultan Mohammad Shah Aga Khan School Karachi, Pakistan and Bairnsdale Secondary College, Australia. Students can write on any theme and in any format. Writing can be emailed to the *Coordinators* or submitted via the IEARNS newsgroup/forum called *iearn.lewin*. Hard copies of the Lewin booklet are sent to participating schools in November. Contributions to Lewin can also be viewed the *Lewin* website.

The Lewin Project is contributory for most of the participants in that they contribute their writing which goes through an editing and publication process handled

by the facilitating schools. In the first year of the project schools in Australia carried out all the editing work and a management team of students at Keilor Downs Secondary College handled the final stages of publication. As noted previously this collaborative online project is currently facilitated by Bairnsdale Secondary College teachers and students working closely with a team of students from Pakistan on the editing and publication process. Recently the students from Pakistan have become increasingly more active in the process moving from peripheral participation to full participation. The project facilitator describes how students from Pakistan introduced her to Instant Messaging, a service that the students had started using with the students from Australia for editorial decision making. (King, 2002, personal communication, 18 November).

The project facilitator attempted to make this project more collaborative. King says that 'We told all the student editors that they had several responsibilities including making sure that every single contribution on the Lewin conference [newsgroup – a threaded conversation] was responded to. This encouraged response from other kids and also led to many of the kids around the world responding to other kids' (King, 2002, personal communication, 8 November). This demonstrates one way in which collaboration can be supported by online communications and contribute to the development of a 'community of practice' and also demonstrates that Stolle's (1995) argument that computers 'isolate us ... and work against literacy and creativity' (p. 3) is unfounded.

THE TEDDY BEAR PROJECT

This stated aim of this collaborative online project is 'fostering tolerance and understanding of cultures different to your own' and at the same time it provides an audience and purpose for the development of literacy and technology skills. It is available in English, Spanish and German. In this project teachers register their classes in an online web database. The project facilitator matches classes with another class of children of similar age but located in a different country. Initially the goal was to have eight classes in the project but the concept has proved very popular. Students from five years old to twenty years of age have participated including senior high school and university students, with the latter being mainly second language students. Over 3000 classes from over 20 countries have participated since the project started in late 1996. In 1998 the project was awarded second place in the non-profit section of the ChildNet International Awards in London.

After they are matched, classes establish electronic communications. Each class sends a bear, or other soft toy significant to their geographical area or culture, by airmail to their partner class. An end product is not the focus, ongoing communication by email is. The classes have equal levels of responsibility in order for an effective collaboration to happen. The project demands regular and ongoing communications from both partner classes.

Classes often send local artifacts, maps etc. with their teddy bear. Once it arrives the bear writes home a diary regularly – at least once a week. The children provide

the bear with many experiences and write the diary entries that are sent by email to the partner school. They also received emails from their bear and so learn about the different culture. The diary emails provide authentic reading and writing opportunities for the students. It is expected the students will learn about the traditions, culture, food, climate and other aspects of the new country. For the younger students particularly the arrival of the visiting bear and its belongings is a time of excitement. The bear provides a tangible component to what may otherwise be a very abstract concept for younger students.

Many of the classes that have participated in this project did so because they found it a valuable way to improve their skills in English as a Second Language. For these ESL students being able to take the time to formulate their language in their own time and at their own pace in order to communicate with first language learners was found to be a very non-threatening and valuable experience. As a result it is suitable for older students as well as younger primary classes. This project is relatively open-ended in that once classes are matched they can adapt the collaboration depending on the age of the students, the interests of the teachers and students and the technology level the schools have access to. As a result collaboration/participation is high between the matched classes. They are dependent on each other and the quality of their collaboration for this project to work for them. There is no facilitating school or hard copy publication as a final outcome.

COLLABORATIVE ONLINE PROJECTS AND STUDENT LEARNING

Becker (2000) argues that under the right conditions, where teachers are personally comfortable and at least moderately skilled in using computers, where the school's daily class schedule permits allocating time for students to use computers as a legitimate part of class assignments, where enough equipment is available and convenient to permit computer activities to flow seamlessly alongside other learning tasks, and where teachers' personal philosophies support a student-centered, constructivist pedagogy that incorporates collaborative projects, computers are clearly becoming a valuable and well-functioning instructional tool.

The Jing-Yi Su *et al.* (2000) study, 'The Project-based Cooperative Learning on Internet – A Case Study on Geology Education' carried out in Taiwan, found that participation in collaborative online projects was very beneficial to their students partly because their students tended to be very shy and lacked confidence when performing live in front of teachers and their peers. Online collaboration allowed them the opportunity to think through responses in their own time and manner. They explain that:

Almost all students were interested in the learning mode centering at Project-Based Cooperative Learning on Internet. They thought this learning mode could stimulate them to think about wider range of learning. We found distinct characteristics of the participating students. Most students were shy, tense, and conservative. Teachers can design a

learning project knowing these characteristics of students to help them free from shyness and passiveness in learning process

(Jing-Yi Su *et al.* 2000).

Indigenous students who participated in the First Peoples' Project were often similarly shy. Many of them also lack confidence partly as a result of being treated as second-class citizens in their homeland and because they have generally been marginalised in the education systems of their nations. In the Teddy Bear Project many of the classes from non English speaking backgrounds, also found this method of using their second language for communication to be a non-threatening but meaningful experience with a real audience for their writing and an authentic purpose for their reading.

The First People's Project has been found to be highly beneficial in engaging what is often described as the most disadvantaged, disengaged and at risk group of students in Australia. King describes how participation in the First People's Project led to improved students attendance rates, increased levels of engagement and closer links to the local indigenous community. Added to this the students demonstrated increased responsibility for their own learning.

Collaborative online projects provide the opportunity for authentic learning in that they provide a 'real audience' for student writing, art and communication. Bede (2000), in presenting innovative ways that students work with ICT through reflective inquiry, argues that at risk students' performance may be enhanced differentially when various strategies are used including involving students in virtual communities of practice, using tools similar to those in the workplace and enhancing student's collaborative construction of meaning via different perspectives and shared experiences. When students are involved in working collaboratively online with students in another country to select, edit and publish the writing produced by children from around the world as in the case of Lewin – an Anthology of Childrens's Writing, it could be argued that they are meeting all the requirements above, as listed by Bede (2000).

Teacher-centred learning approaches often favor passive reception of knowledge, whereas learner-centred approaches encourage a process of active inquiry. Learners are best motivated to learn when they can take responsibility for their own learning, as it is an active process. Interactive technologies encourage active learning and, with the increased popularity of computers, today's students are learning *with* technology, as opposed to learning *about* technology. As authors (Schweizer, 1999; Nelson, 2001) show, teachers can provide powerful learning opportunities through ICT when students are responsible for their own learning and are active learners defining their learning needs, finding information, assessing its value, building on their own knowledge base and communicating their discoveries. Robertson (1999) claimed that participation in collaborative online projects facilitated student-centred rather than teacher directed learning. These online activities need to be carefully designed, giving thought to the different preferred learning styles of students, cultural differences and different language backgrounds. Through their work in iEARN projects teachers and students learnt that our Argentinean members were insulted by the use of the term

'America' when referring to people from the USA. The Argentineans live in South America and therefore argue that the term 'Americans' includes them too. Members of this online community of practice learnt to respect cultural and language differences such as these.

GENDER

The 1996 report on the Global Classroom Project (Coppinger and Hocking, 1996) found that in 30.5% of participating schools, 91–100% of their female teachers participated in their collaborative online projects. They argued that this reversed the notion of the Internet being a 'male domain'. In over 50% of schools, 60% or more of the teachers involved were female.

Tate (1999) claims that 'The collaborative approach has proved a very attractive use of technology for female as well as male students. ... The percentage of female students electing to take these courses has dramatically increased at our school'. In her school Tate argues that traditional content was brought alive to students by electronic 'conversations' with students from countries like Japan who had a very different understanding of, in one case, the A-Bomb. Mayer-Smith *et al.* (2000) note the importance, in technology- rich classrooms, of 'allowing time for student talk and interaction, encouragement of self pacing and negotiation of well established rules of operating in communities of practice'. The tendency of girls to enjoy highly verbal environments and to be more accepting of rules than boys may go some way to explain Tate's claims.

ADDRESSING DISADVANTAGE

The First Peoples' Project recognizes that indigenous students have generally been marginalised in the education systems of their nations. The education systems have neither recognized their cultural and historical heritages nor have they provided a vehicle for success for indigenous students.

The First Peoples' Project seeks to give indigenous students a situation where they can engage in high-profile activity which both engages them and creates an environment in their schools where their history, culture and their communities are recognized and valued.

Through creating situations of public recognition, the First Peoples' Project endeavors to provide incentive to indigenous students to achieve excellence in a range of skills, including research, writing and art.

The project seeks to provide a basis upon which the schools and the local indigenous communities can work collaboratively and positively, a situation where the contributions of indigenous community members become an intrinsic part of the school curriculum. King and Carter (2001) describe how:

The Project focuses exclusively on the history, culture and stories of indigenous communities. It provides a range of methods of expression for

indigenous students. It exists with the permission and encouragement of local indigenous communities and relies fundamentally on that support and endorsement. It engages and relies on the active teaching involvement of community artists, storytellers and artisans. It celebrates its successes within the indigenous communities. It provides, within such a context, high- motivation activities in writing, art, oral communication and public presentation. While rooted in the students' communities, the Project seeks to foster a pride within the students of bringing their achievements before the wider public through exhibitions and publications. The Project uses opportunities for public recognition to support students' confidence and pride. For example in February 2001, Australia Post used artwork from Australian participants as stamps on a prepaid envelopes issue
(King and Carter, 2001, n.p.).

The facilitators of this collaborative online project argue that the benefits derived from participation in the First Peoples' Project address issues of disadvantage, disengagement and alienation for indigenous students and their wider community. They describe how parents have become more comfortable with the schools that their students are attending and have participated in the educational program for the first time. They also say that the project has shown itself to be one way in which non-indigenous teachers and the schools in which they work can find a meeting place with indigenous communities and their children. The project seeks to make the students' stories a valid part of their school and vehicles through which they can speak and through which they can learn (King and Carter, 2002).

Kimber (1999) asserts that introducing learning technologies into the learning environment has been shown to make learning more student-centred, collaborative and encourages cooperative, creative problem solving. He explains that one purpose of the Global Classroom project in Victoria, Australia, was to develop wide-ranging skills in students. He states that working collaboratively with others also provides students with the potential to develop leadership, organisational, project management, cooperation and negotiation skills. Gragert (2000, p. 4) also argues that:

... participation in collaborative online projects using technology:

- *provides a new sense of community by encouraging and furthering connections both within local schools, as well as far beyond school walls*
- *enables teachers to acquire new teaching/facilitating/learning techniques and skills*
- *positions teachers to become a cross-cultural asset/resource for the school and community*
- *motivates teachers by observing higher motivation and academic achievement among students.*

Research in cognitive science (Kehoe & Guzdia – no date) suggests that learning outside of an applicable situation can lead to brittle or inert knowledge, that is,

knowledge that does not get transferred to new problems and new situations. Collaborative online projects provide authentic contexts with real audiences and it could therefore be expected that knowledge and/or skills developed in this context would be robust and successfully transferred to new problems and situations. They have the potential to encourage authentic and meaningful learning experiences for students.

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46. CREATING THINKING PROFESSIONALS: TEACHING
AND LEARNING ABOUT PROFESSIONAL
PRACTICE USING INTERACTIVE TECHNOLOGY

BACKGROUND

On-line role-play technology symbolizes achievements of using computer-mediated tools and techniques in the delivery of higher education. Educators have long been aware of the potential power of role-plays in promoting the development of professional skills, knowledge and attitudes (see Bell, 2001). With the rapid growth and incorporation of Information Communication Technologies (ICTs) within teacher education courses, it is not surprising that arguments are being mounted that call for the introduction of benchmarks or universal standards in designing and delivering on-line education at universities (Cohen and Ellis, 2002; Oliver and Herrington, 2003).

There is increasing evidence that ICTs “are having an immense effect on academic practices and expectations of students about the place, time and nature of their learning” (Kulski *et al.* and 2002, p. 1). Within this background, the Creating Thinking Professionals (CTP) Project was initially conceptualised as a role-play simulation to be delivered through a Web-based interface to support an undergraduate degree program for early childhood educators at an Australian university. Specific aims and educational objectives of the CTP Project included:

- To enable students to engage in critical thinking when relating to professional issues/concerns within everyday contexts;
- To enhance teaching and learning of key professional concepts through problem based learning strategies which allow students access to meaningful contexts as if they themselves were direct participants in the ongoing dialogue; and
- To facilitate better access and understanding about critical debates in the field though real life scenarios encountered by early childhood educators.

The ICT platform required to run this simulation was located in an interactive Website that was powered by role-play software developed by Fablusi Pty Ltd. The inbuilt design features of the Fablusi platform (see Ip, Linsler and Naidu, 2001) matched the objectives of the CTP Project and enabled the generation of a role-play simulation tailor-made for those training to become early childhood educators. The design features of the Fablusi platform of particular interest to the CTP Project included its capacity to:

- deliver an authentic and active narrative for early childhood educators which was both engaging and entertaining;

- ensure anonymity for learners through the provision of role specific and unique user interface contained within the Project Website;
- engage multiple groups of learners (or players) simultaneously and therefore be cost and time efficient;
- scaffold and replay content at any stage, and thereby enhance the potential for learning through systematic and continuous reflection.

These characteristics meant that by using the Fablusi role-play software we were able to create not only a relevant and meaningful simulation for early childhood educators, but it also enabled us to retain the problem based learning approach of the CTP Project. Accordingly, we used small collaborative groups to facilitate on-line learning through peer socialization. In environments where there are constructivist frameworks for problem solving activities, reflective dialogue, taking time for it to occur, and student initiatives are all valued (Wilks, 2004, p. ix).

Called 'A Different Lunch', the on-line role-play, simulated a professional dilemma that took place at a fictional childcare centre. The idea was that students would play the role of one of ten key characters involved in the scenario presented through a virtual environment very similar to the real world. The learning objectives of the simulation were pre-defined and available to the players (ie, students), who were required to create strategies to reach these objectives by interacting on-line with the other characters in the role-play. The accompanying narrative placed on the specially designed Website for 'A Different Lunch' simulation included the following:

In this course, we have incorporated a new way of teaching/learning about leadership matters of interest to early childhood educators through the use of an interactive Website based around a dramatic incident in a child care centre called 'A Different Lunch'. This incident acts as the stimulus for an on-line role-play simulation involving children and adults associated with a community based child care centre. In teams of 3, students will assume the roles of the 10 key characters involved in the role-play dramatisation of this incident. By stepping into the shoes of another person, students have the opportunity to get in touch with the cognitive and affective domains of interpersonal interactions. That is, through their characters, students will activate their minds and hearts in response to the evolving storyline. In this way, we hope the role-play simulation will bring to life contextually based realistic teaching/learning opportunities encountered by contemporary early childhood educators.

Most Fablusi simulations begin with a text-based start up scenario presented on a Website. One of the unique features of 'A Different Lunch' simulation however, was that the start-up scenario was accompanied by dramatic visual imagery written by the researchers to ensure the students would be engaged in a broad range of pertinent issues. In addition to the text-based narrative, a short video dramatisation of the critical incident, together with photographic images and voice-overs that provided a brief background narrative on each character, was also made available to students. The flexibility and portability of the simulation was enhanced further by capturing

the scenario and character portraits on a CD-rom that was distributed to students at the start, enabling them to revisit the scenario, at their convenience. Notations were placed on the Website to remind students about the use of the CD-rom as follows:

The scenario that you received on the CD-rom raises a number of issues and problems that can arise in a child care centre. The challenge confronting you is to identify and address the issues and problems from the perspective of your role and to deal with them creatively. For example, are there health and safety issues involved in bringing food into the childcare centre? However, it is just as important, to creatively explore other problems that you think are related to the issues raised on the CD-rom. You can do this by having your character create a problem for some other roles to solve (and this exemplifies the issue(s) you have in mind) and send them a sim-mail. If you are unsure about it run it by a moderator (using sim-mail) and we'll work out the processes required together.

In order to maximise the learning potential of this simulation, particularly the communication and interpersonal skills required by early childhood educators (see for example, Jalongo and Isenberg, 2000; Jensen and Kiley, 2000; and Ebbeck and Waniganayake, 2003), trained actors were used in the video. In doing so, we hoped that the visual imagery – especially the physical appearance, dress and body language, would enhance the authenticity of the narrative and general production quality of the dramatisation.

Students, in teams of two to three, participated as one of the ten characters associated with the start-up scenario. The simulation was on-line and interactive for a period of three weeks. This meant that over 21 days, students played their roles on-line in response to the evolving story line. By playing the role of one of the key characters including a child, her parents, centre staff, management committee members, a government adviser and a newspaper journalist, students were able to discover multiple perspectives in responding to the same incident. In adopting a child's perspective for instance, students had to call on their knowledge of child development. Likewise, playing the roles of the parents and centre staff required students to consider ethical, legal and industrial obligations of early childhood educators as appropriate and applicable in real world contexts.

The CTP Project required students to access the role-play simulation Website daily. A training session on the use of the ICT tools contained within this Website was presented before the simulation started. Together with resources placed on the Website, there was sufficient visual imagery and text based information to bring to life each character to facilitate the role-play on-line. Resources such as on-line journal articles and government documents such as childcare licensing regulations and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, were hot-linked to the Website to provide easy access and support students to reflect critically and extend their knowledge and understanding about major debates of relevance to early childhood educators.

It is important to note that our simulation was delivered side-by-side with weekly lectures. In effect, the simulation replaced the conventional face-to-face tutorials/seminars.

This included the time involved in training students to use the ICT tools driving the simulation, preparing and playing their character roles and engaging in reflecting and reviewing the processes of learning. Our aim was to promote critical thinking about early childhood matters in a holistic way. This required students to examine their own and others' professional and moral behaviour and beliefs as displayed through their on-line characters. Their combined reflections and reactions directed the path of the role-play simulation – there was no set script to follow.

At the end of the simulation, all students were required to participate in a face-to-face gathering described as a 'community conference'. This meeting served two purposes. First, it provided a forum to discuss issues of relevance to the characters involved in the role-play. During this part of the community conference, students presented their interests and concerns as a position paper (see *reflective essay* assignment described later in this chapter). It was delivered *in character* by each of the key players, as if this was a public meeting convened by the center's management committee to resolve issues arising from the critical incident and as played out during the on-line simulation. Second, once the proceedings of the community conference were closed, the meeting became a forum for the debriefing of students and academic staff. The discussions during this debrief included problems, opportunities, costs and benefits of this teaching and learning strategy, and the nature of the experience that participants underwent in using this on-line role-play simulation. Evaluation data reinforced the importance of the community conference as an essential design feature that contributed to the overall success of our on-line simulation.

MEASURING STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES

Assessment requirements of the degree program were systematically incorporated into the Web environment to maximise students' interest and motivation in participating in the simulation. As McLoughlin and Luca (2001, p. 418) have reflected, few will contest the centrality of formal assignments in determining students' satisfaction with university courses. In our case, assessment consisted of reviewing and reflecting on both factual and conceptual knowledge and understandings about working as an early childhood educator in Australia, as well as procedural skills in participating in team work and using on-line resources.

There is sufficient flexibility within the Fablusi platform to vary assessment to meet the particular teaching and learning objectives of a given course of study. In our case, assessment consisted of both group and individual tasks and students were expected to:

- design and publish an expanded role profile on the project Website
- maintain a specified number of on-line messages within the Website
- write a position paper from the perspective of the character played by each team; and
- write a reflective essay – the only task assessed on an individual basis.

These tasks were primarily aimed at enhancing students' competencies in reflecting critically and working with others in collaborative ways – two essential dimensions

of an early childhood educator's every day practice. A brief description of each of the assessment activities, including the proportion of marks allocated, is presented next.

Expanded role profile (10%): Students were required to extend the profile of their character by taking into account their experiences within early childhood settings/organizations. They then published them on the project Website. These characteristics could be either positive or negative, and students had to act out the implications of their chosen profile throughout the simulation. The objective of the expanded role profile was to get the students to 'own' their character and recognise their rights and responsibilities as a stakeholder involved in the decision-making within the 'fictional' world of the child care centre they were about to enter. It also allowed other players to evaluate the characteristics of the roles and plan how they would approach and interact with them during the simulation.

On-line message output (15%): During the simulation, sim-mails and forum messages contained within the Website (restricted and accessed only by students and staff involved in this project) formed the primary method of communication between roles. Participants could also use 'chat' to communicate with other roles and a notepad to communicate with other team members involved in playing the same role. Sim-mail and forum messages constituted formal communication paths that were assessed while chat and the notepad were informal communication paths that were not marked. Only messages that were sent to other characters in the role-play were considered for assessment purposes. A minimum of 10 messages per team per week and a maximum of 25 was set primarily to make the tasks of reading, moderating and assessing manageable for the moderators and to ensure that the students had an appropriate work load in keeping with the course requirements. All formal messages connected with the role-play were accessible by the teaching team who performed the role of simulation moderators.

Position paper (20%): Each team was required to produce a position paper from the perspective of their assigned character or stakeholder role within the simulation. These papers were published on the Website at or near the end of the live simulation so that everyone could read these before coming to the community conference. In the position paper, each character had to identify three issues of concern arising from the evolving story-line and recommend changes to policy and practice that could be implemented to resolve the concerns arising at the fictional child care-centre. The topics to be covered within the position papers referred to early childhood practice and were set by the teaching team. These topics were: parent-staff relationships; staff-child relationships; centre staffing; centre management; food and nutrition; as well as media and public relations.

Reflective essay (50%): Students were required to independently think through underlying moral and ethical considerations of the simulated scenario and critically analyse the experience as a way of learning about matters of interest to early childhood educators. It was recommended that the focus of this discussion be based on, conflicting rights, social justice, or communication, as these topics are embedded within the professional practice of contemporary early childhood educators.

The first three assignments were posted and assessed on-line. Individual student's grades and marks were allocated via an excel spreadsheet that was linked to the

Project Website to minimise the manual handling and processing of assignments. In this way, the Fablusi platform has the capacity to provide progressive overviews of students' work and this, in turn, allowed us to identify changes in learners' understanding, commitment, reflections on their learning, and provide appropriate feedback. Using the just-in-time problem based learning model, staff were able to adapt on-going lecture content and learning activities in response to the developing dialogue throughout the simulation.

OUR LEARNINGS FROM THE SIMULATION

In discussing the effectiveness of using simulations in higher education programs, Cameron and Wijekumar (2003, p. 119) stated that:

Simulations have been found to significantly improve knowledge transfer (Kozma, 1992; White, 1994). This type of discovery-based learning using simulations has been shown to increase understanding of abstract concepts (Rieber, 1996) and increase student motivation (Brewer, 1982).

In keeping with a constructivist framework, in our simulation, the students (ie, the learners) participated as "active agents in the process of knowledge acquisition" (de Jong and van Joolingen, 1998, p.179). During the three weeks when the simulation was 'alive', any initial hesitancy with the use of technology – primarily concerned with mastering the different tools and resources available on the Website, soon dissipated as students became actively engaged in playing their roles. There were many students who were disappointed when the simulation ended and the 'game' had to stop due to coursework deadlines.

It has been further argued that "while the use of simulations in education has been studied for decades, its use in an on-line learning environment has not been widely explored" (Cameron and Wijekumar, 2003, p. 119). At the end of the course, an anonymous on-line evaluation instrument was administered through the Website to obtain objective feedback from participating students. Using this data, collected over two years with four groups of students who participated in the simulation, we now discuss key aspects of using on-line technologies in higher education realised through the CTP Project and consider implications for further research.

Those who have experienced the benefits of on-line education such as Cameron and Wijekumar (2003), King and McSparran (2002), and McLoughlin and Luca (2001), have tended to favour constructivist frameworks where the authenticity of the narrative, group work, learner control and scaffolding of knowledge are emphasised in the design and delivery of the teaching and learning. As Oliver and Herrington (2003, p. 112) noted:

The strength of constructivism as a theory of learning lies in its description of learning as a process of personal understanding and meaning making which is active and interpretative.

Having adopted a constructivist approach in our simulation, we asked students to rate its usefulness in terms of:

- knowledge and understandings they had gained in relation to professional practice matters of interest to early childhood educators, and
- overall learning benefits of having participated in the CTP Project.

The findings from the evaluation related to four topics on early childhood issues are presented in Figure 46.1.

The development of sound partnerships between parents and professionals is central to the work of early childhood educators (Anning and Edwards, 1999; Ebbeck and Waniganayake, 2003; Jalongo and Isenberg, 2000; and Jensen and Kiley, 2000). Our simulation contained a variety of opportunities for students to interact with each other as either parents or professionals depending on the character allocated to each team. Through the simulation students were able to “practice skills, explore sensitive issues, expose behaviours and sensitize participants to other ideas, attitudes and values” (Bell, 2001, p. 256). As can be seen in Figure 46.1, on all four areas of early childhood practice identified, the majority of students rated the effectiveness of the simulation as being either high or very high. These findings augur well in supporting the use of on-line simulations to promote understanding about content, skills and values relevant to early childhood educators.

We acknowledge, however, that a minority of students rated the effectiveness of the simulation as either very low or low as shown in Figure 46.1. One possible explanation for this finding is that some students may have found some matters emerging from the simulation concerned with either parent – staff relationships or human rights issues for instance, either too abstract or complex due to language barriers or personal attitudes and belief systems. Variations in learning styles associated with

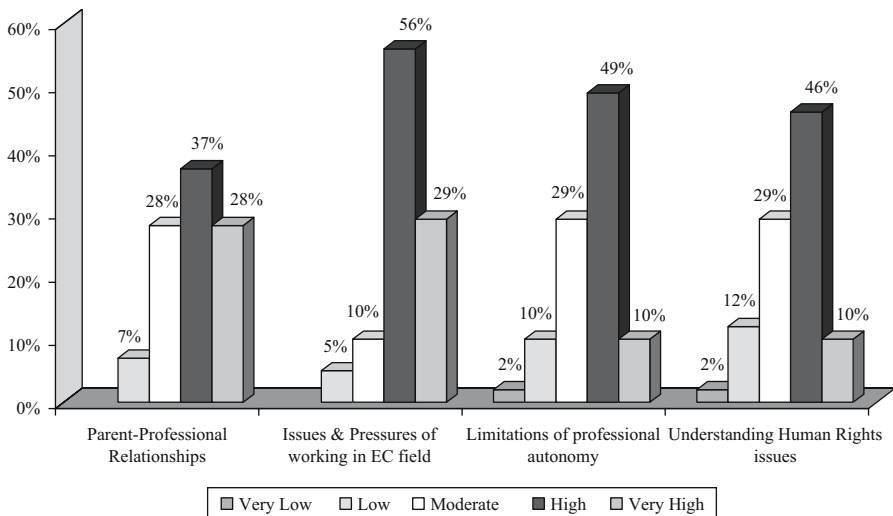


Figure 46.1. Effectiveness of the simulation in learning about early childhood matters

participants' diverse cultural backgrounds, English language proficiency and competence in using technology can also influence both learning outcomes as well as the overall engagement in the simulation – especially the smooth flow of the interactions (Bell, 2001; Johnson, 2001).

It would also be useful to find out through any future simulation whether perceived effectiveness of the simulation is related to the assigned character or the specific roles students played. For instance, Bell (2001) raises questions about role engagement in terms of students' cultural values and beliefs. In our simulation, although cultural diversity and human rights concerns were integral to the storyline, available data do not shed any light on the extent to which students found it easy or difficult to play the role of someone from another cultural background. It is also possible that role engagement could vary according to learners' interests as well as competence and awareness of options available to the same characters in the real world. For instance, dealing with the media and managing public relations is a relatively new area of professional practice for early childhood educators (Ebbeck and Waniganayake, 2003). Students' feedback suggest that whilst some were keenly interested in playing the role of the journalist in our simulation, others were less comfortable in this role due to the lack of first-hand experience of working with the media.

As discussed earlier, critical thinking competencies are also reflected in the integrated assessment requirements incorporated into the simulation design. As McLoughlin and Luca (2001, p. 421) wrote:

It can be argued that the move towards authentic assessment paradigms has been accelerated by technology with its capacity to cope with a broad array of activities, tasks and forums for collaboration, dialogue and student-centred learning.

McLoughlin and Luca's sentiments are also supported by evaluation data derived from the analysis of the overall benefits of our simulation, and are depicted in Figure 46.2. When the data on those who used the ratings of either 'agree' or 'strongly agree' are taken together, Figure 46.2 shows that almost three quarters or more of the students supported the use of the simulation in terms of increasing interactions with peers (ie, 80%), overcoming space and time limitations of studying at university (ie, 73%) as well as in helping students to organise large amounts of information (ie, 85%) and providing a holistic approach to learning (ie, 91%).

Figure 46.2 also shows that one of our design assumptions concerned with promoting interactions between students and academic staff was not fully supported by the data collected. That is, almost half the participating students (ie, 43%) did not believe that the simulation had enabled them to relate better to us as their lecturers. This finding surprised us because as the simulation moderators, academic staff was always accessible to students on-line. However, it must be noted that we did not have a direct role as characters in the role-play. Moreover, our role as moderators during the simulation and as lecturers outside the simulation was perhaps not easily distinguishable. These factors may have influenced the nature of interactivity between

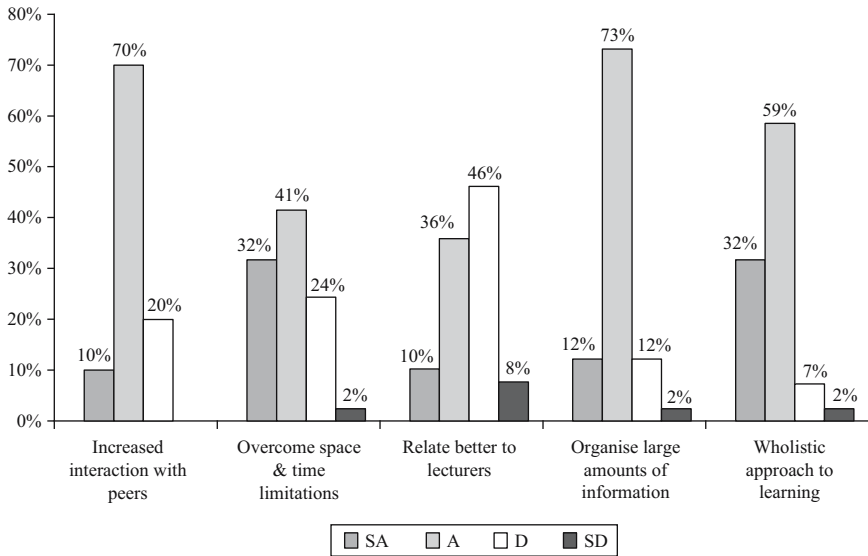


Figure 46.2. Overall benefits of the simulation

Note: SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree and SD = Strongly Disagree

students and us. Most of the initial interactions between moderators and students, though clearly not all, were concerned with the provision of technical support and clarification of course requirements. As such, this may have impacted on students' perception of the role of lecturers, particularly during the later stages of the simulation when students were competently and intensively engaged in the role-play. Broader concerns such as authority relations in the learning process reflected in these findings cannot be easily de-aggregated in this data set and have been addressed elsewhere (see Linser *et al.*, 2004).

Notwithstanding the feedback on teacher-learner interactions, there is strong evidence that the simulation allowed increased communication between peers and enhanced a sense of community among the players. Virtual communities, such as that which was created within our simulation, are in essence designed specifically to bring together those separated by geographical locations and time zones. The overall design of our simulation reflected a global classroom where students had easy access to diverse and boundless resources across the Internet. It has also been shown that "... networked communication has increased the parameters of what is known as a community" (Palloff and Pratt, 1999 cited in Johnson, 2001, p.51). Participation in our type of role-play simulation can facilitate a sense of a learning community because the emphasis is placed on "process development over market or product development" (Liedka, 1999 cited in Johnson, 2001, p.46). In our case, the learning community that emerged from the interactions on-line, saw the students relating to one another as stakeholders of a childcare centre community – an authentic learning environment, familiar to contemporary early childhood educators.

Our simulation also offered multiple channels of expression and connectivity with and between peers as well as academic staff. Johnson (2001, p.46) commented that:

In the past few years, group work and collaboration using on-line environments has become an important research topic because of the interconnectivity enabled by the Internet, and more specifically, the World Wide Web (WWW).

He went on to say that “on-line groups are usually self selected, rather than being true random selection in an experimental design” (Johnson, 2001, p.52). In our simulation, team membership was mostly randomly selected on-line. However, being in their fourth year of study at the university, many students were either friends or were at least aware of each other. The extent to which these factors impacted on promoting and/or hindering collaboration is difficult to know. Qualitative feedback from the participating students revealed that players knowing each other prior to the simulation contributed to successful negotiation over differences of opinion and in determining operational strategies on how to play the game. This pattern is supported by others who note “collaboration was richer among students who knew each other” (Oliver *et al.*, 1998 cited in Johnson, 2001, p.55).

Issues pertaining to safety on-line was another key consideration raised through our simulation. At one level, privacy and confidentiality of individuals within the simulated world itself led to concerns about who can get access to whose material during the simulation. For instance, security difficulties may occur especially in terms of the authentication of learner input. The initial registration process contained within the Fablusi software system, however, enabled us to keep track of an individual’s on-line input throughout the simulation. Others have also raised concerns about the permanence of messages posted on-line (see Bell, 2001 and Johnson, 2001). The Fablusi software resolves this issue by keeping all simulation-based messages securely stored on the system as well as by providing output in un-editable CD-rom format.

Although it did not seem to be an issue in our project, it is important to keep in mind that some studies have shown that “lack of trust resulted in individual work with little collaboration, worker dissatisfaction and team attrition” (Johnson, 2001, p.50). In our case, however, the promotion of skills and understanding about working collaboratively was deliberately built into the simulation design to enhance the authenticity and application of learnings derived from the CTP Project (Waniganayake *et al.*, nd).

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Analysis of the data derived from this study, whilst adding to the body of literature on the use of on-line simulations in higher education, also underscores the importance of continuous professional development for staff in the design and implementation of technology driven education programs. The rapid pace of advancement in on-line teaching tools and techniques demands the upgrading of both human and technical resources. Institutions need to allow for these matters to be systematically built into

their operational plans in order to harness the rich potential being offered by modern technology. Accordingly, we put forward three issues that warrant further investigation in promoting the use of on-line technology in higher education.

Role of the on-line teacher

As academic staff, we play many roles: teacher, coach, instructor, mentor or a facilitator, administrator and others. In our project, both students and staff shared responsibility for keeping abreast of the products of learning emanating from the simulation. Oliver and Herrington (2000 cited in Johnson, 2001, p.55) comment that the “content of asynchronous discussion can become poor and superficial without coaching and scaffolding”. This is particularly important because the volume of information generated by an on-line simulation can be large and complex. Multiple perspectives generated by having ten stakeholders in the simulation may also have implications for cognitive overload for the learners (de Jong & van Joolingen, 1998, p.195). When taken together with Bell’s (2001, p.11) concerns about “what are the appropriate participants numbers and time-frame” for an on-line simulation, these matters signify the need for further investigation and close monitoring during any subsequent simulations of ‘A Different Lunch’. Similarly, when and how best to scaffold learning that emerges during on-line simulations remains a continuing challenge.

Other researchers have raised the need for educators to be adaptable in embracing new technology in order to be successful in porting teaching programs to the on-line environment. “As the growth of this area explodes, we must examine the pedagogical strategies that can be used for on-line teaching” (King and McSporry, 2002, p.49). Adaptability issues are, however, deep seated – some hate change of any type, and others fear technology in part because of the ease of accessibility and transparency in making the information available to large audiences. Nevertheless, as King and McSporry (2002) have eloquently argued, the aims of teaching, regardless of how and where, either in-person or on-line, are the same. Given the importance of the instructor’s interpersonal skills to engage in any type of teaching, King and McSporry (2002, p.53) concluded by declaring that “on-line teaching demands hands-on commitment”. As moderators, this demand was clearly borne out by our simulation experiences. (For a full discussion on the role of moderators in on-line simulations see Linser *et al.*, 2002.)

Methods and tools used in on-line education

Whilst there is some consensus about the principle of direct contact in promoting better learning, there is no agreement about the strategies and/or the mix of methods and tools that could be deployed in delivering on-line education programs.

Fischer (1998) states that face-to-face contact is essential for rapport. Hammond (1998) makes a case for multi-modal learning, that is, face-to-face mixed with asynchronous learning. According to Borthick and Jones (2002), synchronous environments provide a better learning environment than either asynchronous environments or traditional classrooms (cited in Johnson, 2001, p.56).

In our simulation, we used all these methods: forums, published presentations and sim-mail provided asynchronous contact, whilst 'chat rooms' within the Website made possible synchronous text communication. Apart from the pre-simulation training sessions as well as the community conference at the end of the simulation organised by the academic staff, most face-to-face contact between students occurred spontaneously or by arrangement, at their convenience. We did not however evaluate the merits of each of these communication strategies as a separate entity.

One cannot also ignore the finding of others who state "the lack of face-to-face contact in text-based communication tools can actually be an advantage because this environment suppresses traditional group norm behaviour" (Johnson, 2001, p.56) and instead promotes diversity and creativity. To what extent is face-to-face contact necessary or essential in promoting collaboration and learning? If face-to-face contact is essential, then what is the nature and frequency of this type of connectivity that is required to optimise learning? "Others argue that no single design or perspective is adequate for the design of technology enhanced learning environments" (Sfaard, 1998 cited in McLoughlin & Luca, 2001, p.418).

Another point of consideration is, to what extent does the on-line input have to be supplemented by other technological tools such as Web-based audio and video conferencing? For instance, in our case, the scenario that was the stimulus for the simulation was presented to the students in the form of an audio-visual dramatisation not simply as a text-based situation as in the case of other on-line simulations. Collis and Moonene (2001 cited in McLoughlin and Luca, 2001, p.419) "conclude that while learning gains cannot be proved, they still remain optimistic about technology integration" into university based teaching and learning. An experimental study has to be put in place to compare and contrast the adequacy of learning outcomes derived from deploying different methods and tools in on-line simulations. Until such time, we can only state that technology offers more options or multiple channels for expression and engagement in information processing by both academic staff and students.

Quality assurance of on-line education

It is possible that as the demand for and popularity of on-line training expand, the interest and use of role-play simulations may increase. It seems that university wide application of on-line education programs are being linked together for benchmarking purposes (McNaught *et al.*, 1999; McNaught *et al.*, 2000; and Oliver, 2001). As the attention on university-based on-line education intensifies, McLoughlin and Luca (2001, p.425) ask, "Will technology be able to meet the future challenges of the quality assurance agenda?" They advocate an approach where student involvement in knowledge construction is emphasised and benchmarks with clear expectations that reflect real world living are established.

Existing studies within different disciplines such as computer science (Cameron and Wijekumar, 2003), education (Bell, 2001), political science (Linsler, 2004), and engineering (see de Jong and van Joolingen, 1998) clearly demonstrate the variable uses of on-line role-play simulations to promote skill development in diverse

professions. There is strong evidence to suggest that one of the key indicators of success in using simulations is their capacity to motivate learners by simulating authentic learning environments (Orbach, 1979 cited in Cameron & Wijekumar, 2003, p.118). When looking at commercially available simulation packages, it is therefore important to assess their flexibility and capacity to meet the goals and objectives of a specific training program. In our case, the Fablusi platform had the capacity to emulate real world operations within the context of an organization such as a child care centre, a primary employer of early childhood educators. Those such as Collis (1997) reiterate the importance of ‘pedagogical re-engineering’ when using on-line technology, so that course content is revised to meet the learning objectives instead of repackaging content simply to fit a given form.

Oliver and Herrington (2003, p.111) contend that although much effort, enthusiasm and time are dispensed in developing on-line education packages, “too often the opportunities and advantages of the use of technology in the learning process are poorly exploited”. On the other hand, there is also concern that pressure on academic staff to “master new technology” by developing and extending their on-line skills can become overwhelming (Atkinson and Brown, 1997 cited in Kulski *et al.*, 2002, p.2). In writing about the evaluation of the introduction of a university wide on-line learning system at RMIT University, McNaught *et al.*, (1999, np) stated, “Staff workload is a critical issue “ and called for “more local support for staff and students”.

To ensure excellence in quality in on-line education, provision of continuous training and timely assistance to both academic staff and students must be guaranteed. This view is supported by those such as Bennett *et al.* (1999) and Kulski *et al.* (2002, p.1) who highlight the importance of establishing “institutional support structures to cater for the emerging professional development needs of their academic staff” and outlines the benefits of adopting a “strategic approach to centralised support” for all concerned – the institution, the staff and the students.

CONCLUSION

Much of the current literature on on-line teaching and learning relies on the discussion of case studies of interventions launched at various higher education institutions such as ours. The extent to which one can generalise and debate the potential of on-line learning based on these findings is somewhat limited because of the contextual variables particular to each case study such as the CTP Project. With the growing interest in developing standards and benchmarks for on-line teaching and learning (Cohen and Ellis, 2002; Oliver and Herrington, 2003) it is also possible that the richness and creativity contained in the case study designs of on-line education could be lost.

Just as much as the imposition of a system-wide curriculum can stall or stymie the advancement of classroom practice, it is also possible that top-down bureaucratic standards that force academics to converge their on-line designs around a single platform could thwart initiative and experimentation with diverse technology and enthusiasm to learn from meaningful experiences. Herein lies the danger that standardisation could constrain the potency of constructivist principles that has

driven much of the on-line learning revolution to become nothing more than mere rhetoric. Likewise, as our findings suggest, the impact of on-line education on the teacher-learner relationships require critical review and reconceptualisation. For instance, if the current trend in learner centred pedagogy continues to direct on-line education, is it possible that technology could eliminate the need for academic instructors all together? Large scale evaluations of on-line role-play simulations sustained over a period of time are needed if we are to strategically plan and address major dilemmas such as these which can change the nature of higher education as we know it today. As educators, we need to go beyond the technological advances of today in planning for pedagogical improvements of tomorrow.

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47. THE COMPLEXITIES OF LEARNING TO TEACH:
“JUST WHAT IS IT THAT I AM DOING?”

INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores the findings from a study designed to pursue opportunities to strengthen pre-service teacher education. At the heart of the study was the identification and exploration of several tensions that emerge from the practicum experience with a view to examining and reducing the reported gap between teacher education course-work at university and the experiences of student-teachers during their in-school placements.

A particular focus of the study was the use of an integrated technological format, WebCT, used to promote discourse and collaboration in the pursuit of providing additional support for student-teachers (Gardner and Williamson, 2002, 2003). WebCT incorporates a range of learning tools: information can be made available through the lecture tool; interaction is facilitated through real-time chat, asynchronous discussion during which contributors may choose anonymity, and e-mail; and student-teachers can be engaged in reflection and the provision of feedback through completing surveys (WebCT, 2005). The WebCT survey tool was used to gather sets of data from 43 third year and 68 fourth year Tasmanian student-teachers in 2002. Each data set was allocated a number for identification purposes. Roman numerals denote which item in the survey elicited each response. In cases of data from discussion threads each contribution is identified with the message number.

The third year practicum (School Experience 3 – SE3) in the four-year Bachelor of Education (undergraduate) Program at the University of Tasmania comprises 35 days of in-school experience divided into two phases. The initial phase of 10 days is generally undertaken at the commencement of the school year for teachers (February); student-teachers return to the same placement to complete the second phase of 25 days towards the end of the first school term (April-May). The fourth year practicum (SE4/Internship) generally occurs in one seven-week block in Term 2 and comprises a supervised practicum phase of 10 to 15 days followed immediately by the Internship phase, without direct supervision, of 20 to 25 days. SE4/Internship is undertaken either as an individual placement or as a paired placement in which student-teachers are expected, during the Internship phase, to undertake a minimum of 80 or 100 percent of the teacher's normal load respectively. Table 47.1 provides a summary of the structure of the final two practica.

TABLE 47.1 Structure of the practica for the third and fourth years of the Bachelor of Education Program

Practicum	Phase 1 – days	Phase 2 – days	<i>Model – teaching load (SE4/Internship only)</i>
SE3	10 (during February)	25 (during April–May)	
SE4/Internship	10–15 leading into Internship <i>(during July – August)</i>	20–25 (making a total of 35 days in phases 1 & 2)	Individual – <i>increasing to a minimum of 80%</i> Paired – <i>100%</i>

IN TOUCH FROM A DISTANCE: THE USE OF WEBCT

Student-teachers used several tools that enabled them to communicate with each other at times convenient for each of them and at regular times when a university staff member was available as advertised through the calendar. For example, the discussion tool enabled student-teachers to log in at any time to read others' messages and to respond to these, or to initiate discussion about a new topic. Student-teachers could log in to one chat room and converse with their peers and the university staff member at specified times, or enter one of four other chat rooms and conduct conversations with peers only. At the conclusion of each of the two phases of their school placements student-teachers were invited to respond to surveys. Questions were asked to encourage student-teachers to: consider their professional learning and to set goals; make links between their learning at university and in schools; provide feedback on their perspectives of helpful and unhelpful mentoring and supervision practices and the role of WebCT in providing support for placements; provide feedback about their experiences of either the individual placements model or the paired placement model (SE4/Internship only); and offer advice to university staff, and for dissemination to future student-teachers, about improvements to the School Experience Program.

TENSIONS

An overarching theme in the student-teachers' responses to the surveys was *tension*. Tensions in several forms were evident in: first, incongruent values placed by a range of practicum participants on theory and practice; second, perceptions of the importance of theory and practice; third, the complex process of learning to teach, including reference to the role of learning and communication technologies; fourth, the disparate roles of the colleague teacher as mentor and as assessor; and finally, the influence of positive relationships, or of tensions in these relationships, on communication and learning.

Tension 1: Incongruent values

Practicum placements occur in a context characterised by entrenched frictions between university and school peoples' perceptions of each other's work (Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997; Griffin, 1999). Student-teachers in many countries indicate that the practicum is the most valuable element of their courses (Ben-Peretz, 1995); work

in the areas of the practicum and professional learning, however, typically is not valued sufficiently in schools or universities (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Zeichner, 2002). Teachers characteristically report that they are more influenced by learning from informal sources such as teaching experiences and opportunities for collegial collaboration rather than from formal sources of learning, for example, formal pre-service or in-service courses (Conley and Goldman, 1998; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Hargreaves, 1997), and that informal learning correlates directly with classroom proficiency (Morris and Williamson, 2000).

University-based teacher educators must contend with the barrier brought about between themselves and their school colleagues by being accountable “for the making of a profession” (Ramsey *et al.*, 2001, p. 99) of which they are not members; this challenge contributes, in part, to the divide between the two groups and institutions. Ramsey and his colleagues noted that implementing sustained models of professional workplace experience, similar to other professional models of professional preparation, would most likely pave the way to the increased standing of teacher educators.

Australian government action has also produced a negative impact on the practicum. Exploitation of the trend for school personnel to accept greater responsibility in the supervision and mentoring of student teachers has diminished the role university staff can play in student-teachers’ learning and, too often, internal university decisions have reduced funding for faculties of education, despite increased student-teacher numbers. The devaluation of the work of professional learning and the practicum (Liston, 1995; Tom, 1997) has resulted in a form of practicum that is not necessarily as valuable as the chief participants may believe it to be (Ben-Peretz, 1995; McIntyre *et al.*, 1996).

Incongruent values underpin a range of other more specific tensions.

Tension 2: Theory and practice

Student-teachers are frequently concerned about seeking the practical or technical skills fundamental to teaching practice (Bullough, 1997). They typically deem that the practicum is the *only* way to really learn about teaching (Feiman-Nemser and Remillard, 1996; Knowles and Cole, 1996). Furthermore, student-teachers typically believe that university coursework is something to be tolerated in a way that is similar to their passive learning experiences at school; this conviction inhibits their abilities to identify uncertainties about developing their teaching practice (Goodlad, 1990; Carter and Anders, 1996). This view was reflected in the response of one student-teacher who compared in-school experience with university lectures:

Hands-on experience is priceless!!!... I realise that I still have numerous things to learn and will be forever learning about teaching ... however, I feel that these things can only be learnt whilst on school experiences, not by sitting in lecture theatres.

(#6-ii-SE3)

Teaching is practised in classroom and school contexts; it is, however, also an intellectual activity. Teaching combines theoretical and practical learning that comprise, as described by Lieberman and Miller (1999, p. 60) “outside knowledge”

accomplished, for example, through professional reading and conferences and “inside knowledge” acquired, for example, from individual teaching experiences and collaborative activities. Tensions between theory and practice are frequently amplified by inadequate opportunities to explore relationships between the theories studied at university and the practical experience of school placements (Bullough, 1997; Tom, 1997). In attempting to bring about “integration within the teacher” (Korthagen and Kessels, 1999, p. 4) it is crucial to consider that establishing an approach to combining theory and practice is more important than debating whether theory or practice should come first or last. Establishing more credible links between theory and practice that might lead student-teachers to develop their understandings of the links between “pedagogy and content knowledge and how these two forms of knowledge interact in teaching” (Westerman, 1991, p. 293) is central to this integration.

Accordingly, while experience may alert student-teachers to the existence of particular issues of learning and teaching, it is crucial that thinking about those issues and decisions about teaching practice are underlined by a theoretical foundation (Grossman, 1990). In this way there may be a reduced likelihood of the development of a dichotomy described by Calderhead and Shorrock (1997, p. 195) between “the need for teachers to *understand* teaching”, possibly more emphasised by universities, and “the need to be able to *perform* teaching” (emphases in original) which is, perhaps, more likely to be accentuated by schools. Some student-teachers reflected an emphasis on teaching performance, as revealed in the comments from one Intern:

Support from the uni is not needed if things are going well, as the case was [for me].

(#30-vii-SE4/Intern, individual placement)

Other student-teachers expressed the view that school is the authentic place for learning to teach and that regular opportunities to practise teaching were vital to improve the integration of theory and practice. As this student-teacher makes clear:

Over the last three years it has become obvious that nothing a university does can possibly prepare anyone for working six hours a day with children The emphasis should lie on learning theory at uni followed by weekly opportunities to apply this new knowledge in the correct context ... in a school.

(#2-I-SE3, emphases in original)

Indeed, when asked to consider improvements to the practicum, many suggestions focused on decreasing the amount of theory and increasing the practical experience, as evidenced in the following two student-teachers’ responses:

No problems with the prac experience. [I] would suggest that the Bachelor of Education course requires a lot more practical experience. We need more structure regarding ways in which we can teach.

(9#3-ix- SE4/Intern, paired placement)

The only thing I would change by the time you get to Year 4 is to remove the essays and the theory and give us hands-on things that we could take with us for our teaching.

(#18-ix- SE4/Intern, paired placement)

The emphasis by student-teachers on practicalities underlines the crucial need for teacher educators to focus increasingly on moving the practicum focus “away from skills acquisition towards a more explicit understanding of the process of learning to teach” (Hastings and Squires, 2002, p. 81).

Tension 3: Learning to teach

Progression from the role of student to the role of teacher is at the core of student-teachers’ learning to teach (Tomlinson, 1995; Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997). However, student-teachers appear to view this transition as more “occupational” than “intellectual” (Goodlad, 1990, p. 214) in nature and, furthermore, as more reliant upon their experiences in schools than in any evolution in role as a learner or an enquirer at university. Marti and Huberman (1993, p. 197) described tensions between roles and, more importantly, tensions between the status of different roles: “young adult; big brother or sister; friend, parent; former pupil; teacher, to mention only a few” that, in fact, are made still more complex in combination with roles performed in private life.

MODELS OF LEARNING TO TEACH

Different models of learning to be a teacher have been described in the literature (Britzman, 1986; Bullough, 1997; Korthagen and Kessels, 1999; Samaras, 2002). These models encompass learning derived from: first, the student-teacher’s own student days; second, time as a university student; third, practicum experiences; and finally, as a beginning teacher. Student-teachers’ experiences during their own schooling substantially influence their beliefs about teaching (Carter and Doyle, 1996). Therefore, in order to maximise opportunities to engage student-teachers in altering their beliefs they must play a major role themselves in their own learning (Bullough, 1997; Loughran, 2002).

Learning to teach requires a judicious combination of personal and professional qualities (Liston & Zeichner, 1991; Preston, 2001) that requires a complex social process between and among student-teachers and experienced teachers (Bullough, 1997). For practising teachers “teaching is a messy affair”; for student-teachers who typically have less confidence and expertise, and certainly less experience “learning to teach seems even messier” (Liston and Zeichner, 1991, p. 60).

THE ROLE OF LEARNING AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES TO IMPROVE STUDENT TEACHER LEARNING

There is increasing recognition of the capacity of learning and communication technologies to increase participation in professional learning (Collis, 1995; Ehrmann,

1997; Selwyn, 2000). These technologies offer an array of supports to learning opportunities, in part by facilitating increased opportunities for school-based and university-based staff and other student teachers to interact and collaborate. Student-teachers do need to be more resourceful during the practicum than at other times during their pre-service education (Albon and Trinidad, 2002). However, the number of opportunities to converse professionally and learn collaboratively does mesh with the possibilities offered by learning and communicating technologies. The use of these technologies, when the student-teacher is actually in a teaching situation, recognises the situated and mutual activity that underpins student-teachers' learning during the practicum (Mazoue, 1999; Mayer, 2002).

The Tasmanian student-teachers in this study were offered opportunities to communicate with each other and their lecturers through the use of chat rooms and the discussion board. They were encouraged to become increasingly proactive in managing aspects of their own placements: first, through use of the calendar tool, on which lecturers could post information and which student teachers could personally tailor to their own needs; and second, by completing surveys in which they were invited to reflect on their experiences in schools, their learning, and in which they could provide feedback.

The student-teachers commented about the importance of "keeping in touch" (#9-vi-SE3), and stressed the value of the availability of communication that was "easy to access and a quick way to get up-to-date info" (#8-vi-SE3). There was evidence of support for synchronous and asynchronous professional conversations and collaborative learning through being able to offer and receive peer support. For example, this kind of collaboration is described in the following two responses:

I found the discussion boards were very helpful because they made me verbalise the aspects I wanted to improve on.

(#16-iii-SE4/Intern, individual placement)

The chats and discussion we had were great for self-esteem and confidence because you could see that [others] were having the same experiences and feelings that you were.

(#43-iii-SE4/Intern, individual placement)

One of the discussion threads from WebCT illustrated a sharing of experiences and feelings that appeared to be a powerful episode for the discussion participants. Several student-teachers took the opportunity to share a problem, offer opinions and support, respond to support from peers, and observe the outcomes of their collaborative on-line activity. For example, one discussion thread is presented, in part, in the following sequence of contributions:

Message #27 (first anonymous posting by one student-teacher about the subject: Am I the only one???)

I have decided to post this message anonymously because it sounds like I am the only one having issues with my class.

Yes, I am having trouble with behaviour management ... it is all too intimidating when you have [other] sets of adult eyes on you and the children ... are in an uproar. I know this shouldn't worry me, but I feel as if they are all assessing me as well, and it doesn't look good when you don't have control over the class.

I don't want this to go on for another four and a half weeks

Message #29 (anonymous posting by a second student-teacher)

I am also out on my own in a class. My biggest struggle is behaviour management, the same as you explained ... My teacher had been very supportive ... She also told me that 7 weeks is not long enough to gain the relationship with the children to the same level that she has ... So don't put that pressure on yourself to think that the children should respond to you the same way as they do to their teacher ... Hopefully it will get better soon.

Message #37 (lecturer's posting after 4 responses posted):

Hello Anon, I hope you have found some strength and helpful ideas in the responses from your peers. They have covered so much ground! I hope you have been able to talk about the issues with your colleague teacher or school's coordinator ... If you feel you would like another avenue of support ... email me ... or another lecturer you know well. All the best and keep in touch.

Message #38 (a third student-teacher who identified herself)

I am having a great prac but am also having trouble re behaviour management with my class. They are still testing me. They began the week by [described incident]. It's good to hear from others who are going through the same things!! Good luck to everyone!!

Message #39 (a fourth student-teacher who identified herself)

I... experienced a similar problem. The strategy used ... [described behaviour and strategy]. This may or may not help ... but I did try.

Message #43 (second anonymous posting by the first student-teacher; 6 days later)

I am the original Anon. that was (and still is) experiencing behaviour management troubles in my class. Thank you for all your support and ideas ... my class hasn't really settled down ... but what can I expect? My colleague teacher has had them for 18 months now (she had them last year as well). I have to expect that they will try to put it over me!!... Apart from that I am enjoying prac., all the staff are very supportive ... Thank you again for all your ideas.

Message #50 (anonymous posting by a fifth student-teacher)

I think [same grade as student-teacher t 1] is the most challenging of all the grades I have worked with ... Hope things have improved.

The first student-teacher, in their final comment (message #43) posted on the *Am I the only one???* discussion thread, expressed a new optimism and an increasingly realistic outlook.

The contribution of a different student-teacher who viewed optimistically the experience of participating in on-line contact highlighted the importance of remembering that teaching is an “emotional” activity and that over-reliance on the use of high-technology risks removing student-teachers from the very thing teachers value about teaching, and that attracts student-teachers to the profession.

Message #56 (a sixth student-teacher who identified herself)

It was so great to log in and see so many messages from all of you. It's just like being back at uni! I think that's what I've missed most while on prac – not having people around you that are in the same position.

Feedback from student-teachers pointed to several aspects of on-line communication that require designers' attention: first, a preference for face-to-face communication with on-line tools acting only as support; second, considerable variation in the capacity of schools to facilitate student-teachers' access to the internet and in the case of a few schools, their willingness to do so. Specifically, of 111 sets of responses received, 22 responses identified a time-issue with the use of WebCT, 22 responses highlighted issues related to access (predominantly problems of gaining computer access in schools or technological problems), five responses indicated that student-teachers needed improved information about the benefits of using on-line materials and how to use these, and four responses related to disliking the technology or finding it confusing. The three comments that follow illustrate some of the problems identified by the student-teachers:

I felt that during prac I was too busy to be able to ... check WebCT, as planning [for School Experience] took priority.

(#20-vi-SE3)

I couldn't access WebCT very easily ... the computers at school were very slow to connect and kept bringing up errors, so I haven't used it very much.

(#14-vi-SE4/Internship, single)

I don't really like communicating using this technology. It is a little confusing.

(#2-vi-SE3)

The student-teachers made several suggestions related to specific on-line supports for the practicum experience that could be accessed through hyperlinks placed within WebCT. They proposed strategies to assist: preparations for the practicum; facilitating access to communication; and the provision of on-line resources for use in their planning, preparation and teaching. Their suggestions are summarised in the list

that follows:

- Making available questionnaires for student-teachers to assess their own readiness to undertake each placement;
- Making available information to provide school personnel—colleague teachers and school co-ordinators of placements within individual schools—with a broad on-line description of the course typically completed by student-teachers prior to each one of their four in-school experiences;
- Promoting communication channels between schools and the university prior to and during placements, and post-placement; and
- Provision of links to educational web sites, already available or constructed for the specific purpose of being linked to the School Experience web-site, in which student-teachers can access ideas and materials for example, planning, curriculum issues, and classroom management.

‘WORLDS’ OF TEACHING

Typically there are considerable discrepancies between views of the *real world* of teaching embraced by student-teachers and those held by experienced teachers in the classroom (Campbell-Evans and Maloney, 1997). These divergent views help to frame practicum participants’ ideas of what the learner is learning. For example, participants may think of the practicum as the adoption of, in the words of Knowles and Cole (1996, p. 657), a technical act of learning “to teach” or a more profound approach of learning “to become a teacher”. Some student-teachers revealed their focus on a predominantly technical performance and emphasised the importance to them of receiving what Britzman (1986, p. 446) termed “automatic and generic methods for immediate classroom application”; their concerns were embodied in their references to such factors as a *bag of tricks* and *tips*, as exemplified in two comments:

If we had come to the end of our “bag of tricks” the colleague teacher and the school SE supervisor would help with the situation and also ensure that we had another skill to add to the bag of tricks for next time.
(#22-v- SE4/Intern, paired placement)

Allowing me to experience teaching on my own ... providing helpful tips with behaviour issues
(#17-v- SE4/Intern, paired placement)

While novice teachers may be able to identify specific issues or problems related to students and their pedagogy they may “not know what to make of them instructionally” (Bullough, 1997, p. 85) because of their lack of broad understanding and knowledge within the dynamic context of the classroom. Experienced teachers, in contrast, form considerably more all-inclusive views of classrooms than do novice teachers on which they base their “mental representations, including their goals” (Westerman, 1991, p. 299). Accordingly, it would be reasonable to assume that student-teachers

would find themselves in a similar predicament to that of novices in contrast with skilled teachers' reliance on fertile information pertaining to the curriculum, classroom management and students that is "organized around interpretative concepts or propositions ... tied to the teaching environment" (Munby *et al.*, 2001, p. 889).

The typical structure of pre-service teacher education courses too frequently fails to provide student-teachers with the foundation to shift their "intuitive and imitative" student-teacher views of teaching that remain founded on the concept of , in Lortie's terms (1975, p. 62), "individual personalities" rather than "pedagogical principles". Student-teachers' active pursuit of "the tricks of the trade which will help ... organize the students and induce them to learn" (Tom, 1997, p.135), therefore, should not be unexpected. It is crucial that colleague teachers demonstrate commitment to continuing their own learning and make explicit their thinking and performance to student-teachers (Turner and Bash, 1999) in order to support a situation where student-teachers typically seek opportunities for ongoing reflection and professional learning (Feiman-Nemser and Remillard, 1996; Risko *et al.*, 2002). The crucial role of continuing professional learning highlighted in the literature (Tomlinson, 1995) was echoed in the following responses:

I ... believe teachers are continually developing and self-assessing their work.
(#29-ii-SE3)

I believe that I have learnt so much, but I know that there is still so much to learn, in terms of planning for units and assessing students' work.
(#43-ii-SE3)

Moreover, the principles behind teaching substantially remain the province of teachers; the more experienced and expert the teacher, the more invisible the complexity of teaching and the teacher's intent to the uninformed observer (Berliner, 1994). Skilled teachers focus beyond themselves, their own performance and superficial classroom features. Their priorities rest with students' learning, and social and institutional relationships, structures and configurations (Furlong, 2000). Teachers require several years of experience, however, before they begin to associate their teaching actions with what their students learn (Berliner, 2001).

Student-teachers' philosophies of teaching need to be challenged and extended with the support of more experienced and trusted mentors so they may engage in discussion and reflection that develop their thinking (Risko *et al.*, 2002; Samaras, 2002). The lack of shared values and the resultant incongruity between in-school experience and university teacher education programs, however, typically result in little or no requirement for student-teachers to reflect, learn, or confront their original views (Bullough, 1997). Elements in the culture of the teacher education course and/or the practicum may in fact impede meaningful and deeper levels of communication and reflection, and sanction a parallel belief that superficial performance is acceptable.

AN ALTERNATIVE MODEL FOR LEARNING TO BE A TEACHER

The fact that two models of SE4/Internship—individual placement and paired placement—were available to the Tasmanian student teachers offered us the opportunity

to explore their perceptions of either working alone or with a partner. Approximately half of the student-teachers who undertook SE4/Internship individual placements made reference to how an individual placement enabled them to experience the *real world* of teaching; this was in their opinion the best preparation for their future teaching. Anecdotal feedback from many teachers also indicates their perception that individual placements mirror the real world of teaching. This belief is transferred to student-teachers who characteristically develop the belief that an individual placement will best prepare them for teaching the year after they graduate because it emulates the circumstances of a teacher (Carter and Anders, 1996).

The following two comments were examples of the student-teachers' responses to their experiences of individual placements:

It's more like what will happen next year. I realised that I could actually do it!
(42-viii-SE4/Intern, individual placement)

I got a sense of the real world of teaching and felt proud I didn't take the easy option [of a paired placement].
(45-viii-SE4/Intern, individual placement)

Anecdotal feedback from student-teachers suggested that paired placements often were viewed as half the work of individual placements. This view implies missed opportunities to teach student-teachers about the purpose and skills of collaborative learning. Additionally the role of teachers in perpetuating this view demands consideration. Reasons cited by student-teachers for the perceived advantage of individual placements included: first, issues of the time it takes to collaborate; and second, not having to negotiate, compromise and solve problems. Two student-teachers' comments illustrate these views:

I would not have completed a paired placement as I would have found it difficult to accept and implement a new teaching style.
(28-viii-SE4/Intern, individual placement)

A disadvantage of being paired was that we had differing opinions about students' learning needs.
(57-viii-SE4/Intern, paired placement)

Additionally, some student-teachers reported that the individual model offered the advantage of *not* having to discuss their work. Moreover, it was evident that some student-teachers perceived pressures that led to, and resulted from, competition to impress prospective employers. One student-teacher, for example, described a paired placement in which collaboration and support yielded to retreat and competition.

Towards the end it became competitive ... as trying out new ideas became an individual experience not shared as each wanted to try their own and didn't help the other.
(#61-viii-SE4/Intern, paired placement)

In contrast with the perception that the single placement mirrors the real world of teaching, the argument for a “community of scholars” approach has been advanced by Samaras (2002) who argued for the judicious pairing of student-teachers to enhance their learning in ways parallel with what Lave and Wenger (1991, p. 34) termed “legitimate peripheral participation” in order that each partner could derive benefit from each other’s strengths. Arranging pairs in this fashion resulted in some of Samaras’ student-teachers raising concerns about their partners’ differences. Positive outcomes reported by Samaras included the requirement that student-teachers listen to each other and reconstruct their knowledge about teaching. The importance of reflection with others has been noted by a number of authors (Loughran, 2002; Risko *et al.*, 2002; Tomlinson, 1995). Bullough *et al.* (2003) highlighted aspects of individual placements versus paired placements and their role in student-teachers’ notions of teaching.

If to learn to teach is to learn to manage by yourself large numbers of children, then partnership teaching has an obvious disadvantage. However, if student teaching’s primary purpose is to learn how to develop innovative curricula and expand one’s knowledge of methods and of children while learning to engage in collaboration, then partnership teaching has an advantage.

(Bullough *et al.*, 2003, p. 71)

Some Tasmanian student-teachers mentioned benefits, for themselves and the students they taught, of working and learning from each other.

Having someone to talk to who knows exactly what you are talking about ...
(#9-viii-SE4/Intern, paired placement)

Learning from one another’s teaching styles, having someone to bounce ideas off [was important].
(#32-viii-SE4/Intern, paired placement)

Sharing the workload, having a sounding board ... you can’t be everything to everyone and those students you didn’t get along with so well may get along with your partner.
(#61-viii-SE4/Intern, paired placement)

Placing student-teachers—individually or in pairs—with individual teachers rather than a school community effectively limits student-teachers’ learning opportunities. Placements with individual teachers heighten the risk of student-teachers embracing unsophisticated views of learning opportunities and the perpetuation of teaching practice through creating a situation characterised by deference to and reproduction of the colleague teacher’s behaviour. Placement with a school community enables student-teachers to become “caught up in interaction among all communities within the school” (McIntyre *et al.*, 1996, p. 173) and to become “insiders” (Furlong, 2000, p. 15)

who collaboratively plan, teach, reflect and engage in professional discourse. These views of the positive benefits of a community of scholars have been highlighted by Bullough (1997) and Samaras (2002). Furthermore, anecdotal feedback from student-teachers who worked in paired placements indicated that they attached importance to learning with peers in addition to learning with experienced teachers.

Anecdotal evidence from many Tasmanian schools points to their preference for paired SE4/Internship placements, however, reasons cited by schools are not reflected in the literature. There is some evidence that schools seek to release teachers during the Internship phase for in-school projects or their own professional learning. Consequently, the removal of teachers from regular interaction with interns constructs a perception that mentoring student teachers is not a professional learning opportunity.

An added tension in learning to teach is the complex environment of the classroom in which student-teachers experience simultaneously “a time of ‘getting one’s feet wet’ and a ‘sink or swim’ experience” (Britzman, 1986, p. 443). They must learn in an unpredictable environment in which many instantaneous decisions are required with no opportunity to be gradually immersed in the classroom. Similar tensions have been identified and linked to the provision of in-service professional learning for teachers (Eraut, 1994; Guskey, 2000; Putnam and Borko, 2000; Kelleher, 2003). One student-teacher, however, in considering their ‘sink or swim experience’ reported that being left alone was advantageous to their learning:

I didn't see a lot of my teachers, they hardly ever came into the room, however at the same time this did give me a chance to develop my teaching and I feel I became better at teaching because of it.

(#10-v-paired placement-SE4/Intern)

Teacher educators must aim to develop student-teachers' capacities to progress through increasingly different intensities of reflection, starting with personal performance at a practical, more superficial level and moving towards justifying teaching practice and its bearing on students' learning, and eventually to reflecting on ethical and political issues (Furlong, 2000). The closest any of the Tasmanian student-teachers came to reflection was evident in the following two responses offered by student-teacher #37:

Getting my teaching and learning philosophy into order ... just what is it that I am doing and why? ... What is important in [students'] lives and necessary for their learning right now?

(#37-iv-paired placement)

I don't know enough about the steps involved in the teaching of the content of particular topics. What are the progressions that students make when they are learning about volume ... And what ... of my own teaching and learning philosophy?

(#37-ix-paired placement)

Motives for undertaking what might be viewed as “safe” or non-risk-taking levels of reflection become evident when well-documented non-risk taking teacher orientations are considered (Bullough, 1997). Two orientations identified by Lortie (1975) are: *conservatism*, typically resulting in teachers’ avoidance of reflection that could result in their changing their practice or the classroom environment in which they practise; and *individualism*, in which professional collaboration is eschewed for fear of the resultant judgment and criticism. Orientation to these modes has considerable implications for missed learning opportunities. Moreover, these modes sustain a tradition of private reflection, typically for student-teachers in the form of journal entries, which channels them to “a ‘standing in place’ without sufficient nudging and coaching that can lead to adopting additional perspectives” (Risko *et al.*, 2002, p. 139).

Resources to facilitate provision of improved levels of assistance by university-based teacher educators to facilitate student teacher reflection are crucial as student-teachers typically experience uncertainty about their teaching abilities (Furlong, 2000). At this point, it is crucial to note that student-teachers typically report being more influenced by teachers than by their lecturers at university (Goodlad, 1990); however, some-teachers described several helpful strategies employed by their university lecturers. The receipt of constructive criticism and suggestions was appreciated by student-teachers. One student-teacher noted: “they spent time talking with us about what we had been doing and offered constructive criticism/suggestions about what they had seen in the classroom” (#29-vii-paired placement). Enabling conversations with someone they knew from outside the school context was helpful, as reported by another student-teacher: “It was good to see a familiar face and be able to discuss my prac with an outsider of the school that I was working in” (#49-vii-individual placement). These reports reflected the importance of having the support of university staff with whom it was possible to debrief in a collegial atmosphere. Many student-teachers reported the importance of opportunities for them to share reflections with skilled teachers, peers *and* university staff in an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust.

Developing increased opportunities for university staff to influence student-teachers must be a priority in reconsidering the practicum. In reality, however, resources to enhance opportunities for university staff to collaborate with student-teachers are insufficient. Many university staff have argued the exigency for obtaining much-needed resources to appropriately fund quality teacher education, although this call is unlikely to be successful in the current political and economic contexts.

Provision of opportunities for student-teachers to be exposed to experienced teachers’ articulation of their teaching is an area of student-teacher learning that requires ongoing attention in the quest to improve the quality of collaboration during in-school experience. Participants—student-teachers, teachers, and university staff—must engage in discourse about the purposes of the practicum, what it means to perform current roles and what new roles might be required.

Tension 4: Teachers’ conflicting roles

Tasmanian teachers have responsibility for formative *and* summative assessment of student-teachers’ work during practica. Like many other providers, the University of

Tasmania's School Experience program attempts simultaneously to offer a developmental model and an evaluative model (Faculty of Education, 2003). Lack of congruence between the roles of mentoring and assessing develops from the characteristically diametrically opposed nature of working collegially and of the supervisor-supervisee relationship (Grimmett and Crehan, 1992). Many Tasmanian colleague teachers have expressed some difficulties in providing frank, specific and constructive feedback to student-teachers brought about by their typically supportive characteristics; they are not accustomed to engaging in what Calderhead and Shorrock (1997, p. 209) describe as "constructively critical dialogue". It is vital that teachers expand their strategies for providing feedback.

The situations of conflict experienced by teachers as a result of having to perform formative *and* summative assessment is a strong theme that has emerged from anecdotal comments from many teachers. Some student-teachers' comments corroborated teachers' reported difficulties. Apprehension about their colleague teachers' assessment role influenced some student-teachers to not initiate some professional discourse. One student-teacher described the experience of not knowing how their request for assistance would be perceived by the colleague teacher:

The class I had was very challenging ... [I] would have found it helpful to have received some support but none was given to me ... Maybe I should have asked for assistance but I was afraid of looking like I wasn't achieving.

(#56-ix-individual placement, SE4/Intern)

The potential conflict between how student-teachers would like to fulfil their classroom role and their belief they need to do whatever it takes to pass the placement is associated with the kinds of strategies they employ during in-school experience. For example, one student-teacher noted the importance of performing for the principal:

The colleague teacher gave us helpful pointers and ideas of how to do things differently in the classroom to suit what the principal looked for.

(#33-v-paired placement, SE4/Intern)

Student-teachers are unwilling to adopt an approach that might be viewed by a colleague teacher as questioning their views. A typical comment illustrated this reluctance:

It is still hard to communicate to your teacher ideas and thoughts without sounding pushy. Therefore School Experience 3 did not give as much independence as I would have liked or anticipated.

(#17-i-SE3)

In contexts in which mutual respect and trust between student-teacher and colleague teacher are not present there is increasing potential for collision between the dual roles of the teacher, as mentor and assessor, and the roles of student-teacher, demonstrating competencies confidently and with initiative and demonstrating their capacity to learn from their colleague teacher.

Several student-teachers expressed their preference for open and full feedback. However, they did not welcome feedback in isolation from the use of an overall supportive approach by teachers. They expressed their appreciation for a range of opportunities characterised by mutual respect and trust that echo findings by several researchers (for example, Bleach, 1999; Calderhead and Shorrocks, 1997). These included opportunities first, to put ideas into practice; second, to initiate and influence the time and focus for reflection; third, to share their colleague teachers' resources; fourth, to be consulted about their opinion on professional matters; fifth, to be given time to organize their thoughts in order to contribute ably to whatever discussion would be taking place; and finally, to be provided with information, advice and guidance on a range of matters relating to teaching and the profession.

Tension 5: Relationships

Bleach (1999, pp. 28, 34) described a process entailing "shared power, the mutual exchange of information, equally active roles, collaborative learning and reciprocal reflection" rather than "expert" practitioner ... guiding the 'inexpert' novice" to gain "access to [the] new society" of the classroom and the school. Many student-teachers expressed the central role of relationships in the success or otherwise of their in-school experiences. Some student-teachers' reports pointed to a mutually reinforcing process in which they were able to build success upon success and generate a solid foundation for their professional learning and development. They testified to links between positive relationships, support, trust, having their professional opinions appreciated, and their developing confidence. Several student-teachers emphasized their appreciation in the following terms:

Listening to me and how I thought my lessons and the day went ... also writing feedback on my lesson ... then expanding on this in person.

(#17-v-SE3)

Allowing me to have input, asking for my opinions.

(#34-v-SE3)

Allowing me to try out lessons on the class, even if they [the teacher] felt they might not work.

(#4-v-SE3)

The teacher stepped in when required and then handed back the reins.

(#18-v-SE3)

The importance of student-teachers working in an atmosphere in which they could achieve an appropriate balance between opportunities to demonstrate initiative and not being accused of excessive self-confidence was noted in several responses. Student-teachers' reports focused on their perceptions of the ways in which supportive colleague teacher behaviours assisted them to participate confidently in professional

discourse and professional learning. Excerpts from their responses included reference to: confidence, “giving me space to gain confidence ... not interrupting all the time ... allowing me to initiate reflection after a session so that I was composed and ready (#39-v-SE3); feedback, “we were able to openly discuss things I was good at and things I needed to improve ... she was willing to let me try different things out when teaching the children” (#31-v-SE3); a range of communications, “her positive feedback and encouragement, her willingness to let me take lessons, experiment and learn from my own teaching ... communicating to me about everything from how to set up the classroom to how to deal with misbehaviour or prepare for parent-teacher interviews ... all were helpful” (#41-v-SE3); and opportunities to demonstrate initiative, “she ... allowed me to experiment with my own ideas but did not throw me in the deep end (#54-v-SE4/Intern, individual placement).

In contrast, colleague teachers’ inflexibility or lack of interest in providing opportunities for student-teachers to test their own ideas and to learn from the experience may inhibit their professional development. Student-teachers reported being hindered by having to work in a class “where the routine and behaviour expectations are already established” (#42-ii-SE3) and by “differences in opinion with my supervising teacher” (#13-i-SE3). Neither of these scenarios might come as any surprise to an informed observer: establishing routines and expectations is necessary with each group of teachers and students as is acknowledgement that differences in opinion are part of the human condition. The style of communication rather than the difference itself, however, may have played a greater role in student-teachers’ reported perceptions of these differences.

CONCLUSION

Important and valuable advances have been made in the internet’s potential to support student-teachers’ learning. Nevertheless, continuing development of this technology offers the potential to recognise the distributed nature of learning and requires appropriate resource levels: first, to ensure student-teachers are competent and at ease with its use; second, to explicate the specific features of and use of the communication tools; third, to appropriately staff faculties of education to enhance opportunities for student-teachers to prepare for and learn during in-school experiences, and to make connections with their university-based learning; and finally, to support colleague teachers in their roles of mentors and assessors.

The study’s findings provide support for specific improvements to the practicum based on the innovative use of technology. Collaborative exploration and transformation of the purpose of the practicum and roles of the practicum partners is essential. Inherent in a review of the practicum is the question of addressing the theory-practice divide that characterises so much of the feedback that student-teachers provide. Exploration by all participants and stakeholders of current and future practicum models might enhance recognition of in-school learning experiences and ultimately improve education provision in the future. Student-teachers must be engaged actively in reviewing and creating their own learning. An integral aspect of this learning

requires the development of skills of reflection and use of these individually and as a member of a community of scholars. Indeed, it is crucial that consideration of strategies that might enhance the opportunities to be gained from the distributed learning is an integral part of a professional preparation program in universities and schools.

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48. PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS SELF-PERCEPTIONS
OF ICTE: AN AUSTRALIAN PERSPECTIVE

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to report and reflect on student teachers' self-perceptions of Information and Communications Technology in Education (ICTE). The context in which this examination takes place is within a continuing debate on the relative merits of teaching computing skills and the integration of ICT into teaching practice.

Much is written about how technology is changing our lives, there is considerable curiosity about its future, and there is great expectation that it will transform the way we learn. However, just how this is to happen is still a mystery to many educators. Ever since the pioneering efforts of Atkinson and Suppes (Atkinson, 1968; Suppes and Morningstar 1968) a massive amount has been written about how technology will transform teaching and learning. A great deal of the literature focuses on the dichotomy between *computer education* and *computers in education*, although the word computer is now often replaced with the more inclusive term – *information and communication technologies* (ICT). The explanation of the now generally accepted dichotomy is that learning *about* computers is the substance of computer education and information technology courses where the focus is on computer literacy and awareness, and *computers in education*, or learning *with* computers, is about the use of the technology to build powerful learning environments where computers and other technologies are used as intelligent tutors, supportive mindtools (Jonassen, 1996, 2000) and challenging tutees (Taylor, 1980) across the curriculum, to engage, enhance and enable learners. This latter perspective focuses attention on the intersection between pedagogy and technology, and the resulting effect on psychology, epistemology and teaching praxis.

It is important to note that within the *computers in education* perspective differing views on learning *with* technology exist. Many of these views focus on developing, emerging and yet to be invented technologies and sometimes the focus is on the fanciful. The Sci-Fi perspective, for example, is often reinforced by popular culture where a simplistic view of human learning is often depicted. In science fiction cinema, for example, humans can be programmed like a computer. There are a range of perspectives or discourses about computers in education. The exploration of these discourses helps to explain why ICTE is adopted in schools.

DISCOURSES OF ICTE ADOPTION

We identify three interwoven discourses of ICTE adoption, which collectively operate to reduce the effectiveness of ICTE in schools. These may be referred to as the *techno-romantic*, *technological determinist*, and *image-driven* perspectives respectively.

The first of these discourses, the *techno-romantic*, provides a perspective whereby the teaching and learning environment becomes more engaging when yet to be invented or improved versions of current technologies are introduced. By the sheer presence of technology in the classroom, education will be renovated, learning will become easier, teaching will be more dynamic, and curriculum more engaging. In this idealistic perspective all that seems to be required is to get the wires, boxes and screens in place and educational reform will be a reality. The process is reminiscent of cargo cults during the early twentieth century, in that the arrival of the cargo was expected to lead to happiness for villagers with little need for them to work very hard for their own benefit. A subset of this discourse includes that of network technologies, where, as Spender and Stewart (2002) suggest, network technologies will shift teaching and learning online and the notion of anywhere and at anytime learning will become a reality. Anywhere/anytime learning will be characterized by student-centered, project-based learning with the role of the teacher and the learner redefined. The future will belong to the *eteacher* and the *elerner*. The eteacher will no longer be the talking head at the front of the class, s/he will be as adept with technology as s/he is with books and s/he will use new technologies to empower and engage learners. In the digital networked classroom, technology will be infused with the learning process to create knowledge products, the one size fits all curricula will be banished, and digital repositories and learning objects will be the new tools of the teaching profession (Romeo, 2003).

The second discourse, that of the *technological determinist*, is based on the proposition that new technologies are inevitable and inexorable. In school education, this assumption is accompanied by an implicit belief by administrators that developments such as broadband communication, wireless connectivity or learning objects must be adopted in schools, as they are increasingly becoming accepted in the wider community. However, as with other discourses of ICTE adoption, this approach gives inadequate consideration to changed teaching practices associated with new technologies, or the skills that staff will require to implement them.

The final discourse, *the image-driven*, is even further divorced from the reality of teaching and learning. In this understanding of ICTE, schools are promoted through glossy brochures and high-technology web sites, featuring happy students immersed in computer-rich environments. There can be a perceived market advantage in being seen as a school that supports ICTE, and in some areas, competition for students can be fierce. The possession of computer facilities by a school guarantees neither that students will have equitable access over a range of year levels or subjects, nor does it mean that teachers will have learned the necessary skills to use them to improve student learning.

THE POTENTIAL FOR ICTE IN SCHOOL EDUCATION

Brown *et al.* (1999) conclude that the potential of technology in education lies in bringing exciting, real-world problems into the classroom, in providing scaffolds and tools to enhance learning, in giving students and teachers more opportunities for

feedback, reflection, and revision, in building local and global communities, and in expanding opportunities for teacher learning. Dynamic multimedia, streamed audio and video, simulations, rich databases, and interactive web sites now make it possible to bring powerful tools, resources, and data to the classroom. Connections to museums, art galleries, scientific institutions, government agencies, statistical databases, and other organizations can help to create an active environment where learners can solve and pose problems using the artifacts that are available to real scientists, historians and mathematicians. These powerful interactive technologies present learning opportunities that have not been previously available and now make it possible to create learning environments in which students can learn by doing, receive feedback, and continually refine their understanding and build new knowledge (Brown *et al.*, 1999).

Many technologies, including calculators, probes, handhelds, databases, spreadsheets, word processors, multimedia and web authoring, concept mapping, and programming software can serve as scaffolds and tools to assist student understanding and learning. Papert's use of LOGO (1980, 1993) and Jonassen's (1996, 2000) ideas about computers as Mindtools, or the use of Inspiration (Helfgott and Westhaver, 2003) for concept mapping would be examples of using software applications to scaffold student learning. Many software applications also offer enhanced opportunities for feedback, reflection, and revision, assisting with the development of formative assessment procedures and with the provision of opportunities for learners to develop their metacognitive skills. New assessment software, the clever use of word processors, spreadsheets and databases, and network technologies such as email and threaded discussion groups makes available to teachers and learners tools to enhance and expedite feedback. Email, threaded discussion groups, and online journals can provide environments for reflection and authoring tools such as word processors, multimedia slide shows and web page creation software provide opportunities for learners to revise and reedit their work and build a richer understanding.

Network technologies can also be used to build local and global learning communities. Theory informs teachers that they need to create learning environments where the learner's preexisting knowledge is recognized and developed, opportunities for discussion and the shared construction of knowledge are provided, and the social and cultural background of the learner is considered. The communication technologies that are now available via the Internet including chat, email, threaded discussion groups and the many emerging database driven web applications that allow learners to respond to situations and share the responses (Edwards and Romeo, 2003), present unique opportunities to build learning communities. Teachers are also learners and the technology provides them with opportunities to be part of their own local and global learning communities, to use web technologies and various applications to scaffold their learning, as well as opportunities to revise, reflect and receive feedback (Brown, *et al.*, 1999).

In Australia there is a long tradition of reports advocating the use of ICTs in education as described by Brown, *et al.* (1999). Early reports included the National Advisory Committee on Computers in Schools (NACCS, 1983), and the

Commonwealth Schools Commission (1985). More recently, as Finger and Trinidad (2002) point out, there have been a range of initiatives by Federal and State governments in Australia to develop systemic initiatives for effectively integrating computers into schools. Table 48.1 describes some of these initiatives.

TABLE 48.1 Online Initiatives in Australia, Commonwealth Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) Initiatives and Projects

Initiatives and projects	Summary
Progress Report: Learning in an online world	The Commonwealth Government promotes and supports national collaboration across school systems to achieve the goals set down in <i>Learning in an Online World</i> (EdNA Schools Advisory Group, 2000)
The <i>Le@rning</i> Federation – Schools Online curriculum initiative	A component of Backing Australia's Ability: An Action Plan for the Future, the <i>Le@rning</i> Federation aims to generate online curriculum content for system delivery to schools
Innovation and best practice project	The report <i>School Innovation: Pathway to the Knowledge Society</i> is available at http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/publications/2001/index.htm
Models of teacher professional development for the integration of ICT into classroom practice	The project report <i>Making Better Connections: Models of teacher professional development for the integration of ICT into classroom practice</i> is available at http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/publications/2002/professional.htm
ICT Competency standards for teachers	The project now complete and the report <i>Raising the Standards: a proposal for the development of an ICT competency framework for teachers</i> is available at http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/publications/2002/raisingstandards.htm
Innovative bandwidth arrangements for the Australian education and training sector	High speed online communications is a very high priority for the education and training sector. The project report is available at http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/publications/2001/bandwidth/index.htm
International comparison of ICT policies	This project describes and analyses what governments in Australia and overseas, private education and training providers in Australia are doing in terms of ICTs and supporting transition to the information economy
National ICT research database EdNA online	This will provide a searchable, online database available through EdNA Online EdNA Online website is available at http://www.edna.edu.au , is managed by education.au.limited which is a non-profit company owned by the State, Territory and Commonwealth Ministers for Education and Training. This website provides a portal for an extensive range of quality services and resources to facilitate a network of Australian educators

(Source: Finger and Trinidad. (2002). Summarised from MCEETYA *Information and Communication Technologies in Schools Taskforce*, 2002)

One of the problems with many of the reports is that the complex and protracted nature of human learning is glossed over, and unrealistic expectations are generated. For many teachers, the promised synergy between technology and learning is proving as elusive as ever even with the astonishing array of new technologies that are now available. There is confusion about what the technology has to offer, why it matters and widespread reluctance to move beyond tokenistic use of computers in the classroom.

One response to these difficulties and tensions has been to focus on the ICT skills and understandings that teachers need to function effectively in technology-rich classrooms. Local examples of policy initiatives in this area include *ICTs for Learning* (Education Queensland, 2004), *Embedding Educational Technologies into Professional Practice* (Dept of Ed, Tasmania 2004), and *eLearning Capabilities Matrix* (DE&T Vic, 2004). International initiatives include *The Matrix* by BECTA/NCSL (2004), *STaR Chart* by CEO Forum (2004), *National Educational Technology Standards (NETS) Project* by ISTE (2004), and *International Computer Drivers Licence* (ACS, 2004).

Attention and pressure has also focused on teacher education. Pressure from groups such as education unions, the now defunct Standards Council of the Teaching Profession (Victoria), the Australian Council for Computers in Education (ACCE) and the Australian Computer Society (ACS) has prompted Faculties of Education in Australian universities to rethink the way in which teacher education courses prepare students to use ICTE in their classes.

The latter part of this chapter describes a study of teacher education students. The degree course in which these participating students were enrolled uses the *Learning Technologies Capabilities Statement* (DEET, 1999) to help university staff embed ICTs in the teacher education program, and as a schema for preparing students to use ICTs during their professional lives. This statement, prepared by the Department of Education and Training, Victoria (DE&T), is a summary list of ICT related skills, knowledge and attitudes that teachers should develop over time (see Table 48.2).

It is not suggested that pre-service teachers should be able to master all of these capabilities by their first year or indeed by end of their course. As a tactic for commencing the journey for student teachers, various ICTE specific core units, modules and electives are offered and an attempt is made to embed ICTE across the curriculum. As well, a rich online environment is provided. This includes an extensive online cyber library with an online catalogue and connection to an array of databases, access to the World Wide Web and the University's intranet, unit websites, a student portal, email, threaded discussion groups, chat, lectures online (RealAudio), and interactive online tutorials.

This environment is particularly important for student teachers for a number of reasons. First, efficient use of the Internet and the Intranet for authentic purposes increases students' skill level and their familiarity with cyberspace. Second, by modelling the use of the web as a teaching and learning tool, lecturing staff not only show students how Internet technologies might be used in the classroom but also motivate students to think about the possibilities. Third, exposure to the use of Internet technologies for teaching

TABLE 48.2 Department of Education and Training, Victoria – Learning Technologies Capabilities Statement

The Learning Technologies Capabilities Statement

The statement identifies teacher capabilities in five areas:

1. Approaches to teaching and learning

The attitudes and approaches to teaching that will support the effective integration of Learning Technologies in the classroom.

2. Classroom management and practice

Skills and understandings required to effectively manage a classroom where Learning Technologies are an integral component.

3. Curriculum planning and development

Capabilities that ensure Learning Technologies are incorporated in the planning and development of curriculum.

4. Monitoring and reporting student progress

Capabilities that link the use of Learning Technologies to the monitoring and reporting of student progress.

5. Learning Technologies skills for classroom and administrative purposes

A range of skills is required by teachers to use technology for classroom and administrative purposes. These skills are further elaborated in the Skill Development Matrix. The matrix identifies seven major areas for skill development. Professional development goals and strategies at three stages of development are identified in each area.

- using and managing technology
 - using basic computer applications
 - using desktop publishing and presentation software
 - using multimedia
 - using communication technologies
 - using Learning Technologies in the key learning areas
 - use school level computer applications for administrative purposes
-

and learning purposes helps students to develop a critical voice. As future professional educators, it is important that education students experience aspects of learning with technology to help them construct an informed view about the potential of the technology for teaching and learning purposes.

STUDENTS' VIEWS OF INFORMATION AND
COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGIES IN EDUCATION

The decision to survey first year students about their views of ICTE resulted from a need to monitor the implementation of the framework on which the course was based. There was an imperative to determine students' attitude towards ICTE, and to highlight any differences between student understandings of ICTE, and that of the academics responsible for the design and teaching of the course.

Evaluating the effectiveness of the framework is important because for the majority of teachers currently working in Australia, and perhaps the world, ICTE has not been a part of their learning experience. Given this lack of experience, it is not surprising

that the integration of ICTE in education is proving difficult to implement. There are some indications from the U.S.A. and Australia that the impact of preservice teacher education courses in this area has been minimal. Cuban (2000) has argued that despite two decades of personal computers in the U.S.A., and the wiring of schools, less than two out of every ten teachers use computers in their classrooms several times a week, 3–4 teachers use computers once a month, and 4–5 never use them. This report is particularly disappointing as the provision of internet access to schools in the U.S.A. has shown a dramatic increase in recent years. The NCES report (2003) indicates that 99% of a sample of public schools in the U.S.A. had access to the Internet in 2001, as did 87% of instructional rooms. Furthermore, 85% of those schools with an Internet connection (all but 1%) used a broadband connection. A steady stream of pre-service teachers must have completed their training in recent years, and this observation suggests that this training has not led to high rates of internet use in schools.

Given this finding, it is not surprising that in the U.S.A, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education has observed of pre-service teacher training that “most schools of education have not yet fully integrated technology into their programs for preparing teachers” (NCATE, 1997, p. 3). Similarly, Rossenthal (1999) has observed that, in the U.S.A., teacher training in ICTE has been affected by shortages of hardware and software, a lack of training by faculties, and a poor appreciation of how much classrooms have changed. The situation does not appear to be very different in Australia, as Stein *et al.* (1998) have shown that in the mid to late 1990s there were few indications of substantive technology content in preservice teacher education courses in Australia. Although there have been improvements in recent years, and students’ ICTE engagement within education faculties has increased, some teacher education graduates might still find that their main understandings of the impact of technologies such as the internet would be derived from the experience of their daily lives.

An additional concern is that much of the research on pre-service teachers’ views of technology (eg Handler, 1993; Bedell, 1994), date from a period when computer use, and in particular, the internet, was less common in schools. Technological change has rendered this earlier research largely redundant. Whether connectivity occurs at home or at school, it is likely that the Internet will be a key factor in the shaping of cultural expectations and educational systems. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS, 2001) reported a 57% increase in households that were connected to the Internet in Australia during the period May 1998 to May 1999. A survey of 6213 students in Australian schools (DETYA, 1999) also found that 85% used a computer outside school, and 79% had a computer at home. This survey was prompted by the knowledge that there was insufficient evidence that education courses effectively prepare teachers to use ICTE, and that much of the available data is of doubtful relevance for future schooling. In particular, we wanted to gain insights into the preservice teachers’ visions of teaching and learning. In our view, ICTE can be a transformative agent in school education if the appropriate conditions can be met. This includes a deep knowledge of school contexts, teaching practices, and technologies.

In this respect, our view is consistent with the imperative for graduating pre-service teachers outlined by the Australian Council of Deans of Education (1998), which has noted that graduates:

... should have a thorough knowledge of how the new learning, information and curriculum technologies can be used in their particular curriculum levels and areas, including as a means of enhancing interactions between people and as a means of engaging and interrogating sources of information, argument and ideas.

(Australian Council of Deans of Education, 1998, p. 16).

In the survey described below, we examined the self-perceptions of first year teacher education students to see what they would reveal about students' understandings of ICTE. We were also interested in finding out what that thinking revealed about the structures we had implemented.

Participants

The individuals who participated in the survey were students enrolled in the first year of undergraduate primary and early childhood teacher education degrees. Forty-two respondents completed the questionnaire associated with this study and they had all completed a unit entitled Computer Essentials during their first year of the course. This unit is designed to introduce students to the university's online environment and to develop personal computer literacy. The unit covers computer awareness, the development of a conceptual model of a computer system, the interrelationships between hardware and software, file management, storage and maintenance, software operating systems, word-processing, databases and spreadsheets. There is also a comprehensive introduction to the Internet and the online resources of the university's library. The unit is essential in helping students to develop their knowledge and skills in ICT and helps to establish a positive attitude toward technology. At this stage the emphasis is on developing understandings to assist students to function effectively as university students and as preservice teachers. Subsequent units and modules focus more on the pedagogy of using technology in the classroom.

The research was designed to collect their perceptions of ICTE now and in the future, predictions of teachers' classroom computer use, and their opinions about their own preparation for teaching in computer-related contexts. The respondents in this study were predominantly young females. Eighty-three per cent were aged 19 years or younger and only four of the forty-two were male.

Instrument

The survey used a five-point Likert scale that ranged from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree, (see Figure 48.1). Respondents were asked five questions about how they believed students would use computers at school in 5 years time, five questions concerning teachers' future use of computers, and four questions about their own preparation for teaching using computers. The items asked for a subjective appraisal of these issues.

Question number	Definitely agree	Tend to agree	Neither agree nor	Tend to disagree	Definitely agree disagree
1.1 Many students will attend “virtual school”. They will use a computer from their home for a large part of their studies rather than attend school on a regular basis.					

Figure 48.1. Sample Likert-scale question

Your comment about the ways in which computers will be used in primary school classrooms:

Figure 48.2. Sample open-ended question

In addition, open-ended or qualitative responses were sought for questions concerning computer use in primary classrooms, understandings of “cyberspace”, and their mental processes when they use computers (see Figure 48.2).

Procedure

Questionnaires were distributed to students at the end of a lecture, with an additional distribution in the following week for students who had not previously been able to participate. Forty-seven pre-service primary education students responded. After collection, the results for the Likert-scale questions were analysed to discover whether the group agreed or disagreed with the propositions in the survey. A five-point scale was used, ranging from 1 (Definitely Agree) to 5 (Definitely Disagree). Responses of Definitely Agree (1) and Tend to Agree (2) are combined to report agreement, while responses of Definitely Agree (5) and Tend to Disagree (4) are combined to report disagreement. The qualitative responses were categorized according to trends that emerged from the data.

Results

The use of computers by school children in 5 years’ time

A majority of respondents (85%) agreed that students would regularly obtain information from the World Wide Web during their normal classes, and that school students would be involved in regular co-operative work with other students, using the internet (79%). Opinion was divided as to whether there would be regular use of videoconferencing over the Internet during normal classes, with 43% of the sample

agreeing that this was likely. Sixty per cent of students thought it unlikely that virtual schools would enable students to use computers from home rather than attend school, and 57% also thought that harm was unlikely to result from immersion in on-line environments.

Common themes that emerged from the qualitative data were beliefs that computers would be used extensively in classrooms, and that computers were valuable for education and future employment. One student commented that:

I believe computers will be used more widely in the classrooms across all subjects, as there are so many programs that can help and benefit students in their learning. I also believe that computers are a basic requirement for most jobs.

However, other students distinguished between expected and preferred futures. There were concerns about a lack of basic skills if too much attention were devoted to computers:

Students should gain a sound knowledge of computers in class; however this should not compromise their reading and writing skills/practice.

Predictions of teacher use of computers in the classroom

Ninety-five per cent of respondents believed that teachers would make efforts to ensure that students use computers ethically, 74% supported statements that suggested that teachers would make extensive use of computers in reporting to parents, and 81% agreed that teachers would use computers across all subject areas in the curriculum. However, there were mixed opinions as to whether teachers would change the basic way that they taught in classrooms, with only 45% supporting this proposition.

Several students thought that there would be gradual rather than dramatic changes. In the qualitative comments, a student observed that:

Computers will be gradually assimilated into the current curriculum style, so more work will be done using them, but that does not mean that the current manual approach will become redundant.

Preparation for teaching using computers

All the students (100%) believed that they had adequate knowledge of word processing packages, and most (93%) also believed that they could find information on the Internet. 88% believed that they had adequate knowledge of computer skills necessary for the classroom, while 71% believed that they had enough curriculum knowledge to use computers in this way. However, most students (61%) did not believe that they were capable of creating their own interactive web page.

DISCUSSION

The student teachers' perceptions of how computers might be used in schools in 5 years time are broadly consistent with much of the literature. Open-ended responses

consistently suggested that the use of computers would continue to increase. One student wrote:

I think the children and teachers in primary schools will use computers even more often in classrooms than they do already.

Others understood the need for computers to be used across the curriculum, rather than just a subject in its own right:

Technology is a worldwide factor today and I believe computers should play a huge role in children's learning. The use of computers in every subject e.g. Science Maths and English is very important

The view that teachers need competence in the pedagogy of computers as well as their technical operation was also supported.

However it needs to be remembered that these students were in the first year of their course and had only completed one unit that focuses mainly on developing their personal computer literacy and awareness. Much of their response to the survey was based on their own experiences as learners in a secondary school and, in most cases, one year of higher education. As a consequence their responses, as would be expected, tend to be superficial and clichéd. They understand that the use of ICTs in schools will increase, that it will play a role in children's learning and that it is important that ICT skills are mastered but how this might happen and why, and the pedagogy that underpins it, is not necessarily well understood. It could also be surmised that students would need to further investigate the social, political and ethical implications of the ICTE phenomenon and how ICTs might impact on the organization of schooling.

Responses to the question of student teachers' preparation for teaching were also valuable. By the end of the students' first year, the course designers would normally expect that students would be able to use applications such as word processing, spreadsheet, database, and the World Wide Web, and this was largely confirmed. There were some reservations about the use of advanced computer skills, and the pedagogy of computer use with students. While it could be argued that the remainder of the course provides opportunities for the students to practice these skills, there may also be an opportunity to make the first year component of the course more challenging. As computer skills learned at home and at school continue to grow, it can be expected that entry-level skills in computing will also continue to increase.

CONCLUSION

The survey has certainly provided teaching staff with insights into the students' thinking about technology and teaching. First, at the end of the first year of the course students have mostly developed good computer skills especially in word processing and the use of the Internet, are aware of some of the technology issues impacting on education, and have started to develop a positive, albeit critical, attitude towards the use of technology in classrooms. Second, the need for further investigation of issues

and the further development of pedagogic understanding and skill in the next 3 years of the course is apparent.

The implication of the first point for teacher educators is that the knowledge, skills and understandings that the students have developed in regard to ICTs need to be nurtured, developed and expanded. The challenge is how to make this happen in a higher education environment where resources are shrinking and in a teacher education environment where the ICTE phenomenon is not well understood and the inextricable link between the technology and learning that now exists is even less well understood.

The implication of the second point is similar to the first in that the resources, knowledge and understanding needed to assist students to investigate further, to develop pedagogies, and to nurture a critical voice, are limited. It also highlights the preconceived views and attitudes regarding the use of ICT in the classroom that students bring to the course. As in other subject areas these preconceived ideas can sometimes be difficult to change.

The survey has certainly provided teaching staff with insights into how many of the students are thinking about technology and teaching. These insights have been used, where possible, to shape the program in subsequent years. Soon, these students will be into the fourth year of their course and it will be interesting to survey them again to see if their knowledge, skill and understanding has changed and what have been the major influences in initiating, or not initiating, that change. The analysis of data from this survey compared to the analysis of the data when the students complete the course will provide useful indications that the ICTE framework developed is appropriate, or not, for the population it was designed for.

This chapter has examined pre-service teachers' self-perceptions of Information and Communications Technology (ICTE). The survey highlighted in the preceding discussion has provided empirical evidence and context for our discussion on teachers' skills and school practices in this area. The strong support shown for both computer skills and the place of ICTE in future school education has been tempered by caution about the ways in which schools will be able to change in the future. In this respect, we believe that the course that we have surveyed contributes in a positive way to the pre-service education of teachers in ICTE. In our opinion, it is appropriate to consider ICTE as learning environments with a transformative potential in school education. Consequently, beginning teachers should have had the opportunity to learn about the associated tools and pedagogy before they enter the profession.

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AFTERWORD

THE FUTURE OF TEACHER EDUCATION:
CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

It is clear from the analyses presented here, as well as from other contemporary sources (Darling Hammond and Bransford, 2005; Cheng *et al.*, 2005) that teacher education has become a political issue worldwide. This is not to say that teacher education has suddenly become recognised as important in its own right. Rather, as Earley has pointed out ‘... the policy world considers teacher education a device to achieve other goals ...’ (2005, p. 216). The main goals in various societies appear to be first, the raising of student achievement across the board and, second, the remedying of seemingly intractable inequalities in educational achievement. These goals are driven by two overwhelming political concerns: first, by the emergence of economic competition on a truly global basis and second, by fears of increasingly serious internal disaffection among marginalised groups in divided societies.

These fears of economic or social disaster seem to create political and moral panics in which education systems (and schools and teachers and teacher educators) are blamed for failing to respond to changed circumstances in appropriate ways. Therefore, the political argument runs, only a significant transformation of schools and schooling can remedy these problems. The transformation of schools depends upon the transformation of teachers. The transformation of teachers depends upon the transformation of teacher education. Thus teacher education has become a political issue.

The resolution of the ‘unresponsiveness’ of education seems at the moment to be pointed in one particular direction. Economic globalisation is argued by both Jansen (Chapter 2) and Imig and Imig (Chapter 7) to be reinforcing a particular centralised and standardised policy agenda across many political systems: one which argues that only if politicians seize control of public education can it be transformed from its current disorganised condition into an appropriate mechanism of modernisation in an increasingly competitive global economy. From a policy point of view a consensus is emerging among policy makers, encouraged by official organizations such as the OECD and the World Bank, regarding what kind of global economy is desirable, what education is for in relation to such an economy and how such an education should be organised. This consensus defines education as an instrumental agency charged with the production of individuals capable of technological innovation and entrepreneurial dominance of crucial economic sectors. The mechanisms employed to this end are the standardisation and concentration of curriculum (especially in its emphasis on English literacy and the scientific, technological and commercial aspects of numeracy) combined with a ruthless system of assessment and competition at individual, class, school, district and state levels. Continuous comparison of

performance against externally set standards and the ranking of students, teachers, schools, districts and systems against such standards and against each other, coupled with rewards (of public acclamation, prestige and funding) and punishments (public ignominy, withdrawal of funds, closure) are seen as mechanisms of improvement. If competition is good for the economy, the argument runs, then it has to be good for schooling.

There are many problems with this argument, but two are of particular importance. First, while competition may be good for economies, it is not necessarily good for individual firms. Few firms survive for more than a couple of years after start-up. Of those that do survive the annual rate of extinction is around ten percent, with frequent peaks to twenty five percent and occasional peaks of up to sixty percent (Ormerod, 2005). It is difficult to see any political party (or indeed, any society) surviving with elimination rates of this scale among schools. Second, such a ruthlessly instrumental operation of education systems inevitably alienates rather than socialises many individuals, creating a further potential (and perhaps, in some societies quite immediate) prospect of social disorder.

The argument also fails to recognise that the public education system has produced by far the majority of the key thinkers and decision makers of our time. How can such a system, that has been a key influence on the society that currently exists, be called a failure?

In addition to these political problems it is clear that education systems everywhere are facing two further problems: teacher numbers and teacher quality. Both problems might be solvable if cost was not an issue. Clearly if teacher salaries were high enough and working conditions good enough, education systems would have less trouble finding enough teachers of high quality. However, from the accounts presented here, and evidence gathered elsewhere, cost is a significant factor and quality a contested notion. While this is especially the case in developing economies where overall lack of resources is a crucial issue, it is also a problem in developed economies where maldistribution of resources deforms access to educational opportunity.

In many countries, developed and developing alike, current policies lead to a contradictory series of measures that are directed simultaneously to the reduction of costs (through standardisation, efficiency measures, competition, privatisation and the application of technology) and to increased performance (through promulgation of standards, central direction and accountability regimes). These policies are observable at all levels of education. They increasingly affect teacher education. Arguments have been put forward that the increased resourcing of education, at all levels, in the 1970s and 1980s did not bring with it the expected (and required) increase in student achievement (always as measured in very narrow ways and rarely taking into account the economic, familial and social conditions of the children being measured). These arguments have rebounded against education. If increased funding has not brought higher levels of student achievement, then reduced funding probably won't hurt student achievement. But whether the inherent contradiction in the attempt to improve quality while reducing costs will be resolved, remains to be seen.

What is apparent from the papers collected here is the many ways in which teacher education is being affected by these challenges. One of the most fundamental challenges to teacher education is the political questioning of the necessity of teacher education. In Anglo-Saxon countries the New Right political ascendancy has constantly belittled teacher education, seeing it as both unnecessary and, indeed, corrupting. Their views reached fever pitch during the Thatcher years in England where a *Spectator* editorial from the period claimed that

... teacher training colleges ... are staffed by Marxists who peddle an irrelevant, damaging and outdated ideology of anti-elitism to the trainees in their charge ... [The removal of] the statutory bar on state schools hiring those with no teacher training qualification ... [therefore] would enable headteachers to find people ... who at the moment are deterred by the prospect of having to waste a year undergoing a period of Marxist indoctrination.

(Quoted in Scott and Freeman-Moir, 2000, p. 14)

Part of this ideological attack was a reaction to the culture wars of the second half of the twentieth century where working class academics were developing an increasingly successful attack upon the primacy of elite culture and its exclusionary snobbishness; a snobbishness well articulated by T S Eliot.

To aim to make ... the 'uneducated' mass of the population share in the appreciation of the fruits of the most conscious part of culture is to adulterate and cheapen what you give, for it is an essential condition of the preservation of the quality of the culture of the minority that it should continue to be a minority culture.

(Eliot, 1948, p. 32)

But Eliot rather missed the point. The working class lads who were the first generation of their class to gain access to secondary education and then to universities were certainly intent on mastering elite culture (much of which they found hollow and wanting). But, more importantly, they were interested in articulating their own, working class culture as a culture to be equally respected. And they succeeded in gaining cultural recognition in art, literature, film, television, theatre, poetry and social and political analysis, providing models and encouragement for successive waves of similar demands from women, homosexuals, and, increasingly, minority and immigrant cultures. This 'anarchy of cultures' (Bates, 2005) provides a new context and a new set of demands for teachers and teacher education. What the *Spectator* saw as Marxist indoctrination was in fact an attempt to come to terms with the meaning of this new anarchy of cultures and to respond in ways which recognised the legitimacy of cultural differences as well as to develop schools which could in some measure contribute to the overcoming of massive inequalities in access and opportunity: schools that could in truth 'make a difference'.

That these issues of cultural recognition and cultural justice are still with us is made patent by the chapters in Section One. Jansen (South Africa, Chapter 2), Al-Hinai

(Oman, Chapter 3), Thaman (Fiji, Chapter 4), Greenwood and Brown (New Zealand, Chapter 5), and Reid, Brain and Boyes (England, Chapter 6) each refer to the ways in which the power of elite cultures deforms educational systems and the difficulties that teachers and teacher educators have in addressing such issues. Moreover, it is clear from their accounts that the residual legacy of colonialism is a further burden for developing countries and their education systems which frequently provide a maladaptive education directed towards ends quite foreign to their cultures and needs; education systems which are directed more towards the requirements of metropolitan cultures and which result in the expropriation of talent.

This conflict of demands is played out at all levels of education: on the one hand, the requirements for a strategic education which forms the basis for technological innovation and entrepreneurial dominance by first world economies, and on the other hand, the requirements for a responsiveness to an anarchy of cultures clamouring for attention and respect; in short, performance versus meaning. As Touraine observes with particular reference to French education 'whilst schools try to adapt to the needs of the economy, schoolchildren and students want to give meaning to their lives' (2000, p. 151). Teacher education is caught in the political, economic and social conflict between these demands.

Currently economic needs appear to be dominant over social and cultural needs. The needs of the economy are increasingly made patent through stronger emphases on standards and accountability. Imig and Imig (Chapter 7) show how federal intervention through the No Child Left Behind Act in the USA has imposed a whole new competitive regime on public schooling with significant implications for teacher education. Here the promise of a quality teacher in every classroom has brought about both an assault on the quality and relevance of teacher education and an assault on the very definition of quality by the lowering of professional standards in the face of shortages. Part of this argument relies on the current attempts to 'teacher-proof' and 'student-proof' the delivery of the curriculum as proposed by many of the 'design models' of the last decade. Here, all the teacher has to do is follow the directions and deliver the content provided by the curriculum designer and success should follow. Given this perception, one could argue that one does not need highly trained people to be teachers.

The inherent contradiction that raising the quality of teacher education can be achieved by allowing virtually anyone that chooses to become a teacher to do so with minimal training (known in the United States as alternative certification) whilst forcing formal teacher education programs to accept higher and more onerous forms of regulation and accreditation is a thinly veiled attack on what might be considered the 'public' method of training educators. Similar to the pressure faced by public schools over the last decade in many parts of the world, where charter schools and other forms of school self-management, that allowed certain schools not to have to follow the rules imposed on regular public schools, were lauded as being a much better way of doing things than the monolith of public education, characterised by such comments as that put forward by a former Minister of Education in Victoria, Australia, as justification for the government

policy he implemented:

We already had models of highly successful schools in the non-government or independent schools, which were attended by more than 30 per cent of Victoria's school students. What we needed to do was make all our schools 'independent'. We needed to dismantle 'the system'.

Caldwell and Hayward, 1998, p. 33

However, the view that anything public is necessarily less able to deliver what is required than a private replacement is far from being proven, anywhere in the world.

The controversy over the quality of existing programs of teacher education has largely centred around the issue of discipline knowledge versus pedagogical knowledge and around theoretical versus apprenticeship models of initiation into teaching. Despite the rather obvious over-regulation and under-funding of teacher preparation programs the political agenda is further regulation through standardised testing of teachers and the imposition of standardised texts based upon 'evidence based' research. Some (Hinchey and Cadiero-Kaplan, 2005) see the re-regulation of teacher education in a de-regulated education market as an attempt to privatise both schooling and teacher education in the interests of increased corporate profits.

The intent appears to be first, to redesign teacher education in order to promote private preparations and undermine academic preparation; then to tie this effort to a need to fill classrooms ... with non-unionized, lower-salaried automatons delivering standardized curriculum in standardized fashion (2005, p. 9).

While the situation in England is somewhat different, there is still a significant push to standardise teacher education, subject it to strict guidelines and impose forms of accountability which demand compliance with a somewhat narrow view of preparation – one not always connected to the real, cultural, work of teaching (Newby Chapter 8). Bates (Chapter 9) and Angus (Chapter 10) discuss the effects of such regimes on teachers and teacher education, arguing that the imposition of technical regimes of compliance and control have the potential to undermine the ability of teachers to engage pupils and help them make sense of their lives, as well as to disengage them from critical participation in social, cultural and political life.

Such changes in the context of teacher education can be expected to have significant effects on the preparation of teachers. Fortunately, however, teacher educators are increasingly well versed in what actually works. Both the compendium of evidence produced by Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) and the papers presented here show clearly that the professional pedagogical preparation of teachers has significant effects on student learning. The focus of both research and practice on 'lifewide learning' (Ryan, Chapter 13) and 'productive pedagogies' (Zyngier, Chapter 14) and the concentration of student teachers' attention on the effectiveness of particular teaching and learning strategies in context clearly pays dividends as does the incorporation of Action Research into school practice (Pelton, Chapter 15). The cultural

contextualisation of teaching and learning is also a significant theme, one taken up by Gorinski & Abernethy (Chapter 16) who show how effective curriculum and pedagogy are intimately connected with the understanding of cultural identity. The mentoring of student teachers is also identified as a significant factor in adopting a professional identity (Jane, Chapter 12; Pungur, Chapter 18; Davis and Moely, Chapter 19).

It is becoming increasingly clear that teacher preparation programs by themselves do not ensure the success of neophyte teachers. The issue of induction into the profession is also becoming a focus of attention. The six papers in section four devoted to various initiatives in induction all conclude that the initial transition into teaching is crucial to the successful adoption of teaching as a career and to the implementation of successful pedagogical and professional strategies. Moreover, sustained professional support through continued professional learning of various kinds (see section five) shows the significance of focusing teachers' attention on the pedagogical aspects of classroom learning and encouraging continuous reflection on pedagogical effectiveness. One of the key factors explored here is that of the connectedness of successful pedagogical strategies with the cultural (and therefore motivational) learning strategies of students. What we now know is that teacher retention is linked to teacher preparedness and teacher support. New work in Florida (Shockley *et al.*, 2006) considers the cost involved in replacing teachers after one or two years of service. It shows that the cost of replacing a large number of teachers (up to 50% in a five year period) substantially outweighs the cost of training them well and supporting them in their first few years of teaching.

In complete contrast to those who would impose standardised, routinised pedagogy and accountability measures, the evidence presented here in section six is that continuous reflection on pedagogical practice and the development of appropriate responses to observation through pedagogical innovation are clearly effective in promoting learning.

Again, while those who advocate the adoption of information technology in the classroom often see this as means of producing specific skills or of reducing costs, the papers presented here (see section seven) indicate that the integration of ICT into classrooms demands a complex understanding of the way in which communications and information technologies can be employed to enhance pedagogy. Indeed, in these chapters we have the beginnings of an understanding of what an electronic pedagogy might look like.

So what are we to conclude from this array of investigations and commentary on teacher education throughout the world? First, that education, and therefore teacher education, is caught between competing demands for strategic education on the one hand and responsiveness to an anarchy of cultures on the other. Currently, the strategies advocated as responses to these demands are largely couched in terms of standardisation, accountability and control that diminish the space for appropriate responses to an increasing anarchy of cultures. However, the overwhelming evidence from research into education and teacher education shows that without appropriate attention to cultural issues concerned with the meaning of people's lives, motivation and attention become problematic and alienation becomes a likely outcome.

Moreover, the evidence is quite clear that a focus on the pedagogical aspects of learning and teaching through an emphasis on ‘life-wide learning’ and ‘productive pedagogies’ pays significant dividends in teacher preparation and teacher effectiveness. Again, teacher preparation programs are not sufficient in themselves to guarantee successful teaching practice. Forms of mentoring and careful strategies for induction supported by opportunities for continuing professional development through reflective practice are essential in ensuring continuing professional commitment and effectiveness. One aspect of this effectiveness is the ability to capitalise on the increasing availability of information and communications technologies for the enhancement of pedagogy. The issue here is not simply the development of the skills of ‘using’ such technologies, but rather, their incorporation into pedagogical processes in productive ways that enhance learning.

But the final question still remains: what then should we do? Despite the diversity of approaches to teacher education exhibited in this volume, as elsewhere (Darling Hammond and Bransford, 2005), there is a growing, evidence-based consensus around what teachers should learn and be able to do. There is increasing evidence that learning is fostered by careful attention to pedagogy within the context of curricular practices that are responsive not only to the economic demands of systems, but also to the cultural understandings of pupils and their communities. This does not mean that students, teachers and teacher educators should be subject to the tyranny of particular traditions or communities any more than they should be subject to the tyranny of the market. Indeed, successful education may depend upon the interrogation of both markets and systems on the one hand and traditions and communities on the other so that the choices we and our students make are informed and effective. What it does mean is that teacher education, like teaching itself, requires sufficient autonomy to develop its own effective practice which is cognizant of the demands of both economy and society, of system and culture, but subservient to neither. For, as Touraine suggests,

The independence of teachers, like the independence of the judiciary, is an essential pre-condition for democracy, whose primary task is to restrict the power of the state and social powers of all kinds ... A school that is no more than an administrative service is unacceptable.

(Touraine, 2000, pp. 285–287)

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INDEX

- academic freedom, 41, 459
academic learning, 95
academic orientation, 242
academic standards for teachers, 5
accountability, 9–11, 16, 19, 25, 26, 34–35, 38–39, 42, 54, 98, 104, 111, 129–131, 141, 144–145, 153, 161, 221, 301, 356–357, 366, 404, 445, 542, 599, 600, 606, 608, 630, 654, 728, 730, 731–732
accreditation, 6, 71, 106, 108, 110, 118, 170, 245, 653, 730
accreditation standards, 106, 110
action research, 17, 51, 61, 70, 73–76, 227, 339, 426, 458–460, 465, 467–468, 473–474, 510, 519–520, 523, 526–528, 543, 563, 571, 586, 613, 614, 619
Activist, 601
Advanced Professional Term (APT), 270
agency, 84, 117, 130, 136–137, 141, 564, 600, 604–605, 607, 727
alternative approach to initial teacher education, 370
alternative certification, 6, 13, 244, 283, 730
alternative certification programs, 13, 283
alternative preparation, 103, 245
alternative programs, 6, 103, 110, 245
alternative ways of certifying teachers, 5
America Reads, 221
appropriate learning strategies, 57
assessing student performance, 352
assessment, 10, 12, 19, 21, 25, 27, 60, 82, 85, 104, 109–110, 123, 158–159, 170, 187, 194, 199–200, 220, 224, 230–231, 258–260, 262, 270–273, 285, 287, 291, 293, 311, 318, 323–324, 347, 349, 353, 359, 369, 374, 382, 392–394, 398–399, 401, 403–404, 410–411, 413, 417, 429–430, 449, 452, 458, 460–461, 462, 467, 475, 495, 499–502, 509, 512–515, 517–520, 527–528, 565, 573, 575, 587, 597–601, 605–606, 616, 632, 635, 641–643, 645–647, 652–654, 678–679, 682, 704–705, 713, 727
assumptions, 18, 34, 61, 74, 100, 247, 305, 543, 572, 589–590, 629–630, 682
at-risk, 206, 221, 229, 231
Australian Computer Society, 715
authentic assessment, 642–643, 653–654, 682
authentic reflection, 581
autonomy, 30, 34, 39, 41–42, 69, 81, 128–130, 138–139, 148, 173, 301, 346, 382, 436, 440–443, 595, 597–603, 606, 681, 733
Bachelor of Education (BE), 115
baseline data, 474
Basic Education Schools, 44
bean counters, 148, 152
beginning teachers, 13–15, 72, 103–104, 106, 108–109, 271, 285, 303, 319–328, 332, 343–346, 348–359, 366, 371, 383, 391, 393, 417, 564, 571, 573, 578–580, 722
Biculturalism, 76
biography, 557, 573, 607, 609
boundary structures, 572, 573
bricolage, 614
Bricoleur, 614
buddy pairs, 195
bureaucratized developmental map, 404
Bush administration, 101, 103
business management, 153
capabilities, 20, 72, 138–139, 172, 255, 332, 465, 521, 715, 716
capacity building, 9, 34, 68–70, 473
centralised education system, 45

- centralization of decision making, 96
- charismatic subject, 573, 575, 578
- charter schools, 6, 287, 730
- Chartered Teacher Standard, 391
- Chief Inspector of Schools, 118
- Choice, 81
- Christchurch College of Education, 68
- Christian missionaries, 55
- citizenship, 30, 35, 437
- Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ), 295
- civil society, 128, 132, 154
- class size, 163, 320, 349, 387
- classroom experience, 119, 573, 576–577, 581, 614
- classroom management, 109, 227, 244, 247, 269–271, 273, 275, 277, 345, 352, 394, 421, 427, 603, 663, 699
- classroom management skills, 269, 277, 352
- class-size reduction, 101
- clinical practice, 98, 105, 219, 222, 252, 284
- clinical training, 244
- Cluster workshops, 309
- Collaboration, 88, 508, 519
- collaborative, 16, 21–22, 48, 57, 60, 75, 83–84, 124, 171, 190, 195, 197–198, 200, 203, 228, 269, 273, 302, 307–308, 337, 374, 377, 417, 433–434, 436, 438, 447, 450, 453–454, 457–458, 466, 468, 472–473, 515, 520, 542–543, 546–548, 550–553, 600–601, 618–619, 634, 642, 657–663, 667–672, 676, 678, 694, 696, 701, 706
- Collaborative Action Research, 219, 222, 225–226
- collaborative inquiry, 543, 546–547, 550–553
- collaborative reflection, 547, 553
- colonialism, 27, 56, 730
- communication technologies, 366, 565, 633, 657–658, 692, 695, 713, 716
- community, 3, 5, 7, 14, 22, 26, 30–31, 35–36, 41, 54–55, 57, 68, 70, 72–73, 75–76, 79–80, 83–84, 90–91, 96, 99–100, 103, 111, 132–136, 138, 145, 147, 150, 153, 160–162, 171, 181–182, 190, 196, 199, 201–202, 220, 226, 249, 251, 255–256, 269–270, 273, 285–287, 295, 297, 302–305, 310–311, 313, 324, 332–337, 339–341, 344, 346, 349, 354–356, 358, 368, 372–375, 377–378, 416, 433, 436, 441, 448–450, 452–453, 467, 470, 472, 475, 482, 489, 520–521, 535, 536, 539–543, 550–553, 562, 585, 595, 601, 637, 642, 657–658, 660–661, 664–668, 670–672, 676, 678–679, 683, 686, 702–703, 708, 712
- community colleges, 103
- Community coordinators, 199
- Community experiences, 332
- Community Learning, 372
- community of practice, 182, 310, 540–543, 550–552, 660, 664, 667–668, 671
- community of scholars, 702–703, 708
- Community organizations, 336
- community teachers, 340
- compassion, 30, 63, 298, 530
- competence, 14, 19, 28, 30, 43, 120–121, 123–124, 128, 160, 255, 308, 345, 348, 359, 382, 385, 386–388, 394, 399, 401–402, 404, 416, 418, 424, 542, 574, 577, 603, 630, 660, 667, 682, 721
- competencies, 71, 120–121, 194–195, 201, 222, 225, 247, 340, 365, 465–466, 473, 598, 602, 629–631, 635, 637, 649, 678, 682, 705
- competent craftsperson, 573–575, 578
- competent craftsperson discourse, 573, 575
- competition, 25, 81, 83, 128, 142, 153, 159, 172–173, 383, 434, 515, 517, 536, 606, 663, 701, 712, 727–728
- computer education, 711
- computer literacy, 711, 718, 721
- computer-rich environments, 712
- Computers, 713, 715, 720
- computers in education, 711
- conceptual map of ICT skills, 635
- confirmatory factor analysis, 495, 502, 504
- conflict situations, 56
- connectedness, 188–189, 191, 209, 340, 732
- Consecutive Model, 242
- constant change, 42, 43
- constructivism, 102, 222, 230, 680
- context-specific environment, 371
- contingent/idiosyncratic aspects of teaching, 575

- continuing professional development
 (C.P.D.), 599
 Continuous Development of Teachers, 7
 continuous social construction of
 knowledge, 372
 Coordinator of Field Experiences, 288
 costs, 37, 109, 159, 171, 366, 597, 644, 662,
 678, 728, 732
 counter-hegemony, 209
 Courses with field components, 289
 critical/social orientation, 243
 critical reflection, 352, 470, 498–501, 504,
 571, 588
 cross cultural transfer, 57
 cross-cultural classroom, 56
 cult of performativity, 194
 cultural capital, 34, 149, 153, 205, 207–208,
 210, 466, 473, 482
 cultural communication., 135, 136
 cultural competencies, 465, 473
 cultural differences, 41, 56, 71, 136, 670,
 729
 cultural gaps, 57
 cultural justice, 729
 cultural recognition, 729
 cultural sensitivity, 56, 60
 culturally democratic, 54, 61
 culture, 8, 9, 17, 25, 28, 30–34, 43, 45–48,
 50, 55–58, 60, 62–63, 76, 82, 89, 90,
 133, 145, 153–154, 160, 171–173,
 180–181, 231, 235–236, 284, 286–287,
 299, 302, 304, 321, 337–338, 347–348,
 355, 359, 370–371, 378, 424–425, 445,
 447, 450, 453, 455, 458, 461, 464,
 473–475, 479–483, 487, 490–491, 507,
 519, 531, 540, 542–543, 552–553, 562,
 565–566, 600, 604, 609, 627, 635, 644,
 651, 654, 657, 664–669, 671, 700, 711,
 729, 733
 culture of teaching, 445, 447, 519
 Culture shock, 284
 curricular transformation, 12, 229–230, 238
 curriculum, 9, 10, 16–19, 21, 25, 30, 33, 35,
 37–39, 46, 49, 57–61, 70, 72–74, 79,
 81–82, 85, 87, 91, 104–105, 108, 111,
 116, 123, 132, 139, 143–144, 148–149,
 152–154, 158, 170, 172, 193, 198,
 205–206, 230, 232, 236, 238, 245, 249,
 253, 268, 270, 274, 278–280, 283–285,
 320, 324, 332, 334–336, 340, 346, 348,
 350, 352, 354, 368, 372–374, 393–394,
 410, 417, 426–428, 437–440, 442, 445,
 447, 449–450, 452, 455, 465, 467–469,
 471, 479–481, 483–486, 489–491, 504,
 507–508, 510, 514, 518–520, 523–527,
 529, 531–537, 540, 544, 551, 558,
 562–563, 566, 588, 591–592, 597–601,
 606, 614–615, 628–629, 631, 633,
 636–637, 642, 644, 646, 650, 653, 657,
 662, 666, 671, 687, 699, 711, 712,
 714–716, 718, 720–721, 727, 730, 731,
 732
 Curriculum Development Council (CDC),
 507
 curriculum innovation, 18, 152, 540, 551
 curriculum reform, 17, 143, 507, 518,
 523–525, 531–533, 537

 data collection, 154, 223, 233–235, 250,
 372, 385, 466, 468, 470–471, 473, 475,
 519, 588, 616, 631, 636
 decentralization, 8, 51
 Delores Report, 59
 demographic changes, 15, 381
 desire, 12, 51, 86, 95, 169, 209, 221, 237,
 288, 332, 338, 368, 445, 463, 544, 577,
 578–580, 586, 619
 developing technologies, 4
 digital networked classroom, 712
 discipline, 12, 82, 97, 103, 109, 193, 237,
 242, 253–254, 256–258, 284, 286,
 319–320, 345, 347, 351–352, 355, 386,
 416, 479, 508, 528, 534, 536, 659, 731
 discipline knowledge, 731
 discourses, 26, 31, 142–143, 208, 573–575,
 577–578, 581, 601, 613–617, 621, 623,
 711, 712
 diverse population, 7
 diversity, 4, 8, 11, 30–32, 39, 58, 81, 90,
 109, 132, 135–136, 143, 170, 196, 199,
 228, 230–232, 284, 293–294, 296, 299,
 542, 547, 575, 629, 682, 686, 733

 early childhood educators, 675–677, 679,
 681–683, 687
 economic progress, 58

- economic success, 95
 Education Action Zone, 80
 Education Queensland, 209, 630–631, 633–634, 715
 educational benefits of ICTs, 628
 educational bureaucracy, 59, 595
 educational change, 99, 141–142, 303, 445, 450, 454, 585, 594
 educational reform, 9, 42, 47, 59–60, 98, 304, 381, 436, 445, 448, 539, 604, 642, 712
 educational targets, 54
 educator proficiency, 635
 effective teacher, 100–101, 198, 286, 353, 355–356, 359, 426, 465, 501, 607
 effective teaching practices, 288–289, 448, 455
 effectiveness, 4, 15, 19, 100, 103, 104, 106, 116, 141–142, 194, 245, 256, 258, 296, 344, 358, 381, 409, 412, 424, 433, 436, 457, 462, 465, 468, 472, 495, 574, 598, 603–605, 608, 680–682, 711, 716, 731–733
 efficacy, 12, 19, 33, 238, 466, 470, 472, 499, 513, 598, 603, 605, 607, 609
 elearner, 712
 eLearning, 715
 Elyer, 297
 emotional aspects of the classroom experience, 577
 emotional baggage, 575, 577
 emotional brain, 605
 emotional identities, 604
 English schools, 28, 79, 84, 113
 Entrepreneurial, 600
 Environmental Mystery Competition, 663–664
 ePortfolios, 641
 Essential Learnings, 193
 eteacher, 712
 Ethnicity, 56
 evaluation, 16, 21, 35, 49, 164–165, 168–169, 172, 222, 230, 241, 245–248, 250, 255, 257–262, 269–270, 275, 277–278, 302, 311, 322, 348, 354, 370–371, 373, 383, 409, 411, 414, 436, 437–438, 459, 474–475, 499, 510, 517–518, 523, 527, 535–536, 540, 597, 599, 645, 652, 654, 680–682, 687
 evaluation of professional development, 411
 evaluation tools, 474
 evidence of reflective practice, 574
 expatriate teachers, 44
 Expectations, 237
 Experience, 22, 163, 221, 268, 270, 272, 276, 503, 547, 558, 576, 586, 691–692, 698–699, 705
 experiential learning theory, 196, 495, 500, 503–504
 expert consensus building, 104
 expert knowledge, 99, 585
 expert/novice binary, 618
 expertise, 4, 26, 41, 43, 46, 49–50, 99, 139, 181, 241, 290, 311, 341, 346, 409, 417, 438, 462, 475–476, 509, 524, 541, 571, 601, 662–663, 695
 Facilitator, 274, 276, 470, 473
 Faculty, 15, 163, 168, 179, 183–184, 188, 216, 270, 273, 365, 369–371, 374, 705
 field and clinical experiences, 287
 Field Coordinator, 288
 field experience, 4, 194, 197, 200, 202, 245, 267, 268–270, 272–273, 277, 279–280, 283–284, 289–295, 299, 332, 334–335, 337, 341, 345
 field experience associate, 267, 269, 279
 field experiences and diversity, 284
 field placement, 12, 219, 221, 225, 269, 276
 field teacher program, 255, 262
 First Year Initiative, 182
 flexibility, 43, 104, 186, 196, 296, 475, 643, 676, 678, 687
 formative and summative data, 474
 four resources literacy model, 20, 615
 framework for Continuing Professional Development (CPD), 391
 Freedom Charter, 30
 future-oriented, 196
 gaze, 578, 580, 621, 623
 General Teaching Council, 122
 Global Classroom Project, 662
 global economy, 36, 727
 global market ideology, 57, 59
 globalisation, 37, 56–57, 127, 136, 141–142, 154, 727

- globalisation era, 142
 globalisation theories, 141
 Globalization and Diversity, 7
 group interaction, 12, 179
 Guangdong Province, 523, 526
- Her Majesty's Inspectorate, 113
 heterogeneous group, 185
 high performing countries, 96
 high quality pre-service programs, 4
 high quality teacher, 14, 96, 99, 100, 103–105, 226
 high stakes, 97, 98, 131, 445, 518, 597, 598
 Higher Education, 101–102, 113, 115–124, 158, 160–161, 169, 172, 256, 394, 437, 457, 573
 Higher Education Act (HEA), 101
 highly qualified beginning teachers, 285
 highly qualified teacher, 4, 96, 99, 101, 103, 109, 228, 285, 299, 317, 331
 holistic teaching, 46
 Holmes Group, 220, 243
 Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIED), 272
 Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR), 268
 human psyche, 579
- ICT, 4, 21, 80, 394, 437, 439, 440, 566, 627–637, 658, 670, 675, 677, 678, 711, 714–715, 718, 721–722, 732
 ICT curriculum integration, 628, 631
 ICT initiatives in educational systems, 631
 ICT integration, 627, 629, 631
 identification, 17, 104, 107, 122, 158, 216, 223, 393, 468, 474, 482, 510, 513, 579, 580, 608, 629, 662, 691
 Identity, 609
 idiosyncrasy, 575
 iEARN (the International Education and Resource Network), 661
 image-driven, 711, 712
 Impact of Technology, 7
 improvement of practice, 519
 independence, 138, 202, 467, 481, 535, 608, 705, 733
 independent learning, 193, 198, 586
 indigenous culture, 25, 56, 62, 665
 indigenous education system, 57, 59
 Indigenous knowing, 568
 Indigenous students, 664, 666, 670
 induction, 13–15, 46, 87, 98, 121, 241, 267, 317–328, 332, 341, 353–360, 366, 369, 381–385, 388, 391, 393, 397, 401, 404–405, 448, 732, 733
 Induction practices, 360
 induction programs, 317–318, 328, 353–354, 357–359, 369
 Information and Communication Technologies, 21, 627
 Information and Communications Technology in Education (ICTE), 711
 information technology, 234, 425, 437, 507, 511, 711, 732
 inquiry, 15, 29, 75, 171, 196, 198, 206, 220, 221, 223, 233, 242, 249, 267, 293, 303–304, 339, 370–371, 449, 470, 485, 496, 510, 519–520, 542–548, 550–553, 563, 568, 601, 613, 670
 inquiry as stance, 543
 inquiry learning, 196, 198
 Integrative Model, 241
 interactive technologies, 713
 Internet, 102, 248, 275, 627, 634, 636, 645, 657, 661, 671, 683–684, 713, 715–719, 721
 Internet capability, 627
 Internet technologies, 715
 Internship, 306–309, 312, 335, 691, 692, 698, 700, 701, 703
 Intrator, 539
 Introductory Professional Term (IPT), 270
 isolation, 84, 229, 231, 303–304, 345–346, 348, 353, 359, 368, 438, 446–448, 450, 540–541, 636, 706
- job satisfaction, 19, 87, 181, 415, 598, 603–605, 607, 609
 Johnson and Golombek, 544
- Kakala, 62, 63
 keeping in touch, 696
 Kennett government, 144, 146, 152
 Knowing, 74, 510
 knowing about teaching, 343

- knowledge, 4, 6–8, 11, 12, 16–20, 30,
 41–43, 51, 55–61, 63–64, 68–69,
 72–73, 75–76, 82, 84, 87–88, 97–112,
 122–124, 128, 131, 137, 139, 144, 153,
 158, 162, 167–168, 171–172, 180–181,
 183, 190, 196–199, 202, 205–207,
 210–216, 221–223, 227, 229–230, 238,
 241–242, 245, 247–252, 255, 273,
 276–277, 280, 284, 295, 298–299, 303,
 305, 311, 317–319, 324, 336, 340,
 344–345, 347, 349, 350, 355–356, 358,
 365–366, 370–375, 378–379, 387,
 409–415, 418, 421–422, 426–429,
 433–435, 448–449, 455, 459, 462, 466,
 473–476, 479, 480, 484, 488–490,
 496–499, 501–503, 508, 511, 518–521,
 526, 536–537, 541–543, 546–547, 550,
 551–553, 557–568, 571, 574, 585–587,
 590–593, 595–596, 600, 603, 606,
 613–615, 617–618, 622, 628, 632, 636,
 641, 658, 660–662, 667, 670, 672–673,
 675, 677–678, 680–681, 686, 693–694,
 699, 702, 712–713, 715, 717–718, 720,
 722, 731
- knowledge base, 17, 249, 250, 371, 473,
 476, 521, 595, 600, 670
- Knowledge Building Community, 372
- knowledge building communities, 196, 198
- leadership, 9, 26, 29, 32, 34–35, 39, 61, 71,
 79, 80–82, 84–89, 172, 227, 269,
 287–288, 296, 335, 356, 359, 409,
 416–417, 423, 426, 429, 434–435, 439,
 449, 451, 458–459, 461–463, 466, 470,
 473–476, 479, 512, 525–526, 532, 537,
 585–587, 591–592, 594–595, 607, 662,
 672, 676
- leadership skills, 296
- learning community, 90, 270, 273, 302–305,
 310–311, 313, 354–355, 452–453, 470,
 541, 660, 683
- learning culture, 43, 370, 458, 507
- learning objects, 712
- learning outcomes, 39, 60, 179, 273–274,
 305, 409–410, 412, 414, 509, 528,
 595–596, 623, 632, 682, 686
- learning society, 43
- learning technologies, 4, 20, 672
- learning to teach, 208, 244, 249, 343, 356,
 357, 692, 695, 703
- learning with computers, 629, 711
- Lesson study, 446, 451, 454
- Lewin Project, 667
- licensure, 97–98, 101–102, 106, 109, 317
- lifelong learning, 193, 422, 428, 642
- Life-wide, 514–515, 517
- Local Authority, 115, 394
- local communities, 54, 107, 111
- Lord Pearson, 114
- Mainland China, 18, 523, 538
- Management, 85, 164, 182, 246, 272, 306,
 309, 312, 396, 399, 458, 462
- managerialism, 8, 34, 131, 141–142, 150,
 152–153, 460, 599
- managerialist approach, 382
- Maori, 9, 12, 17, 67–76, 212, 229–, 239,
 465–468, 470–476, 479
- Maori development aspirations, 71
- Māoritanga (traditions, practices and
 beliefs), 480
- market, 3, 25, 57, 59, 81–84, 90–91, 117,
 131–132, 135, 142, 147, 151, 153, 385,
 435, 436, 441–443, 599, 683, 712, 731,
 733
- Market reputation, 151
- mathematics, 98, 109, 214, 250, 286, 413,
 445, 448, 454, 557, 565–566
- MCEETYA, 632, 634, 714
- meaning schemes, 572
- Memorandum of Understanding, 73, 76
- mentees, 179, 180–181, 183, 185–188,
 189–191, 321, 324, 377
- mentor teacher, 13–15, 219, 221, 268–269,
 272, 274–280, 304–305, 307–311, 318,
 321, 323–325, 374, 378, 528
- mentoring, 4, 12, 168, 179, 180–191, 198,
 205, 222, 245, 267–268, 274, 302,
 309–311, 328, 333, 341, 351–352, 354,
 369–370, 372, 378, 383, 389, 391, 426,
 428, 450, 651, 653, 692–693, 703, 705,
 732–733
- mentoring program, 179, 181–187, 189, 198,
 267
- mentoring role, 168, 186, 378
- mentorship, 182, 195, 277, 448

- meta-language, 205, 212–215
 Mind Mapping, 516
 Mindtools, 713
 minority students, 220, 466
 modus vivendi, 135–136
 moral purpose, 42, 51, 602, 604, 607
 motivation and commitment, 607
 multi cultural contexts, 466
 multiculturalism, 3, 76, 482, 490
 multimedia, 630, 635–636, 642, 713, 716
- Narrative, 543, 567
 narrative inquiry, 267, 543–545, 547, 552
 Nation at Risk, 283, 448
 National College of School Leadership, 16, 80
 national policy setting, 104
 National Reading Panel, 220
 national teachers, 44
 Network technologies, 713
 Networked Learning Communities, 16, 80, 83, 90–91, 434
 New Basics, 193
 New Labour, 82–83, 435
 new learning, 12, 184, 193–194, 196, 357, 508, 574, 637, 718
 new managerialism, 34, 141–142
 New Teacher in School, 113
 New Zealand, 9, 12, 17, 55, 57, 62–63, 67–69, 71, 229, 232–233, 236, 238, 465–467, 469, 472, 479–481, 483–485, 490–491, 628, 730
 No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, 101
 novice teachers, 13, 318–328, 332–333, 343, 347–348, 353, 447, 699
- Observation, 291, 335, 503, 510–511, 513, 516
 Observers, 395
 ongoing professional development, 4
 online communication, 632, 636, 657, 668, 714
 online community, 658, 671
 Online Initiatives, 714
 Online Writing Lab, 651
 outcomes-based approach to assessing students, 194
- Pacific Education Research Fund (PERF), 62
 Pacific Island schools, 57
 Pacific people, 55–57, 60, 62, 63–64
 Palmer, 180–181, 189–190
 participation, 12, 19, 33–34, 38, 47–48, 60, 70, 72, 133, 158, 168, 172, 190, 229–234, 270, 292, 295, 325, 351, 354, 411–414, 434, 438–439, 470, 472–475, 486, 508, 512, 518, 523, 525, 532, 537–538, 558, 561–565, 568, 618, 634, 642, 644, 659–660, 662, 664, 668–670, 672, 695, 702, 731
 participatory research, 19, 558
 partnership, 15, 54, 55, 60–61, 68, 71–72, 75, 91, 119, 124, 143–144, 173, 195, 219–220, 222, 227, 232, 245, 252, 270, 274, 287, 299, 301–302, 305–306, 309, 313, 333–334, 368, 371, 374–375, 377–379, 435, 437, 480, 487, 525, 533–534, 537–538, 565, 599, 702
 paternalistic culture, 50
 PAVOT (Perspective and Voice of the Teacher), 586
 pedagogical knowledge, 41, 247, 250, 473–474, 586, 731
 pedagogical power, 180, 190
 pedagogy, 6, 9, 12, 25, 51, 56, 102, 111, 143–144, 196, 205–208, 215–216, 223, 229–232, 235, 238, 245, 247–248, 250–251, 268, 285–286, 317, 335, 341, 344, 367, 427, 448, 495, 577, 581, 600, 606, 615, 634, 636, 669, 688, 694, 699, 711, 718, 721–722, 732–733
 perceived usefulness of observation, 394
 performance, 3, 9, 10, 12, 25–26, 35, 38, 45, 49, 54, 56, 72, 81–85, 91, 98, 100, 103, 105, 109, 116, 120–121, 129, 132, 147, 150–151, 153–154, 157, 160, 162, 167–169, 171, 190, 194, 199, 206, 220–221, 224, 231–232, 237, 243–246, 250, 255–256, 258–260, 267, 269, 275, 283–285, 287, 289, 311, 319, 343, 353, 356, 360, 387, 410, 418, 430, 441, 449, 455, 466, 489, 509, 512, 514–518, 520, 573, 575, 599, 601–602, 606, 608, 630–632, 651–652, 670, 694, 699–700, 703, 728, 730
 Performance Activities and Assessments, 288

- performance orientation, 147, 151, 153
 performativity, 81, 131–132, 194, 599, 601, 605, 608
 personal biography, 607, 609
 personal development, 106, 137, 243, 468
 personal orientation, 243
 personal practical knowledge, 546, 550, 552, 553
 policy borrowing, 37, 98
 policy debate, 98, 99, 143, 148
 policy maker, 3, 42, 50, 84, 95–100, 104, 106, 108–111, 131, 161, 317, 322, 343, 409, 429–430, 467, 475, 495, 504, 599, 727
 political involvement, 104
 politicalization of education policy, 107
 politicalization of teacher education, 10
 portfolios, 335, 636, 641–642, 644, 650, 652–653
 post-professionalism, 602
 power, 3, 7, 8, 10, 21, 29, 31–36, 41, 47, 49, 50, 68, 72, 83, 90, 97, 103, 115, 127–128, 138, 142, 180, 190, 230–231, 236–238, 296, 305–306, 371, 416, 480–482, 518–519, 535, 546–547, 549, 558, 562, 572, 599, 622–623, 628, 675, 706, 730, 733
 Practical orientation, 242
 practice settings, 17, 465
 practicum, 12, 22, 194, 199, 254, 267–268, 270–274, 276–280, 283, 291–293, 301–302, 305, 311, 341, 349, 366–368, 370, 372, 378, 448, 574, 691–696, 698–700, 704, 707
 preconceptions, 208, 572
 predispositions, 572
 premise reflection, 499, 500, 502, 504
 preparation of teachers, 96, 251, 283, 301, 365, 731
 pre-service education, 344, 346, 352, 355, 358–359, 614, 696, 722
 preservice program, 97
 preservice teacher education, 11, 179, 190, 301, 366, 628
 preservice teacher education students, 190
 pre-service teachers' (PSTs), 193
 Pressures, 681
 Problem-based learning, 372
 problem-solving, 193, 498
 productive pedagogies, 196, 206, 209–210, 214–215, 731
 professional climate, 474
 professional competence, 128, 382, 404
 professional consensus model, 106
 professional cultural capital, 149
 professional culture, 153, 154
 professional development, 4, 13, 15–17, 19, 39, 42–45, 47–51, 72–73, 81, 95–97, 100, 121, 162–172, 186, 206, 229, 238–239, 278, 289, 303–304, 352–353, 355, 357, 359, 381–383, 385–389, 391–392, 394, 402, 404–405, 409–418, 426–429, 434, 439, 446–447, 449–454, 457–458, 460, 463, 465–468, 470–476, 495, 507, 523, 525, 538–539, 544, 574, 599, 613–614, 618–621, 630–631, 633–634, 650, 684, 687, 707, 714, 733
 professional development model, 446
 Professional development programs, 445, 448
 Professional Development School, 219–220, 226–227, 270–271, 276
 professional experience, 17, 194–195, 198–199, 358, 367, 383, 404, 519, 571
 professional field, 153, 194, 197, 200, 202, 580
 professional growth, 17, 43, 274, 285, 302, 313, 318, 351, 354, 358, 369, 378, 523, 537, 594
 professional identity, 149, 154, 171, 343, 382, 600, 604, 607, 609, 732
 professional journey, 594
 professional knowledge, 16, 43, 99, 153, 247–248, 349, 365, 387, 411–412, 414, 418, 476, 543, 617
 professional learning, 16, 19, 42, 122, 197, 273–274, 301, 306, 354, 412, 441, 448, 471, 474, 520–521, 540–541, 545, 551–552, 571, 573, 592, 692–693, 695, 700, 703, 706–707, 732
 professional learning communities, 16, 471, 474
 professional positionings, 579
 professional practice, 194, 207, 343, 352, 393, 458
 professional selves, 603

- professional support, 345, 598, 732
 professional teacher, 103, 113, 241, 285,
 303, 322, 389, 542, 631
 Professional Teaching Portfolios, 269
 Professional Teaching Standards, 106
 professional values, 152, 607
 professionalism, 19, 41–45, 48–49, 51, 56,
 108, 119–121, 124, 152, 172, 249, 368,
 383, 416–417, 436, 442, 490, 597,
 600–602, 604, 606–608
 Proficiency, 635
 progressive educational practices, 143
 Project Learning, 508–509, 515, 517–518
 Promnitz & Germain, 1996, 232
 proximal development, 222
 public accountability, 19, 600, 608
 public education, 5, 6, 107, 228, 296, 455,
 727, 728
 pupil learning, 95, 98, 423

 Quality teaching, 466, 467

 Read to Achieve, 219–220, 222, 224,
 226–228
 reading, 20, 50, 72, 102, 109, 119, 220–222,
 224–226, 291–292, 413–414, 471, 507,
 540, 565–566, 604, 616, 618, 621, 636,
 651, 652, 669, 670, 679, 694, 720
 Recognition, 162, 628
 reflection, 15, 18–19, 22, 75–76, 167,
 197–201, 215, 219, 221, 223, 226–227,
 235, 269, 274–275, 279, 286, 289,
 295, 304–305, 310, 318, 324, 333, 352,
 378, 383, 393, 404, 411–412, 414,
 419–420, 423–424, 429, 435, 452–453,
 458–460, 468–470, 474–475, 495–504,
 508, 510–511, 513, 516, 519, 527–528,
 540–541, 544, 545–549, 552–553,
 557–559, 561, 564–565, 568, 571,
 573–574, 577, 581, 587–588, 620,
 645, 676, 691, 700, 702–704, 706–708,
 713, 732
 reflection on practice, 19, 571, 573
 reflection-in-action, 498–499, 516
 reflection-on-action, 498, 545, 552
 reflective approaches to teaching and
 learning, 195
 reflective journals, 286
 reflective practice, 18, 51, 196, 221, 268–269,
 378, 441, 442, 495, 504, 574, 581
 reflective practice discourse, 574
 reflective practitioner, 18, 19, 199, 310, 374,
 499, 578, 613, 614
 Reflective Practitioner, 7
 Reflective Professional, 247
 reflective teaching practices, 454
 reflective thinking, 17, 495, 498, 500–503
 Reform, 81, 206, 609, 637
 reform initiatives, 11, 42
 regional teachers' colleges, 54, 61
 regulation and autonomy, 128–129
 relationships, 12, 13, 29, 56–59, 63, 72–77,
 80, 83, 87, 122, 127, 131, 133, 179,
 182, 189, 195, 197, 210, 211, 229–232,
 235, 237–238, 267–269, 280, 308, 338,
 341, 349, 358, 366, 369, 373–375, 404,
 409, 415–416, 436, 443, 466–467,
 470–472, 476, 481, 495, 503–504,
 542–543, 550–552, 604–609, 615,
 618–620, 622–623, 628, 679, 681, 688,
 692, 694, 700, 706
 Research Lesson, 446, 453
 research methodology, 70, 473, 481, 484
 research-based approach, 105
 researching practice, 588
 retention, 12, 13, 15, 72, 82, 162, 179, 229,
 230–236, 238–239, 244–245, 267, 279,
 287, 318, 336, 355, 358, 381, 388, 435,
 448, 466, 468, 599, 608, 609, 732
 role expectations, 55, 56, 346, 348
 role of parents, 111
 role of schooling, 57
 role play simulation, 22
 role-models, 592
 Root, 299
 rote-learning, 45–46

 safe environment, 550, 552
 sanctions, 21, 56, 110
 scaffold for professional development, 405
 school and college partnerships, 220
 School Charter, 145–148, 151, 153
 school coordinators, 269, 280
 School Council, 147, 148, 151, 153
 school culture, 45, 47, 90, 145, 302, 304,
 347, 359, 474, 607

- school effectiveness, 4, 15, 141–142, 381
 school effectiveness and improvement, 15
 School Improvement Plan, 219
 School Improvement Team (SIT), 224
 school leaders, 32, 322, 323, 356, 359, 409,
 524–525, 532, 537
 School partners, 219
 school principals, 12, 150, 246, 255–262,
 273, 358–359, 525, 532, 537, 571, 614
 school university partnership, 13, 304–305
 school-based curriculum, 507
 School-based learning, 372
 school-based practioners, 222
 secondary teacher education, 54
 Secretary of Education, 4, 102
 self-esteem, 43, 167, 190, 345, 508, 531,
 590, 609, 696
 self-reflection, 420, 423–424, 429, 499,
 501, 508
 self-understanding, 19, 576
 Service Learning, 286–290, 292, 295, 651
 shared language, 474, 552
 situated learning, 196
 social capital, 133–134
 social influence, 609
 social justice, 29, 35, 70, 147, 151, 153, 296,
 434, 679
 social justice perspective, 151, 296
 social skills, 229, 442, 507, 657
 Stability, 376
 stakeholders, 21, 33–34, 54, 73, 83, 124,
 220, 255, 301, 306, 309, 311, 313, 343,
 374–375, 379, 382, 435, 460, 462,
 472–473, 475, 597, 608, 683, 685, 707
 stand-alone curriculum, 657
 Standardized tests, 98
 standards, 5, 6, 9, 10–11, 14–16, 18, 21, 26,
 38, 41–42, 82–83, 90, 98, 105–107,
 109, 110, 111, 113, 115, 116, 118–124,
 129–130, 157–162, 164, 166–167,
 169–173, 194, 198, 231, 237, 248, 275,
 283–286, 293, 321–324, 331, 340, 354,
 358, 367, 370, 381, 410, 417, 436, 442,
 455, 526, 575, 597–598, 601, 605, 609,
 629–630, 632–633, 642–643, 644, 646,
 651–654, 675, 687, 714, 728, 730
 Standards and Accountability, 7, 9
 standards of accreditation, 6
 STAR Reading Assessment, 224
 State certification, 101
 status for teachers, 5, 107
 Status of Teachers, 59, 129
 structural equation models (SEM), 501
 student achievement., 3, 18, 98, 220, 227,
 244, 409, 411, 445, 447–450, 466, 468,
 471, 474, 728
 student centred pedagogy, 143
 student learning, 4, 60, 95–96, 101, 104,
 108, 110–111, 206, 215–216, 270, 285,
 303, 312, 409, 411–414, 424, 445–447,
 449–450, 455, 467, 471–472, 476, 507,
 510–511, 514, 518, 523, 586, 601, 642,
 657, 712–713, 731
 student learning outcomes, 60, 409, 412, 414
 student participation, 12, 158, 229–230,
 232–234, 518, 642
 student performance, 3, 129, 352, 410, 449,
 466, 515, 517, 520, 528, 651
 systemic online initiatives, 633

 targets, 54, 83, 98, 110, 147, 153, 394, 449,
 508, 597
 Te Kauhua, 465, 469–471, 473–474, 476
 te reo Māori (the Māori language), 485
 Teacher as Learner, 526
 teacher attrition, 13, 317, 318, 320, 448
 teacher autonomy, 39, 441
 teacher certification programs, 246
 teacher commitment, 42, 162, 319, 388
 Teaching Commission, 286, 299
 teacher concerns, 415, 424
 teacher development, 16, 248, 277, 318,
 370, 426, 430, 450, 510, 544, 574, 599
 teacher education, 4, 6–13, 15–16, 18, 20–21,
 39, 45, 47, 54, 60–62, 70–71, 73–74,
 95–119, 121, 127–130, 132–134, 139,
 141–142, 179, 190, 205–208, 210, 227,
 241–244, 246, 249, 251–254, 258,
 267–268, 270–271, 279, 283, 285, 299,
 301–302, 304–307, 310, 313, 323,
 331–334, 337, 340, 341, 347, 350,
 353–354, 356, 359, 365–372, 375, 381,
 383, 419, 424, 426, 474, 479–480, 491,
 495, 504, 543, 566, 568, 573, 580, 613,

- 615, 619, 628–630, 634–637, 675, 691,
700, 704, 715, 717–718, 722, 727–733
- teacher education wars, 102
- teacher efficacy, 470
- teacher growth, 274, 524
- Teacher Induction, 7, 321, 392
- teacher isolation, 446, 450
- teacher knowledge, 101, 213, 250, 489, 541,
543, 590, 592
- teacher led professional development, 452
- teacher licensing, 108
- teacher numbers, 693, 728
- teacher preparation, 4, 12, 97, 100, 102,
104–106, 110, 124, 129, 220–222, 227,
241, 243–246, 249–252, 254, 256, 261,
283, 284–285, 299, 301, 317, 332, 340,
350, 356, 631, 731, 732, 733
- Teacher Preparation and Certification
Program, 285–286
- teacher professional development, 16, 43,
206, 409, 414, 427, 454, 465, 472, 476,
631, 714
- teacher professional identity, 149
- teacher professionalism, 41–42, 45, 48,
51, 108, 121, 152, 368, 417, 436, 597,
606, 607
- teacher proof, 16, 59, 445
- teacher quality, 3, 4, 12, 95, 100–101,
220–221, 283, 317, 728
- teacher research, 19, 221, 358, 440, 454, 543,
585–587, 591–592, 594–595, 613, 619
- teacher research process, 594
- teacher researchers, 19, 221, 454, 592, 595
- teacher retention, 245, 267, 287, 318, 448
- teacher satisfaction, 416–417
- Teacher Satisfaction Survey, 224, 226–227
- teacher shortage, 11, 13, 103, 327, 331,
333, 628
- teacher success, 16, 279, 344, 415–420,
422–426, 428–430
- teacher supply and retention, 15, 381
- Teacher Training Agency (TTA), 117, 124
- Teacher-centred learning, 670
- teachers, 3–22, 25, 27, 30, 31–32, 35,
37–39, 42–45, 47–51, 54–62, 64,
69–76, 79, 80, 82, 84, 86–91, 95–104,
106–111, 113–117, 119–124, 127–129,
131–133, 138–139, 141–144, 146–152,
154, 157, 162, 170–172, 182, 190,
193–194, 198–199, 201–202, 205–216,
219–222, 224–228, 230–232, 237–239,
241–262, 267–289, 291–293, 296, 299,
301–313, 317–328, 331–341, 343–360,
365–369, 371–372, 374, 377–379,
381–389, 391–394, 396–397, 400,
403–405, 409–430, 433–436, 438–443,
445–455, 457–459, 465–466, 468–476,
479–480, 484–487, 490–491, 495,
500–503, 508–512, 514–518, 520–521,
523–529, 531–544, 546–547, 552–553,
564–565, 568, 571–581, 585–588,
590–592, 594–609, 613–623, 627–637,
641–645, 647, 649–651, 653, 658–659,
661–662, 664–665, 667–672, 691–696,
698–707, 711–718, 720–722, 727–733
- Teachers as co-learners, 533
- Teachers as Leaders, 536
- teachers as professionals, 18, 45, 51, 119
- teachers as reflexive practitioners, 618
- Teachers as researchers, 249
- Teaching 124, 201–202
- teaching and learning, 12, 16–17, 19–22, 44,
55, 58, 60, 62–63, 90, 91, 111, 160,
166, 179, 182, 193–198, 200–201, 203,
215, 221, 248–249, 252, 334, 336, 339,
357, 376, 394, 404, 412, 435–436,
438–440, 442, 445, 460–462, 471, 476,
491, 507, 510, 514, 519, 521, 539–541,
568, 575, 577, 585–588, 591–592, 595,
598, 601–602, 605–606, 615, 628–629,
633, 635–636, 642–643, 652, 654, 657,
675, 678, 680, 686–687, 703, 711–712,
715–717, 731–732
- teaching commitments, 86, 383
- teaching methods, 10, 208, 246, 251, 257,
258–262, 351–352, 415, 422–424,
428–429
- teaching profession, 11, 14–15, 44–45, 99,
108, 113, 120, 122, 128, 153, 241–242,
253, 267–268, 271, 309, 318, 343–345,
349–353, 355, 358–359, 366–367, 385,
417, 490, 615
- teaching skills, 4, 43, 241, 273, 285, 345,
365, 421

- technician teacher, 102
 Technological orientation, 242
 Technology, 7, 22, 368, 437, 508, 628, 630, 633–634, 649, 711, 715, 721–722
 technology and assessment, 653
 technology in the classroom, 667, 712, 718
 telecommunications in teaching and learning, 657
 Temporary Certification, 6
 testing, 8, 26, 35, 98, 131, 153, 248, 250, 331, 413, 597–600, 606, 636, 663, 697, 731
 theory and practice, 199, 221–222, 365, 463, 468, 560, 585, 596, 650, 692, 694
 theory/practice binary, 615
 theory-practice gap, 585, 595
 thinking curriculum, 193
 time, 4, 6, 7, 11, 13–17, 19, 25–26, 32–33, 35, 42–43, 45, 47, 49, 50–51, 53, 56, 62, 63, 73, 79, 85–90, 97, 99, 100, 104–105, 109, 114–119, 122–123, 143–144, 146–148, 151–152, 161, 165, 167–168, 172, 179, 181–182, 184–185, 187, 190, 198–200, 207–210, 214, 225, 228, 234, 237, 241–242, 245, 247–248, 252, 268, 270–271, 276, 278–279, 283, 288, 296–298, 301–304, 306–308, 310, 313, 317, 320–322, 324, 333–334, 338, 340, 343, 347–350, 352, 354, 357–359, 366, 368–369, 372, 377–379, 382–386, 388–389, 391–392, 398, 400–402, 405, 410–414, 416–417, 424, 426, 429–430, 436, 440–442, 446–448, 451–453, 455, 458–460, 463, 467, 470, 472–475, 483, 496, 498, 499, 504, 509, 511, 513, 514, 517–520, 523–524, 527–528, 531–538, 541, 544–550, 557–559, 563, 565–566, 568, 572, 575–576, 578, 587–588, 590–591, 593, 599, 602–607, 613, 616–618, 620–622, 629, 635, 641, 643–644, 646–647, 649–653, 657–658, 661–662, 664, 668–669, 671–672, 675–676, 678, 680, 682–683, 685–688, 691–692, 695, 698, 699, 701, 703–704, 706–707, 715, 718–720, 728
 traditional programs, 109, 110, 271
 traditional teacher education programs, 109
 Training & Development Agency for Schools (TDA), 124
 transformation, 12, 28, 33, 35, 55, 168, 229, 230, 236, 238, 250, 365, 496–497, 503, 542, 564–565, 628, 707, 727
 transformational potential of ICTs, 628
 transformative learning theory, 495, 499–500, 503–504
 transition from pre-service training, 15, 343, 353
 Treaty of Waitangi, 9, 69, 479–480, 484, 486–491
 Trust, 189, 376
 U.S. Department of Education, 285, 317, 649
 uncertainty about finding work, 392, 404
 UNESCO Chair, 60–61
 university facilitators, 13, 15, 267, 269, 278, 280, 374, 375
 unqualified teacher, 383
 Values, 35, 393, 507, 508, 528
 values education, 18, 523–526, 528–529, 531–535
 valuing teacher research, 586
 varied demographic conditions, 3
 Virtual community, 660
 Virtual Schooling Service, 633, 634
 vision, 33, 43, 47–51, 69, 90, 190, 230, 309, 310, 339, 348, 359, 455, 461, 482, 514, 539, 541, 594, 607, 635, 652, 654
 webfolio system, 21, 642, 645, 647, 649, 651, 653, 654
 Webfolios, 644
 Wells, 21, 541, 551, 552
 Wenger, 196, 541, 542, 543, 550, 552, 660, 667, 702
 Whitehurst, 103
 whole school experience, 268
 Winstanley College, 460, 462–464
 worker productivity, 95
 workload, 15, 84, 86–87, 91, 158, 184, 305, 328, 345, 383, 385, 387, 417, 425–426, 429, 463, 509, 511, 517, 687, 702
 World Bank, 98, 727
 World Wide Web, 684, 715, 719, 721
 World Wide Web (WWW), 684